

379
N81d
No. 4718

THE EFFECTS OF THE ADVANCE ORGANIZER
ON STUDENT PERCEPTION OF TEACHER
COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

by

Melissa Eades Thibodeau, B.A., M. Ed.

Denton, Texas

August, 1998

C.A.H.

Thibodeau, Melissa Eades, The Effects of the Advance Organizer on Student Perception of Teacher Communication Competence. Doctor of Education (Curriculum and Instruction), August, 1998, 91 pp., 5 tables, references, 79 titles.

The problem of this study was to determine whether the advance organizer would affect students' perception of instructor communication competence. The study also sought to determine any effect the organizer would have on student achievement.

Three junior English teachers at one large, suburban high school took part in the study. Each teacher had three groups, an Experimental group A which received a historical introduction to the study lesson, an Experimental group B which received the organizer before the study lesson, and a control group which received no special introduction to the study lesson. All students were enrolled in regular English III (American Literature).

Students were asked to fill out an attitudinal survey regarding their teacher's communication competence. On the next day, teachers taught each group according to its varying anticipatory set. On the third class day, students filled out the attitudinal survey again and took an achievement quiz.

Group equivalence and differences among the achievement scores across the three groups were measured by analysis of variance. Differences among the posttest scores across the three groups was determined by analysis of covariance. A correlation between the achievement quiz and the attitudinal survey was measured by the Pearson Product-Moment correlational coefficient.

No significant difference was found among either the attitudinal surveys or the achievement quizzes.

Recommendations for future research include using an organizer of shorter length and requiring less critical thinking ability. Additionally, instructional competence research which takes into account the students' overall perception of school would be beneficial.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The study described in the following pages sought to determine relationships among the use of a specific instructional strategy, the advance organizer, originally developed by David Ausubel, students' perceptions of teacher communication competence, and student learning. In order to understand the logic behind such a study, one must consider several elements of educational research and understand the relationship between these elements. The assumptions which contribute to the inquiry discussed here are:

- * Use of a lesson cycle, including an anticipatory set has been shown to result in positive teacher evaluations (Hunter & Russell, 1981).
- * Good communication skills in the classroom have been shown to result in supervisory assessments of competent/effective teaching.
- * Effective teaching (as determined by teacher supervisors) has been shown to improve student learning.

The reasonable assumption made from these statements is that students learn more effectively from teachers who communicate more competently. This study makes a logical connection from known educational theory to propose a relationship between students' perceptions of teacher communication competence and use of a particular type of anticipatory set as part of the lesson cycle. For purposes of this study, an anticipatory set was defined as that part of

the lesson which prepares the student to learn new material. Anticipatory sets range in complexity from a simple overview of the day's lesson to the more abstract advance organizer, which will be defined in detail later.

Recent changes in the criteria used to evaluate public school teachers in Texas reveal a need to improve teacher communication as a means of improving instruction and therefore, student achievement. School districts may take the option of developing a teacher evaluation tool according to the criteria set forth by the Texas Education Agency. These evaluative measures will have two goals: (1) to systematically and consistently measure teacher performance, and (2) to show ways to improve student learning by the assessment of evaluation data. Studies like the one described here also can reveal ways in which such improvement may be accomplished.

Although many studies have shown a direct or indirect relationship between communication competence and student achievement (Allen & Shaw, 1990; Landin, Hawkins, & Herbert, 1990; Nussbaum & Prusank, 1989; Nyquist, Wulff & Abbott, 1989; Powell & Harville, 1990; Sanders & Wiseman, 1990; Staton, 1989), less have shown a relationship between what the *students think* of the teacher's ability and successful student learning. These studies are a good starting point, but offer no substantive data by which to improve instruction. Allen & Shaw's study (1990) showed that teachers who exhibited skill in communicating in several areas, such as immediacy, non-verbal communication, and willingness to communicate, were perceived by evaluators and supervisors to be more effective teachers. The assumption is that if a teacher is evaluated as more effective, then students must be learning; however, the study offers a caveat. Many supervisors and evaluators' perceptions were swayed by the communication the teachers had with them

outside of the classroom. It seems, therefore, that determining the effect of communication competence on student learning requires input from those most affected by instructional communication, the students. In this case, one might consider Thomas Kuhn's theory (Golden et al., 1992) that new paradigms of study are necessary when conventional scientific method is insufficient to test new ideas. This study offers a somewhat new approach to defining how teachers might become more competent communicators, by asking those most affected by the instructor's competence, the student.

Background

Staton (1989) states that "the interface between communication and instruction is readily apparent when the definitions of the two terms are examined." Instruction occurs when one person helps another to learn; communication is a process that occurs when two people share meanings or understandings. Obviously, communication is a necessary component of instruction, and learning occurs when communication is successful. Teachers must be communicatively competent to be effective instructors.

TEA provides a comprehensive set of curriculum competencies, Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills, for every state-approved course taught in public schools. The elements represent the goals or outcomes students should achieve when the course is finished. At this time, all core subjects (English, math, science, social studies), and many elective courses include a communication component. Students are either encouraged or required to present orally final products in many of their classes. In addition, many schools are utilizing alternate forms of assessment which often rely on student communication skills, such as oral presentations, skits, and research defense sessions. College placement offices report that the most important skill their

graduates can have is communication (Ford & Wolvin, 1993). With these trends in mind, one can see how important effective communication in the classroom is for elementary and secondary students. Teachers not only need to be competent communicators for the sake of their instruction, but because they have to be role models for students who must communicate well to succeed in life. When discussing communication competence and instruction, one must consider the areas of communication which make an instructor competent. Most studies in instructional communication competence focus on these traits: questioning strategies, verbal and nonverbal immediacy, feedback skills, presentational style, diplomacy, and ability to diffuse student communication apprehension (Allen & Shaw, 1990).

As stated earlier, teacher communication competence has been connected to effective teaching in a number of studies. As educational theorists develop ideas about learning styles and multiple intelligences, teacher communication will have to incorporate strategies for instructing students with special learning needs. The development of instructional strategies, such as 4MAT (a type of lesson/unit planning), allow for the needs of all students, regardless of their learning styles. All of these instructional strategies are based on the same basic concept: the lesson cycle developed by Madeline Hunter. The lesson cycle reveals the importance of the anticipatory set for student learning, that part of the lesson which prepares the student for learning. Indeed, the Law of Readiness (Thorndike, 1913) states that students learn more when they are ready to learn.

Recent work in brain research (Caine & Caine, 1994) refers to patterning as the main way the brain acquires information. "Patterning refers to the meaningful organization and categorization of information" (p.89). Evidently,

the brain resists having meaningless patterns imposed on it. The implication for education rests in the presentation of new information in such a way as to make it meaningful. According to Caine & Caine, "When the brain's natural capacity to integrate information is acknowledged and invoked in teaching, vast amounts of initially unrelated or seemingly random information and activities can be presented and assimilated" (p.89).

In addition, researchers such as Gagne (*Grolier*) and other information processing theorists have shown that students transfer information to long-term memory more readily when schemata already exist in which to place the new information. Brain research shows the need for connectedness in learning as well. With these ideas in mind, educators can see students will learn better and remember more of what they have learned when the lesson includes an anticipatory set which connects the learning to prior knowledge or which provides a "file folder" in which to store the new information.

Creating this "file folder" is the premise of Ausubel's theory. Thirty-five years ago, David Ausubel introduced his method of facilitating greater retention and understanding of unfamiliar text by the use of an advance organizer (1960). Ausubel's theory developed out of his work in educational psychology and pedagogy. The basis for his theory lies, in part, in Aristotle's learning theory, connectionism, which states that learning occurs in relationship to what is already known. Many learning theorists in the area of information-processing have developed models based on Aristotle's ideas including advance organizers (Ausubel, 1960), and synectics (William J.J. Gordan, 1980). Ausubel's model has been researched extensively (Lawton, 1977; Lawton and Wanska, 1979; Groller, et al., 1991), and has been used in the methodology for research on various subjects (Glover, 1990; LeSourd, 1988; Corkhill, et al.,

1988; Schumm, 1992). Although Ausubel's model has received much criticism (i.e. Barnes & Clawson, 1975), it is still considered a pedagogical triumph in terms of increasing retention and comprehension of new material.

Ausubel's model assumes that "the learning and retention of unfamiliar but meaningful material can be facilitated by the advance introduction of relevant subsuming concepts (organizers)" (Ausubel, 1960). Basically, Ausubel believes that learning takes place when a student can associate new material with information already committed to memory. When a student is learning material which cannot be associated with prior knowledge, an advance organizer becomes necessary. The organizer provides the student with information on the new material in a more abstract form. For instance, one study used an organizer about philosophy as an area of study to introduce a reading passage on Descartes' *Cogito Argument* (Groller, et al., 1991). The advance organizer gave the students a subsuming concept upon which to base the new material on Descartes. The study showed that students who were presented the advance organizer scored higher on retention and comprehension tests than students who had read the passage alone. The advance organizer establishes the cognitive schema in which to anchor the new material.

If we assume that students are more open to learning and therefore more likely to learn from teachers they believe to be better instructors, and we know that effective teaching is marked by use of a complete lesson cycle, then it seems logical to also assume that the two phenomena are related, that is, that use of an anticipatory set as part of the lesson cycle would alter the students' perceptions of the teacher's communication skills, and, therefore, make the students more open to instruction and more likely to learn. This hypothesis is

the premise of this study.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the effect of the use of an anticipatory set and the advance organizer in English III (American Literature) on students' perceptions of teacher communication competence and on student achievement.

