

THE STATUS OF RECENT EXPERIMENTAL, EMPIRICAL, AND RHETORICAL
STUDIES IN THE TEACHING OF PERSUASION

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The problem with which this study was concerned was that of determining the status of recent experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies in the teaching of persuasion.

The purpose of the study was to answer the following questions: (1) To what extent is persuasion taught in the majority of the senior colleges? (2) Is the teaching of the theories based on experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies? (3) To what extent is the stress on the students' practice of persuasive skills used in the teaching of persuasion? (4) To what extent are efforts made to fuse both theory and practice? (5) What textbooks are predominantly used? (6) What other materials besides textbooks are used? (7) What area within the speech discipline do the teachers identify with most? (8) Are measuring techniques taught in the course? (9) To what extent are the following experimental, empirical, and rhetorical categories used in teaching persuasion? (a) Learning theories, (b) Balance theories, (c) Attitude-attitude change, (d) Source credibility, (e) Group norms, (f) Layouts of argument, (g) Evidence, (h) Audience analysis, (i) Organization, and (j) Fear appeals.

The primary instrument for collecting data was a questionnaire composed of eighty-five items. This instrument provided the descriptive data used in the study. It was sent to 300 speech teachers in senior colleges and universities in the United States. Findings were based on data obtained from 60 per cent of the respondents.

The results of the study are included in Chapter III. Included are (1) Selection and Description of the Respondents, (2) Description of the Instrument, (3) Treatment of Data, and (4) Use of Experimental, Empirical, and Rhetorical Studies.

The answers to the questions asked in the purpose of the study were as follows: (1) Persuasion is taught in the majority of colleges and universities. (2) The majority of the teachers use experimental studies in the teaching of persuasion. (3) The majority of the teachers teach a course including both theory and performance. (4) The majority of the teachers require one to four speeches a semester. (5) A wide range of textbooks is used. The majority were published after 1960. (6) Teachers use a wide diversity of material to supplement the required textbook. (7) Teachers of persuasion identify mostly with the speech areas of public address, rhetorical theory, communication theory, and behavioral science. (8) The majority of the teachers teach measuring techniques in their course. (9) Experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies were used between "sometime" (3) and "often" (2). The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they used each study by

indicating: (1) extensively; (2) often; (3) sometimes; (4) seldom; (5) none.

Conclusions drawn from the findings and recommendations generated by this research constitute Chapter IV. Following examination of the textbooks and data gathered from the respondents, it was concluded that experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies are being used by the majority of the respondents. The majority of the respondents are also combining the teaching of these studies with some emphasis on performance.

It was recommended that continuous study be done in the area of teaching persuasion. The present study shows the persuasion teachers to be in a state of flux and indecision. A study five years from now might indicate more succinctly the direction we should be taking. It should indicate whether or not we continued to view performance as an important factor or forsook it for the pursuit of more theory.

It was recommended that textbooks need to be written that would better meet the needs of both the student and the teacher of persuasion.

A replication of this study was recommended for other courses in the speech discipline, such as fundamentals of public speaking, discussion, voice and diction, and business speech.

THE STATUS OF RECENT EXPERIMENTAL, EMPIRICAL, AND RHETORICAL
STUDIES IN THE TEACHING OF PERSUASION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Persuasion as a field of study has a history of over 2500 years. Since the time of Aristotle, rhetoricians have sought to answer questions pertaining to influencing their fellow man. Aristotle relied heavily on philosophy as a basis for his analysis of rhetoric, as did those who came after him, Cicero and Quintilian. Throughout history, other rhetoricians such as St. Augustine and Peter Ramus of the medieval period, Thomas Wilson, of the Renaissance era, and Francis Bacon of the seventeenth century, also explored the knowledge of other disciplines in order to answer these questions.

In the eighteenth century, George Campbell, influenced by two philosophers of his day, David Hume and John Locke, turned to faculty psychology and offered new approaches to the understanding of human conduct; consequently, he contributed new insights to rhetoric and audience adaptation.

In the twentieth century, James Winans offered his theory of persuasion which focused on attention. This theory was based directly on the psychology of William James who asserted that "What holds attention, determines

action" (9, p. 40). Also in the twentieth century, Charles Henry Woolbert developed a theory of persuasion which made him the first true "behaviorist" rhetorician. He relied heavily on Watsonian behaviorism which was developed at Harvard at the time he received his Ph.D. there.

I. A. Richards, semanticist and psycho-biological thinker, and Kenneth Burke, an English professor and socio-psychological rhetorician, have been credited with adding still newer dimensions to the field of persuasion.

Recently, a wealth of quantitative research has appeared in the field of speech, most of it in the past twenty years. It grew out of the need for new approaches to existing ideas, as well as for new theories. The studies of the codifiers are numerous, but no one appears to have come up with a new theory as complete as that of Aristotle.

Thus, today, teachers of persuasion have at their disposal the contributions of the classicists, the behaviorists, the communication theorists, the new philosophers, and the social scientists.

It seems that the availability of such multitudes of information poses a dilemma for the teacher of persuasion. With such a wealth of material within one's reach, certain questions come to mind. "With so much ground to cover,

how much time should I spend on performance, if any?" "How much of the vast material available should I include in my course in persuasion?" "What textbooks should I use?" "Where should I place my emphasis?" "How can I effectively fuse together the available material into a meaningful collage?"

Even though there is much talk about this problem among teachers of persuasion, there is little written about it. The only clues lie in the numerous articles and textbooks which have appeared. New terminology and new concepts have been developed or borrowed from other disciplines. Field theory, the cognitive-dissonance theory, motivational theory, consensual validation, the Toulmin model, the paradigm of persuasion, and source credibility are a few examples of the new theories in the expansion of persuasion theory.

At this point, the questions arise: "What are teachers of persuasion doing?" "How much influence, if any, has the new research had on the teaching of persuasion?" A shift of change is occurring in our literature. Is a concurrent shift occurring in the teaching of persuasion?

Statement of the Problem

It was the problem of this study to determine the status of recent experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies in the teaching of persuasion. An instrument was

devised which included studies related to ten major categories traditionally covered in the persuasion course.

Purpose of the Study

It was the purpose of this study to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent is persuasion taught in the majority of the senior colleges?
2. Is the teaching of the theories based on experimental, empirical, and/or rhetorical theories?
3. To what extent is the stress on the students' practice of persuasive skills used in the teaching of persuasion?
4. To what extent are efforts made to fuse both theory and practice?
5. What textbooks are predominantly used?
6. What other materials besides textbooks are used?
7. What area within the speech discipline do the teachers identify with most?
8. Are measuring techniques taught in the course?
9. To what extent are the following experimental, empirical, and rhetorical categories used in teaching persuasion?
 - a. Learning theories
 - b. Balance theories
 - c. Attitude-attitude change

- d. Source credibility
- e. Group norms
- f. Layouts of argument
- g. Evidence
- h. Audience analysis
- i. Organization
- j. Fear appeals

Background and Significance of the Study

There is agreement among teachers of persuasion that the student of persuasion must see the matrix of influence in which he finds himself. He must see that persuasion is a way of life, that democracy itself is a system of competing persuasions, and he somehow must come to terms with this fact. The concepts pertaining to how to "come to terms with this fact" have evolved throughout the twentieth century.

There has been a slow change of emphasis in the course in persuasion since James A. Winans changed the fate of speech away from the elocutionary trend of the nineteenth century. In 1915 he published a text, Public Speaking, based on the theory of attention of William James. One of his central statements was, "Persuasion is the process of inducing others to give fair, favorable, or undivided attention to propositions" (9, p. 40). His book devotes much space to how the speaker may gain and maintain the

audience's attention. This was the first theory of persuasion in the twentieth century based on psychology.

Winans had spoken of the conviction-persuasion duality, which meant to distinguish between something like "logical argument" which ostensibly produced "conviction" and emotional appeal which was said to produce "persuasion" (9, p. 40). Charles Henry Woolbert was a chief attacker of Winans' theory. He referred to the dichotomy as "psychologically unsound" and pedagogically undesirable (9, p. 40). In four articles in the Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, Woolbert presented his theory of persuasion, which was fairly sophisticated for its time. In talking about audience analysis, he said the speaker must base his appeals on audience "stimulators," which are what we now call "drives" (9, p. 42).

In 1935 William Norwood Brigance re-examined the Winans theory, not seeking to discredit it, but only to carry it further. Changes had occurred since 1915 in the psychology of attention and persuasion. Brigance (6) pointed out that James and Winans viewed persuasion primarily as a mental process colored by emotional influences. "The more generally accepted view today (1935)," says Brigance (6, p. 21), "is that persuasion takes place not on an intellectual level, but on a motor level." Some psychologists of Brigance's day, such as the behaviorists

and Gestaltists, denied the existence of any "mind" or mental life whatever. Thus, according to this concept, persuasion took place on a motor level and involved an interplay of the conscious and unconscious, the mental and the muscular. The psychology of attention was also being negated by psychologists and learning theorists. Behaviorists and Gestaltists of that day claimed that attention was an outworn term and was therefore unnecessary. Watson said, "we don't need the term" (6, p. 21). Kohler scorned it as "so-called attention" (6, p. 21).

The psychologists of Brigrance's day had many areas of discord, but they did agree on one area of human behavior. They agreed that the dominant basis of human belief and action was desire. Psychologists Joseph Jastrow, Edwin B. Holt, William McDougall, and R. S. Wheeler all stood on the same common ground (6, p. 23).

Robert S. Woodworth summed up all their thinking by stating, "So far as it is possible for us to influence other people and control their behavior, it is by controlling their desires and purposes" (6, p. 23). Because of these and other findings, Brigrance (6) defined persuasion as a process of vitalizing old desires, purposes, or substituting new desires, purposes, or ideals in place of the old ones. So a change of emphasis occurred from

the stress of attention to desire. Both concepts were found in the textbooks, however.

Persuasion: A Means of Social Control by Winston Brembeck and William S. Howell (5) was a new text published in 1952. It was performance-oriented in concept and was extremely comprehensive in nature. Brembeck, one of the co-authors of the text, suggested ways of teaching persuasion in an article in the Quarterly Journal of Speech in 1960, but his stress was on delivery and practice. He mentioned experimental research only in reference to items five and six, in which he stated (3, p. 217):

5. Ethos must be given thorough theoretical and extensive practical treatment.
6. Successful persuasion is, to a great extent, dependent upon accurate audience or persuadee analysis.

He alluded to the valuable research that has been done in marketing, but other than that, no other studies were mentioned. In contrast, Brembeck (4), in a speech at the Central Speech Association in 1964, four years later, again addressed himself to the subject of teaching persuasion, but some significant changes were noted. He stated that there must be a review and appraisal of the ever-increasing literature relative to the theories of human behavior. He elaborated by saying (4, p. 278):

In this review there should be an awareness of, but not slavery to, the astute observations made by such classical writers as Plato, Aristotle,

and Quintilian. This review will need to include the views of many modern philosophers, psychologists, and rhetoricians regarding behavior theory. In doing this, one will have to come to terms with behaviorism, social interactionism, field psychology, the disequilibrium theory of motivation, the theory of cognitive dissonance as espoused by Festinger, the identification concept of Kenneth Burke, and others.

Later in his address, he alluded once again to the "growing body of experimental literature" (4, p. 282) in persuasion. He admonished the teacher to distill those items relevant to the theory and practice of modern persuasion. Even though Brembeck recognized the need for us to become aware of the "growing body of experimental literature," there has been no revision of his text to include such literature. Howell, the co-author with Brembeck stated in a conversation with this writer that they expected to come out with a revision of the text in 1973 (12).

Because many rhetoricians have not given directions regarding the use of this experimental, empirical, and rhetorical literature, we still have the problem of what to do with this diffusion of material. Since Brembeck's article and speech, dissertations and journal articles based on the findings of the experimentalists in the speech and adjacent fields have flooded the journals, abstracts, and some texts. No suggestions have been made, however, as to the extent of implementing these into a course of study in persuasion.

In 1952 Robert T. Oliver's (19) text, The Psychology of Persuasion, was published and subsequently revised in 1960. Unfortunately, as in the case of the Brembeck and Howell text, no real revisions dealing with the new experimental findings were included. He gave credence to some new research, but continued to emphasize performance. His emphasis on performance is noted in his preface, where he stated (19, p. viii):

Neither has the author deviated from his view that persuasion is an advanced course in speech--in the chapters on delivery and organization, it is presumed that students will already have studied these topics on an elementary level in beginning courses. Rather than repeating what they ought already to know, the chapters carry them forward to specialized considerations applying especially to persuasive discourse.

Oliver (19) also included an emphasis on style which is deleted from some of the later texts. James McCroskey (15) commended Oliver's book as "an attempt to integrate concepts of identification, suggestion, attention, and rationalization into a comprehensive theory of persuasive communication . . . his work had a major influence in the middle of the twentieth century" (15, p. 17). McCroskey implied that there was a wane in Oliver's influence, but he offered no comment as to who took his place of influence.

In the 1960's, new textbooks were written which reflected the experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies

done up to this time, still newer studies were contributed to the field, and dissertations were written which further added to the deluge of information at the disposal of the teacher of persuasion.

In this study, it was revealed what recent concepts were most frequently used and what philosophies were most often embraced.

Definition of Terms

Persuasion -- a course in speech in which one studies discourse in which the communicator attempts to control appropriate communication variables in an effort to determine the response of the receiver.

Theoretical approach -- an approach to teaching persuasion which stresses the knowledge and understanding of the theories of persuasive events.

Traditional approach -- an approach to teaching persuasion which emphasizes proficiency in oral discourse.

Limitations of the Study

This study was subject to the following limitations:

1. This study was subject to all the limitations concomitant to research data collected by mailed questionnaire.

2. This study was only concerned with the course of persuasion as it is taught in senior college programs in the United States.

3. The study was limited to persuasion as it is taught in a separate course and did not include persuasion when taught as a unit in other courses.

4. The study included only those who were teaching persuasion or who have taught it within the last three years.

Basic Assumptions

1. The respondents answered the items of the questionnaire honestly.

2. All stated objectives were actually followed by the teacher of persuasion.

Procedures for Collecting Data

The primary instrument for collecting data was the questionnaire. (App. I) The content of the questionnaire was based on a survey of current literature in the professional journals, interviews with experts in the teaching of persuasion, and an analysis of current textbooks in persuasion.

A jury of five judges was selected to test the validity of the questionnaire. This jury consisted of members of the speech-communication faculty of North Texas State University and Midwestern University. They were requested to respond to the questionnaire indicating whether they thought each item was valid for use in the

study, invalid for use in the study, or whether they were unable to make a decision. Three out of the five judges had to have agreed that an item was valid for use in the study in order for it to be retained in the questionnaire.

The test-retest method to test reliability was used on the instrument of the study. Twenty subjects were used. These subjects were chosen from the membership of the Southern Speech Communication Association. A coefficient of .80 was needed to establish reliability. Reliability was established at .9975.

The subjects of the study were contacted by mail. A stratified random sample of 300 people were chosen from the senior colleges and universities in the United States having programs in speech-communication. The stratification was based on the members of institutions in (1) New England, (2) Middle States, (3) North Central, (4) Northwest, (5) South, and (6) West. (App. II) Appropriate follow-up letters were sent until sixty per cent of the respondents reacted to the questionnaire.

Procedures for Treatment of Data

Questions one through nine, stated in the purpose of the study (page 4 of Chapter I), were answered by descriptive data attained through the questionnaire as follows:

1. Question one was answered by data obtained through questionnaire items 6 and 7.

2. Question two was answered by data obtained from questionnaire items 17 through 85.
3. Question three was answered by data obtained from questionnaire items 12, 13, 14, and 15.
4. Question four was answered by data obtained from questionnaire items 12 and 15.
5. Question five was answered by data obtained from questionnaire items 3 and 4.
6. Question six was answered by data obtained from questionnaire item 5.
7. Question seven was answered by data obtained from questionnaire items 10 and 11.
8. Question eight was answered by data obtained from questionnaire item 16.
9. Question nine was answered by determining the mean rating of the respondents to questionnaire items 17 through 85.

Summary

Theories of persuasion have been influenced by other disciplines since the time of Aristotle. As new theories concerning the behavior of man emerged, concurrent theories in the teaching of persuasion were devised which reflected them.

