1-1-2010

Effect Of Goal-Setting And Self-Generated Feedback On Student Speechmaking

Luke Lefebvre

Wayne State University

EFFECT OF GOAL-SETTING AND SELF-GENERATED FEEDBACK ON STUDENT SPEECHMAKING

by

LUKE LE FEBVRE

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2010

MAJOR: COMMUNICATION

Approved by:

_____

Advisor Date

_____

_____

_____

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

Effect of Goal-setting and Self-generated Feedback on Student Speechmaking

For nearly half a century, video has been utilized in the introductory course as an instructional technological tool to aid students in skill development. Video documentation easily allows for a preserved and accurate rendering of a performance for the recipient. The feedback recipient is essential to any communicative message, in that she or he selects, interprets, and responds to the feedback (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Fedor, 1991; Herold & Fedor, 1998; Ilgen, Fisher, &Taylor, 1979; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Taylor, Fisher, & Ilgen, 1984). Video feedback is intended to improve student-speaking performance for subsequent speaking occasions. However, the integration of video technologies for the purpose of performance improvement in public speaking appears to have been premature or, at least, not clearly understood in its application. A recent meta-analytic review (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), outside the discipline of communication, of the extensive literature on feedback demonstrates inconsistent associations with improved performance. Within the communication education literature, feedback is commonly referenced as an essential component of the communication process, but receives little attention and remains underdeveloped (Quigly & Nyquist, 1992; Smith & King, 2004). Communication goals also remain relatively unexplored in the communication education literature, especially as to how goals and feedback interrelate and affect performance improvement. Realization of how these two

communication components, feedback and goals, interact could provide valuable insight into how video feedback is used in the introductory course.

Despite the lack of attention, video feedback has become a permanent feature among instructional strategies of the introductory course (Bourhis & Allen, 1998). Verbal and nonverbal elements of the lived experience are easily captured on video for the purpose of understanding and reflection. While the purpose of video feedback is clear to the instructor, the value of student-speakers' use of video technology as a feedback mechanism is unclear (Book, 1985; Ogilvie & Haslett, 1985). Research does not indicate how students process video feedback, how student goals impact the interpretation of video feedback, or how video feedback impacts subsequent public speaking performances. Instructors assume video feedback will improve speaking performance; unfortunately, a lack of research means instructors' assumptions may be unfounded. Additionally, the investment made in these costly video technologies may be economically unwise for communication departments. This study has applicability for instructors, basic course directors, and administrators in terms of developing introductory course programs that make purposeful and effective use of video feedback.

The current study uses an analysis of variance to examine the grade improvement between students in differing treatment conditions using goal setting and video feedback. The purpose of this research is to investigate how feedback and goals interact to play a critical role in speaking skill development for students enrolled in the introductory course. Chapter Two reviews the introductory course and video use in the introductory course, feedback and how video feedback allows for self-observation and self-generated

feedback, goals as related to self-judgment and rubrics, and theoretical perspectives on feedback and goal setting. Chapter Three outlines the methods utilized and details how the study was conducted between experimental and control conditions in the introductory course. Chapter Four reports the data collected and the results of analysis as it relates to the significant effect anticipatory goals and self-generated feedback have on grade improvement. Finally, Chapter Five discusses the findings, implications of the findings, pedagogical implications, implications beyond the introductory course, limitations, proposes future research avenues, and concludes as it relates to goals and feedback in a practical and theoretical manner.

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

Context of the Introductory Course:

A Brief History of its Inception and Evolution

The introductory course has been defined as "that communication course either required or recommended for a significant number of undergraduates; that course which the department has, or would recommend as a requirement for all or most undergraduates" (Morreale, Hanna, Berko, & Gibson, 1999, p. 3). The purpose of the course is to teach students how to prepare appropriate and effective messages when interacting with other people within and across various contexts. The introductory course is a course that has and continues to define the communication discipline.

1915 to 1940: Foundations of a new discipline. The communication literature's initial reference to the introductory course occurred in 1915 in an article entitled, "College Courses in Public Speaking," written by Thomas C. Trueblood. The claim advanced in the article advocated for the introductory course to (1) focus on public speaking and (2) function as a gateway course to other more advanced courses offered by institutions within the communication discipline. Trueblood's (1915) article triggered a sequence of articles published in *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education* from 1917 to 1918 reporting on the content coverage, enrollment demographics, and speaking activities used in the introductory course (see, Duffy, 1917; Forncrook, 1918; Hollister, 1917; Houghton, 1918; Hunt, 1917; Kay, 1917; Winans, 1917). These articles precipitated a committee be formed at the Eastern Public Speaking Conference that was

charged with the responsibility of offering recommendations for the introductory course (Minutes from the 11th Annual Meeting – "The Form," 1920). Morlan (1993) summarizes that,

> Committee members supported a one-semester general education course which should not meet less than three hours per week. The course should be a pre-requisite for all advanced courses in speech and sections should be no larger than 25 students. Prescribed units in the course should include general knowledge of the elements of vocal expression, quality, force, pitch, and time. The rest of the content should be left to the option of the instructor with the expectation that the course would definitely point out the field of speech to the pupil, its possibilities along both original and public speaking and interpretive lines, so that after its completion, the pupil may be able to choose more intelligently from advanced courses offered in the department. (p. 2)

Progress of the introductory course advanced slowly over the next twenty years (1920s and 1930s) due to the fledgling discipline's attempts to ground itself as a legitimate profession (Cohen, 1994).

1940 to 1965: An emphasis on public speaking. The introductory course from 1915 to 1940 had always focused on performance as a fundamental component of the course; however, "performance" was interpreted broadly (Morlan, 1993). The infusion of the extemporaneous method of speaking in the introductory course honed the definition of performance as well as how it would be assessed. Due to the merger of the

extemporaneous method into the introductory course, curriculum content was now considered equally important as delivery when speaking to an audience.

According to Auer (1989), during this period two approaches emerged in the introductory course: (1) formulaic and (2) prescriptive. The formulaic approach "refers to selection and organization of what is said, and prescriptive refers to how it is said, articulated, and pronounced" (Auer, 1989, p. 7). The inclusion of the formulaic approach was spearheaded by Alan H. Monroe in *Principles and Types of Speech* (1935) and took root in the introductory course during this second period. The combination of these forms of speaking blended nicely with the extemporaneous method. *Speaking extemporaneously*

> falls somewhere between impromptu and written or memorized deliveries. When you give an extemporaneous speech, you prepare well and practice in advance, giving full attention to all facets of the speech – content, arrangement, and delivery alike. Instead of memorizing or writing the speech out word for word, you speak from an outline of key words and phrases, having concentrated throughout your preparation and practice on the ideas that you want to communicate. (O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2001, p. 261)

By the 1950s public speaking was nearly synonymous with the introductory course. Hargis (1956) surveyed 229 communication departmental chairpersons regarding the focus of the introductory course at their institution. Sixty-four percent of those institutions' introductory course focused on public speaking. Nearly a decade later, Dedmon and Frandsen (1963) found a similar percentage of communication departments focused on public speaking in the introductory course.

1965 to present: Course growth and technology inclusion. James W. Gibson of the University of Missouri was charged with the task of clarifying the nature of the introductory course by the Executive Committee of the Speech Communication Association in the late 1960s (Morlan, 1993). Gibson and colleagues produced six survey articles (Gibson, Gruner, Brooks, & Petrie, 1970; Gibson, Gruner, Hanna, Smythe, & Hayes, 1980; Gibson, Hanna, & Huddleston, 1985; Gibson, Hanna, Leichty, 1990; Gibson, Kline, & Gruner, 1974; Morreale, Hanna, Berko, & Gibson, 1999) examining the introductory course over the next thirty years. The most interesting findings across each of these surveys are (1) the continued growth of the introductory course and (2) the inclusion of technology in the classroom to aid students' skill acquisition.

The Introductory Course:

Present Context

The introductory course continues to be a general education requirement for students to complete within their first two years of study at an institution. Estimates indicate that hundreds of thousands of college students attend an introductory course daily in the United States (Morreale, Hugenburg, & Worley, 2006). The student population that enrolls in the introductory course has a limited or non-communication focused exposure to the content and requirements of the introductory course.

The format of the introductory course is dominated by two approaches: (1) public speaking and (2) a hybrid composition. A hybrid course, as referenced here, is an introductory course that includes a combination of course coverage of interpersonal, group and public speaking all in one class (Kramer & Hinton, 1996; Morreale et al.,

2006). The most recent "State of the Introductory Course" investigation by Morreale and colleagues (2006) confirmed this finding through their survey study where colleges and universities reported that 57.8% are public speaking and 35.3% are hybrid course offerings. Historically, the communication discipline has been associated with helping students develop public speaking skills (Cohen, 1994). For the remainder of this paper when the term "introductory course" is used it represents the public speaking format. Due to the large student enrollment in the introductory course, as highlighted above, most students are being introduced to the discipline of communication through the venue of public speaking instruction.

Purpose of the Introductory Course

Instruction in the introductory course is heavily geared toward skill acquisition. For example, students learn (most likely for the first time in their educational experience) in the introductory public speaking course

> how to choose and narrow a topic; how to determine a central idea and main points; how to analyze and adapt to an audience; how to gather information by conducting library research and personal interviews; how to employ supporting materials soundly, clearly, and persuasively; how to organize ideas strategically for a specific audience and occasion; how to use language accurately, clearly, vividly, and appropriately; and how to control their voice and body so as to deliver a message fluently and convincingly. (Lucas, 1999, p. 76)

Each of these exercises eventually converges into a single speaking occasion, where the student performs his or her speech. On average the introductory course requires students

to produce three or four speeches a semester (Morreale et al., 2006). Experiences offered by the introductory course in the undergraduate curriculum are perceived as beneficial for students (Hunt, Ekachai, Garard, & Rust, 2001; Kim & Wright, 1989) and graduates of colleges and universities (Belcher, 1996; Pearson, Nelson, & Sorenson, 1981; Sorenson & Pearson, 1981) due to the practical skill-based focus. These skills easily transport to careers outside the institution (National Center for Education Statistics, 1994). This skill-based concentration of the introductory course, appreciated by students, alumni, and employers (Diamond, 1997; Maes, Weldy, & Icenogle, 1997; Morreale, Osborn, & Pearson, 2000; Report of the National Association of Colleges and Employers, 1998), is also extremely complex and requires task performance analysis of the speech and speaker.

The National Postsecondary Education Cooperative (2005) stated that the skill-based focus of the introductory course "is more challenging than assessing writing or reading skills" (p. 12). Oral communication skills blend the selection and arrangement of content with the behavioral mechanisms of nonverbal and verbal communication, which are often times supplemented with presentational aids during a speaking occasion. Moreover, types of speeches vary in the introductory course.

Speech Types and the Introductory Course

The number of speeches required for an introductory course varies from institution to institution. According to the most recent "State of the Introductory Course" (Morreale, Worley, & Hugenberg, in press) 43.4% of responding institutions require students to present one to three speeches during a semester introductory course. When

programs of communication were asked to rank topic importance for the introductory course the primary issue was extemporaneous speaking followed the speech types of speaking to persuade and speaking to inform (Morreale, Hugenberg, & Worley, 2006). Reductively, based on this information, introductory courses require an informative and persuasive speech as part of their course design for student speechmaking.

The informative speech. To inform is to communicate knowledge (O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2001) or enhance understanding (Wilson, Arnold, & Wertheimer, 1990). The goal of the informative speech

> is to increase the audience's understanding or awareness by imparting knowledge. Informative speeches provide an audience with new information, new insights, or new ways of thinking about a topic. As an informative speaker, you might introduce listeners to new ideas, events, people, places, or processes. (O'Hair et al., 2001, p. 337)

When speaking to inform, a speaker usually defines, describes, offers an explanation, or demonstration for his or her audience.

The persuasive speech. To persuade is to advocate for a particular view or position. Persuasion is "any communication process in which a source attempts either to change receivers' beliefs or attitudes, or to induce overt behavior in others" (Taylor, 1979, p. 214). The goal of the persuasive speech is similar to the informative speech but rather than simply seeking to enlighten, the goal of the persuasive speech is to influence audience choices (Brembeck & Howell, 1976). Persuasive speaking asks listeners, explicitly and implicitly, to make a choice (O'Hair et al., 2001).

Both informative and persuasive speeches appear to be the most popular types of speeches to include in the introductory course. To assist instructors in examining the complexities exhibited during a speech occasion, video was incorporated into the introductory course to document student speeches.

Video and the Introductory Course

The first technology, audio recordings, preceded the use of video technology in the introductory course. Nystrom and Leaf (1939), in their foundational study, found that merely listening to one's audio recording effected no improvement in subsequent speaking performance. As technology advanced, the accessibility to technology feedback systems followed suit. Videotaping was the next logical extension of audiotape recordings for student self-assessment. Use of video in the introductory course became prominent in the 1970s and continued into the 1980s. Research examined video's impact on student perception and skill development (Bradley, 1970; Dieker, Crane, & Brown, 1971; Miles, 1981; Mulac, 1974) and effective uses of video records of student speeches (Hirshfeld, 1968; McCroskey & Lashbrook, 1970; Porter & King, 1972). Eventually, Bourhis and Allen (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of these and other related studies (Adams, 1973; Bush, Bittner, & Brooks, 1972; Deihl, Breen & Larson, 1970; Goldhaber & Kline, 1972; Lake & Adams, 1984) concluding "the use of videotaped feedback results in greater skill acquisition" (p. 259). Unfortunately, this video research has primarily focused on the technological impact toward students, including student affect for technology, use of multiple mediums of technology to provide feedback, and technology's impact on speech anxiety. During the same year as the Bourhis and Allen

(1998) meta-analysis, Hinton and Kramer (1998) conducted research examining the impact of self-directed videotape feedback on student's self-reported levels of communication competence and apprehension. The study concluded that students' self-directed viewing of videotapes had a small, significant impact on students' self-perceptions of their speaking performances. Additionally, students responded favorably on an end-of-semester survey toward the use of video feedback. Over 75% of students indicated that they believed video helped them see potential areas for improvement in their speaking presentations. The focus of these studies on technology is important but overlooks how students interpret the feedback video provides as it impacts task performance.