Statement of the Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

H₁: There will be no significant differences in the students' perception of teacher communication competence as measured by post-treatment attitudinal surveys across the two experimental groups and the control group.

H₂: There will be no significant differences in the achievement of course content as measured by the post lesson quiz across the two experimental groups and the control group.

H₃: There will be no significant correlation between student perceptions of teacher communication competence and achievement of the learning material.

Definition of Terms

Advance Organizer - an instructional strategy developed by David Ausubel in 1960 which offers a more abstract form of the new information, to be presented before the new information is taught as a means of providing a connection for the students

competence - the knowledge of how to best communicate in given situations **and** the skill to use that knowledge effectively, or the perception by

another that one is competent

connectionism - a concept originated by Aristotle which states that all new information is learned in relation to what is already known

diplomacy - skill in handling affairs without arousing hostility

experimental group A - a group of students whose teacher will use an anticipatory set, but not the Advance Organizer

experimental group B - a group of students whose teacher will use the Advance Organizer as the anticipatory set

feedback - the return to a point of origin of evaluative or corrective information about an action or process

immediacy - term referring to approach/avoidance theory; a communicator is more immediate if s/he approaches communicative situations rather than avoids them

non-verbal - without words; non-verbal communication can include sounds, such as paralanguage (tone, pitch, rate, etc.)

questioning strategy - the ability of a teacher to ask questions of students effectively; these should be thought provoking, and the teacher should generally wait 10 seconds before allowing a single student to answer; the teacher should give all students in the class the opportunity to answer questions, and should give students who answer incorrectly a second chance to offer a correct answer

solidarity - refers to a relationship where feelings of closeness are derived from shared personal experiences and which finds expression in sentimental behaviors

verbal - communication with words

Methodology

Sample

The subjects for this study were English III students who attend a 4-A high school in a large suburban school district. This level of English was chosen because the research had knowledge of the curriculum, scope and sequence for the class. The study occurred at the beginning of the fall semester of 1997, before students had become accustomed to the teacher's style of communicating, in the hope that students would be more honest about their teachers' communication styles. Subjects were students enrolled in regular English III (American Literature) classes. Given random selection, and the fact that special education/resource students have been mainstreamed because of inclusion, the subjects were of varying ability levels, despite the fact that they were all taking regular junior English. Three teachers were involved in the study. All three teachers hold Texas teaching certificates in English, and all three have previous experience teaching English. Each subject was assigned a number to protect his/her identity, and all subjects took the pre- and post-treatment attitudinal surveys to insure an honest appraisal of teacher communication competence. A total of 225 subjects were selected for the study, 75 subjects per group; however, because of parental consent, student consent, and student absences, the actual study numbers were smaller (see data in Chapter 4). Group equivalence was established with the pre-treatment survey.

Students attending school in this district are primarily Anglo-American, Judeo-Christian students. The minority population constitutes 6% of total students, primarily Hispanic and Asian students. English III is junior English, so most students were 16 or 17 years old. Socio-economic class ranges from lower-middle class (\$30K/yr.) to middle-upper class (\$200K+/yr.). The district is

fairly newly developed, and the high school is a new school, which opened in 1996.

Instrumentation

The pre- and post-treatment attitudinal surveys were identical. The survey instrument was an adaption of Wlodkowski's (1985) Instructional Clarity Checklist, which consists of 24 indicators on a Likert Scale. The instrument asked subjects to rate their instructors on specific classroom behaviors on a scale from "all of the time" (1) to "none of the time" (4). This instrument was used because it best suited the needs of the study without drastic changes to the instrument itself. All three groups were given the same survey.

The achievement instrument was a seven-item multiple choice quiz. The quiz was taken from the published ancillary materials which accompany the state-adopted textbook for English. Questions range from knowledge to analysis on Bloom's taxonomy for educational objectives.

Research Design and Treatment

Each teacher administered the treatment to a control group, an experimental group A and an experimental group B. The researcher and the teachers met prior to the study's commencement to discuss procedures and to answer questions.

Before the control or experimental lesson was taught, all students were given a pre-treatment attitudinal survey (See Appendix A) to determine perceived teacher communication competence. The next class period, the students were taught the same lesson, "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God," (see Appendix B) with only one difference. The control group had an introduction only (see Appendix C); no special attention was given to the anticipatory set. Experimental group A was given an anticipatory set of a

historical or biographical nature (see Appendix C). The anticipatory set for this lesson consisted of historical information on the author Jonathan Edwards. Experimental group B was given the advance organizer, a more abstract form of the new information to be taught (see Appendix C). The advance organizer discussed the use of classical rhetorical analysis for examining a text. The treatment for all three groups was scripted for the teachers to avoid a confounding teacher variable.

The class period after the lesson was presented, all students took the post-treatment survey to again determine perceived teacher communication competence. Once students had completed the post-treatment, they took the achievement quiz over the lesson.

Data Analysis

All pre-, post-treatment surveys, and achievement quizzes were hand scored by the researcher, and scores were transferred to worksheets for data entry. The researcher used *SPSS* to analyze the data.

The group equivalency was established by ANOVA. To control for differences in the pre-treatment scores, posttest scores were analyzed by ANCOVA. Achievement scores were also analyzed by ANOVA. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the correlation between post-treatment perception and achievement across the groups.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the use of the advance organizer as an anticipatory set would have an effect on student perception of teacher communication competence or on student learning. Results of the study may improve teacher preparation and staff development, and therefore, have a positive effect on student outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Education is one of the most paradoxical enterprises of our time, since it is dynamic in nature, yet maintains its fundamental principles. As society progresses scientifically and technologically, educators must meet the challenge of bringing knowledge to a populace which no longer has an attention span, no longer reads, and no longer feels the need to study canonized material.

In this chaos, educational research emerges as a means of determining new methods of instruction and ways to increase student learning. Research in education drives the pendulum which swings perpetually in the education field, producing innovations for teaching and learning, and, many times, reviving methods of the past. Field study in education shows educators which methods are the most effective means of instruction, and lends credibility to theories in education. This study utilized a field approach, testing not only a method of instruction, but lending credence to the theory that effective teacher communication increases student learning.

The Texas legislature has created a new teacher evaluation tool, one which may be adopted by independent school districts, or whose tenants may be used to develop the district's own evaluation tool. The new evaluation instrument is learner-centered, with teacher communication as one of its major

components. Teachers are evaluated on their ability to communicate effectively with students, parents, and colleagues.

Communication Competence

Communication competence has been defined in many ways. Most authors believe competence includes the knowledge of appropriate communicative behaviors and the skills to apply them correctly to various situations (Phillips, 1984; Rubin, 1990); others include performance as part of competence (Spitzberg, 1983, 1984; Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). Duran (1991) considers communication competence to be a form of intelligence. Definitions of communication competence vary primarily because of the number of fields in which it is studied. Since this discussion addresses communication in the classroom, performance will be considered as an aspect of competence.

One must understand the issues surrounding communication competence, especially those which create debate in the field, in order to justify the necessity for competence in instructional communication. Three basic controversies over communication competence exist in the literature: Is communication competence a state or trait? Which theoretical viewpoint should guide the research in communication competence? How and by whom should communication competence be measured? (Rubin, 1990; Wiemann & Backlund, 1980).

The basic debate between competence as a state or competence as a trait questions whether competence is a long-term disposition or trait, or a state that changes with the situation (Rubin, 1990). State measurement concentrates on a particular setting and measures skills necessary in that context. For instance, a state measurement of communication competence in the classroom might evaluate a skill specific to instruction, such as use of wait time. On the

other hand, trait measurement evaluates personality aspects that influence communication, such as flexibility and sensitivity. These traits would be applicable to any communication situation. The main issue separating these two ideas is the notion that competency characteristics can be improved through instruction and practice. If we accept the trait theory of competence, then we believe communication competence to be a measure of others' predispositions toward successful communicative behavior, something which cannot be learned. The state theory of competence requires that a person be conscious of his/her behavior (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). State competence can be improved through instruction; however, this notion conflicts with the idea of scripting.

Scripting, or nonthinking communication, as described by Langer (1978) is based on attribution theory, or information processing. She argues that as information is repeatedly processed, the cues become overlearned, requiring less and less conscious thought process to achieve the same goals. An example of this phenomena occurs when a student continually asks a teacher to be allowed to go to his/her locker. The teacher becomes so accustomed to saying "No, sit down," when the student asks this question, that the teacher may inadvertently answer "No, sit down" when the student asks for help on an assignment. The same thing occurs when acquaintances ask us how we are feeling. Without considering how we really feel, we answer "Fine." The idea of scripting opens another debate because there are those who feel scripting is a competent behavior under some circumstances while others feel it is incompetent.

A second larger issue, related to the state/trait debate, is the argument over which theory of competence to base research on. Researchers consider

three basic perspectives of competence: cognitive, interpersonal, and behavioral (Rubin, 1990; Cupach & Spitzberg, 1983; Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). The cognitive approach holds that competence is a mental process guiding behavior (Rubin, 1990). There are differing views within the cognitive spectrum. Chomsky, whose work has been influential in the field (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980), concentrates on a linguistic approach to competence, avoiding factors of performance. In Chomsky's view, the speaker's knowledge and correct use of the language would determine his/her competence level. Berger and DiBattista (1992) found that participants in their study sought information before devising plans to reach one of two social goals. The more information sought by the subject trying to reach the goal, the more elaborate and lengthy the plan. These findings show that communication can depend significantly on cognitive skills.