The theories used in the first half of the twentieth century were largely classical in approach. They were

classical in the sense that they were based on the five-fold division of rhetoric as crystallized by Cicero: invention, disposition, style, memory, and delivery. Within the canon of invention was included the study of ethos, pathos, and logos. The early experimental studies were based on the canons and the elements of invention, but the experimental studies of the seventies have gone beyond the classical canons.

At present, the speech discipline is flooded with empirical, rhetorical, and experimental studies influenced by other disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, sociology, and general semantics. The communication theorists have adopted instruments of study from other disciplines and applied them to the speech discipline and specifically to the techniques of influencing and understanding man's attitudes and beliefs.

The question this study has attempted to answer is: How much influence has all this research had on speech pedagogy and specifically to that of the teaching of persuasion?

A questionnaire was devised and sent to a representative sample of persuasion teachers in an effort to discern how much influence the new studies have had on the actual pedagogical process in teaching a basic course in persuasion.

Questions one through sixteen of the questionnaire were analyzed through descriptive data and items seventeen through eighty-five were analyzed by determining mean scores.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A study of the status of experimental, rhetorical, and empirical studies in the teaching of the course of persuasion must recognize the textbooks which are most prevalently used and which are important contributors to the philosophy of the teacher and the significant studies used as examples by the authors. The first division of this chapter will include a description of all the studies included in the instrument. Since these studies play a significant role in most of the new textbooks, they are being presented first to provide a better understanding of the forthcoming textbook analyses. The second division of this chapter will be related to the philosophy and content of those persuasion books most commonly used.

There have been many dissertations written in the field of persuasion, but they are similar to the studies included in the questionnaire and do not relate directly to the subject of source content. Sample titles of these studies are: (1) "An Experimental Study of the Relationship Between Fear Appeal and Topic Importance in Persuasion" by Clyde W. Colburn (18), (2) "An Investigation of Interpersonal Persuasiveness as a Factor of Personality" by

Wilbur J. Osborne (61), (3) "A Study of the Effectiveness of Various Positioning of Ethical, Logical and Emotional Arguments in a Persuasive Speech" by Don Richardson (65), and (4) "The Effect of Message Order in Controversial Material on Attitude and Retention" by Terry Welden (86).

Only one other study has been done relating to course content in teaching persuasion. It is entitled "The Current Status of Persuasion Courses in American Colleges and Universities" by Robert J. Kibler, James W. Gibson, and Eugenia C. Hunter (43). Their findings revealed how many schools offered persuasion, how many students were enrolled, what were the assignments, and how the students were evaluated. Gibson, one of the authors, admitted that they had failed to get to the root of specific materials and course content. Their findings concerning the textbooks used in their study had a bearing on the textbooks chosen for review in this chapter. The Kibler, Gibson, and Hunter study will be referred to from this point on as the 1965 study.

A Description of the Experimental, Empirical, and Rhetorical Studies Included in the Questionnaire

Sixty-seven studies were included in the questionnaire used in this study. Since the data in subsequent chapters refers to these studies individually, a brief description of each will be included in this chapter for the purpose of clarification.

The studies were chosen for the questionnaire from ten units of study usually included in any persuasion course. The ten categories were: (1) Learning theories, (2) Balance theories, (3) Attitude-attitude change, (4) Source credibility, (5) Group norms, (6) Models and layouts of argument, (7) Evidence, (8) Audience analysis, (9) Organization, and (10) Fear appeals.

The first category, learning theories, included six theories.

1. Kurt Lewin's (13) field theory — Lewin's field theory of human behavior conceived of the organism as operating in a fixed life space. The boundaries were defined psychologically by the organism's potential and motivation for response and environmentally by the response possibilities present at any moment in life space. Tensions were set up when attractive goals were present in the life space, but social and environmental factors created avoidance impulses. Tensions were also created by barriers that prevented the attainment of goals. Behavior was represented as movement within the life space according to goal-defined attractions and repulsions (57, p. 36).

2. Jerome S. Bruner and Leonard Postman's (64) hypothesis theory — Bruner and Postman re-examined the experimental evidence concerning the effect of needs and values on perception and advanced a theory which eliminated

the concept of sensory threshold as a causation factor affecting the speed of perception. They called it the hypothesis theory. They contended that perception consisted of three steps. The first was the hypothesis itself. The individual always expected the factors in his environment to "be" or "represent" something. The second step was referred to as the input stage in which all sensory information was received from the environment and recorded in the central nervous system. The third step was referred to as confirmation. The information flowed to the nervous system and thus confirmed or infirmed the expectancy (58, p. 39).

3. B. F. Skinner's (78) theory of behavior — Skinner differentiated between two types of learning models: Type S and Type R. Type S learning corresponded to classical Pavlovian conditioning in which one stimulus for eliciting a response was substituted for another. Type R, or operant conditioning, was held by Skinner to be more important. In operant conditioning, a stimulus was presented and when the appropriate or correct response was made, it was rewarded or reinforced in some way. Over a period of time, responses became habitual, relatively automatic, and non-critical (11, p. 53).

4. Gestalt theory (13) — The Gestaltists formulated a series of laws of perception: similarity, proximity,

Pragnanz, closure, good continuation, and membership character. Similarity meant that similar items tended to form groups in perception. Proximity meant that closed areas were more stable than unclosed ones. The law of Pragnanz stated that if a stable field was disorganized when a person first experienced it, he imposed order on the field in a predictable way. Closure meant that perceptual groups were favored according to the nearness of their respective parts. Good continuation was closely related to closure. It meant that one tended to continue straight lines as straight lines and curves as curves. According to the law of membership character, a single part of a whole did not have fixed characteristics; it got its characteristics from the content in which it appeared. The parts, in other words, were defined by their relation to the whole (13, p. 266).

5. Abraham Maslow's (50) hierarchy of values -- Maslow viewed man as born with certain needs which existed in a hierarchical relationship. Once a person had largely met his deficient motivations (physiological, safety, love, self-esteem, self-actualization), he would be motivated primarily by growth or "self-actualization" (5, p. 57).

6. Floyd Allport's (3) personality theory -- Allport suggested an "open system" theory of personality that fit the requirements of a dynamic concept of motivation. He

defined a system "merely as a complex of elements in mutual interaction," but he distinguished between an "open" and a "closed" system. A closed system admitted no outside energies. Open systems included both intake and output of matter and energy; there was an achievement of homeostasis; there was an increase of order over a period of time; and there was extensive transactional commerce with the environment (58, p. 213).

The second category of the questionnaire included three balance theories.

1. Fritz Heider's (34) theory -- The term balance was initially associated with Heider. This approach focused on the desire of people to have congruent beliefs about an object or event. An attitude was presumed to contain both affective and belief elements. When these elements were consistent, the attitude was stable, but when the individual's tolerance limit was reached, an attitude became unstable. Thus a change in attitude occurred as a result of either changing cognition or changing feelings (5, p. 59).

2. Leon Festinger's (23) theory of cognitive-dissonance -- To Festinger, dissonance or imbalance was not a factor in cognitive adjustment until after a commitment or decision had been made. The situation before decision was characterized by conflict rather than dissonance. Conflict occurred when the person was confronted for the first time by two mutually incompatible response tendencies;

the evaluating at this time was unbiased. Once a decision had been made, the situation changed. When ill-fitting or incongruous information was received in the post-decision state, the additional information gathering and evaluating coincided with the existing attitude (58, p. 114).

3. C. E. Osgood and P. H. Tannenbaum's (62) principle of congruity — The authors forwarded Heider's theory and expressed the view that human beings developed an elaborate battery of cognitive units or attitudes about people, ideas, and events. Once formed, these cognitive structures comprised a built-in standard by which subsequent cognitions were judged. Congruent or well-fitting cognitions were easily assimilated. Incongruent cognitions upset the balance of the unit and created tensions that motivated restoration of balance (58, p. 112).

The third category of the questionnaire included studies relating to source credibility.

1. Franklin S. Haiman (32), "The Effects of Ethos in Speaking" — Haiman used one tape and played it for two groups. Their speakers were supposed to be the Surgeon General of the United States, Secretary of the Communist Party, and a student at Northwestern University. The topic of the speech was socialized medicine. The results of the study showed more attitude change for the group hearing the Surgeon General. The study indicated that source credibility can result in attitude change (58, p. 163).

2. Kenneth E. Andersen and Theodore Clevenger (6), "A Summary of Experimental Research in Ethos" -- These authors examined a very large number of published and unpublished studies in speech, psychology, sociology, and education. They evaluated the studies and synthesized the findings. Two major findings represented here were: (1) Ethos did not appear to affect learning and (2) Factors that did not appear to affect ethos were giving both sides, citing sources of evidence, conciliatory remarks, and obvious attempts, such as self-praise (84, p. 54).

3. Phillips R. Biddle (12), "An Experimental Study of Ethos and Appeal for Overt Behavior" -- This study gave evidence to the fact that one could predict that subjects' attitudes toward the attitude object or object concept should be a function of the sum of the products or the strength of each belief multiplied by the attitude toward the attitude or motivational concept (19, p. 124).

4. Bradley S. Greenberg and Gerald R. Miller, "The Effects of Low Credibility Sources on Message Acceptance" -- The authors hypothesized that a normative standard may operate in which sources not personally known to the receivers were evaluated in a positive manner (11, p. 232).

5. Jim Lemert (46), "Dimensions of Source Credibility" -- Lemert, along with David K. Berlo, performed factor analyses of subjects' ratings of sources on semantic

differential scales. He reported finding four factors significant enough to mention, which were trustworthiness, competence, dynamism, and sociability (19, p. 173).

6. James C. McCroskey (52), "Scales for the Measurement of Ethos" — The author measured the ethos of hypothetical speakers, tape-recorded speakers, televised speakers, and live speakers. Factor analysis of the data consistently produced two factors. These dimensions of ethos were labeled authoritativeness and character. The items which appeared to be related to good will or the intention dimension of ethos were consistently represented on the character dimension. The conclusion was the good will or intention was important, but not independent of the other two dimensions of ethos (51, p. 61).

7. Carl Hovland and W. Weiss (36), "The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness" — The authors used written communication label high and low credible magazine writers. They found that opinions were changed immediately after the communication in the direction advocated by the writer to a significantly greater degree when the material was presented by a trustworthy source than when presented by an untrustworthy source (11, p. 164).

8. Irving Lorge (47), "Prestige Suggestion and Attitude" — Lorge's study related to the effect of reputation on the acceptability of passages that were variously

attributed. The following is a sample statement used.

"I hold it that a little rebellion, now and then is a good thing, and is necessary in the political world as storms are in the physical." Subjects agreed with the statement when it was attributed to Jefferson, but disagreed when it was attributed to Lenin. The study supported the idea that ethos springing from known reputation had a positive effect on persuasion (11, p. 165).

9. Harry Sharp and Thomas McClung (72), "Effect of Organization on the Speaker's Ethos" — The authors' examination supported the concept that subjects exposed to a disorganized speech thought less of a speaker after hearing him speak, than before. Students listening to the organized speech shifted insignificantly in their attitudes toward the speaker (84, p. 57).

10. Stanley Paulson (63), "The Effects of the Prestige of the Speaker and the Acknowledgement of Opposing Arguments on Audience Retention and Shift of Opinion" — The result of this study was that ethos was not significantly related to retention. The "both sides" speech did not produce a significantly greater shift of opinion than the "one side" speech (84, p. 55).

The fourth group of studies in the questionnaire related to attitude-attitude change.

1. Carl Hovland and Irving L. Janis (35), Personality and Persuasibility — Many writers have indicated that certain persons were more persuadable than other persons. Without regard to topic or situation these people will manifest a greater tendency to shift attitudes. This personality characteristic was examined by Hovland and Janis. Their results supported indications that the predisposition to change opinion was not wholly specific to the topic or subject matter of the communication (5, p. 89).

2. Daniel Katz (39), "Functional Approach to Attitude Change" — Katz, a psychologist, suggested in this study that attitudes performed four basic functions: (1) an adjustive or instrumental function, (2) an ego-defensive function, (3) a value expressive function, and (4) a knowledge function. He discussed the conditions which led to the formation arousal, and change of attitudes performing each function (71, p. 26).

3. Carolyn Sherif, Muzafer Sherif, and Roger Nebergall (74), Attitude and Attitude Change — These authors hypothesized that attitudes could be defined in terms of latitudes of acceptance, rejection, and non-commitment. For instance, a series of statements concerning a topic was presented. The subjects were asked to indicate all the statements that they accepted as descriptive of their position, and then they were asked to

indicate all the statements they rejected. All other statements fell into the category of non-commitment. Some individuals had a wide attitude of acceptance and wide latitudes of rejection. A frequent pattern was for people who were committed to one extreme end of the continuum to have a rather narrow latitude of acceptance and wide latitudes of rejection (1, p. 87).

4. Robert P. Abelson and Milton J. Rosenberg (1), "Symbolic Psychology: A Model of Attitudinal Cognition"-- This study was an elaboration of an earlier study. It was an attitude study which revealed the way in which the attitude structure operated. They first measured the subjects' feelings toward such concepts as increased foreign aid, increased U. S. prestige, and increased taxation, as well as their perceptions of the relationships between these concepts. They took subjects who felt that foreign aid would bring about U. S. prestige. The subjects were then hypnotized and left with post-hypnotic suggestions relating to foreign aid which were negative in nature. Some changed their beliefs to the opposite one and even gave very imaginative arguments for their new found beliefs (19, p. 63).

5. Franklin H. Knower's Attitude Studies (44, 45)-- The studies conducted in 1935 and 1936 were the first attitude studies. The first study was concerned with the effect of oral argument on attitude. The result was that

one-third of the women made a statistically significant change in attitude as compared to one-fifth of the men. The second test dealt with printed argument. The women made a greater change than the men, but statistics were not used to arrive at the conclusions (84, p. 45).

6. Martin Fishbein (24), "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Beliefs About an Object and Attitudes Toward an Object" — In this study, Fishbein gave a concise explanation about the distinction between an attitude and a belief. His basic premise was that a subject's attitude toward a concept was based upon the attributes the subject believed were related to it. A belief may be measured by asking a subject to indicate the strength of his belief in assertions about the existence of relationships between the concept and the attributes (19, p. 63).

7. C. E. Osgood and P. H. Tannenbaum (62), "The Principle of Congruity in the Prediction of Attitude Change" — The authors defined congruity as whenever one object of judgment was associated with another by an assertion, its congruent position along the evaluative dimension was always equal in degree of polarization to the other object of judgment and in either the same or opposite direction (19, p. 52). When a respected person took an unfavorable stand on a topic, incongruity developed

or positions on the attitudinal continuum that were either closely approximate to or far removed from the person's own position, the judgments displayed assimilation and contrast effects. Individuals tended to displace positions or people that were close to their own position by judging them as closer to their own position than they really were. That is assimilation. In dealing with points further removed from their attitudinal position, a contrast effect set in. Individuals or positions more removed were perceived as being farther away (5, p. 86).

12. Irving Sarnoff, David Katz and Carl McClintock (70), "Measurement of Ego Defense as Related to Attitude Change" — The authors found that those who were moderately ego-defensive or authoritarian were especially responsive to messages which attempted to attach racial prejudice by giving insight into the mechanism of repression and reflection. The inference is that it may sometimes be more useful to help ego-defensive subjects recognize the motives underlying their attitudes and belief structures than to attack their beliefs with factual information (19, p. 133).

The fifth category of the questionnaire included eleven studies which applied to organization.

1. Ernest Thompson (83), "An Experimental Investigation of the Relative Effectiveness of Organizational Structure in Oral Communication" — The author discovered

that subjects who listened to a better structured communication consistently and significantly scored higher on the immediate retention test than did subjects who listened to an ill-structured speech. The same trend was observed in delayed retention results, but the difference was not significant (84, p. 43).

2. Arthur Cohen (17), "Need for Cognition and Order of Communication as Development of Opinion Change" — Cohen tested a pattern of argument consisting of need-arousal information followed by need-satisfaction information against the arrangement in reverse order. Significant differences in favor of the need-arousal/need-satisfaction order appeared immediately effective after the communication and for as long as three months (11, p. 67).