Currently, video-recordings of student speeches continue to play a critical role in the introductory course for evaluation purposes and/or student self-observation (Morreale et al., 2006). The latter, student self-observation, allows for an observer perspective for the student and, is assumed, to provide a "valuable perspective from which to recognize their individual skills and to work on skill development" (Quigley & Nyquist, 1992, p. 326). Therefore, instructors of the introductory course report they "record one to three of their graded assignments for student playback" (Morreale et al., 2006, p. 432). This form of delayed unstructured video feedback has not resulted in student performance improvement on subsequent speaking occasions (see Hung & Rosenthal, 1981; Quigley & Nyquist, 1992; Rothstein & Arnold, 1976; Waggoner & Scheid, 1989). Perhaps, even more importantly, research has not extensively examined how students interpret video feedback of their speaking performance and if the feedback self-generated by an

individual is accurate and helpful in modifying communicative behavior for improved future speech presentations.

Feedback

Feedback is a process consisting of deliberate communicative comments containing both descriptive and evaluative information intended to inform the recipient of her or his accuracy regarding established performance criteria (Behnke & King, 1984; Book, 1985; Booth-Butterfield, 1989; Clement & Frandsen, 1976; Mory, 2003; Smith & King, 2004). In a broader sense, feedback allows for a comparison of actual performance with some set standard of performance (Johnson & Johnson, 1993). The discrepancies between student performance and the set-standard are called *feedback standard gaps* (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Feedback standard gaps form a divergence of perception between what occurred in reality and what the speaker believes occurred during the speaking performance. Simply, people are not good at reporting about their own communication behavior (Bernard, Killworth, & Sailer, 1979; Sypher & Sypher, 1984). Perceptual convergence of communicative behavior in a public speaking context is important for both student understanding and skill development. In essence, for a student to become a self-regulated learner it is essential he or she become aware of his or her behavior. Video feedback has the potential to function as a tool to minimize and/or eliminate discrepancies between perceived and actual behavior for students enrolled in the introductory course.

Video Feedback

Video documentation. Video of student speaking performance in the classroom is raw footage. These raw footage documents are "video records of practice" (see LeFevre, 2004). Video records of practice consist of authentic footage of student-speakers in actual classroom settings performing their speaking presentations. It is authentic from the perspective that the presentation is filmed as it naturally occurs (LeFevre, 2004). Authentic perspectives captured by camera and converted to video provide the student an opportunity to view oneself in action, thus making one's own practice accessible to oneself (Rosebery & Warren, 1998).

Before continuing, "video" as the term is used in this study refers to digital footage allowing for rapid access, which can be viewed by computer (see Marx, Blumenfeld, & Krajcik, 1988; van den Berg, 2001). Digital video and videotapes provide virtually the same content (Dupagne, Stacks, & Giroux, 2007); however, digital video can be controlled from a personal computer and displayed on a computer monitor from nearly any location and allows for multiple viewings from any point of the recording by simply clicking on the desired temporal section of the timeframe reference. Furthermore, the video can be stored and retrieved, played and replayed, and is not susceptible to time-lapse (Lemke, 2007). This type of video documentation, as an instructional technological tool, has remained relatively unexplored in the communication discipline to date.

The potential of video feedback. Video is ideal for presenting feedback about human behaviors (Schwartz & Hartman, 2007) because it is superior to other methods, such as audiotape or the written word. Video has the potential to capture real time data,

both visual and aural, which is thick, rich, and detailed in description and representation (Eckart & Gibson, 1993; Farber & Nira, 1990; Tochon, 2007; Wetzel, Radtke, & Stern, 1994). The amount of information captured by video can be immense (Wetzel et al., 1994). Both aural and visual senses are simultaneously stimulated by video. “In fact, the video viewer might just as well be referred to as the ‘listener’ given the extensiveness of the aural information commonly communicated through video” (LeFevre, 2004, p. 239). Video also functions as a pictorial witness – similar to that of a mirror (Tochon, 2007). Any nonverbal communication captured by the camera’s lens is made available for viewing and analysis. This combination of sensory information allows video to be more effective than either verbal or written feedback.

Video feedback can prompt mental processes for evaluating information, comparing actions, and formatting or rebuilding of actions for the future (Brandl, 1995). Therefore, video feedback is helpful for student identification of incongruities in perceived self-efficacy (Scherer, Chang, Meredith, & Battistella, 2003). Perceived self-efficacy is the discrepancy between the behavior a student thinks he or she is performing and the behavior that he or she actually performs (i.e., feedback standard gaps) (Gage & Polatajko, 1994). Furthermore, feedback provided by video is characteristic and attribute neutral, and relatively factual and incontrovertible (Kopelman, 1986), so source credibility is not an issue. In short, video concurrently portrays the nuances and the complexities of a speechmaking presentation.

Self-observation

Video feedback is neutral and factually incontrovertible information, but how the video feedback is interpreted through observation depends largely on who is observing the behavior. *Self-observation* refers to how an individual deliberately focuses his or her attention to a specific aspect(s) of behavior (Mace, Belfiore, & Shea, 1989). Bandura (1986) attests that self-observation serves an important self-regulatory function by providing information to people about what they do and how they are doing it, which is then used for goal-setting and evaluative progress. Self-observation is most effective when addressing specific situations where the communicative behavior occurs (Schunk, 1991). The self-observed information has the potential to function as an agent for adaptation of incongruities or reinforcement of congruent behaviors. The process of self-observation is aided, as Mace, Belfiore, and Shea (1989) maintain, by the use of video because without video one's recollections of the performance may not accurately reflect what actually occurred due to selective memory. Therefore, video provides a platform for self-observation that must be interpreted through self-assessment and self-judgment based on the standards of performance to generate feedback by the observer.

Self-generated Feedback

Once the presentation has been captured on video the student views the presentation apart from the classroom. It is unlikely instructors have the time to watch each video recording with individual students as self-assessment occurs. More likely, the student is required to self-observe and self-assess his or her video individually outside the classroom. This form of individual speaking performance assessment is called *self-*

generated feedback. Self-generated feedback is created when individuals view video of their own communication event(s) and are "able to judge their own performance and therefore serve as their own source of feedback" (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979, p. 351).

Students' who are self-generating feedback following self-observation usually are provided a semi-structured self-assessment or self-critique form when analyzing their speaking presentation. However, feedback needs direction for effect, and goals provide that direction. Goals often take the form of grades in the classroom.

Goals

A *goal* is an objective, aim, purpose, and intention (Locke & Latham, 1990), or, simply, what an individual is trying to accomplish (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). It is believed that goals direct human behavior toward desired objectives (Locke et al., 1981), and it is through these objectives that plans are formulated to attain a desired outcome. An outcome is "something that follows as a result or consequence of an activity" (Bandura, 1989, p. 25). An outcome differs from performance. A performance is the execution of an action toward a desired goal outcome. In an academic setting, letter grades of *A, B, C, D,* and *F* are considered performance level criteria, which create benchmarks for students to achieve (Bandura, 1989). Students who strive to achieve an *A* on a particular exercise have set a goal expectation or what has been termed a *grade goal* (Locke & Bryan, 1968; Wood & Locke, 1987). For clarity, an outcome would be the grade received on the speech by the student from the instructor. Grade goals serve as benchmarks for a student's standard of personal success for a given assignment or the overall course. Due to the nature of the introductory course, where students learn the

principles and acquire skills incrementally, grade goals aid students in monitoring and adapting speaking behaviors to achieve academic objectives in the course. By setting grade goals students learn how to respond to goal achievement and failure (see Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeider, 2000; Schutz & Davis, 2000) following the performance of the task, which allows for self-judgment and adjustment of goal setting.

Self-judgment and Rubrics

Self-judgment "involves comparing present performance with one's goal" (Schunk, 1991, p. 89). The judgment related to a performance depends on the type of standards set-forth for the exercise within a given course. In an instructional setting these standards for achievement or criteria of assessment take the form of rubrics. A rubric

> articulates in writing the various criteria and standards that a faculty member uses to evaluate student work. It translates informed professional judgment into numerical ratings on a scale. Something is always lost in translation, but the advantage is that these ratings can now be communicated and compared. (Walvoord, 2004, p. 19)

Stevens and Levi (2005) maintain a rubric consists of four components: (1) task description, (2) scale, (3) dimensions, and (4) dimension descriptions. A *task description* describes the behavioral expectations for a given exercise, assignment, paper, or, as is the focus is in this study, a speech. An example of a task description would be,

> Each student will present a five to seven minute informative presentation. The primary objective is to inform or enlighten your audience about a topic of interest. The student will select and narrow a topic of her or his choosing for the

presentation. Be sure to have a clear specific purpose and central idea statements, as well as a minimum of five credible sources for oral crediting. The presentation should include appropriate presentational aids for the audience. See your course supplement for a full description of the requirements for the informative speech.

The second component of a rubric is the *scale*. A scale describes the level of performance in a clear and tactful manner for the student (Steven & Levi, 2005). The scale may be numerical (e.g., 3, 2, 1), grade (e.g., A, C, F), and/or word based (e.g., Sophisticated, Competent, Not Yet Competent). Walvoord and Anderson (1998) maintain a rubric's scale should accomplish dual purposes. The first is to illustrate an additive-subtractive relationship between the criterion levels. For instance, a *3* is described as doing something better or more than a *2*; or *1* is described as doing something less well than a *2* (example adapted from Walvoord & Anderson). The second aspect a scale should illustrate for its user is how the levels differ in quality. How this quality is depicted is narrated in the description of the dimensions; however, before discussing the dimension descriptions, a rubric's dimensions must be clarified.

The third component of a rubric is its *dimensions*. Dimensions diagram the components to be assessed in a simple and complete manner (Stevens & Levi, 2005). For example, an informative speech's dimensions related to delivery might include: "Extemporaneous Delivery," "Eye Contact," "Movement and Gestures," "Vocal Variety," "Articulation," and "Grammar and Word Usage." The purpose of providing dimensions for learners is to clarify the components of the task and what aspects of the task are important. Fracturing an assignment into distinct dimensions provides a student

with a clearer path to task analyze the objectives for the performance (Pike, 2002). This is especially useful for speechmaking presentations where many different dimensions converge to create the performance. Rubric dimensions should not depict quality of performance as that information is available by examining the scale and dimensional descriptions.

The final component of the rubric is the *description of the dimensions*. Dimensions provide a framework for the parts of a task and the descriptions for each dimension provide the structure. Each level of the scale is described along each dimension for the learner from the highest all the way to the lowest level. These descriptions provide students with specific feedback about the approximate location of their performance in relation to the task being evaluated. The learner, by using the scale in combination with dimensional descriptions, can compare the difference between the level of performance and the ideal. Furthermore, each description provides how it was additive to the prior description or subtractive to the previous description. This contrasting and reassessment allows the student to see how to get to a desired level of achievement or change in behavior. The rubric provides students with detailed descriptions of "what constitutes acceptable and unacceptable levels of performance" (Stevens & Levi, 2005, p. 3). For each part of a given assignment, assessment of the student's performance can be compared to the achievement criteria provided in the rubric.

Additionally, rubrics facilitate a classroom goal structure that is individualistic rather than competitive. As Ames (1984) points out, *competitive* classrooms reduce the

possibility of students receiving rewards when others are successful. Such competitive practices in the classroom inherently lead students to compare their performances to those of other students (Ames & Ames, 1984). When instructors use a rubric they promote individual student accomplishments independent of what others do in the class. These types of individualistic conditions allow students to have an equal opportunity to earn rewards for an activity. *Individualistic* conditions have been found to "lead students to focus on their own performance improvement over time and to adopt learning goals of improving their skills" (Schunk, 1991, p. 89).

A rubric assists students in adjusting goals for reaching the absolute standards of the course. Absolute standards are fixed goals and grading systems are based on absolute standards (e.g., 94-100 = A, 90-94 = A-, 87-89 = B+, etc.). Simply, standards inform the process of progress towards one's goals.

Speeches are Goal Produced Messages

Speeches are inherently goal-produced messages. An extemporaneous speechmaking occasion has parameters set by two primary goals: (1) general purpose and (2) specific purpose. The *general purpose* is the broad goal of the speech (Lucas, 2009). Usually, the general purpose will be categorized into one of two purposes – to inform or to persuade. Each of these general purposes has been described in the section dedicated to extemporaneous speaking.

The specific purpose focuses even more closely than the general purpose on the goal of the speech (O'Hair et al., 2001). The *specific purpose* "represents actual goals [the speaker] wants to achieve" (Ehnigher, Gronbeck, & Monroe, 1984, p. 54) in relation

to the general purpose, topic, and audience. A specific purpose usually takes the form of a single declarative sentence, stating the desired outcome to accomplish during the speaking occasion. This statement can only be formed once the speaker has selected the topic to be presented. Once formulated the specific purpose represents exactly what a speaker wants her or his audience to do, feel, believe, understand, or enjoy.

The creation of a general and specific purpose focuses a speaker's efforts toward a particular speech outcome. When used in combination with a rubric, students are provided an opportunity to identify situationally relevant goals to pursue and coordinate during a speaking occasion. Assisting students to coordinate these efforts is important for message production because speechmaking requires students to manage multiple goals simultaneously.