Spitzberg (1983), on the other hand, believes performance is a necessary factor of competent communication. In his view, "effectiveness requires performance" (p. 326). He believes that effective performance does not require skill, but performance is more likely to be effective when the speaker has skills to communicate (Spitzberg, 1983). Spitzberg's view of performance as an integral component of competence is based on his belief that competence is an evaluation made by others; hence, the audience is a vital part of competence assessment.

The interpersonal theory of competence describes the communication process as one in which people acquire pro-social behaviors and use them to manage interactions with one another (Rubin, 1990). Relational competence stems from this theory. In their text on communication competence, Spitzberg and Crupach (1984) further define the definition of competence to include a

relational construct, or interpersonal view of competence. Their writing offers several propositions, among them that competent behavior is continuous rather than dichotomous. A speaker becomes more competent over time or is more competent in some situations than in others, rather than being simply competent or incompetent. This notion seems important when one considers the effect out-of-classroom talk may have on supervisor opinion of in-classroom communication skills. Some evaluators have based their assessment of teacher communication competence on out-of-classroom skills, regardless of what they witness in the classroom, but a teacher may be competent out of the classroom, and incompetent within.

The behavioral, or skills approach, concentrates on skills specific to a particular context or situation (Rubin, 1990; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). According to the behavioral approach, a speaker would be competent if s/he could demonstrate knowledge of the appropriate skill to use in a given situation. Studies noted in Rubin's overview of communication competence issues (1990) suggest specific skills for teachers. These include motivating students, giving constructive feedback, establishing good rapport with students and coworkers, explaining lessons clearly, questioning effectively, and adapting to the audience.

Cupach and Spitzberg (1983) studied the relationship of trait and state measures of competence. They found that trait measures, such as adaptability and self-esteem, were related; likewise, state measures, such as self-rated competence and anxiety are related. The two types of measure, however, are not significantly related, according to their study.

There are many different views of how and by whom competence should be measured. Typically, research in communication competence is done using

three types of data-gathering techniques: the self-report, the trained evaluator's report, and the observation of peers (Rubin, 1990). Self-reports, sometimes called participant-observer reports, rely on the respondents' abilities to assess their own skills. Although this type of instrument gathers information based on more realistic situations, the instrument itself can swerve the respondents' behavior and/or responses (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). The trained evaluator's report provides objective and reliable observations. Research which relies on third-person, untrained observers yields observations or ratings about interactants' communication skills (Rubin, 1990). Usually, the observer does not know nor interact with the communicators; they may be observed on video tape, for example. The third-person observation method gathers a large number of observations, but the video tape takes the situation further from real life, and guaranteeing that the observer does not know those whom s/he is observing makes the selection of observers difficult in some instances (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980).

Determining what to assess when measuring communication competence is another concern. Opinions on this matter are usually affected by the field in which the competence is being measured; in other words, skills suggested for assessment would be specific to the field or profession. For this reason, one must consider the role communication plays in instruction, and how competent communication can affect student learning, both affective learning and cognitive learning.

Communication Competence and Instruction

The Texas Teacher Appraisal System (TTAS), which has been in use since September 1984, evaluates teachers in five areas or domains, including communication skills. The new system, the Professional Development

Appraisal System (PDAS), also suggests communication skills be used as evidence of effective teaching. Obviously, the Texas Education Agency and the legislature feel teachers should be effective communicators; the new appraisal system relies on evaluation of communication skills as a measure of teacher effectiveness as heavily, or perhaps more so, than the previous measure. To fully understand the relationship of communication competence and instruction, we must consider the possible effects of teacher communication competence on student learning, areas of communication training for teachers which should be addressed, successful programs as models for further development of a field of study in instructional communication, and recommendations for future research.

Instruction occurs when one person helps another to learn; communication is a process that occurs when two people share meanings or understandings. Obviously, communication is a necessary function of instruction, and learning can occur when communication is effective. It follows that teachers who are communicatively competent are more likely to be effective instructors.

The Texas Education Agency provides TEKS, Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (see Appendix D), for every state-approved course taught in public schools (*Straight Talk*, 1997). The elements represent the goals or outcomes students should achieve when the course is finished. At this time, all core subjects (English, math, science, social studies), and many elective courses include a communication component. Students are either encouraged or required to orally present final products in many of their classes. With these trends in mind, one can see how important good communication in the classroom is for elementary and secondary students. Teachers not only need to be competent communicators for the sake of their instruction, but because they

have to be role models for students who must communicate well to succeed after high school. According to Dewitt (1991), who along with her colleagues made recommendations for teacher certification requirements, "the place of oral communication in teacher education and certification is tenuous" (p. 27). She goes on to say that no specific requirements exist which would address the need for competent communicators in the classroom. She recommends four factors which could change this predicament, including speech communication educators articulating the abilities that accompany good teaching, speech communication educators assertively articulating the need for formal study in speech communication, insistence on the part of speech communication educators that their classes be a requirement in approved programs at colleges and universities, and the development of a clear and consistent procedure for assessing good communication abilities (Dewitt, et al., 1991).

Effective Teacher Behaviors

When discussing communication competence and instruction, areas of communication which make an instructor competent should be considered. Research in teacher communication competence identifies numerous skills which exemplify effective communicative behaviors. These include questioning strategies, lecturing, humor, gestures, immediacy (approach/avoidance behavior), and clarity, among others. Some of the skills are discussed in more detail below.

Much time in teacher preservice training is devoted to questioning strategies. Teacher trainees are given specific information regarding questioning, right down to the amount of time which should lapse between question and answer (wait time). Recent research has studied verbal and nonverbal immediacy and patterns of teacher-student interaction, among other

things (Allen & Shaw, 1990). This research shows that teacher evaluators rely on the aforementioned patterns of communication as indicators of teacher effectiveness. One way a teacher can show immediacy and develop a pattern of rapport with students is to provide positive feedback. Positive feedback is made up of positive statements directed to the student about a particular skill, cognitive, motor, or behavioral. Teachers with effective feedback skills will make their comments specific to the student and the task, rather than general, and will provide opportunity for extension of the student's answer. In other words the teacher would respond to the student's question by saying, for example, "That's a provocative idea, Stan. Can you tell me more about it," rather than "Good."

One study (Landin, et al., 1990) has shown that it is possible to improve feedback teachers give students. While teachers must have a strong knowledge base to give specific feedback, they must also know what types of feedback will be most effective in a given situation. If one assumes choosing a communicative strategy based on a situation is a characteristic of communication competency, and that greater competence on the part of the teacher produces greater student learning, then it is reasonable to also assume that a teacher skilled in giving feedback would elicit greater levels of understanding from students.

Another specific area of communication competence which seems to affect student learning is the teacher's individual presentational style (Nussbaum & Prusank, 1989). Norton (1977) noted that certain teacher styles produce higher teacher effectiveness ratings. Some teachers use more verbal behaviors than nonverbal, but the effectiveness of the teaching does not seem to depend on the use of either verbal or nonverbal behaviors. Some teachers

choose to utilize narratives, and this seems to be an effective, although not necessary, way of communicating. Many teachers seem to change their style as the semester progresses. This change may occur for a number of reasons, such as changing classroom personnel, a specific discipline problem, or change in subject matter difficulty. Again, competence depends on the use of skills in a given situation; a teacher is competent when she can choose the most effective communicative strategy. Overall, teachers who seem more willing to engage in communication are rated higher by evaluators as effective teachers (Allen & Shaw, 1990). Sallinen-Kuperinen's (1992) review of empirical research on teacher communication style found that style has a positive impact on affective outcomes, but that the relationship of style to cognitive learning was less clear.

Immediacy is another characteristic typically seen in effective teachers. Although studies have shown that teachers who are more immediate are perceived as more likable, there is little evidence to link immediacy to cognitive learning (Allen & Shaw, 1990); however, some researchers (Richmond et al., 1986) have shown a correlation between level of immediacy and level of cognitive and affective learning. If we consider the effect attitude has on openness to learning, we can see that it is possible for students to be more successful in a classroom where the teacher is liked and trusted. Related to immediacy, solidarity refers to a relationship of "closeness" derived from similarities - personal, social, behavioral - which finds expression in sentimental behaviors (Wheless, 1976). Wheless' study found that self-disclosure was a critical attribute to solidarity. One could assume teachers who participate in self-disclosure are more likely to produce high solidarity relationships. Since

learning environment has been shown to have an impact on student learning, solidarity seems an important factor in effective teacher communication.

Diplomacy seems to have an effect on perceived communication competence as well, both in the student-teacher relationship and in teacher relationships with parents, colleagues, and administrators. Nussbaum and Prusank (1989) state that student-teacher relationships are built on two components, a closeness component (immediacy and solidarity), and a control component (power). These components then determine the learning that takes place in the classroom. Teachers who set a pattern on the first day of class for communicating effectively with students will find that their students are more open to new ideas, more willing to discuss their thoughts, and more agreeable to disciplinary standards. One way this can be accomplished is by establishing a democratic leadership style. Clearly, teacher communication competence manipulates the classroom environment, and therefore, student learning.

Additionally, teachers must employ diplomacy in working with parents, colleagues, and administrators. New teachers must learn the role they are to play as well as details about the school in which they will teach through an interactive process with the teachers already employed there (Nussbaum and Prusank, 1989). Teachers learn who to talk to about certain issues, and what issues are taboo in their particular school or district.