3. W. McGuire (54), "Order of Presentation as a Factor in 'Conditioning' Persuasiveness" — The author tested the hypothesis that when messages supporting the likelihood of pleasant contingencies were presented first and those supporting the likelihood of unpleasant contingencies offered later, a greater total amount of agreement with the content would be evoked than when the message elements were reversed (11, p. 262).

4. Herbert Gulley and David K. Berlo (31), "Effects of Intercellular and Intracellular Speech Structure on Attitude Change and Learning" — Pyramidal, climax, and

anticlimax order, each with both deductive and inductive arrangements, effected significant changes in attitude in all six experimental groups used. They found that material which occurred in initial or terminal positions could not be successfully contrasted, but material that appeared in the middle was least effective in altering attitude (5, p. 163).

5. Carl Hovland (37), "The Order of Presentation in Persuasion" -- The Hovland group at Yale conducted an extensive series of studies on the primacy-recency issue and found that the generalization that primacy was favored in retention or attitude shift was not supported. This was true when certain arguments were found more powerful, whatever the position (5, p. 163).

6. Howard Gilkinson, Stanley F. Paulson, and Donald E. Sikkink (28), "Effects of Order and Authority in an Argumentative Speech" -- Both attitude shift and retention in the findings were insignificant. The authors regarded the consistency of trends favoring anticlimax as important, though not statistically significant (84, p. 69).

7. Jerome S. Bruner and C. D. Goodman (15), "Values and Needs as Organizational Factors in Persuasion" -- The authors, working with ten year old children, discovered that poor children overestimated the size of coins more frequently than rich children and that a group estimating

the size of cardboard discs rather than coins did not exhibit overestimation (58, p. 37).

8. Alfred Lumsdaine and Irving Janis (48), "Resistance to 'Counterpropaganda' Produced by One-Sided and Two-Sided 'Propaganda' Presentations" — In this study the same speaker in two radio speeches argued that it would be at least five years before Russia could produce an appreciable amount of atomic bombs. One of the communications was one-sided. The other considered and refuted opposing arguments. One week later half of the respondents were exposed to a speech expressing the opposite point of view. The authors' conclusion was that a communication is more effective in the long run if it presents and discusses the opposing arguments than if it presents only the arguments supporting the speaker's conclusions (58, p. 264).

9. Donald E. Sikkink (76), "An Experimental Study of the Effects on the Listener of Anticlimax Order and Authority in an Argumentative Speech" — In this study there were no significant differences between the four persuasions on any dependent measure of persuasiveness, either immediate or delayed. The four presentations were anticlimax authority, anticlimax non-authority, climax authority, and anticlimax authority (84, p. 69).

10. Raymond G. Smith (79), "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Speech Organization Upon College Speech

Students" — Smith discovered that moving a single main part of the speech did not affect persuasiveness, but greater degrees of lack of organization of the parts had an adverse effect in one experiment and not the other (84, p. 66).

11. Henry Sponberg (81), "A Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Climax and Anticlimax Order in an Argumentative Speech" — The author developed a speech on war-time marriages with three supporting arguments designated weak, medium, strong. In one speech the order was weak, medium, strong; the other, strong, medium, weak. A shift of opinion measure was applied to two audiences who heard the speaker. The measure indicated that the strong, medium, weak order was more effective than the reverse order (58, p. 260).

Six studies related to the significance of fear appeals in persuasive discourse comprised the sixth category of the questionnaire.

1. Gerald Miller (55), "Studies in the Use of Fear Appeals" — Miller gave synopses of seven studies, none from the speech field. Fear arousing stimuli, he suggested, were a conglomeration, and one did not know which stimulus was responsible for the results. Most studies cited suggested that a strong fear appeal was not effective in producing the desired audience response, but according to Miller, this conclusion was tempered by personality

in the subject. In order to establish congruity he must either think less of the source or alter his stand on the issue.

8. Arthur R. Cohen (16), "Attitude Change and Social Influence" — Cohen concluded that solution-problem order confused listeners as to the purpose of the message and did not succeed in altering attitudes (19, p. 197).

9. Muzafer Sherif and Carl Hovland (73), "Social Judgment" — The third study in this section explains the application of the social judgment theory. The authors have attempted to explain the relation between an individual's initial attitude and his responses to messages urging varying degrees of attitude change (5, p. 86).

10. Milton J. Rosenberg's (67, 68, 69) attitude studies — The model proposed by Rosenberg began with the assumption that an individual had cognitive elements which were described as his perception of objects, persons, and ideas, and that there were relationships which were positive, negative, or null. He attributed to attitude two components which he termed cognitive and affective. These appeared to be identical to Fishbein's components, "belief" and "attitude" (19, p. 62).

11. Theory of Assimilation-Contrast (73) — This was the method of measurement of Sherif and Hovland's social judgment scale. When persons were asked to judge people

differences of individuals, the relevance of the subject and the values held by audience members (84, p. 51).

2. Leonard Berkowitz and David Cottingham (10), "The Interest, Values, and Relevance of Fear Arousing Communication" — The two authors used strong and mild threat appeals to induce drivers to wear seat belts and found that inexperienced drivers were more affected by the strong appeal. This study contradicted the findings of Janis and Feshbach, which will be the next experiment discussed (58, p. 241).

3. Irving L. Janis and S. Feshbach (38), "Effects of Fear Arousing Communication" — Three lectures were made to high school students concerning oral hygiene using strong, moderate and minimal fear appeals. The greatest amount of conformity came from the minimal appeal. Intense fear arousing communication seemed to cause inattentiveness, create attitudes of aggression toward the speaker, and brought about intense defensive-avoidance reaction (58, p. 240).

4. Gerald Miller and M. Hewgill (56), "Some Recent Research on Fear Arousing Message Appeals" — This study was one of ten experiments performed by the authors which linked effectiveness of fear appeals to the credibility of the source. In this particular study they arrived at the conclusion that in a strong fear/low credibility

situation, the fear appeal failed because the respondents restored cognitive balance by degrading the message source (58, p. 241).

5. Margaret Duncan (22), "Fear Arousing Appeals in Persuasion" — Miss Duncan's study was another reaction to the Janis and Feshbach studies. She suggested that since the subjects were high school students, it was likely that the strong appeal was the subject of ridicule. Anyone who took the strong fear appeal seriously may have been subject to disapproval (19, p. 181).

6. Robert P. Singer (77), "The Effects of Fear Arousing Communication on Attitude Change and Behavior" — Singer's study was one of many that the results were contradictory to the initial studies of Janis and Feshbach. It confirmed the idea that the reduction of a strong drive had greater effect upon acceptance of recommendations than did reassurance following mild warnings (84, p. 182).

The seventh category of studies related to group norms.

1. H. H. Kelley (40), "Two Functions of Reference Groups" — Kelley stated that a group functioned as comparison reference group for individuals to the extent that behavior, attitudes and/or other characteristics of its members represented standards in which they used in making decisions (11, p. 30).

2. A. E. Siegel and S. Siegel (75), "Reference Group, Membership Group and Attitude Change" — These authors conducted a study using college women and compared the degree they were influenced by membership and non-membership groups. They concluded that they were influenced by both groups. The non-membership groups they used were the groups to which the subjects aspired and these groups seemed to be more influential in altering attitudes than the groups with which they were associated (11, p. 44).

3. R. F. Bales and E. F. Borgatta (9), "Size of Group as a Factor in the Interaction Profile" — The authors conducted this study with group sizes of two to five members. They concluded that smaller groups inhibited overt disagreement and expressions of dissatisfaction from group members more than did larger groups. The communicator that left a small group thinking the group agreed with him may have only experienced the reluctance of the group to engage in active disagreement (11, p. 201).

4. E. J. Thomas and C. F. Fink (82), "Effect of Group Size" — Thomas and Fink have conducted numbers of studies related to group size. They suggested that group size had a significant effect on both individual performance and group performance, on the nature and kind of interaction that occurred, and on various psychological variables (11, p. 202).

5. Solomon Asch (8), "Effect of Group Pressure Upon the Modification and Distortion of Judgments" — In this study, Asch asked groups of twelve subjects to match the length of a given line with three unequal lines. Eleven of the twelve subjects were geared to give incorrect answers which contradicted the twelfth member's senses. The majority gave correct answers, but thirty-two percent shifted to the position of the majority (58, p. 152).

6. R. S. Crutchfield (20), "Conformity and Character" — This study was one of several that supported Adorno's F Scale test of authoritativeness to be discussed later in this chapter. His conclusion was that highly authoritarian individuals were more persuadable only when the persuader had high prestige (19, p. 131).

7. Robert Sommer (80), "Small Group Ecology" — Only recently have researchers begun to design experiments with group ecology as the major independent variable. Results have shown that spatial arrangement was a function of group task, the personalities of the individuals, the degree of relationship of the individuals, and the amount and kind of available space. The resulting arrangement in turn affected communication. Knowledge of small group ecology helped in developing a theory of social relationships that included the environment in which the interaction took

place as well as principles for designing functional environments from the standpoint of human relationships (80, p. 145).

8. Floyd Allport (4), "Concept of the Group Mind" — Most writers agreed that individuals behaved differently in a group than when alone. Le Bon suggested a mystical "group mind" which possessed the group member and made him extremely suggestible. Allport attacked the concept of the group mind and introduced the theory of "social facilitation" as an important agent in group responses (58, p. 68).

9. Henry Moore (59), "The Comparative Influence of Majority and Expert Opinion" — Moore's study confirmed other findings that all groups were subject to majority opinion with adults being less susceptible than younger persons. His study dealt with three types of judgment: (1) linguistic, (2) ethical, and (3) musical (19, p. 152).

10. H. H. Kelley and E. H. Volkart (41), "The Resistance to Change of Group Anchored Attitudes" — This study was concerned with the reactions of a Boy Scout troop to a communication criticizing woodcraft and urging more involvement in town activities. This message ran counter to group opinion. Two scales were used: an attitude scale showing shift of opinion toward the communication and a scale indicating the degree of feelings

of values toward membership. These were compared. The result was that the greater the degree of valuation of membership, the stronger a person's endorsement of its aims and purposes (58, p. 157).

Four studies were included regarding evidence.

1. William Dresser (21), "Effects of Satisfactory and Unsatisfactory Evidence in a Speech of Advocacy" — Dresser discovered that college students were no more influenced by satisfactory evidence than by unreliable evidence, irrelevant evidence, or internally inconsistent evidence (58, p. 128).

2. Charlotte Gilson and Robert P. Abelson (29), "The Subjective Use of Inductive Evidence" — The authors stated that there had been an overemphasis in psychological literature of the role played by motivation in determining the acceptance or rejection of assertions. Studies of concept information usually involved the recruitment of a hypothesis to account for given evidence, but they were concerned in this study with the recruitment of evidence to test a given statement. They spoke of "subject-specific" and "object-specific" evidence. The study revealed that listeners tended to generalize more when they heard "object-specific" series or assertions than when they heard "subject-specific" assertions; however, they generalized most when a combination of the two types of assertions were used (19, p. 190).

3. James C. McCroskey (53), "Studies of the Effects of Evidence in Persuasive Communication" -- McCroskey's studies confirmed the following hypotheses (58, p. 129):

(a) Audiences perceived qualitative differences in the use of evidence in persuasive speaking.

(b) Good use of evidence increased the perception of authoritativeness.

(3) Speeches which included good use of evidence produced a more significant attitude shift than those which did not use good evidence.

4. David Anderson (7), "The Effect of Various Uses of Authoritative Testimony in Persuasive Communication" -- This study supported Dresser's findings and refuted McCroskey's. Anderson found no significant persuasive superiority for a speech with clearly identified evidence over a speech without such evidence (58, p. 129).

Four outstanding studies dealing with audience analysis were those of Adorno, Rokeach, Broadbent and Furbay.

1. T. W. Adorno (2), The Authoritarian Personality -- There were many approaches to the study of dogmatism. Adorno measured authoritativeness by the F scale. Authoritarian personalities tended to judge items in terms of values of references determined by groups or people

that were accepted for defining standards. The authoritarian personality was very concerned with power and power relationships (5, p. 89).

2. Milton Rokeach (66), The Open and Closed Mind — Rokeach presented his study of dogmatism through a concept of "open-mindedness." The structure of beliefs was composed of primitive beliefs (related to physical and social reality and self); intermediate beliefs (concerned with what one sets as his goals, limitations, and self-definition based on experience); authority beliefs (beliefs as to what authorities we can and cannot trust); peripheral beliefs (beliefs which come from those we accept as authorities); and inconsequential beliefs (those beliefs that make no difference to the individual) (5, p. 90).

3. D. E. Broadbent's (14) theory of perception — The author viewed attention as a filtering process in which a channel such as the ear was protected from overloading which made it highly inefficient and sometimes inoperable. When a variety of messages impinged on the sense organs, the organism selected one to which it attended. According to Broadbent, this selection depended on two factors:

- (1) certain stimulus properties, such as intensity, and
- (2) certain drive states of the organism (58, p. 55).

4. A. Furbay (26), "The Influence of Scattered vs. Compact Seating on Audience Response" — In this experiment

Furbay used a communication that was largely factual but included a reasonable balance of emotional appeals. He discovered that members of a scattered audience were more persuaded than a compact audience (58, p. 72).

The two final studies were layouts of argument.

1. Stanley Toulmin's (85) scheme of argument--

Toulmin believed that the traditional syllogism formulized argument in a way that was not evident in actual argument. He felt that it emphasized formal validity instead of the preferred material validity. Toulmin conceived of argument laid out and having three indispensable elements: (1) evidence, (2) warrant, and (3) claim. In addition, sometimes support was added to the argument or evidence to strengthen the warrant. Reservations were conditions implied before conclusions followed. Qualifiers were limitations placed on the probability of the application of the conclusion (58, p. 146).

2. Gary Cronkhite's (19) paradigm of persuasion--

The basic paradigm of persuasion was viewed by Cronkhite as that situation in which a persuadee attempted to cause a listener to perceive a relationship between two stimuli. One stimulus was that which was relatively neutral, in that it elicited few responses, or was one that elicited behavior the speaker wished to change. Cronkhite called this the "object concept" or the "object stimulus."

The second stimulus was a "motivational stimulus" or motivation concept which the listener already looked on favorably and the speaker endeavored to cause the listener to perceive a relationship between the object stimulus and the motivation stimulus. The individual who wished to persuade another had to choose motivational concepts which consistently elicited strong behavior from the listener and he had to demonstrate that the motivational concepts were related to the object concepts so that the listener responded to the object concept as strongly as he did the motivational concept.

Cronkhite's paradigm was similar to the Toulmin layout in that between the object concept and the motivational concept existed the data, warrant, claim, etc. (19, p. 85).

Review of Persuasion Textbooks

The descriptive study begun in 1964 by Kibler, Gibson, and Hunter (43) included information concerning textbooks and supplementary material used, but it did not appear to be significant enough for the authors to include in their journal article on the study. In examining their complete data furnished by the senior author (Kibler) (42), it was discovered that when the respondents were asked what texts they required, those most used were the following:

Minnick, Art of Persuasion (1957)

Oliver, Psychology of Persuasive Speech

Austin and Freeley, Argumentation in Debate

Brembeck and Howell, Persuasion, Means of Social
Control

Supplementary materials included the above plus the following:

The Quarterly Journal of Speech

Aristotle's Rhetoric

Packard's The Hidden Persuaders

In the short period since 1964, none of these textbooks seemed to be widely used. Wayne Minnick's textbook published in 1957 revealed some references to experimental studies, however, he showed a strong reliance on them. All texts were reviewed with regard to the extent which the new empirical, experimental, and rhetorical studies were used to support their concepts. Since Minnick's 1957 text was widely used in 1964, and since Minnick appeared to change positions in his 1968 text, both editions will be reviewed in this section.

The Art of Persuasion by Minnick, published in 1957, was divided into twelve chapters, as follows (57, p. v-vii):

1. Persuasion in Society
2. How Behavior is Determined
3. Getting and Holding Attention
4. Insuring Accurate Perception
5. Winning Belief: The Opinion of Others

6. Winning Belief: Argument
7. Winning Belief: Personal Experience
8. Winning Belief Through Wants and Values
9. The Emotions
10. Discovering and Overcoming Obstacles to Action:
Audience Analysis
11. Discovering and Overcoming Obstacles to Action:
Organization
12. The Ethics of Persuasion

His references included other speech texts such as William Norwood Brigance, Speech Composition (57, p. 10), Robert T. Oliver, The Psychology of Persuasive Speech (57, p. 25), Brembeck and Howell, Persuasion: Means of Social Control (57, p. 57), Aristotle's Rhetoric (57, p. 112), and McBurney, O'Neill and Mills, Argumentation and Debate (57, p. 57). Allusions were also made to psychologists such as Gordon Allport and William James. Learning theory, behavior theory, reason-impulse theory, and field theory were discussed, but there was no reference to specific theories and how each explained human behavior.