Rubrics and message production. Speakers produce messages to accomplish goals (Berger, 1997; Dillard, 1990; Schrader & Dillard, 1998; Wilson, 1997, 2002). Moreover, speakers develop and enact plans for pursuing desired outcomes or grade goals. *Plans* structure actions necessary to accomplish goals (Berger, 1997). The rubric provides standards of assessment and communicates desired or expected behaviors to be exhibited during the learner's performance. *Strategies* are the speaker's behaviors exhibited during a speaking occasion (Greene, 1990). Plans for a speaking occasion are complex. Complex plans include a large number of actionable behaviors to be performed (Waldron, Caughlin, & Jackson, 1995). A rubric for a speaking occasion provides a map for students to develop specific detailed plans to achieve their desired grade goal. Speakers with specific plans already have considered how to implement the desired

communicative behaviors to be effective and appropriate. Research beyond the introductory course found that plan complexity was positively associated with other's perceptions of whether a plan was successful (Berger & Bell, 1988). Therefore, students are more likely to succeed in the production of their messages during a speaking occasion with a rubric to assist in the planning process.

Planning is the "set of psychological and communication processes involved in generating, selecting, implementing, monitoring, adapting, and coordinating plans" (Wilson & Sabee, 2003, p. 22). In order for speakers to plan appropriate and relevant messages for their audiences the speaker must first recognize the goals of the speaking occasion. A rubric is a critical communication tool for students to identify goals for achievement during a speaking occasion. Specifically, speakers must understand what is appropriate and desirable for the speechmaking situation. Speakers will still need to enact the plan in an efficient and extemporaneous manner during the speech, but the rubric should aid students in managing the complexity and coordinating the multiple goals inherent for the speaking performance. Once these decisions have been made the speaker is able to set goals.

Methods for Goal Setting

Goal setting is grossly understudied within the discipline of communication. However, research (see Locke & Latham, 1990) examining the manner of setting a goal, outside the discipline of communication, has identified four distinct methods: (1) assigned, (2) participative, (3) self-set, and (4) selected self-set. Within the literature, the

method that is the most effective form of setting a goal varies. Below, assigned and participative goals are discussed, then self-set and selected self-set goals are described.

Someone other than the performer determines *assigned goals*. In the classroom, assigned goals are dictated by the instructor to the student. How something should be achieved and at what level is explicated by the assigner to the assignee (i.e., by the instructor to the student). *Participative goals* allow an individual to interact in the goal setting process. For instance, the instructor and students enrolled in an introductory course could interact with each other to decide the appropriate length for a speech. Instructor and students decide collaboratively how long the speech should be and what the consequences will be for falling short or going too long. With participative goal setting, an individual's commitment is said to increase due to involvement in the goal setting process. Studies (i.e., Dossett, Latham, & Mitchell, 1979; Latham & Marshall, 1982; Latham & Mitchell, 1976; Latham, Mitchell, & Dossett, 1978; Latham & Saari, 1979; Latham, Steele, & Saari, 1982; Latham & Yukl, 1976) have found no significant difference in outcomes when comparing assigned and participative goal setting.

The individual performing the task creates *self-set goals*. This form of goal setting allows the student to determine how long the speech should be and what he or she will do if it is too short or long on the time limits. The instructor would then evaluate each student differently, depending upon the self-set goals set by each student. These self-set goals function as standards toward which efforts will be aimed (Mone & Baker, 1992). Erez and Kanfer (1983) maintain goal commitment is positively affected when an individual is allowed a choice in goal setting; however, a number of other studies (i.e.,

Barling, 1980; Dickerson & Creedon, 1981; Latham & Marshall, 1982; Ward & Carnes, 2002) have not found self-set goals to be consistent in relation to increasing performance from other methods such as assigned or participative.

The final method identified for goal setting is *selected self-set goals*. This method of goal setting was suggested by Mone and Baker (1992); however, a few studies (i.e., Klein, 1991; Locke & Bryan, 1968) utilized selected self-set goals but did not identify the process explicitly as selected self-set goal setting. The process of selected self-set goals involves asking participants to identify their desired goal outcome from a number of desired levels of performance standards. For example, in an academic setting students' are asked to determine their grade goals for an assignment or the course. The levels would be A, A-, B+, B, B-, etc. In essence, the selected self-set goal is a multi-item measure regarding the standard of performance. Therefore, the student need only select the grade goal based on the specificity and difficulty described in the evaluation and/or rubric.

Goal Striving and Monitoring

As stated above, a goal identifies an individual's destination, intention, or objective. How the goal is established impacts the intention of the individual and how the individual self-regulates her or his behavior. When students attain a goal, they experience a sense of empowerment (Schunk, 1989). The formation of goals can be either (1) anticipatory or (2) self-reactive (Bandura, 1986). Anticipatory goals are determined prior to the performance of an activity, when one is striving to accomplish an outcome. Self-reactive goals are developed through self-evaluation following the performance, when

one is monitoring the accomplishment of an outcome. Both forms of goal setting are intended to increase the likelihood that attainment of a certain level of performance will eventually be realized by the participant.

Anticipatory goals regulate behavior through foresight (Bandura, 1986). By envisioning what future outcomes are possible individuals have the ability to determine certain courses of action to reach the desired outcome. Goals driven by anticipatory intentions require an individual to determine prospective goals and plans for attaining those goals. Bandura (1986) attests that "one can gain access indirectly to people's [anticipatory goals] by having them report beforehand what they intend to do at specified times" (p. 468).

Self-reactive goals are formed by a comparative process, which allows for evaluation of a performance against a standard. This form of goal setting relies on self-evaluative reactions to one's own behavior (Bandura, 1986). How satisfied or dissatisfied an individual is following comparison to the standard will influence goal adjustment and/or motivation. Feedback is essential for self-reactive goal setting.

Feedback and Goal Theories

People use feedback to evaluate their performance or set goals prior to performance for comparison to their goals (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Locke & Latham, 1990). Either feedback precedes the goal or the goal precedes the feedback. In any case the interaction of feedback and goals regulate performance. As goal theory posits, goals mediate the relationship between feedback and performance, and feedback moderates the goal-performance relationship (Locke & Latham, 1990). The goals people have and the

feedback they receive influence the task performance. Simply, goals and feedback work in tandem, but how each functions with each other differs theoretically.

Feedback Intervention Theory

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) proposed a preliminary theoretical model for identifying conditions under which feedback is most effective, *Feedback Intervention Theory* (FIT). Following their meta-analysis of nearly 300 feedback intervention studies, Kluger and DeNisi (1996) defined feedback interventions as "actions taken by an external change agent to provide information regarding some aspect of one's task performance" (p. 255). In the case of classroom situations, the instructor might act as the change agent while the student would be the one whose task performance is being evaluated. Their research and this definition excluded self-generated forms of feedback; however, the central assumption and fundamental assertions of FIT still function appropriately when applied to self-generated feedback.

The central assumption of FIT is that "interventions change the locus of attention among three levels of control: task learning, task motivation, and meta-task processes" (Smith & King, 2004, p. 205). This assumption is supported by five fundamental assertions: (1) goals are benchmarks that behavior is measured against after feedback is received; (2) goals are ranked in order of importance; (3) attention directs behavior adaptation toward certain goals to eliminate feedback standard gaps; (4) attention is targeted for behavior modification toward moderate level goals; and (5) behavior is affected when feedback interventions result in change of goal focus (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Two major claims resulted from Kluger and DeNisi's (1996) feedback research. First, feedback directing attention to the task level (i.e., learning) augments task performance, while feedback directing attention to meta-task processes (e.g., praise and blame) attenuate task performance (King & Behnke, 1999; Smith & King, 2004). Second, feedback intervention effectiveness is moderated by the nature of the learning task (e.g., degree of difficulty – simple or complex). This second conclusion has not received much attention in the research literature, but recent findings support its position (viz., King, Young, & Behnke, 2000). Individuals assessing their own performance may observe unique characteristics of their behavior otherwise unknown to them depending on intent and focus. Therefore, the type and form of feedback becomes highly significant to subsequent task-learning processes. Overall, FIT's re-examination of feedback processes postulates that certain forms of feedback may be more effective and should be identified for improved learning.

Goal Setting Theory

The concepts of feedback and goals do not differ in Locke and Latham's (1990) Goal Setting Theory (GST); however, goals are the primary mechanism through which feedback is interpreted because goals regulate human action (Locke et al., 1981). Locke (1968) maintains there is no one-to-one relationship between goals and action because people make mistakes or do not possess the capabilities to attain a standard. Goals mobilize the behaviors to complete a task.

The central assumption of GST is that people are motivated to achieve their goals. Therefore, goals affect performance in three ways: (1) goals direct attention and effort

toward goal-relevant activities; (2) goals produce increased effort; and (3) goals increase persistence (Locke & Latham, 1990). Feedback is conceived as a check-and-balance for the goals set in relation to the performance. Therefore, in GST goals are destinations and feedback allows people to gauge their proximity to the desired outcome.

Hypotheses and Research Question

Technologies that provide feedback in unique and immediate forms, such as video, can sometimes be so attractive they are incorporated into instructional practices without fully understanding how they should be applied and what their intended impact is on students. To date no clear relationship has been established between video feedback and improved speaking performance or how goals mediate the relationship between video feedback and speaking performance. Yet, the role of video feedback has been utilized and continues to be almost universally incorporated into the introductory course.

Video feedback is an instructional technological aid to assist student skill acquisition. Skill development occurs when a learner has the capacity to interpret and accurately judge the quality of her or his own performance. Moreover, the literature on goal setting supports the use of identifying performance objectives. Students of the introductory course would benefit from setting specific speech goals to accomplish during speaking occasions. Therefore, the following hypotheses and research question were proposed:

Hypothesis 1A: Students who use any form of video to produce self-generated feedback or implement a goal setting exercise or a combination of these activities will demonstrate greater

grade improvement on their second speech than those students who use unstructured video replay.

Hypothesis 1B: Students who use video to produce self-generated feedback or use any combination of these activities, video to produce self-generated feedback and implement a goal setting exercise, will demonstrate greater grade improvement on their second speech than those students who use only goal setting strategies.

Hypothesis 1C: Students who use any combination of these activities, video to produce self-generated feedback and implement a goal setting exercise, will demonstrate greater grade improvement on their second speech than those students who use only video to produce self-generated feedback.

Research Question 1: Does any difference in grade improvement exist between students using self-reactive goal setting and video to produce self-generated feedback and students using anticipatory goal setting and video to produce self-generated feedback?

CHAPTER 3:

METHODS

Sample and Participant Selection

Participants in this study were 140 undergraduate students enrolled across ten sections of the introductory course at a large metropolitan university. Each section was conveniently sampled. Instructors were asked to have their course section(s) voluntarily participate in the study. Students in those sections were asked to volunteer to participate in the study and placed into one of the five conditions. Two of the ten experimental class sections served as the control group (n = 28) and the other eight sections were distributed equally per each experimental condition (n = 28) (i.e., two class sections per each treatment condition). Participants across all sections totaled (N = 140) consisting of males (N = 61) and females (N = 79) (44% male, 56% female), which is consistent with the demographics of the university. The average age of participants was 20.5 years, with the range from 18 to 47. The ethnic breakdown of participants consisted of 8% Arabic, 5% Asian Pacific Islander, 21% Black, 4% Hispanic, 4% Multi-Racial, and 59% White, Non-Hispanic.

Teacher participants in this study were six introductory course instructors consisting of graduate teaching assistants, part-time faculty, and an assistant professor. Each of these teachers volunteered to have their course sections participate in the study. A male graduate teaching assistant and female part-time faculty member volunteered to have their course sections participate in the unstructured video replay condition. A male graduate teaching assistant volunteered to have both of his course sections participate in

the goal-setting condition. A female part-time faculty member volunteered to have both of her course sections participate in the self-generated feedback from video self-observation condition. A male graduate teaching assistant and a female assistant professor volunteered to have their course sections participate in the self-reactive goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation condition. A male graduate teaching assistant volunteered to have his course sections participate in the anticipatory goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation. The average age of the introductory course instructors was 28.2 years, with the range from 24 to 33. The average number of semesters instructors had teaching the introductory course at this institution was two, with a range of one to four semesters. The ethnic breakdown of teacher participants consisted of 17% Black and 83% White, Non-Hispanic.

Description of Introductory Course Semester

The introductory course at this large metropolitan university is a fifteen-week course, which focuses on public speaking and fulfills the general education oral competency requirement for the institution. Students are expected to present a total of four original extemporaneous speeches. These speeches occur in the following sequence: (1) self-introductory, (2) informative, (3) persuasive, and (4) special occasion. The self-introductory speech is presented during the third week of the semester. The informative speech is presented during the sixth week of the semester. The persuasive speech is presented during the eleventh week of the semester. The special occasion speech is presented during the fourteenth week of the semester.

Additionally, students are asked to self-critique a single speech throughout the semester following the persuasive speech. The self-critique takes the form an essay, approximately three to four pages in length, reflecting on the speech content, speech delivery, and future goal setting for the next speech presentation. The conditions, design, and procedures for the experiment used in this study occur within the context of the introductory course as described.

Conditions, Design, and Procedures

This study consisted of five conditions: (1) unstructured video replay, (2) goal-setting, (3) self-generated feedback from video self-observation, (4) self-reactive goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation, and (5) anticipatory goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation. See Figure 1 for a temporal depiction of each of the five conditions. All students presented an *informative speech*, then two weeks later a *persuasive speech*. Each condition is described below.

Condition 1: Unstructured video replay. Students were provided the video of their informative speech and allowed to watch the video of their speech. No goals and/or self-assessment exercises accompanied the video self-observation.

Condition 2: Goal setting. Students in this condition completed a goal setting exercise prior to the informative speech (i.e., anticipatory goals). This form (see Appendix A) was made available to students two weeks prior to the informative speech and was completed and submitted to the instructor a week prior to the speaking event. Instructions for the goal setting exercise were as follows:

(1) Below identify the course letter grade you would like to achieve at the conclusion of the course. Generate this course purpose statement in the same way you would generate a specific purpose statement for a speech outline by completing the following sentence. "At the end of this course . . ."