For many teachers in public schools, the ability to converse with parents is a skill they are required to develop during their first year of teaching. Relationships with parents are typically characterized as distrustful and hostile (Blase, 1987), and studies indicate that teachers develop methods to deal with critical parents (Becker, 1980 in Blase). When teachers develop competencies associated with instruction, management, and other classroom issues, they

become increasingly aware of the political considerations linked to each of these issues. For example, a teacher in a gifted and talented program would need to be aware of the political implications of removing a student who had been placed in the program by parents. Telling parents their child cannot be successful in such a class is a difficult task.

One way teachers become competent in dealing with parents is to construct a political self (Blase, 1987). The political self would differ from the classroom self possibly by remaining more aloof from parents than from students. While some may not put the construction of an “alter ego” in the realm of communication competence, it is related when one considers that much of competence is knowing what knowledge to use in a given situation. Teachers may develop a diplomatic vocabulary for use in discussing sensitive issues, and this, too, is a part of becoming a competent communicator. Even the avoidance of potentially controversial issues is a characteristic of competence (Blase, 1987). Teachers who are naturally less willing to communicate on an interpersonal level outside of the classroom may develop skills to do so, because judgments by supervisors about overall effectiveness as a teacher are often based on communication outside the classroom (Allen and Shaw, 1990).

Another characteristic of communication competence among instructors takes the perspective of students, but should be considered because the teacher’s ability to manipulate the classroom environment, verbally and nonverbally, depends on the level of communication competence. This last element is communication apprehension, not on the part of the teacher, but on the part of the student. Communication apprehension has been studied at all levels, elementary through college years, and two primary findings have emerged. First, students at every level suffer from communication

apprehension (CA), and second, CA can have a negative effect on a student's academic success (Nussbaum and Prusank, 1989). Teacher immediacy and solidarity play an important role in relieving CA or in helping the student to at least overcome the problem enough to perform basic communicative tasks. While trust and camaraderie are affective characteristics of a positive learning environment, they still depend on teacher communication competence to be utilized.

Nussbaum (1992) reviewed literature which related teacher behavior to teaching effectiveness. His research was limited to those studies which considered teacher behaviors as those which were directly related to positive student outcomes or positive teacher evaluations. He found that studies had shown several dimensions of teacher clarity which positively affected student outcomes. In a study involving students from diverse ethnic groups, Powell and Harville (1990) found that both verbal and nonverbal immediacy were related to teacher clarity for white, Latino and Asian-American students. Verbal and nonverbal immediacy played a large role in judgment of teacher clarity for all three groups, especially Latino students. Likewise, Sanders and Wiseman (1990) found that teacher immediacy affected behavioral, affective and cognitive learning, especially for Hispanic students.

Hines, Cruikshank, and Kennedy (1985, in Nussbaum, 1992) found that students who perceived their teachers to present content in a clear manner were more satisfied with the lesson. Bourke (1986, in Nussbaum, 1992) found that class size directly affected teacher behavior and therefore had a direct effect on student achievement. Bettencourt, Gillett, Gall, and Hull (1983, in Nussbaum, 1992) found that students whose teachers had training in clarity spent more time on-task than students whose teachers had not had the training.

Book, Duffy, Roehler, Meloth, and Vavrus (1985, in Nussbaum, 1992) found that students whose teachers had been trained to use explicit explanation were more aware of what had been taught. Richmond, Gorham, and McCrosky (1987, in Nussbaum, 1992) found a substantial positive relationship between student perceptions of teacher immediacy and student perceptions of cognitive learning. These studies all show the positive relationship between teacher communication ability and student success.

The aforementioned characteristics, feedback and questioning, style development, diplomacy, and dealing with communication apprehension, represent a sample of the skills which teachers should have to be considered competent communicators. Many teacher education programs have developed specific courses to teach preservice teachers these skills and others. Some programs are exemplary in their efforts and deserve noting.

Pamela Cooper (1988) notes that students are attracted to classrooms where teachers communicate well. "Students rate clarity, rapport, and effective delivery as important communication variables" (p. 191). Cooper endorses using questionnaires for both student appraisal of teachers and self-evaluation to determine communication competence.

Programs in Instructional Communication

Ann Staton (1989) describes the program at University of Washington as an interface between instruction and communication. The program is based on two core assumptions, that the teacher must be a content specialist and that the teacher must be a competent communicator. The program presents a number of teaching philosophies and paradigms, but examines each with respect to the role of communication. In this way, the program complements the course work done in the education department. While the program concentrates on

instruction, it is not limited to instruction in public schools. The program serves teachers of all subject areas, including speech teachers, graduate teaching assistants, communication consultants, junior college and university instructors, and communication researchers and specialists. Typical classes taken by students in this program include: Communication in the Classroom, Instructional Communication, Communication Strategies for Improving Teaching Effectiveness (graduate), and The Teaching of Speech Communication. The program examines, analyzes and understands instruction through a communicative lens. "Instructional communication is a field of study that certainly is essential to teachers of speech communication, but is one that has a broader attraction to teachers beyond [that] discipline" (Staton, p. 366).

The Center for Instructional Development and Research is also at the University of Washington and serves faculty, teaching assistants, and departments in the continued improvement of learning and teaching in their particular disciplines (Nyquist, Wulff, and Abbott, 1989). The center uses a systems approach and other communication concepts such as co-creating of meaning, uncertainty reduction, and rhetorical sensitivity as a basis for the development of its practice of instructional development.

The center helps instructors to view learning tasks from the students' perspective in order to identify what will assist the students in mastering the instructor's objectives. Two of the strategies suggested by the center to improve student learning are clear communication with the students and student-centered oral learning strategies. Instructors are urged to communicate their expectations clearly (uncertainty reduction), both orally and in the course syllabus. The center also works to sensitize instructors to their language choices, especially for naive learners who do not yet understand subject-related

jargon.

The center suggests to faculty who wish to involve students actively in course content to use oral performances or presentations as an assessment strategy. This form of assessment is especially important in non-speech communication classes, where little or no oral performances are usually included on the syllabus. Another strategy the center suggests is the use of small group discussions. This strategy gives students the opportunity to discuss ideas with little risk, and may help students with communication apprehension to feel more comfortable.

Allen and Shaw's research (1990) supports the importance of communication in teacher evaluation. Teachers were seen as more effective overall when they were competent communicators. Teachers need training in supervising an entire classroom of students, understanding how communication occurs within the school organization, manipulating the bases of power, intercultural mediation, working under different managerial styles, and achieving rapport with parents (Sorenson, 1989).

Recommendations for Future Research in Competence

The effects of communication on instruction has been researched, but the research has been fairly limited in scope. Several areas should be considered for future research.

"A review of Instructional Communication literature displays a bias towards studying communication in college classrooms" (Nussbaum and Prusank, 1989). More research needs to be done in public and private schools both on the elementary and secondary levels, especially in light of the new teacher appraisal systems in Texas (PDAS) and other states. If NEA approves a national standard for teaching which includes a communication component,

this type of research will become invaluable.

Another area to consider is the effect prior knowledge instructors and students have of one another has on the development of immediacy, solidarity, clarity, and other communication patterns. Elementary teachers get much more information about their students from parents than high school teachers do. Some students have the same teacher for several years, like a coach, drama teacher, or band director. This developing relationship would seem to affect the way communication occurs between the teacher and student.

A related subject area would be the communication strategies used by teachers of extracurricular activities. How are the communication practices different from those of traditional classroom teachers? Are immediacy and other signs of competent communication established sooner in an extracurricular setting? Answers to these questions could shed light on the development of communication strategies and social development within the school setting.

Teacher Communication and Student Learning

Research in teacher communication competence is justified when one considers the effect teacher communication skills can have on student learning, both affective and cognitive. Many researchers have studied the effects of competence, either in terms of teacher clarity, the ability for a teacher to teach a lesson clearly (Civikly, 1992; Cruickshank, 1985; Hines, Cruickshank, & Kennedy, 1985; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996), or teacher immediacy, which refers to a teachers approach/avoidance behaviors (Christophel, 1990; Gorham, 1988; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996). Most of these studies deal with student cognitive learning. Wooten's (1996) and Thweatt's (1996) studies investigate the effect teacher communication has on student affective learning.

Many studies of this type offer definitions of teacher communication

competence in the form of specific behaviors which are indicative of competence. For example, Hines, Cruickshank & Kennedy (1985) found that teacher behaviors most strongly related to student achievement were: reviewing the material, using examples, answering student questions appropriately, teaching in a step-by-step manner, asking questions to find out if students understood, and others. Gorham (1988) identified humor as particularly important. Civikly's review of research on teacher clarity (1992) indicates a teacher is perceived as being a more competent communicator when s/he prepares the students for what they will be doing next. Civikly states that students are "actively engaged in constructing their perceptions and interpretations of the teacher's signals about learning" (p.146). Her statement goes to the heart of research in teacher communication competence, where the relationship between affective and cognitive learning is of great importance.

Several studies which have shown the relationship between cognitive learning, affective learning, and teacher communication competence are worth noting.

Hines, Cruickshank, and Kennedy (1985) investigated the relationship of teacher clarity to student achievement and satisfaction. This study revealed a positive correlation between competent communication behavior and student cognitive and affective learning. The research conducted here may be more reliable, in fact, than other studies like it because the measures of clarity were achieved not only by students, but by trained observers and the teachers themselves, and the level of achievement was determined by testing rather than student perception of learning. Hines and her colleagues also identified teacher behaviors which seem to lead to higher achievement, including: using relevant examples, reviewing material, answering student questions, teaching

in a step-by-step manner, providing practice time, and presenting material in a logical manner, and others.