Some experimental studies were referred to such as some 1949 studies on ethos, Hovland, Janis and Kelley's Communication and Persuasion, and other studies relating to source credibility, psychology of belief, speech organization, and audience interest from such sources as Public

Opinion Quarterly, Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Psychological Review, Speech Monographs, and the Journal of Psychology.

Minnick's (57) goal in this book was to convey the fact that

. . . persuasion is a complex thing that one who would persuade requires knowledge about attention, perception, credibility, basic needs, values and emotions, plus the ability to recognize and deal with obstacles to action (57, Preface).

In contrast, Minnick stated new objectives for his 1968 edition of The Art of Persuasion (58, p. iv):

In the Second Edition of The Art of Persuasion I have attempted to formulate a rhetoric of persuasion built on non-Aristotelian premises derived from behavioral studies and theoretic constructs in the fields of communication and psychology. Such a theory uses information concerning the interaction between man's perceptive-cognitive processes and his motivational system. In this theory the concurrent processes of attending and perceiving are crucial because of the selective and substantive effect they have on the meaning a receiver gives to a persuasive communication.

This text was composed of eleven chapters which are as follows:

1. Persuasion and Authority
2. Theoretic Bases of Persuasion
3. Attention: The Tuning Process
4. Instating the Intended Hypothesis
5. Confirming Hypotheses --Cognitive Support
6. Confirming Hypotheses --Consensual Support

7. Confirming Hypotheses -- Previous Confirmation
8. Confirming Hypotheses -- Motivational Support
9. Confirming Hypotheses -- Emotion: A Special State of Motivation
10. Overcoming Obstacles -- Strategy and Audience Analysis
11. The Ethics of Persuasion

The only chapters that remained almost identical to the 1957 text were the first chapter on society and authority and the last chapter on ethics.

In Chapter Two, "Theoretic Bases of Persuasion," specific theories emerged, such as Claude Shannon's Mathematical Model of Communication, William MacDougall's motivational-cognitive theory, Kurt Lewin's field theory, and J. S. Bruner and Leonard Postman's hypothesis theory.

Studies by Heider, Festinger, Janis and Feshbach, Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall, McCroskey, and Toulmin were referred to in the chapter on cognitive support.

The studies of Asch, Moore, Kelley and Volkart, Haiman, Andersen and Clevenger, Hovland and Weiss, Sharp and McClung, and Greenberg and Miller were just some of the studies alluded to in the chapter on consensual support.

J. F. Dashiell, D. O. Hebb, R. L. Isaacson, Matthew Hutt, Melvin Blum, Charles Osgood, and Edward Prothro were behavioral psychologists supporting the concepts presented in the chapter on previous confirmation.

Gordon Allport, Norman Munn, Richard Stagner, and Clarence MacDougall's psychological theories were used to support the premises in the chapter on motivational support.

The effects of fear arousing appeals appeared in the chapter on emotion, which also included studies by psychologists previously mentioned. The fear arousing studies were contributed by Miller and Hewgill, Berkowitz and Cottingham, and Janis and Feshbach.

Studies dealing with the law of primacy-recency and with game theory were presented in the chapter concerned with strategy and audience analysis. Some of the studies were contributed by Sponberg, Cohen, McGuire (primacy-recency), and J. Von Neuman and Owen Morgenstern (game theory).

In Minnick's (58) latest edition, classical theory was not deleted, but it found itself couched in a new setting. Instead of the traditional use of emotional, logical, and ethical proofs, they were observed from frames of reference such as cognitive, consensual, and motivational support. Minnick (58) seemed to envision the course with little or no performance included, since so much more theory was included in the later text, however, he still made suggestions for speech assignments in his section called "Exercises," just as he did in the

first edition. The text can be used for a course completely theoretical in approach or one which is a combination of theory and performance.

Perspectives in Persuasion by Wallace C. Fotheringham (25) was published in 1966. Fotheringham (25) said that the teacher of persuasion was deluged by a "cafeteria of concepts." He alluded to the various definitions of persuasion as representatives of the variety of concepts. This can and has led to confusion. If there was no common basis for identifying persuasive events, then it became difficult to communicate hypotheses, conclusions, and implications about persuasion (25, p. 5). Discussion degenerated into dogmatism with many speakers and not many listeners. These differences in definitions revealed differences in emphasis rather than contradictions. In general, however, they admitted to persuasion as a means of influence. Some stressed the attempt to employ persuasive means, others the stimuli involved, and others the ability to use those means. Taken together, the definitions offered no common basis for identifying a unified concept in the teaching of persuasion.

Fotheringham (25) said it was impossible to stress all aspects adequately in one textbook (25, p. xiv):

The choice has been made to emphasize the functions associated with the sources of persuasion. Receiver and monitor functions will be discussed insofar as they interact with and contribute to an understanding of source efforts.

Fotheringham drew his resources from communication specialists, rhetoricians, semanticists, psychologists, sociologists, educators, industrial economists, business organization experts, and others.

Fotheringham was aware of two problems facing the teacher of persuasion. The first was concerned with the diversity of the writings and the vocabularies employed. The second problem was concerned with the degree in which hypotheses in the new literature were supported by carefully obtained evidence (25, p. xiv). In his textbook he endeavored to employ a consistent vocabulary throughout and to use only those studies which he felt had been carefully substantiated. His text was divided into three parts: Part One emphasized effect, such as the instrumentality of effect, the relevancy of effect, and the dominance of message effect in persuasion; Part Two dealt with the potential and limitations of persuasion; and Part Three dealt with the role of functional analysis in persuasion. At the close of each chapter there were comprehensive summaries, but no suggested exercises for the student. There was no mention of performance in this textbook.

Thomas M. Scheidel (71), in his text Persuasive Speaking (1967), expressed the frustration of all who endeavor to teach persuasion when he said in his preface (71, Preface):

My motivation for producing this work . . . stems from the frustration I have experienced during my twelve years of teaching, when confronted by the diffusion of the available materials on persuasive discourse. All too many textbooks present overly generalized approaches, rely on outdated research, and stress prescriptions rather than principles for speech behavior. Other references provide a catalogue of "hard" facts -- the findings of current research on particulars -- but these scholarly works seldom integrate the facts in a way which allows the student to see the "forest." Still other materials present theoretical approaches to attitude organization and change, but fail to relate their descriptions of "effects" with the speech behaviors that produce those effects.

In his text, Scheidel (71) had attempted to write about persuasion rather than a manual of prescriptive suggestions. His writing reflected that he was mindful and appreciative of the contributions of Aristotle and other classical writers on rhetoric. He stated that his emphasis was upon the process of persuasion viewed as an ongoing activity (71, Preface). Even though he had a very good section on classical background, most of his book stressed the psychological-epistemological bases of the phenomena.

He applied the familiar studies of Hovland, Sherif, Katz, Bruner, Maslow, Allport, Berelson, and Asch. He also included the Toulmin layout and a reference to Kenneth Burke. At the close of his book, he included materials for analysis, deliberation, and discussion, which included speeches, essays and letters. There were no suggested exercises for the student. Performance was not mentioned in this textbook.

Persuasive Speaking: Theory, Models, Practice by Patrick O. Marsh (49), published in 1967, was in sharp contrast to the textbooks heretofore mentioned in this chapter. It was designed for those intending to give major addresses, with emphasis on the development and polish of 30 to 60 minute speeches. His approach was basically the approach used by Quintilian to train Roman orators. It was a study of theory that had been proven throughout the centuries. It was a study of models of successful speakers and provided directions for practice which enabled the precepts to be transformed into skills (49, p. xiii).

There were suggested exercises and supplementary readings at the ends of the chapters. The only references to experimental literature were found in the supplementary reading lists. Here, one found the familiar studies used actively by other authors, such as Asch, Gilkinson, Hovland, Andersen and Clevenger, Bettinghaus, Gulley and Berlo, Sikkink, and Sponberg. Most references alluded, however, to Quintilian, Brembeck and Howell, and Oliver.

The basic approach in Erwin P. Bettinghaus' (11) book, Persuasive Communication, was behavioral and the basic literature was derived from the literature of the behavioral sciences. Most of the literature came from scientific research in psychology, social psychology, communication, sociology, psycho-linguistics, and anthropology. These

contributions had been used so extensively that it was impossible to name even a representative number of contributors.

This text stressed learning and balance theories. It acquainted the student with source credibility research, status research, opinion leadership research, similarity research, and charismatic research. He dealt with the importance of language and the structure and channel of messages. These had been dealt with by other writers, but not from the purely behavioral viewpoint. The last part of the text treated the problem of group and organization persuasion.

There were questions for discussion at the close of each chapter. It was obvious that this book was designed for a course composed only of theory, but could be used in a course including performance. A large number of the studies included in the questionnaire used in this study were included in the Bettinghaus text.

Persuasion: Speech and Behavioral Change was written by Gary Cronkhite (19) in 1969. It was, as the title indicated, another behavioral approach to the teaching of persuasion. Cronkhite (19) explored the nature and problems of persuasion by delineating the processes of communication research. He saw persuasion, not as a body of rules, which if followed led inevitably to power and

influence, but as a set of unanswered (and sometimes unasked) questions and a series of techniques for ferreting out the answers and directions (19, p. v). Emphasis in this book shifted from what had been discovered about persuasion to the question of how persuasive effects could be described and tested. This textbook was extremely "studies" oriented and would lend itself only to those teachers using the theoretical approach.

First of all, Cronkhite (19) defined persuasion as it was used in the course of his text, and then he presented a fairly comprehensive treatment of classical rhetorical theories which included I. A. Richards, Kenneth Burke, and the Toulmin layout.

Psychological theories were presented, including Heider's balance theory, the congruity hypothesis of Osgood and Tannenbaum, Festinger's theory of cognitive-dissonance, and Hovland and Sherif's social judgment theory. Unique to this text was Cronkhite's paradigm of persuasion which will be described later in the chapter.

There was a chapter which dealt with testing. Therein, Cronkhite (19) discussed the meaning of the level of significance, validity and reliability, parametric, and non-parametric statistics. His was the only persuasion textbook that dealt with testing and measuring techniques. In this category he included a description of the Thurstone

approach, the Likert method, Guttman scalogram analysis, Osgood's semantic differential, Fishbein and Raven's AB scales, and Bogardus and Triandus' social distance scales.

He concluded with a discussion of audience characteristics and a section on the persuader's choices (organization, language, motivational concepts, etc.), all presented through the behavioral approach.

The newest textbook published was Kenneth Andersen's (5) Persuasion, Theory and Practice (1971). It was eclectic in approach. The author stated that his goal was to provide the best estimate of "truth" available. Positions were taken, but with the recognition and qualification of other approaches and with the awareness that diverse models may have been used to explain the same patterns of behavior and that elements of truth existed in many different approaches (5, p. ix).

Andersen placed emphasis upon the results of controlled scientific studies, however, he tried to meld these into a larger theoretical structure in order that it would lend significant value to persuasion theory. He saw persuasion not as a sufficient explanation of all the things we are, but as an inextricable part of man and his existence (5, p. x). In his epilogue he stated, "I believe that a persuasion theory is inevitably grounded in a psychology of

man and a philosophy of life-view. It is not enough to report the data derived from all the experiments" (5, p. 369).

The Andersen textbook was divided into six sections. Section One included what he considered to be the role of persuasion and the process of persuasion.

Section Two dealt with the audience. He included discussions of motivation, attitudes, behavior, audience setting, audience analysis, and attention. He included the studies of Allport, Rokeach, Osgood, Tannenbaum, Maslow, Heider, Hovland and others in this section.

The message was treated in Section Three. He included the process of message preparation, organizational effects, the induction of belief, language, style and delivery. Studies used to support these concepts were Toulmin, Paulson, Dresser, McCroskey, Janis, Feshbach, Hewgill, Miller, Thompson, Gilson, Sikkink, Cohen, and others.

Section Four was concerned with the source (the speaker). It dealt in depth with ethos and the effects of the persuasive process on the source. Studies in ethos by Andersen, Clevenger, McCroskey, Tannenbaum, Haiman, Greenberg and Miller were used in this section.

The channel and the setting were discussed in Section Five. It included discussions of the nature of channel and settings and the interaction between the two. There was also an entire chapter dealing with campaign strategy using multimedia. This was a chapter unique to this

textbook. Only a few studies were mentioned in this section and those that were used were not from those included in the questionnaire.

The problems in persuasion were discussed in Section Six. Andersen discussed ethics, totalitarian theories of persuasion, building a response system to persuasive effects, and he concluded with a discussion of the difficulties of measuring effect. No experimental, rhetorical, or empirical studies were used in this section.

Summary

This chapter has included a review of selected topics from the 1965 study of Kibler, Gibson and Hunter as they relate to this study. Each study included in the instrument used in the study was summarized in order to show the diversity of the research being done and also the contradiction of findings that exist between researchers. It is hoped that these descriptions will provide an adequate sample of the diffusion of material that is available to the teachers of persuasion.

An account of eight textbooks published since 1959 has been given to show the diversity in the philosophy of teaching persuasion, the approaches to teaching the various concepts, and the degree of dependence or lack of dependence on empirical, rhetorical, and experimental studies by each of the authors.

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CHAPTER III

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the results of this study. The discussion includes the selection and description of the respondents, procedures for collecting data, description of the instrument, and treatment and analysis of the data.

Selection and Description of the Respondents

Three hundred subjects were chosen from the 1970-1971 Speech Communication Association Directory (35) of all senior and junior colleges and universities in the United States. Only senior colleges and universities were eligible to be chosen. A random sample was gathered by choosing fifty members from institutions in each of the following geographical areas: (1) New England, (2) Middle States, (3) North Central, (4) Northwest, (5) South, and (6) West. (App. II) The SCA Directory (35) specified those schools that were affiliated with the national organization (SCA). Those schools having membership in SCA had priority over those schools in which only the chairmen had membership in SCA. These choices, however, were used to fill out the specified number when not enough affiliated schools were available. Those institutions not affiliated

with SCA at all, and those labeled junior and community colleges were not included in the study. Most community colleges are two year schools, and this study relates only to senior colleges and universities.

On May 1, 1971, two letters and a postcard were sent to the chairmen of the departments along with a copy of the instrument of this study. (App. I) The first letter (App. III) was to the chairmen explaining the study and requesting that the second letter and questionnaire (App. I) be forwarded to one of his teachers of persuasion. The chairman was asked to fill in the enclosed card which contained the teacher's name to whom the questionnaire had been forwarded and the signature of the chairman and the name and location of the school. The second letter (App. IV) was attached to the questionnaire giving the title and explaining the study. A stamped envelope was enclosed for the respondent's use.

On June 1, 1971, follow-up letters were sent to those persuasion teachers whose names had been reported by their chairmen and who had not yet returned the questionnaire. By July 1, 1971, a total of 180 schools or 60 per cent had returned the questionnaire. Of the 180 responses, 31 percent or 56 respondents reported that no persuasion course was offered in their school. This left a total of 69 per cent or 124 questionnaires to be used for analysis.

Description of the Instrument

The questionnaire for this study (App. I) was devised for the purpose of answering the questions posed by this dissertation. Thorough examination was made of the study by Kibler, Gibson and Hunter (45), "The Current Status of Persuasion Courses in American Colleges and Universities." Because the authors of the 1965 study felt that they had not gotten to the root of course content (24), very little repetition existed between the two instruments. Those questions dealing with name, rank, and school of the respondent, texts used, other required materials, and number of sections and the students in each were all similar to those of the 1965 study.

It seemed pertinent to know the respondent's years of experience in teaching persuasion, his highest degree, and the area within the speech communication discipline with which he predominantly identified, and which areas influenced him the most.

The wisdom of using performance in persuasion has been debated among instructors. There was a need to see how many teachers were still using performance as a teaching tool, how many were teaching an "all theory" course, and how many were endeavoring to use a combination of the two.