(2) Read the rubric of assessment, available on Blackboard[1], and identify point totals you intend to achieve for each section of the rubric. Place the score in the score column for this section. Use the rubric descriptions to assist you to determine what you think you will be able to achieve.

(3) Now add the scores to give a total score for your overall grade score for the first extemporaneous speech. Place that number to the right of the column labeled "goal for total speech score" in the space provided below.

Students also completed a goal setting exercise prior to the persuasive speech. This form (see Appendix B) was available to students two weeks prior to the persuasive speech and was completed and submitted to the instructor a week prior to the speaking event. Instructions for the goal setting exercise were as follows:

(1) Below reiterate the course letter grade you would like to achieve at the conclusion of the course. Generate this course purpose statement the same way you would generate a specific purpose statement for a speech outline by completing the following sentence. "At the end of this course . . ."

[1] Blackboard is a "web-based course-management system designed to allow students and faculty to participate in classes delivered online or use online materials and activities to complement face-to-face teaching. Blackboard enables instructors to provide students with course materials, discussion boards, virtual chat, online quizzes, an academic resource center, and more" (Boise State University, 2009).

(2) Place in the left column the score you predicted on your first speech score. In the middle column place the achieved score. Then subtract the difference between those two scores and place this number in the far right column.

(3) Having reiterated your desired letter grade within your course purpose statement you must now identify how you intend to reach that goal. At this point in the course you have received video feedback, self-assessed your first speaking performance, and received feedback from the instructor. Now, you must adapt and evolve your communicative strategies to achieve your desired course grade. Read the rubric of assessment, available on Blackboard, and identify point totals you intend to achieve for each section of the rubric. Place the score in the score column for this section. Use the rubric descriptions to assist you to determine what you think you will be able to achieve.

(4) Most beginning speakers tend to over estimate their abilities as speakers (Bernard, Killworth, & Sailer, 1979; Sypher & Sypher, 1984) when conceiving of and perceiving their performances; therefore, it is critical to identify what aspects of your speaking performance may have been overestimated in your initial goal setting exercise. Discuss which criteria from the informative speech fit into this category, then explain why and how you plan to make adjustments to meet the desired goal for this speech. Add rows as needed to complete this section by hitting the tab button.

(5) Now that you have identified all criteria and strategies for achieving and adapting your communicative behavior during your persuasive speech

presentation, add the scores to give a total score for your overall grade score for the second extemporaneous speech. Place that number to the right of the column labeled “goal for total speech score” in the space provided.

Condition 3: Self-generated feedback. Students in this condition completed a self-assessment form after watching the video of their speech. Following the informative speechmaking presentation the video recording of the student’s speech was immediately made available to the student in digital form. Instructions for the self-assessment document were placed on the course’s Blackboard. The self-assessment exercise was part of the grade for the course, but participants could choose to have their information withdrawn from the study at any point throughout the semester.

The self-assessment form (see Appendix C) described the purpose of the self-observational exercise and supplied the following directions:

(1) Watch the digital video documentation of your presentation as many times as needed.

(2) Following the viewing of your presentation thoughtfully and carefully complete the self-assessment form document by typing in your responses to each section in the corresponding column directly to the right of the section criteria and underneath the assessment questions – use as much space as you need.

(3) Upon completion of the self-assessment form print a total of two copies – one to be turned in to your instructor and the second for your records. Also, email a copy of the form to your instructor in an attachment.

The self-assessment form consists of three questions: What was the best thing(s) you saw yourself do during your presentation? What did you see that you would like to change or do differently? How do you plan to make improvements for your next presentation? The first question asks students to generate feedback for two specific aspects of their performance – delivery and structural development. The second question asks students to "Analyze your presentation considering all aspects (i.e., delivery, organization, room arrangement, dynamism, etc.). Utilizing the criteria from the evaluation form and described in the rubric, what do you think should be changed for your next speech?" The third and final question asks students to "Describe how you plan to strategically adjust your method(s) of speechmaking to improve your presentation to be more effective and/or successful."

Students were allotted a week's time to complete the self-assessment process. Student self-generated feedback forms were submitted to the instructor prior to students receiving the instructor's evaluations, and before performing their second speech.

Condition 4: Self-reactive goals – Feedback intervention. Students in this condition used only the second goal setting exercise and the video for self-assessment purposes to self-generate feedback. This condition is designed to match the conditions described by Kluger and DeNisi (1996).

Condition 5: Anticipatory goals – Goal setting and self-generated feedback. Students in this condition used both the goal setting exercises and the video for self-assessment purposes to self-generate feedback as described in the previous two sections.

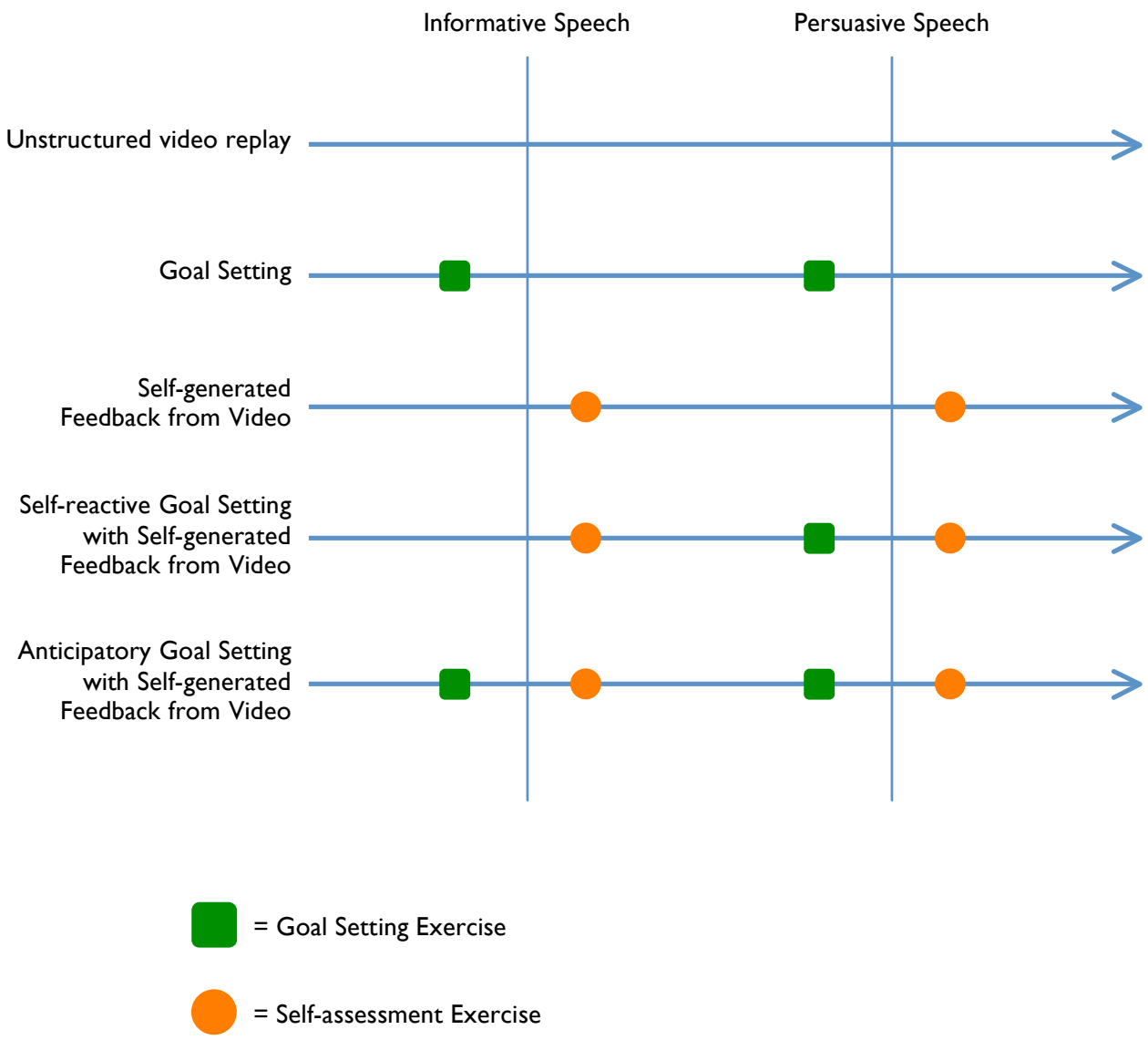

Figure 1. Temporal Diagram of Experimental and Control Conditions.

Coding Procedures for Evaluation of Student Speech Performances

Development of coding scheme and description. The coding scheme used by the coders to assess student-speaking performances was similar to the assessment provided and used by students enrolled in the introductory course. The coding scheme used to

evaluate student speechmaking performances consisted of two documents: (1) rubric of assessment and (2) speech evaluation form (see Appendix D for the informative speech rubric and Appendix E for the persuasive speech rubric). Both documents were made available to all students across each course section for the course via Blackboard.

Coder training sessions. Two coders were trained for coding tasks. First, each coder was provided with a copy of the same assessment rubric and evaluation forms provided to the students in the study. Next, coders practiced using the coding scheme on student speeches outside the sample in this study. Cohen's *kappa* test was used to evaluate the agreement between coders on the training coding scheme. Finally, coders discussed their codes and resolved differences before coding the sample in this study. Coder assessment scores were converted from their numerical form to a letter grade. Letter grades were determined as follows: A = 4.00, A- = 3.67, B+ = 3.33, B = 3.00, B- = 2.67, C+ = 2.33, C = 2.00, C- = 1.67, D+ = 1.33, D = 1.00, D- = 0.67, and F = 0.00.

Interrater reliability. Interrater reliability was assessed using *kappa* to test reliability of nominal data based on qualitative judgments. The *overall* reliability for coding between coders produced a *kappa* coefficient of 0.84. This reliability on the level of feedback, according to Landis and Koch (1977), can be considered almost perfect.

Coding Procedures for Grade Achievement on Student Speeches

Change in grade or grade improvement was calculated by subtracting the informative (first) speech grade point average from the persuasive (second) speech grade point average. Letter grades were determined as follows: A = 4.00, A- = 3.67, B+ = 3.33,

B = 3.00, B- = 2.67, C+ = 2.33, C = 2.00, C- = 1.67, D+ = 1.33, D = 1.00, D- = 0.67, and F = 0.00.

Data Analysis

Analyses evaluated the effect of unstructured video replay, goal setting, video use to self-generate feedback, self-reactive goal setting and video to self-generate feedback, and anticipatory goal setting and video to self-generate feedback on student speechmaking. Specifically, improvement in grade point average, between conditions was compared. The first one-way ANOVA tested the grade improvement for each condition against the control group (i.e., unstructured video replay), then planned comparisons between the other conditions were tested. The purpose of comparing these conditions to each other was to determine which conditions demonstrated greater improved speaking performance for students enrolled in the introductory course.

CHAPTER 4:

RESULTS

Sample and Participant Characteristics

An initial exploration of the data related to the participants of the study was conducted to ensure the conditions were comparable. The results indicated no significant effect based on age, $F(4,135) = 2.19$, $p = .07$, $\omega = .20$; no significant effect based on gender, $F(4,135) = .60$, $p = .66$, $\omega = .12$; and no significant effect based on ethnicity, $F(4,135) = 1.85$, $p = .12$, $\omega = .17$.

Participants were asked to complete Richmond and McCroskey's (1998) Personal Report of Communication Apprehension ($M = 19.47$, $SD = 4.70$, $N = 140$) concerning feelings about communicating with other people. The results showed no significant effect between students across the different conditions based on communication apprehension, $F(4,135) = .59$, $p = .67$, $\omega = .12$.

Participants were asked to select their level of speaking experience ($M = 2.29$, $SD = 0.80$, $N = 140$) across four levels: (1) I have never given a speech before, and have never had any formal training; (2) I have given speeches in the past, but have never had any formal instruction; (3) I have never given speeches outside of the classroom situation, and have completed at least one course in only public speaking prior to taking this introductory course, and (4) I have completed at least one course in only public speaking prior to taking this introductory course, but I have never given a speech outside of my class. The results indicated no significant effect based on speaking experience, $F(4,135) = 1.96$, $p = .10$, $\omega = .18$.

Coder Grades for Student Speeches

The coders found the following averages for the student informative speeches for each of the conditions: unstructured video replay = D (0.96) with a range of an F to a B+, goal-setting = D- (0.80) with a range of an F to a B-, self-generated feedback from video self-observation = D- (0.73) with a range of a F to a B, self-reactive goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation = D+ (1.43) with a range of an F to an A-, and anticipatory goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation = D+ (1.55) with a range of an F to an A-.

The coders found the following averages for the student persuasive speeches for each of the conditions: unstructured video replay = D- (0.89) with a range of an F to a B+, goal-setting = D- (0.68) with a range of an F to a C+, self-generated feedback from video self-observation = D (0.73) with a range of a F to an A, self-reactive goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation = C- (1.67) with a range of an F to an A, and anticipatory goal setting with self-generated feedback from video self-observation = C+ (2.44) with a range of an F to an A.

From the initial screening of the data it was concluded that no significant differences existed between conditions in the experimental and control groups. Therefore, an ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of experimental groups compared to the dependent variable of grade improvement. Findings are described below.

Hypotheses and Research Question

There was a significant effect for students who use video to produce self-generated feedback or implement a goal setting exercise or a combination of these

activities on grade improvement, $F(4,135) = 4.25$, $p < .01$, $\omega = .32$. Planned contrasts were used to determine which conditions demonstrated significant grade improvement.