Hecht's analysis of several studies (1978) reported the results of research in communication satisfaction. For example, Redding (1966, in Hecht) found that consistent traits of good and bad communicators could not be isolated; effective communication was situation-bound. Beinvenu (1971, in Hecht) developed the Interpersonal Communication Inventory for measuring communication effectiveness on four dimensions: self-concept, listening, clarity of expression, and ability to cope. Hecht found that very few instruments had strong validity for several reasons. Satisfaction is an internal behavior; therefore, people do not always know why they are satisfied. Items on the instrument are more reliable if they are descriptive of the environment and less reflective of expectations. With these ideas in mind, one can see how difficult it is to develop an instrument which will determine student satisfaction as it relates to teacher communication.

In his article Cruickshank (1985) highlights findings from research on teacher clarity, projects a set of implications for teacher educators, and offers suggestions for future research in clarity. He reiterates the findings of many studies by stating that teacher clarity is related both to student achievement and satisfaction. He also states that students judge a teacher's effectiveness in large part on the basis of clarity. Perhaps the most important suggestion he makes in his article is that evaluation of teachers can be improved by assessing their clarity. He draws a connection between effective teaching and clarity when he says, "If effective teachers are clear, then clarity should be a criterion on which their performance is judged" (p. 46). This finding seems an important discovery in light of the new teacher evaluation tool, which includes a

communication component, being implemented in Texas in 1997-98.

Gorham (1988) studied the relationship between verbal teacher immediacy behaviors and student learning, and she identified a set of teacher behaviors which related to student success. Cognitive learning was assessed by the students' own perceptions of their learning; teacher immediacy was determined by a student assessment as well. Results indicated a correlation between high immediacy scores and both affective and cognitive learning. The teacher's use of humor was of particular importance, as was teacher praise of student work, and willingness to become engaged in conversations with students.

Christophel (1990) studied the relationships among teacher immediacy behaviors, student motivation, and learning. The study assumed teacher immediacy would affect learning, to some degree, but it sought to determine the effect of increased motivation, via teacher immediacy behaviors, on student learning. Data analysis revealed that students who perceived their teachers as more immediate also reported greater levels of motivation. Multiple regressions showed that student motivation was predictive of student learning at a significant level. This study shows the indirect nature of the effect immediacy has on student achievement.

Some research has shown a relationship between teacher communicative behaviors and affective learning. Thweatt and McCroskey (1996) manipulated teacher immediacy and teacher misbehaviors to determine their impacts on perceived immediacy and misbehavior. In this case, misbehavior refers to a teacher behavior which interferes with student learning. The researchers manipulated six nonverbal immediacy behaviors, including facial expression, vocal variety, gesture, promptness, preparedness, and ability

to follow the syllabus. Results of the study show that nonimmediate behaviors, such as tardiness or frowning, are construed by the students to be teacher misbehaviors. In this case, a teacher's failure to use immediacy in the classroom can affect student learning because of the influence the misbehavior has on the students' affective learning.

Wooten and McCroskey (1996) hypothesized that a student's trust of the teacher would affect her/his willingness or openness to be taught by that teacher. These authors sought to determine the effect of teacher responsiveness on student trust, and the results of the study showed a positive correlation between these two conditions. Teachers who were perceived to be more responsive (more immediate) were trusted more by the students.

Teacher communication strategies, clearly, can affect student learning, both cognitively and affectively. Much research has been conducted on the types of communicative behaviors which influence learning, but little has been done to determine if specific teaching strategies can employ these behaviors to a degree which will reap the same results for the students. In her discussion of "why teaching works," Sprague (1993) identifies those aspects of classroom teaching which help the student to learn. She says "teaching works when students are fully engaged in the activities of the class" (p. 352), and when students are engaged in the subject matter, not superficially, but deeply.

Cognitive and metacognitive strategies aid learning (Garner, 1990). When students are unfamiliar with subject matter, the need for cognitive strategies is greater, because the student has a gap which must be filled for learning to take place. A strategy such as the advance organizer can aid in student learning, not only because it will help the students to process new information, but because it allows the teacher to present the information in such

as way that will spotlight good communication skills like presenting material in a step-by-step manner, reviewing new material, and the like.

The Advance Organizer

The advance organizer, originally developed by David Ausubel, assumes that “the learning and retention of unfamiliar but meaningful material can be facilitated by the advance introduction of relevant subsuming concepts (organizers)” (Ausubel, 1960). Simply stated, Ausubel believes that learning takes place when a student can associate new material with information already committed to memory. When a student is learning material which cannot be associated with prior knowledge, an advance organizer becomes necessary. The organizer provides the student with information on the new material in a more abstract form. For instance, one study used an organizer about philosophy as an area of study to introduce a reading passage on Descartes’ *Cogito Argument* (Groller, et al., 1991). The advance organizer gave the students a subsuming concept upon which to base the new material on Descartes. The study showed that students who were presented the advance organizer scored higher on retention and comprehension tests than students who had read the passage alone. The advance organizer establishes the cognitive schema in which to anchor the new material.

One of Ausubel’s original studies tested the retention level of an experimental group using an advance organizer against the retention level of a control group using an historical introduction (1960). Although the results of the study showed that neither the experimental group nor the control group deviated significantly from the norm, Ausubel still contended that the use of an advance organizer at the proper level of inclusiveness (meaning the proper level of abstractness) would facilitate learning.

Joyce and Weil (1986) have noted that advance organizers are “especially useful to structure extended curriculum sequences or courses” (p. 83). Ausubel’s model, as described by Joyce and Weil, consists of three main phases. First, the teacher should present the advance organizer, prompting the student to recall any prior knowledge or experience which would be relevant. Second, the teacher should present the learning task or new material. Last, the teacher should strengthen the students’ cognitive organization. The purpose of the third step is to aid the student in filing away the new material into an existing “folder.” The step is probably a result of research which has shown organizers to be effective when they are coupled with critical thinking strategies.

Advance organizers have been shown to be effective for several reasons. Groller, Kender, and Honeyman (1991) showed that organizers were effective in increasing retention of new material. In addition, their study supported the contention “that students need to use metacognitive strategies in order to use advance organizers effectively” (p. 473). Ausubel assumed that using an advance organizer would result in better retention without further instruction. Groller and his associates clearly showed that advance organizers were more effective when students were taught how to use, monitor and evaluate their use of the organizer.

A similar study was conducted by Lawton and Wanska (1979) to determine which of three types of organizers would be most effective in facilitating children’s learning. A sample of 257 rural children in kindergarten, third and fifth grades were evaluated using either an advance organizer, a presentation on high-order classification skills (metacognition), or a combination of both. Results showed that combining high-order skills with the advance organizer was more effective than presenting either concept alone.

Lawton conducted an earlier study (1977) on the use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of logical operations and social studies concepts. Lawton sought to determine at what level (Piaget) students would best be able to use organizers, and hypothesized that students above the concrete-operational level would benefit most. Like other studies, results supported the hypothesis that advance organizers can facilitate and accelerate learning of meaningful subject-matter concepts and logical operations. Lawton offers two caveats to these results, however. He notes that “few studies have investigated the use of advance organizers in teaching young children,” (p. 41) and admits that the results of his study should not suggest that organizers should be implemented for general classroom use.

Glover, Bullock and Dietzer (1990) hypothesized that rehearsing the organizer after reading it, but before reading the associated text would increase the effectiveness of the organizer. A second, related hypothesis of the same study dealt with the effect of a delay between the organizer and the associated text. Results of the study showed that inserting a delay between the organizer and the text had a facilitative effect on the retention of the students, but the rehearsal of the organizer did not seem to have any significant effect on the students' retention levels (p. 294). In fact, when students were given demanding tasks that precluded the continued rehearsal of the organizer, their memory for the associated text improved. It should be noted here that even studies which show significant effectiveness of advance organizers are limited in some aspects. For instance, the Glover study (1990) admittedly reported overall low recall scores, and students reading times were not considered in the gathering of the data. Reviewers of the study pointed out “that the relative level of abstraction of the organizers that were used ... may have brought about

unique effects (p. 296). If these circumstances did indeed affect the outcome of the study, they should be considered in future research efforts.

Corkhill, Bruning, Glover, and Krug (1988) conducted a study which examined the effect of different retrieval contexts on the recall of text prefaced by advance organizers. Students in experimental groups used one of the following methods for reading new material: no organizer, an organizer that students paraphrased, an organizer from which students chose key words. At the time of retrieval, students were asked to either recall the material with no prompting or to recall the material after rereading the organizer. Results showed that paraphrasing an organizer before reading led to significantly greater results on free recall. Students who reread the organizer after a 24 hour delay scored higher on posttests, but students who reread with no delay did not. Although several experiments were conducted within the context of this study, the basic findings indicate that "students who carefully read an organizer before an assignment will demonstrate improved memory performance on delayed tests if they are given the opportunity to reread the organizer before the time of the test" (p. 310). Ausubel himself has stated that tests administered six weeks or more after instruction are "much more likely to show the positive facilitation of meaningful learning that should result from appropriately designed advance organizers" (1978, p.255).