As was seen in Chapter Two, experimental studies were present in most texts, even if only mentioned in the "Selected Reading" section of the chapters. From this the question arose as to how many teachers enlighten the students about the measuring devices with which the studies are conducted.

These questions seemed to set the stage for some approach for finding out to what extent experimental, rhetorical, and empirical research were used in teaching the course. Ten categories or units of study were chosen that seemed most commonly included in a persuasion course. These categories were: learning theory, balance theory, source credibility, attitude-attitude change, organization, fear appeals, group norms, evidence, layouts of argument, and audience analysis.

Familiar and unfamiliar studies were chosen to represent each category. The number chosen was made according to the number of available studies. In other words, there has been more work done in attitude-attitude change, consequently more studies appear in that category than in the others. The respondents were given a listing of the studies in which they were to identify the extent to which the study was used in their teaching: (1) extensively, (2) often, (3) sometimes, (4) rarely, (5) never. The categorizations of the studies were not made evident to the respondents.

Treatment of Data

Descriptive data was used to treat all the questions of the questionnaire. Percentages were computed for questions one through sixteen for the frequency of any given response and the percent was rounded off to the nearest whole percent. A mean score was computed for questions seventeen through eighty-four.

The findings are based upon the responses from respondents from schools with a persuasion course (N = 124) and will not include those who reported no course in persuasion (N = 54).

Analysis of the Data

Hypotheses were not designed for this study; instead, nine questions were posed to guide the analysis of data.

1. Is persuasion taught in the majority of the senior colleges? The data revealed that 37 percent, or 56 of the senior colleges and universities did not have a course in persuasion. Twenty of these respondents or 11 percent reported that it was included in another course. This could mean that it was included as only a part of an advanced public speaking course, a fundamentals in public speaking course, or that it was fused with an advanced course in communication theory. These results differ significantly from those of Kibler, Gibson, and Hunter (45).

They sent out 1066 questionnaires. After follow-up letters they had a return of 694 or 66 percent. Of this number, 60 percent or 408 respondents reported that no course in persuasion was offered in their school. This is compared to 60 percent (N = 180) return of the present study out of a total of 300 with 37 percent or 56 showing no course offering persuasion.

2. Is the teaching of theory based on experimental, empirical, and rhetorical theories? Of the total respondents (N = 124), ten respondents or 8 percent showed no use of the studies listed in the questionnaire. The remaining respondents used them to some extent. The Kibler, Gibson, and Hunter study (45) reflected that the majority of instructors took a public address or rhetorical approach, which included 200 respondents or 72 percent. A communication approach was taken by 33 or 6 percent of the subjects. Both these approaches indicate emphasis on performance rather than theory. Only eight respondents or 3 percent reported using an experimental approach. (Table I from the 1965 study)

TABLE I
COURSE APPROACH IN THE 1965 STUDY

| Course Approach | N | % |
|-------------------------------------------------|-----|-----|
| Public Address and/or Rhetorical Communications | 200 | 72 |
| Communications | 33 | 12 |
| Group Dynamics | 17 | 6 |
| Experimental | 8 | 3 |
| Other Responses | 12 | 4 |
| Total | 277 | 100 |

In the present study, 48 respondents or 39 percent reported a theory-oriented approach. Those using performance to some degree comprised 61 percent or 76 of the respondents. (Table II)

TABLE II
APPROACH TO TEACHING PERSUASION
IN THE PRESENT STUDY

| Course Approach | N | % |
|----------------------|-----|-----|
| Performance Oriented | 76 | 61 |
| Theory Oriented | 48 | 39 |
| Total | 124 | 100 |

This question will be more fully elaborated on with the detailed analysis included in answers to question number nine.

3. To what extent is the stress on the students' practice of persuasive skills used in the teaching of persuasion? The respondents were asked if their course was primarily a performance course, a theory-oriented course, or a combination of the two. Those who taught a theory-oriented course included 39 percent (N = 48) of the respondents. Only 5 percent (N = 6) stated their course was primarily performance-oriented. The trend seems to be away from performance-oriented courses, as was shown in the 1965 study and more toward stress on theory. (Table III)

TABLE III
ROLE OF PERFORMANCE IN THE PRESENT STUDY

| Role of Performance | N | % |
|------------------------|-----|-----|
| Theory | 48 | 39 |
| Performance | 6 | 5 |
| Combination of the Two | 70 | 56 |
| Total | 124 | 100 |

4. To what extent are efforts made to fuse theory with practice? The effort to fuse theory and practice is evident in Table III. Some respondents reporting a theory-oriented course commented that they had oral assignments such as reports on speakers, analysis of speeches, and oral analysis of student's outside experiences, but no persuasive speeches as such. These were not tabulated as "performance," because the term "performance" in this study refers to actual practice in persuasive communication.

Those who did report some performance included 61 percent (N = 76) of the respondents. The number of speeches required ranged from one to twelve. Those requiring more than four speeches were 10 subjects or 8 percent. Those requiring 4 speeches comprised 17 percent (N = 21); those requiring three speeches, 21 percent (N = 25); two speeches, 14 percent (N = 17); and one speech included 3 respondents or 1 percent. The remainder of the respondents required no speeches at all (N = 48). (Table IV)

TABLE IV
 NUMBER OF SPEECHES REQUIRED
 BY PERSUASION TEACHERS

| Number of Speeches Required | N | % |
|----------------------------------|-----|-----|
| No speeches required | 48 | 39 |
| One speech required | 3 | 1 |
| Two speeches required | 17 | 14 |
| Three speeches required | 25 | 21 |
| Four speeches required | 21 | 17 |
| More than four speeches required | 10 | 8 |
| Total | 124 | 100 |

Time spent on performance was varied. A large number, (N = 48) or 39 percent used no performance at all. Those speaking less than 25% of the time was 6 percent (N = 7). Those using performance 25 percent to 50 percent of the time included 31 respondents. (25 percent) Twenty-one respondents (17 percent) reported using performance about 50 percent of the time. Those using performance 50 percent to 75 percent of the time included 14 respondents. (11 percent) Only 3 respondents (2 percent) used performance over 75 percent of the time. (Table V)

TABLE V
TIME SPENT IN SPEAKING ACTIVITIES
IN THE PRESENT STUDY

| Time Allotted | N | % |
|----------------------------------|-----|-----|
| No time | 48 | 39 |
| Less than 25 percent of the time | 7 | 6 |
| 25 to 50 percent of the time | 31 | 25 |
| About 50 percent of the time | 21 | 17 |
| 50 to 75 percent of the time | 14 | 11 |
| More than 75 percent of the time | 3 | 2 |
| Total | 124 | 100 |

There was some appreciable change in the use of performance since the study conducted in 1965. Only 4 percent reported no time spent on performance as compared to 39 percent in the present study. For less than 25 percent of the time, there was the difference between 17 percent in 1965 to 6 percent in this study. For those using 25 percent to 50 percent of the time in performance, 28 percent of the sample were reported in the 1965 study and 25 percent in the present study. This change was only slight. Those using performance about 50 percent of the time included 25 percent of the respondents in the 1965 study and only 17 percent in this study. In the 1965 study,

those using performance 50 percent to 75 percent of the time included 20 percent of the respondents, while in the present study there was only 11 percent. There was no difference in those using above 75 percent. (Table VI) (45)

TABLE VI
TIME SPENT ON PERFORMANCE IN THE 1965 STUDY

| Time Allotted | N | % |
|----------------------------------|-----|-----|
| No time | 11 | 4 |
| Less than 25 percent of the time | 48 | 17 |
| 25 to 50 percent of the time | 76 | 28 |
| About 50 percent of the time | 68 | 25 |
| 50 to 75 percent of the time | 57 | 20 |
| More than 75 percent of the time | 5 | 2 |
| No response | 12 | 4 |
| Total | 277 | 100 |

A comparison of the two studies concerning performance can be seen in Table VII.

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF THE 1965 STUDY AND THE PRESENT STUDY
ON TIME SPENT IN PERFORMANCE

| Time Allotted | 1965 Study | Present Study |
|----------------------------------|---------------|------------------|
| No time | 4 | 39 |
| Less than 25 percent of the time | 17 | 6 |
| 25 to 50 percent of the time | 28 | 25 |
| About 50 percent of the time | 25 | 17 |
| 50 to 75 percent of the time | 20 | 11 |
| More than 75 percent of the time | 2 | 2 |
| No response | 4 | 0 |
| Total Percent | 100 | 100 |

5. What textbooks are predominantly used? The most predominantly used textbooks proved to be the following: Erwin Bettinghaus' Persuasive Communication (10), Wayne Minnick's The Art of Persuasion (56), Wallace Fotheringham's Perspectives on Persuasion (24), Kenneth Andersen's Persuasion: Theory and Practice (3), and Gary Cronkhite's Persuasion, Speech and Behavioral Change (18). (Table VIII)

TABLE VIII
TEXTBOOKS USED BY TEACHERS OF PERSUASION

| Textbooks Used | N | % |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|-----|-----|
| Bettinghaus' <u>Persuasive Communication</u> | 24 | 20 |
| Minnick's <u>Art of Persuasion</u> | 22 | 18 |
| Fotheringham's <u>Perspectives in Persuasion</u> | 13 | 10 |
| Andersen's <u>Persuasion, Theory and Practice</u> | 11 | 9 |
| Cronkhite's <u>Persuasion, Speech and Behavioral Change</u> | 10 | 8 |
| Others | 44 | 35 |
| Total | 124 | 100 |

Scheidel (66), Brown (13), Martin and Andersen's Readings (48), and Aristotle (6) were mentioned as textbooks used. The remaining texts (N = 28) received single mention from the respondents. Dissatisfaction with texts may be interpreted from the fact that a considerable number mentioned using a text not even yet on the market, Andersen's text (N = 11). All of these mentioned the Andersen text only, which meant they were completely forsaking the text that they were previously using.

There is a vast difference in the texts used by the respondents in the 1965 study and those in the present study. The 1965 study showed Oliver (58), Minnick (1959) (55),

Brembeck and Howell (14), Eric Hoffer (34), and Freeley (25) as those texts most used at that time.

The most significant shift seen between the 1965 study and the present one was the complete change in textbook use. Minnick's Art of Persuasion (1959) that proved to be prevalently used was not the same text as the 1968 revision presently used. Brembeck and Howell's Persuasion (16), second in rank in the 1965 study, was only cited one time in this study. Oliver's Psychology of Persuasive Speech (61), ranking third in the 1965 study, was not mentioned at all in the present study as a major source and only once was it mentioned in the use of supplementary material. Brown's Techniques of Persuasion (15) was mentioned five times and Freeley's Argumentation and Debate: Rational Decision Making (27) was not mentioned in the present study at all.

The textbooks mentioned by respondents not included in Table VIII only received single mention. The group was made up of other persuasion textbooks (those published before 1960), textbooks dealing with argumentation, debate, and rhetorical criticism, textbooks containing material by the ancient classical writers, those stressing language, many dealing with attitude studies, and books oriented toward the analysis of the political rhetoric of our day.

Limitations and weaknesses of the textbooks used were both general and specific in nature. General statements

included: (1) none were applicable to the course; (2) texts were geared more to the teacher than to the student; (3) each text was severely limited in scope and content and had to be supplemented; (4) it was impossible for a persuasion text to remain current; (5) experimental studies in the textbooks were not effectively fused with theory; (6) all texts were short on cases of verbal persuasion in the public forum; (7) most texts were too verbose; (8) the studies included in the texts were too complicated; and (9) emphasis on studies was distracting.

Specific complaints about individual texts were as follows: Erwin Bettinghaus' Persuasive Communication (11) was (1) too brief, (2) superficial and poorly worded, and (3) too research-oriented. Wayne Minnick's The Art of Persuasion (59) was accused of being too difficult for students to understand while on the other hand, some thought the text to be much too basic. Wallace C. Fotheringham's Perspectives in Persuasion (26) was said by some to have limited coverage and was too verbose. Gary Cronkhite's Persuasion, Speech and Behavioral Change (20) was said to be too experimentally oriented and too complicated for the students. Robert Scheidel's Persuasive Speaking (70) seemed to not be concerned enough with theory.

6. What other materials besides textbooks are used?

A wide diversity exists in the use of other materials.

Subjects using other materials numbered 64 or 52 percent. Those not using other materials were 60 instructors or 48 percent. The materials included

Bem, Robert, Beliefs, Attitudes and Human Affairs, California, Brooks-Cole, Inc., 1969.

Bettinghaus, Erwin P., Persuasive Communication, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

Brembeck, Winston L. and William S. Howell, Persuasion: A Means of Social Control, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.

Johannsens, Richard L., Ethics and Persuasion, New York, Random House, Inc., 1967.

Lippmann, Walter, Atlantic Monthly Press, Massachusetts, 1965.

McGinniss, Joe, The Selling of the President, New York, Trident Press, 1968.

Nilsen, Thomas R., Ethics of Speech Communication, New York, Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1966.

Oliver, Robert T., The Psychology of Persuasive Speech, New York, David McKay Company, Inc., 1957.

Zimbardo, Philip, et. al., Influencing Attitudes and Change in Behavior, Massachusetts, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1969.

Other extra materials listed were

Handouts dealing with aspects of persuasion

Selected readings including journals and speeches

Read a copy of Time each week

Tapes and television

Guest lecturers

Analyze speeches

Field trips

Material related to the debate question for the year

Selected essays in rhetorical theory

Tapes and cassettes

7. What area within the speech discipline do the teachers identify with most? The majority of the respondents' highest degree was in speech (N = 111). The remaining ones (N = 13) had their highest degrees in the areas of guidance and counseling, chemistry, broadcasting, English, educational psychology, speech pathology, social psychology, and theatre.

The major portion of the respondents identified mostly with the area of public address (N = 88), rhetorical theory (N = 74), communication theory (N = 70), and behavioral science (N = 47). (Table IX)

TABLE IX

IDENTIFICATION WITH SPEECH DISCIPLINES

| Speech/Disciplines Teachers Identified with Most | N |
|-----------------------------------------------------|----|
| Public Address | 88 |
| Rhetorical Theory | 74 |
| Communication Theory | 70 |
| Behavioral Science | 47 |
| General Semantics | 11 |
| Oral Interpretation | 11 |
| Radio-Television | 8 |
| Other | 19 |

The "Other" category included speech pathology, linguistics, radio-TV, socio-linguistics, discussion theory, speech education, and theatre. The respondents could check more than one category.

The respondents were asked to identify in rank (1, 2, 3) which speech areas influenced them most in teaching persuasion. Again, public address, rhetorical theory, and the behavioral sciences seemed to yield the greatest influence. Public address was ranked first by 26 percent or 32 respondents, ranked second by 24 percent or 30 respondents, and ranked third by 24 percent or 30 respondents. Rhetorical theory was ranked first by 20 percent or 26 respondents, second by 33 percent or 40 respondents, and third by 33 percent or 28 respondents. The behavioral sciences were ranked first by 40 percent or 49 respondents, second by 35 percent or 44 respondents, and third by 20 percent or 25 respondents. The remaining ranks and categories are shown in Table X.

TABLE X
SPEECH AREAS MOST INFLUENTIAL IN TEACHING PERSUASION

| Speech Areas | Rank | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---------------------|------|-----|-----|-----|
| Behavioral Science | | 49 | 44 | 25 |
| Public Address | | 32 | 30 | 30 |
| Rhetorical Theory | | 26 | 40 | 28 |
| General Semantics | | 2 | 4 | 10 |
| Radio-Television | | 2 | 1 | 8 |
| Linguistics | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Oral Interpretation | | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| Other | | 12 | 4 | 19 |
| Total | | 124 | 124 | 124 |

8. Are measuring techniques taught in the course?

Thirty-six percent of the respondents (N = 44) reported no use of measuring techniques in teaching persuasion, while 64 percent (N = 80) reported their use. Of the six measuring techniques listed, Osgood's Semantic Differential and the Likert Method were most frequently used. Fifty-two percent (N = 64) reported using Osgood's Semantic Differential, 34 percent (N = 42) reported using the Thurstone technique, 42 percent (N = 52) the Likert method, 16 percent (N = 20), the Guttman Sociogram Analysis, 16 percent (N = 20), Bogardus' Social Distance Scale, 15 percent

(N = 18), Fishbein and Raven's AB Scales, while only 3 respondents reported using any other measuring technique. These three were the error-choice method, content analysis, and the Woodard Shift-of-Opinion Ballot. This seemed to indicate that the list of measuring techniques on the questionnaire was adequate. (Table XI) Respondents were requested to check as many of the measuring techniques as they used.