Hypothesis 1A

Planned contrasts revealed that students who use video to produce self-generated feedback or implement a goal setting exercise or a combination of these activities significantly demonstrated greater grade improvement on their second speech than those students who used unstructured video replay, $t(135) = 1.76$, $p < .05$ (one-tailed), $r = .15$.

Hypothesis 1B

Planned contrasts revealed that students who use video to produce self-generated feedback or use a combination of video and goal setting exercises demonstrated significantly greater grade improvement on their second speech than those students who used only goal setting strategies, $t(135) = 2.55$, $p < .01$ (one-tailed), $r = .21$.

Hypothesis 1C

Planned contrasts revealed that students who use video to produce self-generated feedback and implement a goal setting exercise did not demonstrate significantly greater grade improvement on their second speech than those students who used only video to produce self-generated feedback, $t(135) = -1.59$, $p > .05$ (one-tailed), $r = .22$.

Research Question 1

Planned contrasts revealed that students who use anticipatory goal setting and video to produce self-generated feedback demonstrated significantly greater grade improvement on their second speech than those students who used self-reactive goal

setting and video to produce self-generated feedback, $t(135) = 2.52$, $p < .05$ (two-tailed), $r = .22$.

CHAPTER 5:

DISCUSSION

Findings

This investigation confirmed a significant causal relationship between students using a combination of video to produce self-generated feedback and anticipatory goal setting exercises and grade improvement. Unstructured video replay, only goal setting strategies, and self-reactive goal setting with video to produce self-generated feedback were found to significantly differ when comparing student grade improvement to students who used video to produce self-generated feedback or the combination of anticipatory goal setting and video to produce self-generated feedback. These findings suggest student grade improvement is related to how students use video to self-generate feedback and how students use a combination of anticipatory goal setting strategies and self-generated feedback, rather than if students use unstructured video replay or only goal setting strategies.

Further exploration of the data suggests that students who use both anticipatory goal setting and video to produce self-generated feedback average a .89 increase in grade point average – nearly three grade levels of improvement (e.g., if a student scored a B- on her first speech she could increase her grade to B+/A- if she used anticipatory goal setting and video to self-generate feedback); whereas, students who use self-reactive goal setting and video to produce self-generated feedback average only .14 increase in grade point average, which would essentially be the same letter grade. As for students who use only video to produce self-generated feedback the average is slightly higher, .37 (a move of

one letter grade, D- to D). For students who used only unstructured video replay grade improvement average decreased, -.10, and the same was found for students who used only goal setting exercises, -.12. See Figure 2.

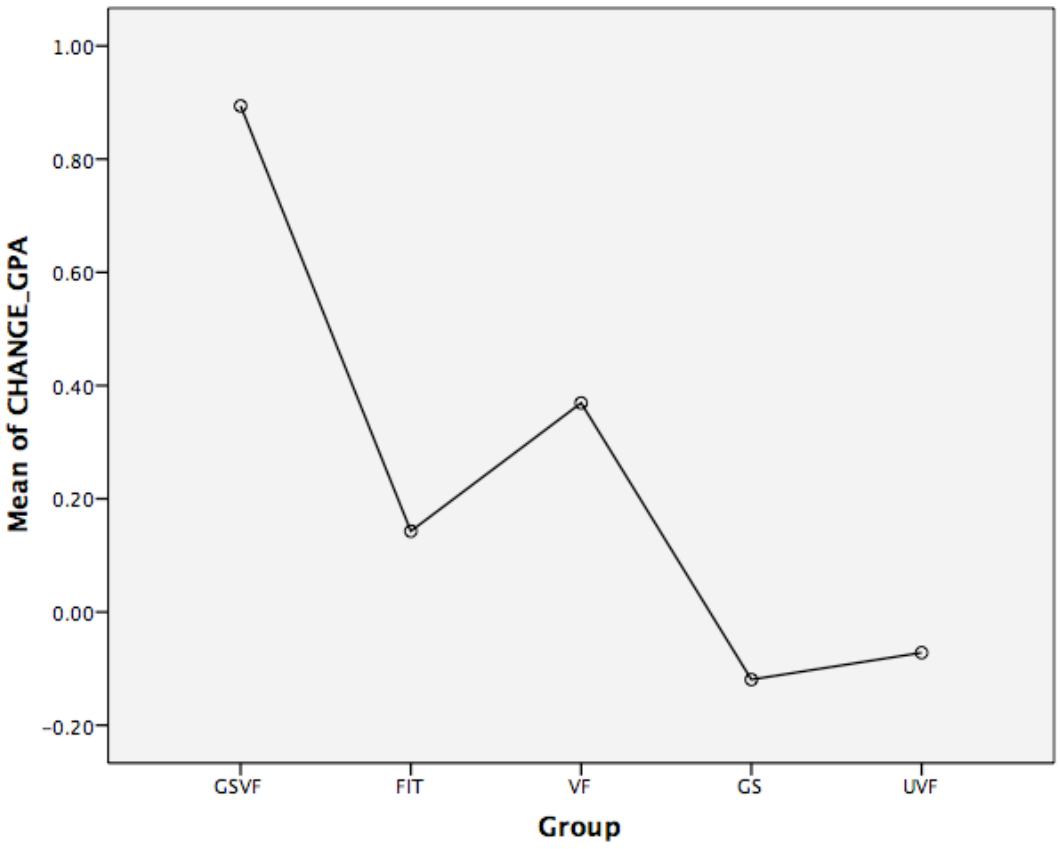

Figure 2. Change in Grade Point Average across Experimental and Control Conditions.

Implication of Findings

These findings indicate when students combine anticipatory goal setting with self-generated feedback from video, speaking performance dramatically improves for the subsequent speech, which translates into students receiving higher grades. Students who

set goals prior to speaking and viewing their video performance appear to visualize the objectives for what they would like to accomplish during the speaking occasion without the constraints of knowing their actual communication limitations. Following video feedback students can compare the actual performance to what occurred (i.e., feedback standard gaps) and determine what courses of action need to be taken to minimize or eliminate these discrepancies. By asking students to use anticipatory goals and view video to self-generate feedback students are allotted the opportunity to self-discover areas of communication in which they are not yet competent and seek assistance from their instructors about why and how these aspects of their communication can be improved. Students adjusting their communication strategies to be more competent communicators are learning a skill that will transcend the introductory course.

Theoretically it seems goals accentuate the feedback provided by video and should be outlined prior to a speaking occasion by the student-speaker. Goal Setting Theory (GST) demonstrated a significant or, at least, meaningful difference when compared to each of the other conditions in the study. Feedback Intervention Theory (FIT) did not demonstrate the effectiveness of GST. It seems knowing the objective prior to performing the task is critical for self-assessment and adaptation of goals when attempting the next speechmaking event. When standards of achievement are the primary focus, grade improvement is significantly greater. Goals are the motivating factor for student achievement when viewing video feedback. Moreover, goals directed attention and effort toward goal-relevant activities and goals produce increased effort and

persistence for introductory public speaking students, which was demonstrated in skill development by increased grade performance.

Pedagogical Implications

This study provides practical implications regarding instructional use of video for introductory courses. Findings suggest that the interdependence of goals and feedback is central to speaking performance improvement. Current structures of the introductory course that support only unstructured video replay or self-generated feedback from video are not providing students with the most efficient means to grade improvement or the enhancement of competent communication behaviors. By emphasizing anticipatory goal setting with self-generated feedback from video students have the ability to assess the associations between what was planned for the performance and what actually happened during the performance. Goals drive behavior and allow students to redirect communication, following video self-observation, to be more effective in the future. The benefit of pursuing this pedagogical learning outcome is that students not only become more competent communicators but they also become more competent evaluators of communication. Rubrics assist students in identifying communication targets and then following self-observation determine how to exceed the feedback standard gaps or continue to persist with current communication behaviors. Moreover, throughout the process of goal setting students learn how to identify paths for achievement, recognize shortcomings, and develop avenues for improvement to reach their communication goals. This practice has the potential to empower our students to become self-monitors and self-regulators of their own communication. The development of decoding skills and abilities

when communicating is essential to the introductory course, and the development of such skills parallels the encoding processes of transactional communication. A student's ability to decode a message for accuracy and effectiveness goes to the foundation of the introductory course. The developing of communication goals, encoding our communication messages, being our own receiver through video technology, accurately and critically decoding our own messages, and providing formative and summative feedback that improves communication are the ultimate learning outcomes for the introductory course.

Academic programs and departments dedicate and invest resources to provide video feedback for students enrolled in introductory courses. Such programs and departments should ensure their student populations are effectively using these technologies. Simply providing video feedback of a single speech or unstructured video replay of a single or multiple speeches throughout a course is not sufficient justification for purchase, training, and incorporation of these technologies within the classroom. Without the accompaniment of anticipatory goal setting strategies and video feedback assessed with the use of rubrics, video is superficial and misleading for students engaged in learning more competent communication behaviors. Also, it would seem that more programs are moving to more efficient methods (i.e., video streaming) for recording student speeches. These forms of video allow for greater accessibility for students, but if ineffective instructional methods are used with the technology the learners, teachers, and employers are not going to benefit. Video must provide a clear learning impact based on its economic investment, which is only possible by combining the technology with other

instructional methods for the learner prior to the video feedback and while watching the performance captured on video. Anything short of these teaching practices combined with video feedback should be reconsidered to fully maximize the benefit of video technologies for assisting students to be the most effective communicators and as successful as possible to scholastically achieve in the introductory course.

Implications Beyond the Introductory Course

These findings may have an impact on courses taught beyond the introductory course yet still within the discipline of communication. Mediation and negotiation, interviewing, interpersonal and small group communication, and organizational communication courses using video to examine and enhance skill acquisition would benefit from student anticipatory goal setting strategies when using video feedback. For example students, mediators, and/or participants of conflict and communication or conflict resolution training programs would clearly benefit from goal-setting strategies when applying conflict responses and assessing their interactions with others with video. By using video conflict response could be assessed and further examined for specific types of conflict responses, such as collaboration, issue fighting, outcome fighting, resisting, process controlling, compromising, avoidance, and accommodation. Also, leadership training for immediate communicative behavior could enhance the process of assessing interactions between followers and leaders with the use of goal-setting and video self-assessment. By training organizational superiors and subordinates to incorporate more immediate behaviors into their communicative interactions each would have the ability to influence group associations and task performance. These

communication courses should ask students to set goals and provide a structured rubric of the standards to allow for clear assessment of feedback standard gaps when self-generated feedback about their performance. The findings presented here reach beyond the introductory course to instructional strategies utilized in classrooms within a variety of disciplines.

The implications of this study may reach beyond the introductory course to other fields, disciplines, and/or businesses and industries where video is used for training and feedback purposes. Students of American Sign Language, surgical and trauma treatment residents, athletes, or any other groups using video for performance improvement need to consider the importance of anticipatory goal setting prior to recording the training session or performance for video feedback. Goals, in addition to video feedback, are more effective than goals or video feedback alone.

Limitations

One limitation was the sample size (N = 140). Although the sample was appropriate for conducting the study it is limited in its generalizability. Additionally, the study should be conducted in a variety of introductory courses at a range of other higher education institutions.

Another limitation may have resulted from different instructors participating in different conditions of the study. The introductory course was standardized across all sections; however, different instructors may use different instructional strategies, vary in their levels of immediacy, and/or present the content of the course with more or less clarity for student comprehension. These differing instructor styles could confound the

results found in each condition.

Also, the quality of student work put forth on the self-assessment forms and goal-setting exercises could be a limiting factor in the study. It is likely that some students spent more time and exerted greater effort when completing these tasks than others in the course.

Additionally, all instructors used each of the exercises as part of student grades in each condition; however, some instructors weighted the self-assessment and/or goal setting exercise greater than others. Students may have seen these points as trivial and exerted little to no effort in completing the activities.

Finally, a limitation was access to instructor grades for both the informative and persuasive speech due to the internal review board for human investigation. Coder grades are the only source of student performance assessment used in this study; instructor grades for each condition were not examined as part of this study. If students are told by their instructors that what was exhibited during the speechmaking presentation was appropriate students would have little incentive to improve their performance, which could influence how students attempt future speaking occasions.

Future Research

In the future, research should investigate feedback types, noncorrective and corrective, self-generated by students. Examining the self-generated feedback produced following self-observation of video could provide insights into what forms of feedback contribute to student performance improvement. Additionally, it would be of interest to

investigate how male and female students produce feedback types to determine if self-generated feedback types differ based on gender.

Also, future studies should examine students' selected self-set grade goals for a speaking occasion. Research extending beyond the discipline of communication has found specific and difficult goals can lead to higher productivity than "do your best," easy, or no goals. Pursuing this line of research could provide valuable insight into the relationship between student speech outcomes and students selection of difficult goals for a speaking occasion. In relation to this idea, it would be interesting to examine how the student then reacts to speech goal attainment. Students may set a higher goals following attainment from themselves to achieve on the subsequent speech.

Another avenue of research would be to examine if video assists students to more accurately assess their speaking performance and if their assessments correlate with those of their instructor. Following the trends of student self-grading and instructor grading throughout the semester for each speech to determine if student-teacher perceptions converge or diverge would provide important information about the accuracy of student self-assessment and if their abilities for accurate self-observation improve throughout the semester.

Instructors play a critical role in the student learning experience. Future research should examine how teacher immediacy and affinity may associate with or influence how students select self-set goals and self-assess their video. Findings may indicate that teachers who exhibit higher forms of immediate behavior have students who produce higher quality goals and more accurate self-assessments of speaking performance.

Finally, future research should attempt to replicate the conditions of this study in a single class section, which would aid in controlling instructor variability across different course sections. Students could be randomly placed into differing conditions, yet experience the same instructor and lessons of the course.