One study has questioned the students' perception of advance organizers (Schumm, 1992). Students were asked to respond to an open-ended question on textbook adaptations that teachers make. Many students said they appreciate when teachers discuss a topic with the class before a reading assignment. Rinehart and Barksdale-Ladd examined the use of four different types of organizers: students read the organizer silently with and without

discussion, and students read the organizer aloud with and without discussion. "Results indicated that students' comprehension on both immediate and delayed tests was greater when teachers read the advance organizers and included class discussion of the topic" (Rinehart and Barksdale-Ladd as reported in Schumm, 1992). Students also indicated that they would prefer it if teachers used organizers more often.

Some research has been conducted to investigate the use of advance organizers in specific subject areas. Sandra LeSourd (1988) notes that, in the teaching of multiculturalism, "comprehension of an unfamiliar culture's way of thinking and valuing is severely inhibited and distorted by lack of relevant experience" (p. 13). She recommends the use of an advance organizer to establish the schemata for multicultural text. "An advance organizer can reflect beliefs, values, or perceptions which characterize a culture or explain the behavior of its people" (p. 15). LeSourd offers a step-by-step process for using the advance organizer to teach material on a different culture, including questioning at the end of the process. She makes note of the benefits of abstract thinking and reasoning for the student. Ausubel clearly states that the organizer is intended to "bridge the gap between what the learner already knows and what he needs to know so that he can learn the task at hand" (1978 as quoted in Ausubel, 1980). For this reason, organizers must be constructed to utilize the students prior knowledge and experience, in other words, an existing schema.

Several studies deal with the advance organizer in a specific setting, namely, the language arts classroom (Derry, 1984; Kloster & Winne, 1989; Siu, 1986; Tyler, Kinnucan, & Delaney, 1983). Derry's study (1984) sought to determine whether or not the organizer retarded obliteration of scheme-relevant

factual detail. Her study was based on two views of the organizer, Ausubel's and Mayer's. Mayer felt the organizer would speed subsumption of text information, thereby aiding the learning in connecting new information to prior knowledge; Ausubel disagreed. Derry's study showed that students subsumptive processes were slowed by the organizer unless the students had good reasoning skills. The fusion of new information into existing scheme occurred independently of remembering processes. This study is important because it shows the different effects the organizer has on rote memorization versus learning.

The other studies mentioned produced findings dealing with student ability level. Kloster and Winne's study (1989) showed that although organizers have no effect on overall learning, they do affect qualitative features of learning such as remembering conceptual details over factual details. This finding was true for students of all ability levels. Ping Kee Siu (1986) studies the effect of organizers on student understanding of Chinese prose. She found that students performed better when fewer ideas were presented, but in general, the organizer was distracting for both good and poor readers. Siu also reiterated Derry's findings that only students with good reasoning skills can benefit from the organizer. Overall, she found that the organizer must be more abstract than the learning material, but not too abstract for the reader's ability level.

Tyler, Kinnucan and Delaney (1983) found that "good readers usually showed greater recall of detail..., whereas poorer readers displayed enhanced recall of detail only with certain types of organizers" (p. 359). These poorer readers were more successful with organizers which gave them a plan for organizing the information and for assessing its relative importance.

A number of studies have shown that advance organizers seem to

compensate for readers who have a cognitive structure poorly suited for assimilation of new material . Poor readers and students with low-ability seem to benefit more from the use of organizers, and students in non-verbal domains, such as math, also seem to benefit. High-ability students benefit from organizers if the learning task is complex (Williams & Butterfield, 1992). Luiten, Ames, and Ackerson found that “high-ability [students] ... benefited from advance organizers almost twice as much as did their low-ability counterparts” (as quoted in Williams et al., 1992 p. 267). Other research has shown that organizers are more effective than skimming, and that organizers help students comprehend poorly organized material.

Although much of the research reports positive results when using the organizer, some studies report the opposite. Barnes and Clawson (1975) found that studies showing nonsignificant results outnumber studies showing significant results, and concluded that advance organizers do not facilitate learning; however, a later study by Mayer (1979) discredited the Barnes & Clawson research because of three limitations in the study. Mayer states that the Barnes & Clawson review is erroneous because of an inadequate statement of the to-be-tested theory, an inadequate analysis of the learning outcomes, and inadequate experimental control (p. 372). Mayer's research then reviews nine separate tests of the advance organizer and concludes that “advance organizers can influence the outcome of learning if used in appropriate situations and measured properly” (p. 371). The study also notes that organizers are relative to the student and the subject matter.

Luiten, Ames, and Ackerman reviewed 135 published and unpublished studies and.... concluded that advance organizers facilitate both learning and retention” (as quoted in Stone, 1983, p. 194). Many researchers, educators,

and psychologists have been highly critical of Ausubel's theory (Anderson, 1967; Anderson, 1977; Anderson, Spiro & Anderson, 1978; Barnes & Clawson, 1975; Mayer, 1979). In reply to some of these criticisms, Ausubel has written scathing replies (1978, 1980). One of the main criticisms of the model is that Ausubel has not clearly defined what an advance organizer is (Barnes & Clawson). Ausubel points out (1978) that he has clearly defined advance organizers, not only in his research, but in numerous editorial articles and in his textbook. In addition, he differentiates between an advance organizer and an overview, and describes the difference between an expository organizer and a comparative one. Barnes and Clawson (1975) have suggested that Ausubel has only "rehashed" an old idea, that his model is not original. To this Ausubel has replied, "The suggestion that ... organizers are nothing new is a perversion of the historical record and a crude, ignoble attempt to deprive me of credit for my original discovery of a pedagogic device" (1978, p. 253).

Additional criticism has asserted that since Ausubel's cognitive theory of assimilation is so intertwined with advance organizers, and since much of the research on organizers has shown no significant results, then the entire theory is in question (Anderson, et al., 1978). Ausubel replied (1980), "even if advance organizers were demonstrated to be thoroughly ineffective as a pedagogic device, this would not invalidate the principles of progressive differentiation" (p. 403). One can assume then that the underlying theory of using advance organizers is reasonable.

Carol Stone's meta-analysis of advance organizer studies (1983) showed that "overall, advance organizers [were] associated with increased learning and retention of the material to be learned" (p. 194). The fact that organizers have been the subject of educational and psychological research for

more than thirty years should lend some credence to the model. Some question still remains regarding the appropriateness of organizers for students who have not reached upper-level operational development. The organizer is intended to be abstract, although Ausubel does not rule out some concrete material, and would therefore require a higher level of development than concrete-operational. Students may need problem-solving skills in order for abstract organizers to be fully effective.

Some researchers feel the problem with organizers is not in the theory of their effectiveness, but in the writing of the instrument itself (Mayer, 1979; Hartley, 1976). Hartley suggests several guidelines for using organizers. He states that advance organizers are process-oriented; they emphasize context rather than content, as most pretests and overviews do. Hartley suggests that organizers are best suited for those tasks which are short in duration, whose material is easily integrated into prior knowledge, and for students who are above average in ability, maturity, and sophistication (p. 259-260).

Until the research findings reach more of a consensus, it is difficult to endorse advance organizers as an instructional methodology for all students. More research should be done in the areas of younger children, adult learners, and high-ability students. Like all instructional models, the advance organizer can only be effective if it is implemented correctly. Teacher training in abstract presentation and Socratic questioning (in my opinion) are necessary for the success of the organizer strategy. Since much of the research points toward the development of critical thinking skills to make organizers more effective for the student, teachers would need training in this area as well.

Conclusion

Effective communication can affect student learning in the classroom.

This notion is probably one which has been accepted for a number of years, but which relatively few university programs and staff development personnel have been able to improve, either for lack of funding or lack of motivation. Many universities, especially those with strong humanities programs, have successful teacher preparation programs which include instructional communication courses. These programs should be viewed as a pattern to follow by those universities and school districts which offer little or no training in instructional communication skills. If states are going to include a communication component as part of teacher appraisal, especially where results of the appraisal determine whether a teacher's contract is renewed, then state universities and independent school districts have an obligation to train teachers in competent communication skills.

This study will show whether a specific strategy, the advance organizer, can increase student learning by enhancing the student's perception of teacher communication competence and therefore, theoretically, making the student more open to learn.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

This research utilized a quasi-experimental study in order to determine the effect of one variable, the advance organizer, on a second variable, perceived teacher communication competence and on student achievement. The discussion which follows will describe the sampling procedures used to select participants, the instrument and procedures used for collecting data, data analysis, and the limitations of the study.

Sample

The sample for this study was selected from a group of high school juniors at a large suburban high school. All of the students who participated in the study were enrolled in English III (American Literature). Three teachers were involved in the study, all of whom are experienced instructors. Each teacher was assigned a control, an experimental A, and an experimental B class. Class sizes ranged from 25 to 30 students. Each experimental group was intended to range in size from 75 to 90 students, for a total number of 260 participants; however, numbers were limited due to an unforeseen number of parents and students who refused to sign waivers. Sample size was limited by the need to maintain control over the teaching strategies used for each group; all three teachers were in the same facility, allowing the investigator to supervise the treatment of each group more effectively. The only students in these classes who were not included in the study were those whose parents

would not give permission or those who chose not to be a part of the study; no others were intentionally left out of the study group.