TABLE XI
MEASURING TECHNIQUES TAUGHT BY PERSUASION TEACHERS

| Measuring Techniques | N | % |
|---------------------------------|----|----|
| Osgood's Semantic Differential | 64 | 52 |
| Likert Scale | 52 | 42 |
| Thurstone Method | 42 | 34 |
| Guttman's Scalogram Analysis | 20 | 16 |
| Bogardus' Social Distance Scale | 20 | 16 |
| Fishbein and Raven's AB Scale | 18 | 15 |
| Other | 3 | 2 |
| None | 44 | 36 |

Experimental, Empirical, and Rhetorical Studies

9. To what extent are the following experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies and theories used in the teaching of persuasion? Since the answer to this question

is drawn from four and one-half pages of the five page questionnaire, the data will be treated in a separate section. Each category will be discussed as a group and each study within the group will be analyzed. The categories are learning theories, balance theories, attitude-attitude change, source credibility, group norms, layouts of argument, evidence, audience analysis, organization, and fear appeals. Each category will then be compared to see if these studies enhance the teaching of one category over another.

(a) Learning theory — In learning theory terms, the communicator wishes to produce a stimulus -- the message that will be perceived by the receiver and a response -- some alteration in behavior produced by the receiver (11, p. 52). The psychologist is interested in ways in which a response gets attached to a stimulus and has devised explanations for such an attachment. The persuasive communicator is interested in how he can insure that the desired response will be attached to the message he represents.

(1) Lewin's (2) field theory — Six respondents applied the field theory extensively, six respondents applied it often, twenty-three sometimes, twenty-one respondents rarely, and sixty-nine respondents none. The mean rating for the Lewin theory was 4.1.

(2) Bruner and Postman's (17) theory — Two respondents applied this theory extensively, four respondents applied it often, eight respondents applied it sometimes, seventeen respondents applied it rarely, and ninety-three respondents reported not applying it at all. The mean rating for the application of Bruner and Postman's theory was 4.8.

(3) Skinner's theory (77) — Skinner's theory was reported by 6 respondents as applying it extensively, 10 respondents as applying it often, 25 respondents as applying it sometimes, 24 respondents as applying it rarely, and 58 respondents as never applying it. The mean rating for Skinner's theory was 3.9.

(4) Gestalt theory (13) — The Gestalt theory was applied extensively by 7 respondents, often by 17 respondents, sometimes by 28 respondents, rarely by 21 respondents, and 51 respondents did not apply it at all. The mean rating for the Gestaltian theory was 3.9.

(5) Maslow's (52) hierarchy of values was applied extensively by 15 respondents, often by 24 respondents, sometimes by 30 respondents, rarely by 14 respondents, and 41 did not refer to Maslow's theory. The mean rating for the Maslow theory was 3.8.

(6) Allport's (2) personality theory was applied extensively by 2 respondents, often by 18 respondents,

sometimes by 27 respondents, rarely by 22 respondents, and 54 respondents did not apply Allport's theory in teaching persuasion. The mean rating for the Allport theory was 3.8.

The composite mean rating for the category of learning theories was 4. (Table XII)

TABLE XII
LEARNING THEORIES

| Application of Learning Theories | Mean Rating |
|----------------------------------------|-------------|
| Allport Personality Theory | 3.8 |
| Maslow's Hierarchy of Values | 3.8 |
| Gestalt Theory | 3.9 |
| Skinner's Theory | 3.9 |
| Lewin's Theory | 4.1 |
| Bruner and Postman's Theory | 4.8 |
| Composite Mean Rating | <u>4</u> |

(b) Balance theory--Situations where imbalance is found and attempts of individuals to restore balance to their cognitive structures have provided one of the most fruitful areas of study for behavioral scientists. The term "balance" is a general term to cover many different kinds of communication situations and has other terms which are synonymous with it: consonance and dissonance,

congruity and incongruity, consistency and inconsistency. The concept of balance assumes that when there is an unbalanced state, there will exist pressures to restore balance in the particular circumstance. The persuasive communicator must work in such a manner that the restoration of balance will result in the change he desires, rather than in dissociation or in other results that would bring about an undesirable conclusion (11, p. 70).

(1) The Heider (36) theory was applied extensively by 12 respondents, often by 28 respondents, sometimes by 16 respondents, and 59 respondents reported never teaching it. The mean rating for the Heider theory was 3.6.

(2) Festinger's theory of cognitive-dissonance was applied extensively by 40 respondents, often by 38 respondents, sometimes by 12 respondents, rarely by 10 respondents, and 24 respondents reported not applying Festinger's theory at all. The mean rating for Festinger's theory was 2.5.

(3) Osgood and Tannenbaum's (62) principle of congruity was applied extensively by 31 respondents, often by 32 respondents, sometimes by 16 respondents, rarely by 7 respondents, and only 38 respondents reported never applying the theory. The mean rating for this theory was 2.1.

The composite mean rating for the category of balance theories was 2.7. (Table XIII)

TABLE XIII
BALANCE THEORIES

| Application of Balance Theories | Mean Rating |
|----------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Osgood and Tannenbaum's Principle of Congruity . . | 2.1 |
| Festinger's Theory of Cognitive-Dissonance | 2.5 |
| Heider Theory | 3.6 |
| Composite Mean Rating | 2.7 |

(c) Studies in ethos—The influence that a source exerts on the outcome of a persuasive communication situation cannot be examined just by identifying physical or social characteristics of the sources themselves. Such characteristics will influence the behavior of the receiver only to the extent that they are perceived by the receiver as being important. In the research literature there are three approaches that look at the problem of source influence (ethos). They are source credibility, status and opinion leadership. In addition to these, which emphasize differences between receiver perceptions of the source and the self, there are some who look at similarities between source and receiver (59, p. 102).

The following studies are representatives of these approaches.

(1) Haiman (34), "The Effects of Ethos in Speaking" — This study was extensively used by 17 respondents, often by 32 respondents, sometimes by 17 respondents, rarely by 14 respondents, and 44 respondents did not utilize the study. The mean rating for this study was 1.6.

(2) Anderson and Clevenger (4), "A Summary of Experimental Research in Ethos" — This study was extensively used by 27 respondents, often used by 25 respondents, sometimes used by 18 respondents, rarely used by 18 respondents, and not used at all by 36 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.08.

(3) Biddle (12), "An Experimental Study of Ethos and Appeal for Overt Behavior in Persuasion" — Biddle's study was extensively used by 2 respondents, often used by 5 respondents, sometimes used by 10 respondents, rarely used by 13 respondents, and not used at all by 94 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(4) Greenberg and Miller (32), "The Effects of Low Credibility Sources on Message Acceptance" — The study was used extensively by 5 respondents, often by 18 respondents, sometimes by 20 respondents, rarely by 19 respondents, and was not used by 62 respondents. The mean rating for Greenberg and Miller's study was 3.9.

(5) Lemert (47), "Dimensions of Source Credibility" — Lemert's study was reported as being used extensively by 13 respondents, often by 11 respondents, sometimes by 18 respondents, rarely by 11 respondents, and never used by 71 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.9.

(6) McCroskey (53), "Scales for the Measurement of Ethos" — This study was used extensively by 16 respondents, often by 8 respondents, sometimes by 22 respondents, rarely by 13 respondents, and never used by 65 respondents. The mean rating for McCroskey's study was 3.2.

(7) Hovland and Weiss (40), "The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness" — The Hovland and Weiss study was reported as being used extensively by 11 respondents, often by 26 respondents, sometimes by 31 respondents, rarely by 16 respondents, and not used at all by 40 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.4.

(8) Lorge (49), "Prestige Suggestion and Attitudes" — This study was not used extensively by anyone. It was reported used often by only 4 respondents, sometimes by 21 respondents, rarely by 11 respondents, and not used at all by 88 respondents. The mean rating for Lorge's study was 4.5.

(9) Sharp and McClung (71), "Effect of Organization on the Speaker's Ethos" — Only one person reported using this study extensively, often by 6 respondents, sometimes by 16 respondents, rarely by 13 respondents, and not used by 88 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(10) Paulson (63), "The Effects of the Prestige of the Speaker and Acknowledgement of Opposing Arguments on Audience Retention and Shift of Opinion" — Three respondents reported using this study extensively, 7 respondents used it often, 12 respondents used it sometimes, 9 respondents used it rarely, and 93 respondents did not use the study at all. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

The composite mean rating for the category, studies in ethos, was 3.7. See Table XIV.

TABLE XIV

ETHOS

| Use of Studies in Ethos | Mean Rating |
|----------------------------------|-------------|
| Haiman | 1.6 |
| Anderson and Clevenger | 3.08 |
| McCroskey | 3.2 |
| Hovland and Weiss | 3.4 |
| Greenberg and Miller | 3.9 |
| Lemert | 3.9 |
| Paulson | 4.4 |
| Biddle | 4.5 |
| Lorge | 4.5 |
| Sharp and McClung | 4.5 |
| Composite Mean Rating | 3.7 |

(d) Studies in attitude-attitude change—Since an attitude is manifested in behavior, behavior becomes the means of measuring an attitude. Perhaps the most ordinary means of measuring an attitude is to use verbal behavior in the form of an opinion. The typical attitude test is a means of collecting a series of opinion statements (1, p. 52).

Attitudes are approached in terms of a continuum with the effort to identify the degree of more or less on the

continuum. An attitude then becomes meaningful as one compares the behavior or reactions of individuals against each other. No one attitude is capable of being measured precisely in every instance for every person. In spite of this, attitude tests are much used in experimental studies as those listed or discussed below.

(1) Hovland and Janis (39), Personality and Persuasibility (Attitude studies) — This book by Hovland and Janis was used extensively by 16 respondents, often by 31 respondents, sometimes by 28 respondents, rarely by 14 respondents, and none at all by 35 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 2.4.

(2) Katz (42), "Functional Approach to Attitude Change" — Those using this study extensively numbered 14 respondents; often, 21 respondents; sometimes, 12 respondents; rarely, 30 respondents; and none, 67 respondents. The mean rating for Katz's study was 4.4.

(3) Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall (73), Attitude and Attitude Change — This study was used extensively by 21 respondents, often by 24 respondents, sometimes by 23 respondents, rarely by 11 respondents, and none at all by 45 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.3.

(4) Abelson and Rosenberg (1), "Symbolic Psychology: A Model of Attitudinal Cognition" — This study

was used extensively by 2 respondents, often by 7 respondents, sometimes by 6 respondents, rarely by 14 respondents, and none by 95 respondents. The mean rating for this study by Abelson and Rosenberg was 4.6.

(5) Knower's (46, 47) attitude studies were reported as being used extensively by 2 respondents, often by 5 respondents, sometimes by 6 respondents, rarely by 16 respondents, and none at all by 85 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

(6) Fishbein (25), "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Beliefs About an Object and Attitudes Toward the Object" — Those who responded as using this study extensively included 7 respondents, often by 14 respondents, sometimes by 11 respondents, rarely by 11 respondents, and none by 85 respondents. The mean rating for Fishbein's study was 4.2.

(7) Osgood and Tannenbaum (62), "The Principle of Congruity in the Prediction of Attitude Change" — This study was used extensively by 17 respondents, often by 26 respondents, sometimes by 25 respondents, rarely by 9 respondents, and none by 47 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.4.

(8) Cohen (18), Attitude Change and Social Influence — This book was used extensively by 6 respondents, often by 17 respondents, sometimes by 23 respondents,

rarely by 17 respondents, and none at all by 61 respondents. The mean rating for this book was 3.9.

(9) Hovland and Sherif (73), Social Judgment — This book was used extensively by 8 respondents, often by 18 respondents, sometimes by 27 respondents, rarely by 18 respondents, and none by 53 respondents. The mean rating for this book was 3.7.

(10) Rosenberg's (65, 66, 67) studies in attitude change — Seven respondents used Rosenberg's studies extensively, 14 respondents used them often, 16 respondents used them sometimes, 18 respondents used them rarely, and 69 respondents did not use the studies at all. The mean rating for these studies was 4.2.

(11) Theory of Assimilation-contrast (73) — This theory was applied extensively by 13 respondents, often by 10 respondents, sometimes by 4 respondents, rarely by 11 respondents, and none by 76 respondents. The mean rating for this theory was 3.7.

(12) Sarnoff, Katz, and McClintock (69), "Attitude Change Procedures and Motivating Patterns" — There were no respondents who used this study extensively; there was only one respondent who used it often, 10 respondents who used it sometimes, 7 who used it rarely, and 106 respondents did not use the study. The mean rating for this study was 5.

The composite mean rating for the category on attitude-attitude change was 3.9. (Table XV)

TABLE XV
ATTITUDE-ATTITUDE CHANGE

| Use of Attitude Studies | Mean Rating |
|-------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Hovland and Janis | 2.4 |
| Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall | 3.3 |
| Osgood and Tannenbaum | 3.4 |
| Hovland and Sherif | 3.7 |
| Theory of Assimilation-Contrast | 3.7 |
| Cohen | 3.9 |
| Fishbein | 4.2 |
| Rosenberg | 4.2 |
| Katz | 4.4 |
| Knower's Attitude Studies | 4.4 |
| Abelson and Rosenberg | 4.6 |
| Sarnoff, Katz, and McClintock | 5 |
| | <hr/> |
| Composite Mean Rating | 3.9 |

(e) Studies in organization—After the communicator has gathered all his material for a speech, he is then faced with the problem of putting all the material in some reasonable form, so that it may be presented to an audience in hopes of receiving the maximum desired results.

This process is referred to as disposition or organization. Numerous studies have examined the use of climactic, anti-climactic, and pyramidal structure for their relative effectiveness. The following studies are examples of these efforts.

(1) Thompson (82), "An Experimental Investigation of the Relative Effectiveness of Organizational Structure in Oral Communication" -- Two respondents reported using this study extensively, 6 respondents used it often, 13 respondents used it sometimes, 10 respondents used it rarely and 93 respondents did not use the study. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(2) Cohen (19), "Need for Cognition and Order of Communication as Determinants of Opinion Change" -- This study was extensively used by two respondents, often used by 6 respondents, sometimes used by 13 respondents, rarely used by 10 respondents, and never used by 93 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

(3) McGuire (55), "Order of Presentation as a Factor in 'Conditioning' Persuasiveness" -- This study was extensively used by 4 respondents, often used by 11 respondents, sometimes used by 15 respondents, rarely used by 12 respondents, and not used at all by 82 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.3.

(4) Gulley and Berlo (33), "Effects of Intercellular and Intracellular Speech Structure on Attitude Change and Learning" — This study was extensively used by 1 respondent, often used by 10 respondents, sometimes used by 14 respondents, rarely used by 15 respondents, and not used at all by 84 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

(5) Hovland (38), The Order of Presentation in Persuasion — Hovland's study was extensively used by 14 respondents, often used by 27 respondents, sometimes used by 34 respondents, rarely used by 14 respondents, and never used by 35 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.4.

(6) Gilkinson, Paulson, and Sikkink (30), "Effects of Order and Authority in an Argumentative Speech" — No respondents reported using this study extensively, 7 respondents reported using it often, 24 respondents reported using it sometimes, 11 respondents reported using it rarely, and 82 did not use the study. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

(7) Bruner and Goodman (17), "Values and Needs as Organizational Factors in Persuasion" — Two respondents reported using this study extensively, 1 respondent used it often, 12 respondents used it sometimes, 9

respondents used it rarely, and 99 respondents did not use the study by Bruner and Goodman. The mean rating for this study was 4.6.

(8) Lumsdaine and Janis (50), "Resistance to Counterpropaganda Produced by One-Sided and Two-Sided Propaganda Presentations" — This study was extensively used by 16 respondents, often used by 11 respondents, sometimes used by 17 respondents, rarely used by 15 respondents, and never used by 55 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.4.

(9) Sikkink (75), "An Experimental Study of the Effects of the Listener of Anticlimax Order and Authority in an Argumentative Speech" — Sikkink's study was not extensively used by any respondents, was often used by 10 respondents, was sometimes used by 18 respondents, was rarely used by 13 respondents, and never used by 83 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

(10) Smith (78), "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Speech Organization Upon College Speech Students" — This study was extensively used by 4 respondents, sometimes used by 15 respondents, rarely used by 8 respondents, and not used by 83 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.9.