Conclusion

Video has the potential to be a powerful instructional technological tool for students' speechmaking skill development in the introductory course when used with anticipatory goal setting and self-assessment strategies as postulated by Goal Setting Theory. As a feedback mechanism, video is unrefined. Instructors of the introductory course should ensure their students view video feedback purposefully by providing methods of instruction that assist students to identify their goals prior to receiving video feedback and assess their performance to meet those goals. During self-assessment students should be encouraged to review their grade goals as related to the dimensions communicated on the rubric to assist in accurate identification of strengths and limitations demonstrated in the presentation. Selection of the methods that accompany video technology is critical for maximizing student learning when incorporating video feedback into the introductory course.

APPENDIX A

Speech Goal Setting Exercise – Part I

Below identify the course letter grade you would like to achieve at the conclusion of the course. Generate this course purpose statement in the same way you would generate a specific purpose statement for a speech outline by completing the following sentence.

At the end of this course [complete statement here and delete the bracketed material].

Section 1

Having identified your desired letter grade within your course purpose statement you must now identify how you intend to reach that goal. Therefore, you must formulate strategies for achieving your desired course outcome. The strategies for actualizing this goal must begin with determining how you will meet the standards of performance set-forth in the rubric of assessment for the first extemporaneous speech – the instructional speech. Read the rubric of assessment, available on Blackboard Academic Suite, and identify on which aspects of the performance you will achieve a sophisticated evaluation. Place the score in the score column for this section. Write in the criteria in the left column. Then, in the center column, describe how you plan to obtain full credit during your speech. Use the rubric descriptions to assist you in developing a strategy for effective speechmaking. Add rows as needed to complete this section.

Criteria	Description for making effective speechmaking performance	Score

Section 2

Of the criteria that remain identify aspects of performance that you see as being more difficult and describe how you plan to handle those aspects of your speechmaking performance. Place the score you plan to obtain for that criteria in the far right column – these scores should be scores other than the highest score possible. Continue this process until you have discussed each criterion on the

rubric of assessment for the instructional speech. Add rows as needed to complete this section.

Criteria	Description for making effective speechmaking performance	Score

Section 3

Now that you have identified all criterion and strategies for achieving, add the scores to give a total score for your overall grade score for the first extemporaneous speech. Place that number to the right of the column labeled "goal for total speech score."

Goal for Total Speech Score	

APPENDIX B

Speech Goal Setting Exercise – Part II

Below reiterate the course letter grade you would like to achieve at the conclusion of the course. Generate this course purpose statement in the same way you would generate a specific purpose statement for a speech outline by completing the following sentence.

At the end of this course [complete statement here and delete the bracketed material].

Section 1

Place in the left column the score you predicted on your first speech score. In the middle column place the achieved score. Then subtract the difference between those two scores and place this number in the far right column.

Predicted Score	Achieved Score	Difference between Scores

Section 2

Having reiterated your desired letter grade within your course purpose statement you must now identify how you intend to reach that goal. At this point in the course you have received video feedback, self-assessed your first speaking performance, and received feedback from the instructor. Now, you must adapt and evolve your communicative strategies for achieving your desired course outcome.

First, look at the criteria (on rubric) where you performed at the level of your goal. Discuss how you intend to again meet this level on your persuasive speech – what did you see yourself do in your presentation that you would like to repeat? Refer to the rubric of assessment, available on Blackboard Academic Suite, and the graded instructional speech evaluation form.

Add rows as needed to complete this section.

Criteria	Describe how you achieved this desired score and how you intend to repeat this performance.	Score

Section 3

Most beginning speakers tend to over estimate their abilities as speakers (Bernard, Killworth, & Sailer, 1979; Sypher & Sypher, 1984) when conceiving and perceiving their performances; therefore, it is critical to identify what aspects of your speaking performance may have been overestimated in your initial goal setting exercise (i.e., set a goal of a three, but received a score lower than the desired prediction). Discuss which criteria from the instructional speech fit into this category, then explain why and how you plan to make adjustments to meet the desired goal for this speech.

Add rows as needed to complete this section.

Criteria	Describe over estimated criteria and discuss why and how you plan to make adjustments to meet your desired goal for this speech.	Score

Section 4

What criteria did you underestimate (e.g., predicted a two, but received a three)? How did this happen? Identify specific aspects of your speaking performance that contributed to this over-performance and describe how you will replicate these behaviors in order to achieve these higher scores on the next speech.

Add rows as needed to complete this section.

Criteria	Describe criteria and discuss why and how you overperformed in your expectations, then describe how you plan to replicate these overperforming behaviors.	Score

Section 5

Identify any rubric of assessment criteria not yet discussed above or those criteria that differ on the persuasive speech evaluation form. Then discuss your goals for achievement on those evaluative criteria and how you plan to achieve those points within your speech presentation.

Criteria	Description for making effective speechmaking performance	Score

Section 6

Now that you have identified all criterion and strategies for achieving and adapting your communicative behavior during your persuasive speech presentation, add the scores to give a total score for your overall grade score for the second extemporaneous speech. Place that number to the right of the column labeled “goal for total speech score.”

Goal for Total Speech Score	

APPENDIX C

Self-Assessment Form

Name, Date, and Section:	General Purpose of Speech:

Rationale:

Deliberate practice requires full attention and concentration for continued gradual improvement, but you must self-analyze your in-class presentations for continued skill acquisition and advancement. Therefore, the video recording employed throughout this course allows you to see yourself from an observer perspective. This video technology not only allows you to view a thorough and detailed rendering of your performance, but it creates a learning opportunity whereby you (the speaker) see how others might receive your speechmaking performance.

In order to improve performance, practice must become deliberate. Deliberate practice requires you, the performer, to be goal-oriented, where you know: (1) what you are doing and (2) why you are doing it during your speech presentation.

Directions:

To complete this assessment please follow the directions below.

(1) Watch the video documentation of your speech presentation.

(2) Following your presentation thoughtfully and carefully complete the *Self-Assessment Form: Communication 1010* document by typing in your responses to each section in the corresponding column directly to the right of the section criteria and underneath the assessment questions – use as much space as you need.

When answering each question be specific and detailed, using examples from your presentation. A minimum of five to seven sentences is required for each area. Upon completion print the form, sign and date it, and deliver it to your instructor. Also, email a copy of the form as directed above.

Criteria 1:	**What was the best thing(s) you saw yourself do during your presentation?**
Delivery	
Structural Development	
Criteria 2:	**What did you see that you would like to change or do differently?**
Analyze your presentation considering all aspects (i.e., delivery, organization, room arrangement, dynamism, etc.). Utilizing the criteria from the evaluation form, what do you think should be changed for your next speech?	
Criteria 3:	**How do you plan to adapt your goals to be more effective as a speaker for the next presentation?**
Describe how you plan to strategically adjust your method(s) of speechmaking to improve your presentation to be more effective and/or successful. Use the rubrics of assessment and your Speech Goal Setting Exercise to assist in formulating goals and strategies for improving your speaking abilities. Be extremely specific in how you intend to improve and evolve as a speaker.	
Criteria 4:	**How many times did you watch your presentation in its entirety?**
Bold and <u>underline</u> the number of times you watched your presentation in its entirety.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

Criteria 5:	**What grade you think you earned on your presentation?**
Bold and <u>underline</u> the letter you think best represents the score you earned on your presentation.	A A- B+ B B- C+ C C- D+ D D- F

APPENDIX D

INFORMATIVE SPEECH RUBRIC OF EVALUATION

Introduction				
Criteria	3	2	1	Total
Attention Getter	Creative technique clearly engages listener's interests and demands attention to the speaker's subject.	Attention getter is applied to engage listeners but is not fully connected to the subject and/or does not demand absolute attention by the audience.	Audience is not engaged to listen to the subject or develop interest in the speaker's message. Technique is inappropriately applied to message or topic.	
Central Idea Statement	Central thought or thesis is stated in the form of a single, declarative sentence. Position of the speaker's intentions is clear, direct, effective, and easily remembered by the audience.	Thesis is generally appropriate. Clarity of position is somewhat unclear or broad for the listeners.	Thesis asserts little or expresses nothing regarding the intentions of the speaker or the speech. Listener is lost as to the speaker's position.	
Preview	Logically identifies the main points of the speech in a straightforward manner. Listeners easily know how the speaker will organize and present their ideas.	Main points are not clearly or completely forecasted to the listeners.	The main points of the speech are absent or unstated by the speaker.	
Delivery				
Eye Contact	Consistently maintains the quality of directness in speech delivery by utilizing scanning to connect to listeners.	Maintains eye contact regularly, notes are occasionally a distraction between the speaker's eye contact with their listeners.	Speaker's focus is directed away from the audience members (i.e., notes, visual aid, etc.).	
Vocal	Speaker effectively adapts and controls the volume, pitch, rate, pauses, and vocal variety throughout the presentation – intensity is impressive, vivid, and clear.	Vocals are generally adequate for maintaining audience interest. However, some aspects of the voice convey distraction (i.e., monotonous, slowness, rapidness, occasional vocal fillers, lack of enthusiasm) from message.	Speaker does not vary pitch, rate, or offer vocal variety. Pauses are nonexistent and vocal fillers clutter or distract from presentation of the speaker's message.	
Grammar & Word Choice	Sentences are complete and grammatically correct, and they flow together easily. Words are chosen for their precise meaning.	For the most part, sentences are complete and grammatically correct, and they flow together easily. With a few exceptions, words are chosen for their precise meaning.	Listeners can follow the presentation, but they are distracted by some grammatical errors and use of slang. Some sentences are incomplete and/or vocabulary is somewhat limited or inappropriate.	
Movement	Gesturing is natural, appropriate, spontaneous, and easily seen by each audience member. Speaker's posture blends nicely to message, demonstrating confidence.	Gesturing is generally natural for the occasion and audience. However, some aspects of movement convey distraction or lack of appropriate application.	Speaker is ramrod straight and remains steadily positioned in one place without movement (i.e., "talking head"), or gestures are overly exaggerated and/or distracting.	

Structure				
Criteria	3	2	1	Total
Speechmaking Type	Primary objective of the speech is easily recognizable and illustrates application of the required general purpose of the speech.	Primary objective or general purpose of the speech is somewhat confusing.	Speaker has not adapted speech topic to the requirement of the primary objective or general purpose of the speech (e.g., informative, persuasive, ceremonial, etc.).	
Audience Analysis	Topic is engaging, creative, and unique – speaker demonstrates personal interest. Focus of the speech is narrow and relevant. Issue is well suited for the topic and audience.	Topic is creative, but speech lacks focus or relevance for audience.	Topic is ill-adapted or overdone. Little attempt is made to focus or narrow aspects of message.	
Organization	Structure of speech is very clear, conveying a strong sense of purpose and articulate design. Fluidity between and among ideas are easily followed.	Sequence of ideas is logical and easily followed.	There is no logical sequence of ideas in the speech.	
Transitions	Internal components between main points exhibit proficient use of connectives (i.e., transitions, internal previews, internal summaries, signposts, etc.). Movement between points is effortless for the audience.	Internal components are utilized but undistinguished for obvious movement between points.	Body is unsophisticated and bulky. Consistency of movement from one point to the next is nonexistent.	
Oral Crediting	Speaker completely acknowledges and identifies sources throughout the speech in a vivid manner – exceeding the required limit for the speech guidelines.	Sources meet the minimal requirements for the speech guidelines. Sources are also generally clear however certain elements for complete crediting are missing.	Sources included did not meet the required limit or material was not credited orally for listeners (i.e., plagiarism).	
Content	Information enlightens listeners and is arranged discussed in an interesting and engaging manner for the listener.	Information is included appropriately.	Information is unclear.	
Presentational Aid				
Usage	Presentational aid is strategically used to supplement message of speaker in a creative and engaging manner.	Presentational aid is used.	Presentational aid is inappropriate and does not add to message OR distracts from message.	

Conclusion				
Criteria	3	2	1	Total
Restate Central Idea	Central thought or thesis is reiterated in the form of a single, declarative sentence. Position of the speaker's intentions is clear, direct, effective, and easily recapped for the audience.	Thesis restatement is generally appropriate. Clarity of position is still somewhat unclear or broad for the listeners.	Restatement of thesis asserts little or expresses nothing regarding the intentions of the speaker or the speech just covered. Listener is lost as to what the speaker's position is.	
Review	Logically summarizes the main points of the speech in a straightforward manner. Listeners easily know what the speaker discussed.	Main points are not clearly or completely reviewed to the listeners.	The summary of the main points is absent or unstated by the speaker.	
Final Statement	Speaker challenges listeners to put to use what has been presented. Final impression is powerful, authoritative, and confident.	Final impression is applied to motivate listeners but is not fully connected to the subject and/or does not demand absolute attention by the audience.	Audience is not engaged to listen to the final incentive or provide action to the speaker's message. Speech drops off in an awkward manner without a closing statement.	
Time Appropriateness	Presentation conforms to the time specifications and was well rehearsed.	Presentation conforms to the time specifications, but speaker appears rushed to finalize the speech.	Presentation exceeded or fell short of the time specifications.	