Instrument

Research in communication competence utilizes a number of instruments, including attitudinal surveys. Jones' (1991) study of validity of questionnaires found that it is necessary to provide evidence of validity whenever questionnaires are used to study aspects of nonverbal behavior. Several validity studies show that attitudinal surveys are legitimate sources of information on instructional clarity, immediacy, and other skills which exemplify communication competence. For instance, Waltman (1994) studies the validity of the Behavioral Alteration Technique, which consisted of a checklist to determine how often the techniques were used in the classroom. The researcher hypothesized that the correlation between student and teacher ratings of frequency of use would be higher than either correlation with teacher' likelihood of use. The hypothesis was not supported, and while the researcher grants the BAT checklist did not fail this test of validity, he advised using the BAT checklist in conjunction with other forms of assessment. Ayres and Miura (1981) tested six instruments, used to code relational control, on the same set of data to determine validity. They found that construct validity (whether instruments code the same data in similar ways) and predictive validity (whether an instrument identifies known conditions) were good.

Rubin (1985) found that, in determining validity of the Communication Competency Assessment Instrument, self-reported measures correlated only slightly with observations of students' actual behaviors. These findings are important for this study because they justify the use of an "other's" report of competent behaviors, like the one used here.

The instrument used for this study was a further adaptation (Civikly) of Wlodowski's (1985) Teacher Clarity Checklist. Wlodkowski identified four cornerstones of a motivating instructor: expertise, empathy, enthusiasm, and clarity. In this regard, "the Instructional Clarity Checklist can be completed by students or used as a teacher self-diagnostic instrument" (Civikly, p.143).

The instrument consists of 24 statements which reflect competent communication behaviors, such as, "As our instructor, my teacher explains something and then uses an example to illustrate it." The statements addressed one of several clarity issues: feedback, questioning, pacing, logical progression, modeling, and repetition. The statement above is an example of a modeling behavior. Feedback statements included statements such as, "As our instructor, my teacher answers our questions." Teachers [asking] questions to find out if we understand" is an example of a questioning statement. An example of a logical progression statement is "My teacher teaches things step-by-step." Pacing statements reflect teaching which is "not too slow and not too fast," while repetition statements illustrate teaching that "repeats things that are hard to understand" and "goes over difficult assignments until we understand how to do them."

The students responded on a four-point attitudinal scale, ranging from "All of the time" to "Never." Statements reflect skills such as clarity, feedback, pacing, and adaptation to an audience. Because the advance organizer is a cognitively based teaching strategy, the survey is directed toward those skills which would affect a student's cognitive learning the most. For instance, the survey does not ask the students to think about how often their teacher smiles at them or moves close to them in the classroom; these teacher behaviors would probably have more effect on affective learning. The survey does ask students

to think about what kinds of examples the teacher gives, what kinds of questions she asks and is willing to answer, and how well she presents the learning material. The checklist does not ask students to respond to questions about their teachers' non-verbal skills, although non-verbals skills are considered to be an aspect of instructional competence. The checklist was given to the students in the same form during both the pre- and post-treatment.

The achievement scale used in the study is a seven question, multiple choice quiz over the reading, "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God" (See Appendix B). Questions are followed by four choices of answers, and are primarily on the lower end of Bloom's Taxonomy in complexity. This series of English textbooks and ancillary materials is adopted by the state of Texas for use in public school classrooms.

Both instruments were hand-scored by the investigator, and scores were entered into an ASCII file for computer analysis by a data entry specialist.

Procedures

The school was on AB Block scheduling; therefore, the procedure for this study took a total of six class days. AB block scheduling allows students to take eight courses per semester; each meets for ninety minutes every other day. Before procedures began, each student signed a personal waiver and had a second waiver signed by his or her parent or guardian. Students were told only that they were involved in a study which would be taking place on another class day. Prior permission from cooperating teachers and the building principal had been obtained in the summer or when school started in August. Teachers for the study were chosen in May, but two had to be replaced in August because of changes in personnel. Cooperating teachers met with the investigator twice before the experiment to go over format of the lessons and procedures for using

the research instruments. All three teachers who took part in the experiment were Texas certified in secondary English. All were experienced teachers; one teacher had taught four years, one had taught two years, and one had taught eight years. One teacher held a masters degree. Two teachers were female, the other male. All three teachers were under thirty.

On day one, the teachers administered the pre-treatment (attitudinal survey) to each of the three experimental groups at the end of the class period. Students were not identified by name. Each document (pre-, post-, and quizzes) were coded by teacher name, group type, and number (ex: MA, A4 This document would have come from teacher MA's experimental A group, pre-treatment #4).

On the second class day, teachers taught each group according to its treatment. The control received a brief introduction only to the lesson, "Sinners in the Hands of An Angry God." Experimental A group received an historical background on Jonathan Edwards, the author, and the Great Awakening, a revival which was in progress at the time the sermon was written. Experimental B group received the advance organizer which consisted of a mini-lesson on Aristotle's Classical Rhetorical Analysis. Each of the treatments was followed by reading and discussion of the text, "Sinners in the Hands of An Angry God." (All forms of the lesson are in Appendix C.) This particular text was chosen because it is a regular part of the English III curriculum, and it is one which the students usually enjoy because of its dramatic nature.

The text used for this particular lesson is a sermon written in the early 1800's during a period of history known as the Great Awakening. Although the unit the students study at the beginning of the year is Colonial and Puritan literature, "Sinners" is included in the unit because of its reference to the Puritan

lifestyle, and because of its purpose in trying to resurrect that religion. The passage is used to meet TEKS requirements 7A-7G, 8A-8D, 9B, 10A-B, 11A-B,D-F, and 12A-C (see Appendix for full list of TEKS for English III). The language of the text is filled with pathos, advanced vocabulary, and Biblical allusion. Teachers pointed out all of these devices and the use of rhetorical devices (pathos, ethos, logos) for each group whether or not they had been given prior knowledge by the advance organizer.

On the third class day, each participant completed the post-treatment attitudinal survey followed by the achievement quiz. Students took the attitudinal survey first so their achievement quiz scores would not affect their opinions as represented on the posttest. All three teachers held students accountable for the quiz by taking a grade on it. It was anticipated that by quizzing on the next class day after the lesson, the content of the lesson would be fairly fresh. Because of block scheduling, the students had two days between reading the sermon and taking the quiz, which still allowed for some natural memory loss.

Pre-, post-treatment surveys, and quizzes were turned into the investigator for scoring.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed with SPSS for Windows. Group equivalency was shown by Analysis of Variance. Posttest differences were determined by ANCOVA, and quiz score differences were determined by ANOVA. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to correlate individual group posttest scores and quiz scores, and a regression determined correlation coefficients for the collapsed group. All of these findings are discussed in Chapter four.

Limitations/Delimitations

The primary limitation to the study stems from the population tested. Only one school district was utilized, limiting the results to only one demographic group.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

Because of the data analysis outcomes, the researcher was unable to reject the null hypotheses. Results in general were insignificant, although some assumptions can be made about the research design and the advance organizer from the products of the statistical analysis. These findings will be discussed along with each data chart.

The researcher used SPSS for Windows for data analysis which required coding of each pre- and post-treatment attitudinal survey, and hand scoring of each achievement quiz. Once these numerical assignments were made, data entry personnel entered the information on an ASCII file which in turn was used to run the SPSS analysis.

Most of the analyses done for this study required Bartlett's Analysis of Variance. The final correlations between post-treatment scores and quiz scores were determined by Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, for both individual groups and the collapsed group. The correlation analysis required a conversion of the posttest scores and quiz scores to Z-scores to insure the correlation score was not skewed by the unique dimensions of each value.

The findings of for group equivalence across the three groups are presented below in Table 1.

**Table 1 Group Equivalence Across the Three Groups
on the Pre-Treatment Attitudinal Survey
ANOVA**

Control and Experimental Groups			
Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Experimental A	71	1.5757	.3372
Experimental B	66	1.7299	.4475
Control C	59	1.6984	.4303

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square
Between	.910	2	.455
Within	31.714	193	.164
	F = 2.769	Probability = .065	

Table 1 shows there was little variance across the three groups after the students had taken the pre-treatment attitudinal scale. The differences among the numbers of cases in each experimental group are due to student absences and parent refusal to sign permission slips. The results from the pre-treatment survey convey the notion that the students had similar opinions of their teachers' communication skills before the treatments, and that any change could be attributed to the treatment. The probability score of .065 exceeds the significance level which was set at .05.

Table 2 Differences in Post-Treatment Perceptions of Teacher Communication Competence Scores Across the Groups ANCOVA

Control and Experimental Groups

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Experimental A	52	1.5083	.3177
Experimental B	46	1.6463	.5312
Control C	38	1.5397	.3402

Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square
.351	2	.175
F = 1.126	Probability = .327	

Table 2 shows no significant difference between group results; therefore, the independent variables had little or no effect on the students' perceptions of their teachers' communication competence. Any difference in the pre-treatment scores was controlled by using them as a covariate in data analysis. Like the pre-treatment surveys, number of cases vary from group to group because of absences and failure to sign release forms.

One possible explanation for the results is that the students scored their teacher highly to begin with. The teaching strategies used in each group possibly only emphasized to the students their teachers' good communication skills.

**Table 3 Differences in Achievement Scores Across the Groups
Oneway ANOVA**

Control and Experimental Groups

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Experimental A	67	58.76	17.86
Experimental B	55	58.36	19.18
Control C	62	57.07	18.14

** Possible Score = 100

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square
Between	831.756	2	415.878
Within	60986.33	181	336.941
	F = 1.234		Probability = .293

Results of the ANOVA on the achievement scores showed that there as no significant differences between the scores across the groups. This finding indicates that the advance organizer, in this case, had little effect on the student's ability to learn new information. Mean scores between experimental groups varied less than five points from mean scores of the control group, indicating the students gained little or nothing from exposure to the advance organizer in terms of achievement. The large deviation scores show evidence of vastly different scores within each group.