(11) Sponberg (79), "A Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Climax and Anticlimax Order in an Argumentative Speech" — This study was used extensively by

1 respondent, often by 8 respondents, sometimes by 17 respondents, rarely by 12 respondents, and not used by 86 respondents. The mean rating for Sponberg's study was 4.5.

The composite mean rating for the category on studies in organization was 4.3. (Table XVI)

TABLE XVI
ORGANIZATION

| Use of Studies in Organization | Mean Rating |
|-------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Hovland | 3.4 |
| Lumsdaine and Janis | 3.4 |
| McGuire | 4.3 |
| Cohen | 4.4 |
| Gilkinson, Paulson, and Sikkink | 4.4 |
| Gulley and Berlo | 4.4 |
| Sikkink | 4.4 |
| Thompson | 4.5 |
| Sponberg | 4.5 |
| Bruner and Goodman | 4.6 |
| Smith | <u>4.9</u> |
| Composite Mean Rating | 4.3 |

(f) Studies in fear appeals—There have been numerous studies in recent years dealing with the role of fear appeals in persuasion. For the most part, this

research seems to have been based on appeals to self-preservation and avoidance of pain (20, p. 179). The following studies are examples of these efforts.

(1) Miller (56), "Studies on the Use of Fear Appeals" — Miller's study was used extensively by 13 respondents, often by 23 respondents, sometimes by 28 respondents, rarely by 4 respondents, and never by 56 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.5.

(2) Berkowitz and Cottingham (10), "The Interest Values, and Relevance of Fear Arousing Communication" — This study was used extensively by 10 respondents, often by 5 respondents, sometimes by 8 respondents, rarely by 12 respondents, and never by 89 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.3.

(3) Janis and Feshbach (41), "Effects of Fear-Arousing Communication" — Janis and Feshbach's study was used extensively by 15 respondents, often by 19 respondents, sometimes by 24 respondents, rarely by 11 respondents, and never by 55 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.6.

(4) Miller and Hewgill (57), "Some Recent Research on Fear Arousing Message Appeals" — This study was used extensively by 10 respondents, often by 16 respondents, sometimes by 19 respondents, rarely by 8 respondents, and never by 71 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.3.

(5) Duncan (23), "Fear Arousing Appeals in Persuasion"—Only 1 respondent reported using this study extensively; 8 respondents, often; 10 respondents, sometimes; 12 respondents, rarely; and 93 respondents reported not using the study. The mean rating for Duncan's study was 4.5.

(6) Singer (76), "The Effect of Fear Arousing Communication on Attitude Change and Behavior"—This study was used extensively by 4 respondents, often by 5 respondents, sometimes by 9 respondents, rarely by 12 respondents, and never by 93 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

The composite mean rating for the category of studies in fear appeals was 4.1. (Table XVII)

TABLE XVII

FEAR APPEALS

| Use of Studies in Fear Appeals | Mean Rating |
|------------------------------------|-------------|
| Miller | 3.5 |
| Janis and Feshbach | 3.6 |
| Berkowitz and Cottingham | 4.3 |
| Miller and Hewgill | 4.3 |
| Duncan | 4.5 |
| Singer | <u>4.5</u> |
| Composite Mean Rating | 4.1 |

(g) Studies in group norms — There are many definitions of the term "group." One definition distinguishes between a collectivity and a group. A collectivity is a gathering of individuals in which little or no formal interaction between the members takes place. A group is when there is interaction between members of the audience. There is ample research on group norms. The following studies will deal with individual motives and group goals, physical characteristics that groups possess, and factors relating to psychological characteristics of the group (11, p. 199).

(1) Kelley (43), "Two Functions of Reference Groups" — This study was used extensively by 4 respondents, often by 6 respondents, sometimes by 12 respondents, rarely by 12 respondents, and never by 90 respondents. The mean rating for Kelley's study was 4.4.

(2) Siegel and Siegel (74), "Reference Group, Membership Group, and Attitude Change" — This study was used extensively by 5 respondents, often by 3 respondents, sometimes by 11 respondents, rarely by 16 respondents, and never by 89 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(3) Bales and Borgatta (9), "Size of Group as a Factor in the Interaction Profile" — This study was used extensively by 3 respondents, often by 7 respondents,

sometimes by 10 respondents, rarely by 13 respondents, and never by 91 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(4) Thomas and Fink (81), "Effect of Group Size" — Three respondents used this study extensively, 3 used it often, 7 used it sometimes, 9 used it rarely, and 112 respondents reported not using the study. The mean rating for this study was 5.

(5) Asch (7), "Effect of Group Pressures Upon the Modification and Distortion of Judgments" — This study was used extensively by 17 respondents, often by 16 respondents, sometimes by 19 respondents, rarely by 14 respondents, and never by 58 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 3.6.

(6) Crutchfield (21), "Conformity and Character" — This study was used extensively by 4 respondents, often by 7 respondents, sometimes by 12 respondents, rarely by 13 respondents, and none by 88 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.1.

(7) Sommer (80), "Small Group Ecology" — This study was used extensively by 2 respondents, often by 1 respondent, sometimes by 1 respondent, rarely by 11 respondents, and none at all by 109 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.6.

(8) Allport (2), "Concept of the Group Mind" — This study was used extensively by 2 respondents, often by 4 respondents, sometimes by 12 respondents, rarely by 12 respondents, and none by 94 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(9) Moore (60), "The Comparative Influence of Majority and Expert Opinion" — This study was used extensively by 3 respondents, often by 2 respondents, sometimes by 9 respondents, rarely by 15 respondents, and none by 95 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.6.

(10) Kelley and Volkart (44), "The Resistance to Change of Group Anchored Attitudes" — This study was used extensively by 2 respondents, often by 4 respondents, sometimes by 9 respondents, rarely by 9 respondents, and none by 100 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.6.

The composite mean rating for the category of studies in group norms was 4.4. (Table XVIII)

TABLE XVIII

GROUP NORMS

| Use of Group Norm Studies | Mean Rating |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| Asch | 3.6 |
| Crutchfield | 4.1 |
| Kelley | 4.4 |
| Allport | 4.5 |
| Bales and Borgatta | 4.5 |
| Siegel and Siegel | 4.5 |
| Kelley and Volkart | 4.6 |
| Moore | 4.6 |
| Sommer | 4.6 |
| Thomas and Fink | 5 |
| | <hr/> |
| Composite Mean Rating | 4.4 |

(h) Studies in evidence—Research in the area of evidence has brought about the conclusion that even though some types of evidence have little persuasive effect, much can be said for the opinion that good evidence is important in producing appropriate persuasive effects (59, p. 129). The following studies bear out these observations.

(1) Dresser (22), "Effects of Satisfactory and Unsatisfactory Evidence in a Speech of Advocacy"—

This study was used extensively by 2 respondents, often by 5 respondents, sometimes by 11 respondents, rarely by 6 respondents, and never by 100 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.6.

(2) Gilson and Abelson (31), "The Subjective Use of Inductive Evidence" — This study was not used extensively by any respondents, was used often by 2 respondents, sometimes by 5 respondents, rarely by 8 respondents, and none by 109 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.5.

(3) McCroskey (54), "Studies of the Effects of Evidence in Persuasive Communication" — This study was used extensively by 22 respondents, often by 17 respondents, sometimes by 21 respondents, rarely by 15 respondents, and never by 49 respondents. The mean rating for McCroskey's study was 3.7.

(4) Andersen (5), "The Effect of Various Uses of Authoritative Testimony in Persuasive Speaking" — This study was used extensively by 7 respondents, often by 5 respondents, sometimes by 8 respondents, rarely by 18 respondents, and never by 86 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.4.

The composite mean rating for the category covering studies in evidence was 4.3. (Table XIX)

TABLE XIX

EVIDENCE

| Use of Studies in Evidence | Mean Rating |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| McCroskey | 3.7 |
| Andersen | 4.4 |
| Gilson and Abelson | 4.5 |
| Dresser | 4.6 |
| Composite Mean Rating | <u>4.3</u> |

(i) Studies in audience characteristics—A number of personality variables are assumed to be relevant to audience reactions and responses. These variables as measured by introspection, paper and pencil tests, or projective responses evaluated by experts take on meaning in terms of continual ranging from extroverted to introverted, high to low in self-esteem, open to closed-mindedness, etc. Examples of some approaches to studying personality variables of the audience are included below.

(1) Adorno (8), The Authoritarian Personality—Adorno's theory was reported as being used extensively by 6 respondents, often by 15 respondents, sometimes by 14 respondents, rarely by 14 respondents, and none by 74 respondents. The mean rating for this theory was 4.1.

(2) Rokeach (68), The Open and Closed Mind—

This study was used extensively by 16 respondents, often by 22 respondents, sometimes by 19 respondents, rarely by 16 respondents, and 51 reported not using the study. The mean rating for Rokeach's theory was 3.5.

(3) Broadbent (14), Theory of Perception—

This theory was applied extensively by 2 respondents, often by 8 respondents, sometimes by 11 respondents, rarely by 13 respondents, and none by 90 respondents. The mean rating for this theory was 4.5.

(4) Furbay (28), "The Influence of Scattered

vs. Compact Seating on Audience Response"—This study was used extensively by 4 respondents, often by 6 respondents, sometimes by 9 respondents, rarely by 9 respondents, and none by 98 respondents. The mean rating for this study was 4.6.

The composite mean rating for the category on audience characteristics was 4.2. (Table XX)

TABLE XX

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS

| Use of Studies in Audience Analysis | Mean Rating |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| Rokeach | 3.5 |
| Adorno | 4.1 |
| Broadbent | 4.5 |
| Furbay | 4.6 |
| Composite Mean Rating | <u>4.2</u> |

(j) Layouts of argument—Many argue that argument does not take a formal shape. Toulmin (83), however, believes that the traditional syllogism formalized argument in a way that is not evident in actual argument. His system includes evidence, warrant, claim qualifiers, and support. Cronkhite's paradigm is a further development of the Toulmin layout (59, p. 146).

(1) Toulmin's Scheme of Argument (83)—This layout of argument was used extensively by 17 respondents, often by 21 respondents, sometimes by 23 respondents, rarely by 18 respondents, and never by 45 respondents. The mean rating for this layout was 3.4.

(2) Cronkhite's Paradigm of Persuasion (20)—This paradigm was used extensively by 16 respondents, often by 17 respondents, sometimes by 18 respondents, rarely by 22 respondents, and never by 51 respondents. The mean rating for this scheme of argument was 3.6.

The mean rating for layouts of argument was 3.5.

(Table XXI)

TABLE XXI

LAYOUTS OF ARGUMENT

| Use of Layouts of Argument | Mean Rating |
|----------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Toulmin's Scheme of Argument | 3.4 |
| Cronkhite's Paradigm of Persuasion | 3.6 |
| Composite Mean Rating | <u>3.5</u> |

In order to gain some concept as to how much studies in general are used in teaching persuasion, the categories will be compared as to usage. Their mean ratings were as follows:

Learning theories were applied rarely (4).

Balance theories were applied between "often" and "sometimes" (2.7).

Studies in ethos were used between "sometimes" and "rarely" (3.7).

Studies in attitude-attitude change were used between "sometimes" and "rarely" (3.9).

Studies in organization were used "rarely" (4.3).

The studies in fear appeals were used between "rarely" and "none" (4.1).

Studies in group norms were used between "rarely" and "none" (4.4).

The studies in evidence were used between "rarely" and "none" (4.3).

Studies in audience characteristics were used between "rarely" and "none" (4.2).

Layouts of argument were used between "sometimes" and "rarely" (3.5).

See Table XXII.

TABLE XXII
COMPOSITE MEAN RATINGS FOR ALL CATEGORIES

| Composite Scores in Each Category | Mean Rating |
|-----------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Balance Theories | 2.7 |
| Layouts of Argument | 3.5 |
| Studies in Ethos | 3.7 |
| Studies in Attitude-Attitude Change | 3.9 |
| Learning Theories | 4.0 |
| Studies in Fear Appeals | 4.1 |
| Studies in Audience Characteristics | 4.2 |
| Studies in Evidence | 4.3 |
| Studies in Organization | 4.3 |
| Studies in Group Norms | 4.4 |
| Composite Score for All Studies | <u>3.9</u> |

Other Pertinent Data

There were other facts that emerged from this study which might be of interest to a teacher of persuasion or a writer of a textbook in persuasion. These facts were related to the teacher's experience, number of sections taught, and average class size.

When asked what rank they held at the university level, the response was that 25 percent (N = 31) responded

"professor"; 16 percent (N = 22) responded "associate professor"; 41 percent (N = 50) responded "assistant professor"; and 18 percent (N = 21) responded as "instructors."

In response to the question relating to number of years teaching experience, 51 percent (N = 63) had 1-4 years experience, 24 percent (N = 30) had 5-9 years experience, 7 percent (N = 9) had 10-14 years experience, 7 percent (N = 9) had 15-19 years experience, and 11 percent (N = 13) had 20 years experience or over.

In looking at these facts, the conclusion can be drawn that the majority of the teachers of persuasion are instructors and assistant professors and are young, since 75 percent (N = 93) of them have 1-10 years experience and 57 percent (N = 71) are instructors and assistant professors.

When asked how many sections were offered each year, 57 percent (N = 71) offered one section a year, 16 percent (N = 20) offered two sections, 5 percent (N = 6) offered three sections, 8 percent (N = 10) offered four sections, 2 percent (N = 2) offered five sections, and 12 percent (N = 15) offered more than five sections.

The average number of students in each class proved to be: 1-14 class members, 25 percent (N = 31); 15-19 class members, 20 percent (N = 26); 20-24 class members, 24 percent (N = 30); 25-29 class members, 17 percent (N = 21);

30-34 class members, 4 percent (N = 6); and over 35 class members, 8 percent (N = 10).

Summary

This chapter has presented how the respondents were selected, a description of the instrument, the treatment of data, and analysis of data. The section on analysis of data devoted a separate section reporting a response to each of the studies included on the questionnaire. The significance of these findings will be discussed in Chapter IV.

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CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The data analyzed in this study led to the following findings:

1. Persuasion is being taught in a greater percentage of the colleges and universities now than when the 1965 study was conducted. Thirty-seven percent in the present study reported no course in persuasion, while in the 1965 study, 56 percent showed no course offering in persuasion.

2. After examination of the textbooks and data gathered from the respondents, it can be concluded that experimental, rhetorical, and empirical studies are being used by the majority of the teachers of persuasion. Forty-eight respondents or 39 percent reported teaching a theory-oriented course, while 70 respondents or 56 percent reported combining theory and performance. This left a total of 6 respondents or 5 percent relying on no theory at all.

3. The approach of combining theory and performance was most prevalently used. Those using the combination approach included 70 respondents or 56 percent, while only 48 respondents or 39 percent used no performance.

4. The textbooks predominantly used in this study were those which included varying degrees of experimental, rhetorical, and empirical research. Those textbooks predominantly used in the 1965 study received minimal or no response in the present study. Bettinghaus (N = 24 or 20 percent), Minnick (N = 22 or 18 percent), Fotheringham (N = 123 or 10 percent), Cronkhite (N = 10 or 8 percent), and Andersen (N = 11 or 9 percent) were most often used.

5. There appeared to be no clear-cut consensus of opinion on the part of persuasion teachers as to the use of textbooks. Forty-four textbooks or 35 percent were given single mention compared to 65 percent (N = 84) of the respondents who mentioned the textbooks in conclusion number five. There seemed to be no single textbook or textbooks that met the needs of the majority.

6. The majority of respondents used other materials to supplement their course. There was a wide diversity of these materials.

7. The majority of the respondents reported the teaching of measuring techniques such as the Thurstone method, the Likert method, and Osgood's Semantic Differential.

8. The respondents identified mostly with the disciplines of public address, rhetorical theory, communication theory, and behavioral science.

9. The disciplines that influenced them most in the actual teaching of persuasion in rank order were: (1) behavioral science, (2) rhetorical theory, and (3) public address.

10. Learning theories were "rarely" used by the respondents. This was probably due to the fact that they were discussed in a general nature in some textbooks, such as Bettinghaus, Andersen, and Cronkhite.