APPENDIX E

PERSUASIVE SPEECH RUBRIC OF EVALUATION

Introduction				
Criteria	3	2	1	Total
Attention Getter	Creative technique clearly engages listener's interests and demands attention to the speaker's subject.	Attention getter is applied to engage listeners but is not fully connected to the subject and/or does not demand absolute attention by the audience.	Audience is not engaged to listen to the subject or develop interest in the speaker's message. Technique is inappropriately applied to message or topic.	
Central Idea Statement	Central thought or thesis is stated in the form of a single, declarative sentence. Position of the speaker's intentions is clear, direct, effective, and easily remembered by the audience.	Thesis is generally appropriate. Clarity of position is somewhat unclear or broad for the listeners.	Thesis asserts little or expresses nothing regarding the intentions of the speaker or the speech. Listener is lost as to the speaker's position.	
Preview	Logically identifies the main points of the speech in a straightforward manner. Listeners easily know how the speaker will organize and present their ideas.	Main points are not clearly or completely forecasted to the listeners.	The main points of the speech are absent or unstated by the speaker.	
Delivery				
Eye Contact	Consistently maintains the quality of directness in speech delivery by utilizing scanning to connect to listeners.	Maintains eye contact regularly, notes are occasionally a distraction between the speaker's eye contact with their listeners.	Speaker's focus is directed away from the audience members (i.e., notes, visual aid, etc.).	
Vocal	Speaker effectively adapts and controls the volume, pitch, rate, pauses, and vocal variety throughout the presentation – intensity is impressive, vivid, and clear.	Vocals are generally adequate for maintaining audience interest. However, some aspects of the voice convey distraction (i.e., monotonous, slowness, rapidness, occasional vocal fillers, lack of enthusiasm) from message.	Speaker does not vary pitch, rate, or offer vocal variety. Pauses are nonexistent and vocal fillers clutter or distract from presentation of the speaker's message.	
Grammar & Word Choice	Sentences are complete and grammatically correct, and they flow together easily. Words are chosen for their precise meaning.	For the most part, sentences are complete and grammatically correct, and they flow together easily. With a few exceptions, words are chosen for their precise meaning.	Listeners can follow the presentation, but they are distracted by some grammatical errors and use of slang. Some sentences are incomplete and/or vocabulary is somewhat limited or inappropriate.	
Movement	Gesturing is natural, appropriate, spontaneous, and easily seen by each audience member. Speaker's posture blends nicely to message, demonstrating confidence.	Gesturing is generally natural for the occasion and audience. However, some aspects of movement convey distraction or lack of appropriate application.	Speaker is ramrod straight and remains steadily positioned in one place without movement (i.e., "talking head"), or gestures are overly exaggerated and/or distracting.	

Structure				
Criteria	3	2	1	Total
Speechmaking Type	Primary objective of the speech is easily recognizable and illustrates application of the required general purpose of the speech.	Primary objective or general purpose of the speech is somewhat confusing.	Speaker has not adapted speech topic to the requirement of the primary objective or general purpose of the speech (e.g., informative, persuasive, ceremonial, etc.).	
Audience Analysis	Topic is engaging, creative, and unique – speaker demonstrates personal interest. Focus of the speech is narrow and relevant. Issue is well suited for the topic and audience.	Topic is creative, but speech lacks focus or relevance for audience.	Topic is ill-adapted or overdone. Little attempt is made to focus or narrow aspects of message.	
Organization	Structure of speech is very clear, conveying a strong sense of purpose and articulate design. Fluidity between and among ideas are easily followed.	Sequence of ideas is logical and easily followed.	There is no logical sequence of ideas in the speech.	
Transitions	Internal components between main points exhibit proficient use of connectives (i.e., transitions, internal previews, internal summaries, signposts, etc.). Movement between points is effortless for the audience.	Internal components are utilized but undistinguished for obvious movement between points.	Body is unsophisticated and bulky. Consistency of movement from one point to the next is nonexistent.	
Oral Crediting	Speaker completely acknowledges and identifies sources throughout the speech in a vivid manner – exceeding the required limit for the speech guidelines.	Sources meet the minimal requirements for the speech guidelines. Sources are also generally clear however certain elements for complete crediting are missing.	Sources included did not meet the required limit or material was not credited orally for listeners (i.e., plagiarism).	
Reasoning	Logically sound explanations are offered as a basis for why listeners should accept the conclusion. Different sources of information are used fluently in the speech, and material is cited smoothly and easily for the audience.	Logical rationales are proved and a range of different sources of information are credited.	Logic is unclear and different sources of information are not used.	
Presentational Aid				
Usage	Presentational aid is strategically used to supplement message of speaker in a creative and engaging manner.	Presentational aid is used.	Presentational aid is inappropriate and does not add to message OR distracts from message.	

Conclusion				
Criteria	3	2	1	Total
Restate Central Idea	Central thought or thesis is reiterated in the form of a single, declarative sentence. Position of the speaker's intentions is clear, direct, effective, and easily recapped for the audience.	Thesis restatement is generally appropriate. Clarity of position is still somewhat unclear or broad for the listeners.	Restatement of thesis asserts little or expresses nothing regarding the intentions of the speaker or the speech just covered. Listener is lost as to what the speaker's position is.	
Review	Logically summarizes the main points of the speech in a straightforward manner. Listeners easily know what the speaker discussed.	Main points are not clearly or completely reviewed to the listeners.	The summary of the main points is absent or unstated by the speaker.	
Final Statement	Speaker challenges listeners to put to use what has been presented. Final impression is powerful, authoritative, and confident.	Final impression is applied to motivate listeners but is not fully connected to the subject and/or does not demand absolute attention by the audience.	Audience is not engaged to listen to the final incentive or provide action to the speaker's message. Speech drops off in an awkward manner without a closing statement.	
Time Appropriateness	Presentation conforms to the time specifications and was well rehearsed.	Presentation conforms to the time specifications, but speaker appears rushed to finalize the speech.	Presentation exceeded or fell short of the time specifications.	

REFERENCES

Adams, C. (1973). The effect of various channels of feedback on the communication of information. *Speech Monographs, 40,* 147-150.

Ames, C. (1984). Competitive, cooperative, and individualistic goal structures: A cognitive-motivational analysis. In R. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education, vol. 1: Student motivation* (pp. 177-207). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Ames, C., & Ames, R. (1984). Goal structures and motivation. *Elementary School Journal, 85,* 39-52.

Ashford, S. J., & Cummings, L. L. (1983). Feedback as an individual resource: Personal strategies of creating information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 32,* 370-398.

Ashford, S. J., & Tsui, A. S. (1991). Self-regulation for managerial effectiveness: The role of active feedback seeking. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*(2), 251-280.

Auer, J. J. (1989). *Celebrating 75 years of the basic course: 1940-1965.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Speech Communication Association, San Francisco, CA.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1989). Self-regulation of motivation and action through internal standards and goal systems. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Goal concepts in personality and social psychology* (pp. 19-85). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Barling, J. (1980). Performance standards and reinforcements effects on children's academic performance: A test of social learning theory. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 4*, 409-418.

Bassett, G. A. (1979). A study of the effects of task goal and schedule choice on work performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 24*, 202-227.

Behnke, R. R., & King, P. E. (1984). Computerized speech criticism. *Communication Education, 33*, 173-177.

Belcher, M. J. (1996). *BSU's impact on skills valued by graduates.* Boise, ID: Boise State University.

Berger, C. R. (1997). *Planning strategic communication: Attaining goals through communicative action.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Berger, C. R., & Bell, R. A. (1988). Plans and the initiation of social relationships. *Human Communication Research, 15,* 217-235.

Bernard, H. R., Killworth, P. D., & Sailer, L. (1979). Informant accuracy in social network data IV: A comparison of clique-level structure in behavioral and cognitive network data. *Social Networks, 2,* 191-218.

Boekaerts, M., Pintrich, P. R., & Zeider, M. (Eds.). (2000). *Handbook of self-regulation.* San Diego: Academic Press.

Boise State University, Department of Academic Technology. (2009, March 31). *What is Blackboard?* Boise, ID: Author. Retrieved November 28, 2009, from http://itc.boisestate.edu/BbSupport/BbDocs/general/WhatisBlackboard.htm

Book, C. L. (1985). Dimensions and perceived helpfulness of student speech criticism. *Communication Education, 29,* 135-145.

Book, C. L. (1985). Dimensions and perceived helpfulness of student speech criticism. *Communication Education, 29,* 135-145.

Booth-Butterfield, M. (1989). The interpretation of classroom performance feedback: An attributional approach. *Communication Education, 38,* 119-131.

Bourhis, J., & Allen, M. (1998). The role of videotaped feedback in the instruction of public speaking: A quantitative synthesis of published empirical research. *Communication Research Reports, 15,* 256-261.

Bradley, B. (1970). An experimental study of the effectiveness of the video-recorder in teaching a basic speech course. *The Speech Teacher, 19,* 182-200.

Brandl, K. (1995). Strong and weak students' preferences of feedback options in computer assisted language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 79*(2), 194-211.

Brembeck, W. L., & Howell, W. S. (1976). *Persuasion: A means of social influence* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bush, J., Bittner, J., & Brooks, W. (1972). The effect of the video tape recorder on levels of anxiety, exhibitionism, and reticence. *The Speech Teacher, 21,* 127-130.

Clement, D. A., & Frandsen, K. D. (1976). On conceptual and empirical treatments of feedback in human communication. *Communication Monographs, 43,* 11-28.

Cohen, H. (1994). *The history of speech communication: The emergence of a discipline, 1914-1945.* Annandale, VA: Speech Communication Association.

Dedmon, D. N., & Frandsen, K. D. (1964). The ‘required’ first course in speech: A survey. *The Speech Teacher, 13,* 32-37.

Deihl, R., Breen, M., & Larson, C. (1970). The effects of teacher comment and television video tape playback on the frequency of nonfluency in beginning speech student. *The Speech Teacher, 19,* 185-189.

Diamond, R. (1997, August 1). Curriculum reform needed if students are to master core skills. *The Chronicle of Higher Education,* p. B7.

Dickerson, E. A., & Creedon, C. F. (1981). Self-selection of standards by children: The relative effectiveness of pupil-selected and teacher-selected standards of performance. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 14,* 425-433.

Dieker, R., Crane, L., & Brown, C. (1971). Repeated self-viewings on closed-circuit television as it affects change in the self-concept ad personality needs of student speakers. *The Speech Teacher, 20,* 131-142.

Dillard, J. P. (1990). A goal-driven model of interpersonal influence. In J. P. Dillard (Ed.), *Seeking compliance: The production of interpersonal influence messages* (pp. 41-56). Scottsdale, AZ: Gorsuch Scarisbrick.

Dossett, D. L., Latham, G. P., Mitchell, T. R. (1979). Effects of assigned vs. participatively set goals, knowledge of results, and individual differences on employee behavior when goal difficulty is held constant. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64,* 291-298.

Duffy, W. R. (1917). The foundation course in public speaking at the University of Texas. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 3,* 163-171.

Dupagne, M., Stacks, D. W., & Giroux, V. M. (2007). Effects of video streaming technology on public speaking students' communication apprehension and competence. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems, 35*(4), 479-490.

Eckart, J. A., & Gibson, S. L. (1993). Using camcorders to improve teaching. *The Clearing House, 66*(5), 288-292.

Ehninger, D., Gronbeck, B. F., & Monroe, A. H. (1984). *Principles of speech communication* (9th ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, and Company.

Erez, M., & Kanfer, F. H. (1983). The role of goal acceptance in goal setting and task performance. *Academy of Management Review, 8,* 454-463.

Farber, G., & Nira, A. (1990). Through the camera's lens: Video as a research tool. *Constructionist learning: 5th anniversary collection of paper reflecting research reports, projects in progress, and essays by the epistemology and learning group* (pp. 319-326). Cambridge, MA: MIT Media Lab.

Fedor, D. B. (1991). Recipient responses to performance feedback: A proposed model and its implications. In G. Ferris, & K. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management, vol. 9* (pp. 73-120). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Forncrook, E. M. (1918). A fundamental course in speech training. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech, 4,* 271-289.

Gage, M., & Polatajko, H. (1994). Enhancing occupational performance through an understanding of perceived self-efficacy. *American Journal of Occupational Theory, 48,* 452-461.

Gibson, J. W., Gruner, C. R., Brooks, W. D., & Petrie, C. R. (1970). The first course in speech: A survey of U.S. colleges and universities. *The Speech Teacher, 19,* 13-20.

Gibson, J. W., Gruner, C. R., Hanna, M. S., Smith, M. J., & Hayes, M. T. (1980). The basic course in speech at U.S. colleges and universities: III. *Communication Education, 29,* 1-9.

Gibson, J. W., Hanna, M. S., & Huddleston, B. M. (1985). The basic course at U.S. colleges and universities: IV. *Communication Education, 34,* 281-291.

Gibson, J. W., Hanna, M. S., & Leichty, G. (1980). The basic course at U.S. colleges and universities: V. *Basic Communication Course Annual, 2,* 233-257.

Gibson, J. W., Kline, J. A., & Gruner, C. R. (1974). A re-examination of the first course in speech at U.S. colleges and universities. *The Speech Teacher, 23,* 183-190.

Goldhaber, G., & Kline, J. (1972). Effects of videotape on attendance and attitude in the fundamentals speech communication course. *The Speech Teacher, 21,* 93-98.

Greene, J. O. (1990). Tactical social action: Towards some strategies for theory. In M. J. Cody & M. L. McLaughlin (Eds.), *The psychology of tactical communications* (pp. 31-47). Clevendon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Hargis, D. E. (1956). The first course in speech. *The Speech Teacher, 5,* 26-33.

Herold, D. M., & Fedor, D. B. (1998). Individuals interaction with their feedback environment: The role of domain specific individual differences. In G. Ferris, & K. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management, vol. 16* (pp. 215-254). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Hinton, J. S., & Kramer, M. W. (1998). The impact of self-directed videotape feedback on students' self-reported levels of communication competence and apprehension. *Communication Education, 47,* 151-161.

Hirschfeld, A. (1969). Videotape recordings for self-analysis in the speech classroom. *The Speech Teacher, 17,* 116-118.

Hollister, R. D. T. (1917). The beginning course in oratory at the University of Michigan. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 3,* 173-173.

Houghton, H. G. (1918). A beginning course in public speaking for colleges and universities *The Quarterly Journal of Speech, 4,* 150-159.

Hung, J. H., & Rosenthal, T. L. (1981). Therapeutic videotaped playback. In J. L. Fryrear & R. Fleshman (Eds.), *Videotherapy in mental health* (pp. 5-46). Springfield, IL: Thomas.