11. Balance theories were used "often" by the respondents. Most all textbooks used by the majority of the respondents included these theories.

12. The studies in ethos were used "sometimes." Some of these studies were obscure compared to others. The studies of Haiman, Andersen and Clevenger, McCroskey, and Hovland and Weiss were used much more often than the other studies. Some or all of these studies appeared in the new textbooks, such as Minnick, Bettinghaus, Andersen, and Fotheringham.

13. The category of attitude-attitude change studies was reported as being used "rarely"; however, the Hovland and Janis study was "often" used and Osgood and Tannenbaum, Cohen, and Hovland and Sherif were "sometimes" used. These authors were outstanding contributors to the field of attitude studies. It was the lesser known studies that brought the rank to a lower level.

14. Studies in organization proved to be used "rarely" by respondents. Those studies used "sometimes" were those of Lumsdaine and Hovland.

15. The category including studies in fear appeals was also used "rarely." The studies of Miller and Janis and Feshbach stood out as being used "sometimes." One reason for not more use of fear appeals studies could be that the studies were contradictory in nature.

16. The category of studies in group norms were reported as being used "rarely." Only Asch's study was used "sometimes."

17. The studies in the category of evidence were used "rarely," also. McCroskey's study stood out as the one most used.

18. The category relating the understanding and analysis of audiences was used "rarely." Rokeach's theory was used more than the others mentioned (sometimes).

19. Both layouts of argument were recorded by respondents as being used "sometimes."

20. A total of twenty-eight studies were recorded as being used "sometimes" or "often." They were representative of all ten categories. This seems to indicate that certain studies are used to teach balance theory, learning theory, ethos, attitude-attitude change, organization, fear appeals, group norms, evidence, audience analysis, and layouts of argument.

21. The majority of teachers of persuasion are using experimental, empirical, and rhetorical studies. Respondents in the present study revealed that 118 respondents or 90 percent taught either an all theory course or a course composed of a combination of theory and performance.

22. The majority of the teachers of persuasion have had few years of experience and hold the rank of instructor or assistant professor. Seventy-five percent (N = 93) of the teachers have 1-10 years' experience and 57 percent (N = 71) are instructors and assistant professors.

23. The majority of senior colleges and universities offer at least one section of persuasion a year. A total of 71 respondents or 57 percent reported teaching one section of persuasion per year.

24. The majority of the classes reported in this study were small in number. The respondents reporting 1 to 24 students in each class were 97 or 69 percent.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made:

1. Continuous study needs to be done in the area of teaching persuasion. This study shows the teachers to be in a state of flux and indecision. A study five years from now might indicate more succinctly the direction we should be taking. It should indicate whether or not we continued

to view performance as an important factor or forsook it for the pursuit of more theory.

2. Textbooks need to be written that would better meet the needs of both the student and the teacher of persuasion.

3. A replication of this study needs to be done dealing with other courses within the speech discipline such as: fundamentals of public speaking, discussion, voice and diction, and business speaking.

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____ School _____

Rank _____

Does your department offer a course in persuasion? _____ If your answer is no, indicate and return the questionnaire.

1. What is the title of the course in persuasion in your department?

2. What textbook or textbooks are required in the course?

3. Do you have other required materials for the course?

Yes _____ No _____

If so, please specify. _____

4. How many sections of persuasion per year are offered? _____

5. What is the average number of students in each section? _____

6. Does your adopted text(s) meet the needs of your course?

Yes _____ No _____

7. If not, what are the limitations or weaknesses? _____

(If more space is needed for your answer,
use the back of the questionnaire.)

8. Number of years experience in teaching persuasion.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| (a) 1-4 years _____ | (b) 5-9 years _____ |
| (c) 10-14 years _____ | (d) 15-19 years _____ |
| (e) 20 or more _____ | |

9. Is your highest degree in speech? Yes _____ No _____. If not, in what area? _____
10. Do you consider yourself primarily related to any of the following areas? (Check more than one if necessary.)
- (a) Public Address _____ (b) Rhetorical Theory _____
 (c) General Semantics _____ (d) Behavioral Science _____
 (e) Speech Pathology _____ (f) Oral Interpretation _____
 (g) Linguistics _____ (h) Radio-TV _____
 (i) Other _____ (j) Communication Theory _____
11. When you teach persuasion, to what extent are you influenced by the following fields? (Please rank three areas of most influence, 1 for most influential, 2 for next, etc.)
- (a) Public Address _____ (b) Rhetorical Theory _____
 (c) Behavioral Science _____ (d) Speech Pathology _____
 (e) Oral Interpretation _____ (f) General Semantics _____
 (g) Linguistics _____ (h) Radio-TV _____
 (i) Other _____
12. Is your course primarily a
- (a) Performance Course _____ (b) Theory-Oriented Course _____
 (c) Combination of the two _____
13. If performance is required, how many speeches are given in a semester?
- (a) One _____ (b) Two _____ (c) Three _____ (d) Four _____
14. More than four. (If so, please specify the number) _____
15. If your course is composed of a combination of the two, what percentage of your class time is spent on each?
- (a) Theory _____ (b) Performance _____
16. Do you teach any of the following measuring techniques?
- (a) Thurstone Approach _____ (b) Likert Method _____
 (c) Guttman's Scalegram Analysis _____ (d) Osgood's Semantic Differential _____
 (e) Bogardus Social Distance Scale _____
 (f) Fishbein and Raven's AB Scales _____ (g) Other _____

Indicate how often, if any, you utilize the following studies or the principles of the studies in classroom presentation in the teaching

of persuasion. (Please circle the appropriate number on the 5-point scale, using the following graduated ratings: (1) Extensively; (2) Often; (3) Sometimes; (4) Rarely; (5) None.)

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|------|
| 17. | Lewin's Field Theory | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 18. | Bruner and Postman's Hypothesis Theory | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 19. | Skinner's Theory of Behavior | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 20. | Gestalt Theory | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 21. | Maslow's Hierarchy of Values | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 22. | Allport's Personality Theory | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 23. | Heider Theory | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 24. | Festinger's Theory of Cognitive-Dissonance | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 25. | Osgood and Tannenbaum "Principle of Congruity" | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 26. | Haiman "The Effects of Ethos in Speaking" | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 27. | Andersen and Clevenger "A Summary of Experimental Research in Ethos" | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 28. | Biddle "An Experimental Study of Ethos and Appeal for Overt Behavior in Persuasion" | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 29. | Greenberg and Miller "The Effects of Low-Credibility Sources on Message Acceptance" | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |
| 30. | Lemert "Dimensions of Source Credibility" | | | | | | |
| | Extensively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | None |

31. McCroskey "Scales for the Measurement of Ethos"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
32. Hovland and Weiss "The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
33. Lorge "Prestige Suggestion and Attitudes"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
34. Sharp and McClung "Effect of Organization on the Speaker's Ethos"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
35. Hovland and Janis Personality and Persuasibility (Attitude Studies)
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
36. Katz "Functional Approach to Attitude Change"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
37. Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall Attitude and Attitude Change
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
38. Abelson and Rosenberg "Symbolic Psychologic: A Model of Attitudinal Cognition"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
39. Knower's Attitude Studies
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
40. Fishbein "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Beliefs About an Object and Attitude Toward the Object"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
41. Osgood and Tannenbaum "The Principle of Congruity in the Prediction of Attitude Change"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
42. Cohen Attitude Change and Social Influence
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
43. Hovland and Sherif Social Judgment
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
44. Rosenberg, Any of his studies in attitude change.
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
45. Theory of Assimilation-Contrast
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None

46. Sarnoff, Katz and McClintock "Attitude-Change Procedures and Motivating Patterns"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
47. Thompson "An Experimental Investigation of the Relative Effectiveness of Organizational Structure in Oral Communication"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
48. Cohen "Need for Cognition and Order of Communication as Determinants of Opinion Change"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
49. McGuire "Order of Presentation as a Factor in 'Conditioning' Persuasiveness"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
50. Gulley and Berlo "Effects of Intercellular and Intracellular Speech Structure on Attitude Change and Learning"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
51. Hovland "The Order of Presentation in Persuasion"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
52. Gilkinson, Paulson and Sikkink "Effects of Order and Authority in an Argumentative Speech"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
53. Bruner and Goodman "Values and Needs as Organizational Factors in Perception"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
54. Lumsdaine and Janis "Resistance to Counterpropaganda Produced by One-Sided and Two-Sided Propaganda Presentations"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
55. Sikkink "An Experimental Study of the Effects of the Listener of Anticlimax Order and Authority in an Argumentative Speech"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
56. Smith "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Speech Organization Upon College Speech Students"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
57. Sponberg "A Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Climax and Anticlimax Order in an Argumentative Speech"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
58. Miller "Studies on the Use of Fear Appeals"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None

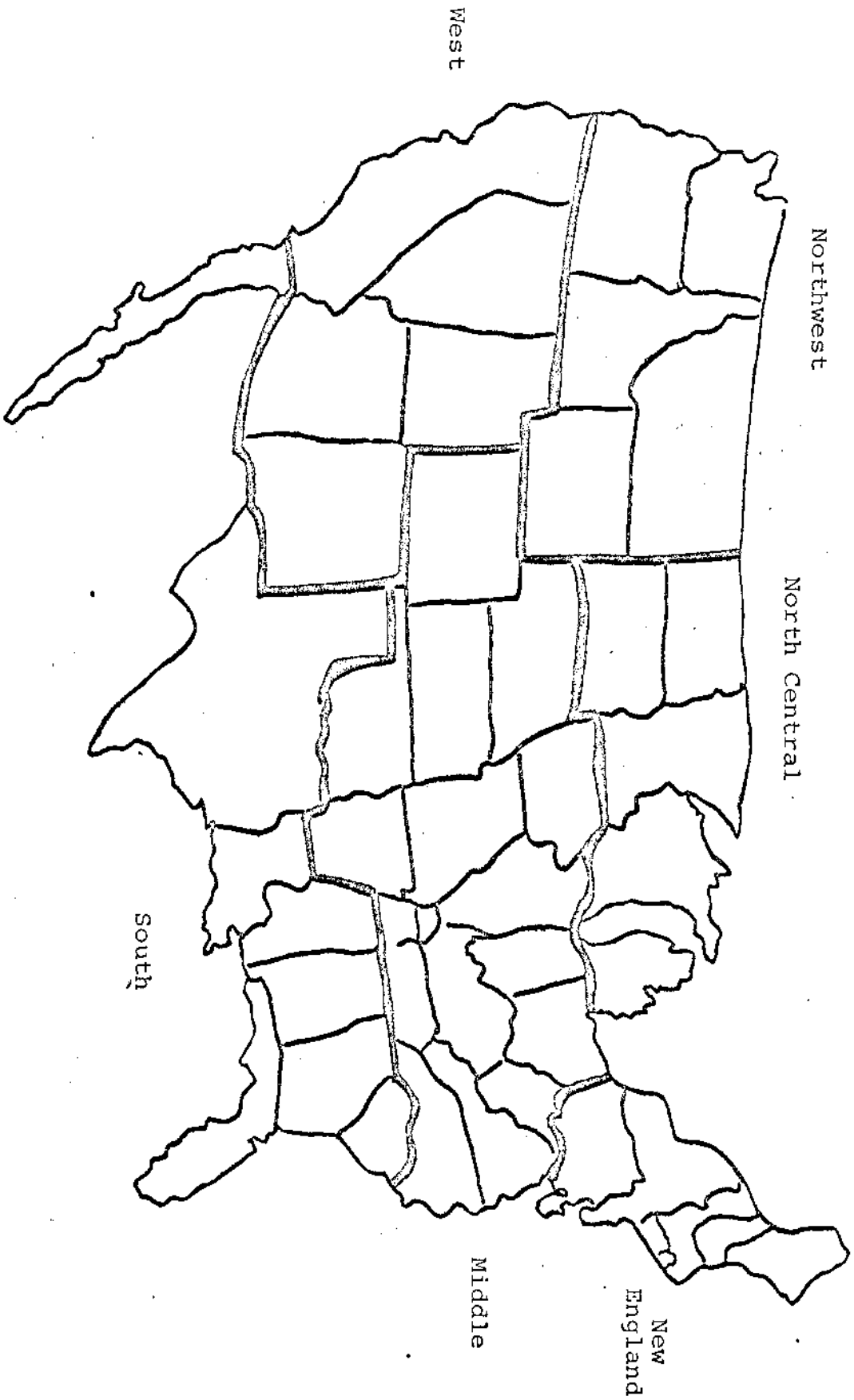
59. Berkowitz and Cottingham "The Interest, Values, and Relevance of Fear-Arousing Communication"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
60. Janis and Feshbach "Effects of Fear-Arousing Communication"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
61. Miller and Hewgill "Some Recent Research on Fear-Arousing Message Appeals"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
62. Duncan "Fear-Arousing Appeals in Persuasion"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
63. Singer "The Effect of Fear-Arousing Communication on Attitude Change and Behavior"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
64. Kelley "Two Functions of Reference Groups"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
65. Siegel and Siegel "Reference Group, Membership Group and Attitude Change"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
66. Bales and Borgatta "Size of Group as a Factor in the Interaction Profile"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
67. Thomas and Fink "Effect of Group Size"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
68. Asch "Effect of Group Pressures Upon the Modification and Distortion of Judgments"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
69. Crutchfield "Conformity and Character"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
70. Sommer "Small Group Ecology"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
71. Allport "Concept of the Group Mind"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
72. Moore "The Comparative Influence of Majority and Expert Opinion"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None

73. Kelly and Volkart "The Resistance to Change of Group Anchored Attitudes"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
74. Dresser "Effects of Satisfactory and Unsatisfactory Evidence in a Speech of Advocacy"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
75. Gilson and Abelson "The Subjective Use of Inductive Evidence"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
76. McCroskey "Studies of the Effects of Evidence in Persuasive Communication"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
77. Anderson "The Effect of Various Uses of Authoritative Testimony in Persuasive Speaking"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
78. Adorno The Authoritarian Personality
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
79. Rokeach The Open and Closed Mind
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
80. Broadbent Theory of Perception
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
81. Furbay "The Influence of Scattered vs Compact Seating on Audience Response"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
82. Toulmin's Scheme of Argument
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
83. Cronkhite's Paradigm of Persuasion
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None
84. Paulson "The Effects of the Prestige of the Speaker and Acknowledgement of Opposing Arguments on Audience Retention and Shift of Opinion"
Extensively 1 2 3 4 5 None

85. Other studies which you use in teaching persuasion.

PLEASE RETURN QUESTIONNAIRE TO: MRS. JUNE PRENTICE
DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH
MIDWESTERN UNIVERSITY
WICHITA FALLS, TEXAS 76308

APPENDIX II



· APPENDIX III

4700 Alamo
Wichita Falls, Texas 76302
May 4, 1971

Dear Chairman:

I am a student in the doctoral program at North Texas State University in Denton, Texas. The topic of my dissertation is The Status of Recent Experimental, Empirical and Rhetorical Studies in the Teaching of Persuasion. I plan to acquire my data from the enclosed questionnaire. It is my hope to discover what influence, if any, the studies included in various textbooks in persuasion published since 1966, have had on the teaching of persuasion.

Would you please pass this questionnaire to one of your teachers of persuasion or one who has taught it in the last three years? If you do not have a course of this kind in your department, would you please answer the preliminary questions on Page One and return the questionnaire?

The enclosed card is for you to record the name and rank of the person to whom this questionnaire has been forwarded so that from this point on I can communicate directly with him.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

(Mrs.) June Prentice
Assistant Professor
Midwestern University
Wichita Falls, Texas 76308

APPENDIX IV

4700 Alamo
Wichita Falls, Texas 76302

To the teacher of persuasion:

I am a student in the doctoral program at North Texas State University in Denton, Texas. The title of my dissertation will be The Status of Recent Experimental, Empirical and Rhetorical Studies in the Teaching of Persuasion.

I am aware that there are different valid approaches to teaching persuasion. This study, however, is concerned with the degree of influence, if any, the recent studies have had on our current teaching practices in persuasion.

Even if you use none of the studies included in items 17 through 84 of the instrument, please so indicate and return the questionnaire to me. These results are equally vital to the study.

I shall appreciate your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

(Mrs.) June Prentice
Assistant Professor
Midwestern University
Wichita Falls, Texas 76308

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