Hunt, E. L. (1917). Academic public speaking. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 3,* 27-36.

Hunt, S. K., Ekachai, D., Garard, D. L., & Rust, J. H. (2001). Students' perceived usefulness and relevance of communication skills in the basic course: Comparing university and community college students. *Basic Communication Course Annual, 13,* 1-22.

Ilgen, D. R., Fisher, C. D., & Taylor, M. S. (1979). Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64,* 349-371.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1993). Cooperative learning and feedback in technology-based instruction. In J. V. Dempsey & G. C. Sales (Eds.), *Interactive*

instruction and feedback (pp. 133-157). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology.

Kay, W. J. (1917). Course I in public speaking at Washington and Jefferson College. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 3,* 242-248.

Kim, Y., & Wright, C. E. (1989). *A study of general education requirements in vocational education programs.* Menlo Park, CA: Educational Evaluation and Research, Inc.

King, P. E., & Behnke, R. R. (1999). Technology-based instructional feedback intervention. *Educational Technology, 39,* 43-49.

King, P. E., Young, M. J., & Behnke, R. R. (2000). Public speaking performance improvement as a function of information processing in immediate and delayed feedback interventions. *Communication Education, 49,* 365-374.

Klein, H. J. (1991). Further evidence on the relationship between goal setting and expectancy theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 49,* 230-257.

Kluger, A. N., & DeNisi, A. (1996). The effects of feedback interventions on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin, 119*(2), 254-284.

Kopelman, R. E. (1986). *Managing productivity in organizations: A practical, people-oriented perspective.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lake, R., & Adams, C. (1984). Effects of the videotape recorder on levels of anxiety, exhibitionism, and reticence in high school speech students. *Communication Education, 33,* 333-336.

Latham, G. P., & Marshall, H. A. (1982). The effects of self-set, participatively set and assigned goals on the performance of government employees. *Personnel Psychology, 35,* 399-404.

Latham, G. P., & Mitchell, T. R. (1976). Behavior criteria and potential reinforcers for the engineer/scientist in an industrial setting. *JSAS Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology, 6,* 83 (MS. No. 1316).

Latham, G. P., Mitchell, T. R., & Dossett, D. L. (1978). Importance of participative goal setting and anticipated rewards on goal difficulty and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 63,* 163-171.

Latham, G. P., & Saari, L. M. (1979). The effects of holding goal difficulty constant on assigned and participatively set goals. *Academy of Management Journal, 22,* 163-168.

Latham, G. P., Steele, T. P., & Saari, L. M. (1982). The effects of participation and goal difficulty on performance. *Personal Psychology, 35,* 677-686.

Latham, G. P., & Yukl, G. A. (1976). Effects of assigned versus participative goal setting on performance and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 61,* 166-171.

LeFevre, D. M. (2004). Designing for teacher learning: Video-based curriculum design. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Using video in teacher education: Advances in research on teaching, vol. 10* (pp. 235-258). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Lemke, J. (2007). Video epistemology in- and outside the box: Traversing attentional spaces. In R. Goldman, R. Pea, B. Barron, & S. J. Derry (Eds.), *Video research in the learning sciences* (pp. 39-64). New York: Academic Press.

Locke, E. A. (1975). Personal attitudes and motivation. *Annual Review of Psychology, 26,* 457-480.

Locke, E. A., & Bryan, J. F. (1968). Grade goals as determinants of academic achievement. *Journal of General Psychology, 79,* 217-228.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Locke, E. A., Shaw, K. N., Saari, L. M., & Latham, G. P. (1981). Goal setting and task performance: 1969-1980. *Psychological Bulletin, 90*(1), 125-152.

Lucas, S. E. (1999). Teaching public speaking. In A. L. Vangelisti, J. A. Daly, & G. W. Friedrich (Eds.), *Teaching Communication: Theory, research, and methods* (2nd ed., pp. 75-84). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lucas, S. E. (2009). *The art of public speaking* (10th ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Mace, F. C., Belfiore, P. J., & Shea, M. C. (1989). Operant theory and research on self-regulation. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 27-50). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Maes, J. D., Weldy, T. G., & Icenogle, M. L. (1997). A managerial perspective: Oral communication competency is most important for business students in the workplace. *Journal of Business Communication, 34,* 67-80.

Marx, R. W., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Krajcik, J. S. (1988). New technologies for teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 14*(1), 33-52.

McCroskey, J., & Lashbrook, W. (1970). The effect of various methods of employing video-tape television playback in a course in public speaking. *The Speech Teacher, 19,* 199-205.

Miles, P. (1981). Student video self-critiques. *Communication Education, 30,* 280-283.

Minutes from the 11th Annual Meeting. (1920). "The Forum." *The Quarterly Journal of Speech, 6,* 92-95.

Mone, M. A., & Baker, D. D. (1992). Cognitive, affective, and behavioral determinants and consequences of self-set goals: An integrative dynamic model. *Human Performance, 5*(3), 213-234.

Monroe, A. H. (1962). *Principles and types of speech* (5th ed.). Chicago: Scott, Foresman, and Company.

Morlan, D. B. (1993). The history and development of the basic course. In L. W. Hugenberg, P. L. Gray, & D. M. Trank (Eds.), *Teaching and directing the basic communication course* (pp. 1-8). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Morreale, S. P., Hanna, M. S., Berko, R. M., & Gibson, J. W. (1999). The basic communication course at U.S. colleges and universities: VI. *Basic Communication Course Annual, 11,* 1-26.

Morreale, S. P., Hugenberg, L., & Worley, D. (2006). The basic communication course at U.S. Colleges and Universities in the 21st century: Study VII. *Communication Education, 55*(4), 415-437.

Morreale, S. P., Osborn, M. M., & Pearson, J. C. (2000). Why communication is important: A rationale for the centrality of the study of communication. *Journal of the Association for Communication Administration, 29,* 1-25.

Morreale, S. P., Worley, D. W., & Hugenberg, B. (in press). The basic communication course at two- and four-year U.S. colleges and universities: Study VIII – The 40th anniversary. *Basic Communication Course Annual.*

Mory, E. H. (2003). Feedback research revisited. In D. H. Jonassen & P. Harris (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational communication and technology* (pp. 745-783). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Mulac, A. (1974). Effects of three feedback conditions employing videotape and audiotape on acquired speech skill. *Speech Monographs, 41,* 205-214.

National Center for Education Statistics. (1994). *The national assessment of college student learning: Identification of skills to be taught, learned, and assessed.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education – Educational Resources Information Center.

National Postsecondary Education Cooperative. (2005). *NPEC sourcebook on assessment: Definitions and assessment methods for communication, leadership, information literacy, quantitative reasoning, and quantitative skills.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education – Educational Resources Information Center.

Nystrom, C. L., & Leaf, R. (1939). The recording machine as a teaching device. *Quarterly Journal of Speech, 25,* 433-438.

Ogilvie, J. R., & Haslett, B. (1985). Communicating peer feedback in a task group. *Human Communication Research, 12,* 79-98.

O'Hair, D., Stewart, R., & Rubenstein, H. (2001). *A speaker's guidebook: Text and reference.* Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Pearson, J. C., Nelson, P. E., & Sorenson, R. L. (1981). How students and alumni perceive the basic course. *Communication Education, 30*(3), 296-299.

Pike, G. R. (2002). Measurement issues in outcome assessment. In T. W. Banta & Associates (Eds.), *Building a scholarship of assessment* (pp. 131-147). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Porter, T., & King, W. (1972). The use of video-tape equipment in improving oral interpretation performance. *The Speech Teacher, 21,* 99-106.

Quigley, B., & Nyquist, J. (1992). Using video technology to provide feedback to students in performance courses. *Communication Education, 41,* 324-336.

Report of the National Association of Colleges and Employers. (December 29, 1998). *Wall Street Journal, Work Week,* p. A1.

Rosebery, A. S., & Warren, B. (Eds.) (1998). *Boats, balloons, and classroom video: Science teaching as inquiry.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Rothstein, A. L., & Arnold, R. K. (1976). Bridging the gap: Application of research on videotape feedback and bowling. *Motor Skills: Theory into Practice, 1,* 35-62.

Scherer, L. A., Chang, M. C., Meredith, J. W., & Battistella, F. D. (2003). Videotape reviews leads to rapid and sustained learning. *The American Journal of Surgery, 185,* 516-520.

Schrader, D. C., & Dillard, J. P. (1998). Goal structures and interpersonal influence. *Communication Studies, 49,* 276-293.

Schunk, D. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and cognitive learning. In C. Ames & R. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education, vol. 3: Goals and cognitions* (pp. 13-44). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Schunk, D. H. (1991). Goal setting and self-evaluation: A social cognitive perspective on self-regulation. *Advances in Motivation and Achievement, 7,* 85-113.

Schutz, P. A., & Davis, H. A. (2000). Emotions and self-regulation during test taking. *Educational Psychologist, 35,* 243-356.

Schwartz, D. L., & Hartman, K. (2007). It's not television anymore: Designing digital video for learning and assessment. In R. Goldman, R. Pea, B. Barron, & S. J. Derry (Ed.), *Video research in the learning sciences* (pp. 335-348). New York: Academic Press.

Smith, C. D., & King, P. E. (2004). Student feedback sensitivity and the efficacy of feedback interventions in public speaking performance improvement. *Communication Education, 53*(3), 203-216.

Sorenson, R. L., & Pearson, J. C. (1981). Alumni perceptions on speech communication training: Implications for communication faculty. *Communication Education, 30*(3), 299-304.

Stevens, D. D., & Levi, A. J. (2005). *Introduction to rubrics: An assessment tool to save grading time, convey effective feedback and promote student learning.* Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Sypher, B. D., & Sypher, H. (1984). Seeing ourselves as others see us: Convergence and divergence in assessments of communication behavior. *Communication Research, 11*(1), 97-115.

Taylor, A. (1979). *Speaking in public.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Taylor, M. S., Fisher, C. D., & Ilgen, D. R. (1984). Individual's reactions to performance feedback in organizations: A control theory perspective. In G. Ferris, & K. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management, vol. 2* (pp. 81-124). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Tochon, F. V. (2007). From video cases to video pedagogy: A framework for video feedback and reflection in pedagogical research praxis. In R. Goldman, R. Pea, B. Barron, & S. J. Derry (Ed.), *Video research in the learning sciences* (pp. 53-65). New York: Academic Press.

Trueblood, T. C. (1915). College courses in public speaking. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 1,* 260-265.

van den Berg, E. (2001). An exploration of the use of multimedia cases as a reflective tool in teacher education. *Research in Science Education, 31,* 245-265.

Waggoner, W. F., & Scheid, R. C. (1989). Comparison of two methods designed to improve pediatric dental case presentations utilizing videotapes. *Journal of Dental Education, 53,* 573-576.

Waldron, V. R., Caughlin, J., & Jackson, D. (1995). Talking specifics: Facilitating effects of planning on AIDS talk in peer dyads. *Health Communication, 7,* 179-204.

Walvoord, B. E. (2004). *Assessment clear and simple: A practical guide for institutions, departments, and general education.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Walvoord, B. E., & Anderson, V. J. (1998). Effective grading: A tool for learning and assessment. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Ward, P., & Carnes, M. (2002). Effects of posting self-set goals on collegiate football players' skill execution during practice and games. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 35,* 1-12.

Wetzel, C. D., Radtke, P. H., & Stern, H. W. (1994). *Instructional effectiveness of video media.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Wilson, S. R. (1997). Developing theories of persuasive message production: The next generation. In J. O. Greene (Ed.), *Message production: Advances in communication theory* (pp. 15-43). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wilson, S. R. (2002). *Seeking and resisting compliance: Why people say what they do when trying to influence others.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wilson, J. F., Arnold, C. C., & Wertheimer, M. M. (1990). *Public speaking as a liberal art* (6^{th} ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Wilson, S. R., & Sabee, C. M. (2003). Explicating communicative competence as a theoretical term. In J. O. Green & B. R. Burleson (Eds.), *Handbook of communication and social interaction skills* (pp. 3-50). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Winans, J. A. (1917). Public speaking I at Cornell University. *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 3,* 153-162.

Wood, R. E., Locke, E. A. (1987). The relation of self-efficacy and grade goals to academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 47,* 1013-1024.

Yukl, G. A., & Latham, G. P. (1978). Interrelationship among employee participation, individual differences, goal difficulty, goal acceptance, goal instrumentality, and performance. *Personal Psychology, 31,* 305-323.

ABSTRACT

EFFECT OF GOAL-SETTING AND SELF-GENERATED FEEDBACK ON STUDENT SPEECHMAKING

by

LUKE LE FEBVRE

May 2010

Advisor: Dr. Sandra L. Pensoneau-Conway

Major: Communication (Instructional)

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

This investigation examined how goal setting strategies and self-generated feedback from video affects student grade improvement on subsequent speaking occasions. Students (N =140) across ten course sections were conveniently assigned to experimental conditions manipulating video use and goal setting strategies. Significant and meaningful main effects of anticipatory goal setting combined with self-generated feedback from video were obtained when compared to unstructured video replay, only goal setting, and self-reactive goal setting with self-generated feedback from video. Implications for these findings are examined along with the potential of video as an instructional technological tool for student learning in the introductory course.

Keywords: video feedback, public speaking, goal setting, self-generated feedback, introductory course

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Luke LeFebvre (M.A., University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee) is currently Assistant Introductory Course Director, Director of the Public Speaking Resource Center, and Graduate Student Association President at Wayne State University. His research interests include classroom communication and instructional processes, social conflict responses, and followership. His recent publications include *A Speechmaker's Supplemental Material* and a chapter in *Teaching Ideas for the Basic Communication Course, Volume 9*. He was awarded the Central States Communication Association's Cooper Award for Outstanding Graduate Teaching Assistant (M.A.) in 2003.