Table 4 Correlation of Post-Treatment Perception Scales and Achievement Scores Across the Groups
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

Control and Experimental Groups

Variable	N	Pearson Score
Experimental A	55	.072
Experimental B	47	-.203
Control C	42	-.067

The Pearson test showed little correlation between the achievement scores and the post-treatment survey scores. Evidently, student learning and student perception of teacher communication competence are unrelated in this case. These scores are related of course to the insignificance of the differences of both the post-treatment scores across the groups and the achievement scores across the groups.

Another interpretation of the correlation analysis is that the lack of change in student perception of teacher communication competence is responsible for the generally low achievement scores.

Table 5 Correlation of Post-Treatment Perception Scores and Achievement Scores: Collapsed Groups
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

Raw score correlation	-.042
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Pearson Correlation of Z-scores -.042

Table 5 shows a negative correlation score of .042 when group means for post-treatment scores and achievement scores are collapsed. Scores were converted to Z-scores because the achievement quiz rendered a numeric score, and the posttest showed a rank score. The raw score and Z-scores are identical, showing no difference in the calculation because of this difference.

One must consider the critical nature of the organizer used, the length of the organizer, and the difficulty of the lesson itself. Some research mandates short organizers (Hartley, 1976), and still others (Derry, 1984; Kloster & Winne, 1989; Siu, 1986; Tyler et al., 1983) showed the most positive effects for students who had well-developed higher order thinking skills. The students who took part in this study were average students, the organizer and lesson were difficult, and the organizer was almost as long to cover as the lesson itself. These components of the study may have had an effect on the students ability to learn the lesson.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study sought to determine the effects of the advance organizer on student perception of teacher communication competency. Furthermore, the study questioned the effect of using the advance organizer on student achievement. Data analysis of pre-, post-treatment attitudinal surveys, and achievement quizzes showed no significant effect of the advance organizer on either variable, but the study provides impetus for further research on the subject and related subjects.

The study's subjects were regular junior English students at a large, suburban high school. Three teachers were involved in the study, each with three groups, an Experimental group A, an Experimental group B, and a control group. Students filled out a pretest attitudinal survey to determine their opinions of their teacher's communication competency. On the next class day, each teacher then taught the same lesson for the study, "Sinners In the hands of An Angry God," by Jonathan Edwards, a regular part of the junior English curriculum.

Teachers gave no special introduction to the lesson to the control group. Experimental group A was given an historical introduction of biographic nature. Experimental group B was given the advance organizer, a mini-lesson on

classical rhetorical analysis. Students read Edwards' speech in class, and teachers pointed out the use of rhetorical devices whether or not students had heard the organizer.

On the third class day, students filled out the posttest attitudinal survey and took an achievement over the material they had read the class day before. The quizzes and surveys were collected and hand scored by the researcher for data entry; scores were transferred to an ASCII file and analyzed using SPSS.

Findings

There are several noteworthy findings in the data analysis despite the insignificance of the effect of the organizer. In particular, the advance organizer did not have an effect on the students' ability to understand or even remember prose. The mean scores of achievement quizzes between the control group and the advance organizer group differed by less than two points. Additionally, the pre-treatment surveys show that students rated teachers' communication competence highly even before teachers used the varying strategies to teach the sample lesson. The mean scores for all three groups were between 1.0 and 2.0, or "all the time" and "most of the time," meaning students felt teachers exhibited competent behaviors fairly often. These findings will be discussed in light of present theory and research in both the areas of communication competence and advance organizers.

A meta-analysis of research on the advance organizer's effectiveness provides inconclusive information on the success of the strategy to improve student learning. While many researchers found that the organizer was effective in increasing achievement scores (Corkhill et al., 1988; Groller et al., 1991; Joyce & Weil, 1986; Lawton & Wanska, 1979), others have found no effect using the organizer (Barnes & Clawson, 1975).

Stone's meta-analysis (1983) of advance organizer studies determined that organizers were more appropriate for students who had developed higher-order thinking skills. The subjects for this study were regular English students, some of whom were inclusion (special education) students and, because of the large honors program in this particular school district, many of whom were lower-level regular students. This may account for the overall low achievement scores across the groups. Mean scores were 58.76, 58.36 and 57.07 for Experimental group A, Experimental group B, and the control group respectively.

The lesson prepared for this study, Jonathan Edwards' "Sinners in the Hands of An Angry God," is a comparatively difficult lesson. It necessitated a type of organizer which was process-oriented (rhetorical analysis), but which emphasized content rather than context. Hartley's (1976) suggestions for writing advance organizers include making them context-driven and short. The organizer used in this study was almost half as long as the lesson and content-oriented. It is worth noting that students in Experimental group A, who had the historical overview as an introduction to the lesson, performed almost identically on the achievement quiz to the group who had the organizer.

Table 1 shows group equivalence across the three groups, and sheds light on another important point. Students scored teachers very well on the pre-treatment survey; one could assume students perceived their teachers to be competent communicators before the study. These initial high scores may be the reason there was no significant difference in the posttest scores. The organizer may have only emphasized to students what they already believed about their instructors: their instructors were competent communicators. By the same token, one cannot dismiss the fact that the organizer did create a

perception of competence, but the perception also existed before the study and therefore did not represent a measurable change. These findings could show a necessity for a baseline, or pretest, in future studies which would determine the students' perceptions prior to the experiment. In many cases, competency is only shown by the existence of what are accepted to be competent behaviors on the part of the instructor (Christophel, 1990; Cruickshank, 1985; Gorham, 1988; Hines et al., 1985; Wooten & McCrosky, 1990), and these behaviors may or may not be part of a specific teaching strategy.

Implications

There are several implications of the findings of this study which merit discussion. The advance organizer will, no doubt, continue to be a topic of research simply because the existing studies provide no conclusions as to its validity as a tool for improving student learning. Perhaps recent research in multiple intelligences and brain compatible learning will yield variations on the organizer research which would provide more conclusive findings. If the organizers can be written to effect a specific intelligence, for instance, then the findings might tell educators what learning tasks and subjects areas are most improved by use of the organizer. The organizer has been effective in teaching prose (Derry, 1984; Kloster & Winne, 1989; Siu, 1986; Tyler et al., 1983), but often only for high level, linguistic or logical thinkers. There may be ways of creating organizers which would help kinesthetic thinkers, for example, to process prose more efficiently.

In the area of instructional communication competence, educational researchers should take into consideration a student's perception of school as it relates to perception of the teacher. Much of the competence research is based on college classrooms, where students have chosen to be a part of the class.

The difference between those students and high school students who must attend classes, and who may or may not be college-bound, surely has an effect on the way the students feel about their teacher's ability to communicate well.

This study's results failed to reject the null hypotheses, but the findings are just as important in terms of educational research practice as they would have been had the findings been more significant. Failure to reject the null hypotheses is due in part to the structure of the study, in part to circumstances which arose during the experiment itself, and in part to subjects of the study. The population for this study was intentionally small; the reasoning behind the small number was that it would allow for greater control of the teacher variable. This was a good intention that did not come to fruition; the teacher variable may have had an effect despite small numbers, and the small numbers disallow for any generalizability. Final numbers were much smaller than anticipated. High school students are not motivated to take part in a study like this one, especially when they are required to fill out paperwork and the task is optional. According to the teachers whose classes were involved, many students who filled out pre-treatment surveys either refused to fill out the post-treatment surveys or filled it out checking the same number all the way down the page. Many students did not try to answer quiz items correctly, simply guessing on most of them. Surprisingly, some parents refused to allow their students to take part in the study, even though they knew their children would still be sitting in class when the organizer was taught.

The instructors for the study had been chosen in May because the lesson used in the study came fairly early in the school year. A lesson from the first six weeks curriculum was chosen so that students would have no preconceived notions about their teachers communication abilities. When the

school year started in August, two of the three teachers had been replaced and had to be briefed and trained on the advance organizer fairly quickly. Although the lessons were scripted for all three groups, there was little that could be done to control for impromptu teacher talk unless the lesson had been read to the students, and it is doubtful this kind of teaching would have created a perception of competence of any kind.

Recommendations

This study points to several considerations for future research. First, it seems obvious that a controlled classroom, such as a university lab classroom, is more beneficial for studies of this kind which depend on cooperation of students and parents. It will be difficult to determine the effect of any teaching strategy on perception of communication competence if students believe their teachers to be competent communicators to begin with. One would hope this is the case in most classrooms, though; hence, the best method of determining the effect of strategy on perception of competence may be in comparing two strategies. Comparison of strategies from different families of teaching methods, the information-processing family and the personal family for instance, may lead to a better understanding of what is most effective for students with differing learning styles and/or intelligences. Studies of the effects of the advance organizer might be better suited to students in honors classes, who generally have more well developed critical thinking skills.

Further research is needed to determine which strategies are best suited for specific subject areas. With this information, teacher preparation programs will be able to more adequately prepare new teachers for the subject areas they will be teaching. If competent communication among educators is the goal, then any research which would shed light on how to make instructors more

competent would be desirable. Perhaps a study should be conducted to determine which strategies evoke the most competent behavior in teachers. One only considers this because some strategies, such as the classroom meeting, do not offer much on the way of feedback or questioning from the teacher, two important behaviors of competent instruction; yet, teachers can be considered competent using this strategy. In this case, perhaps the standards for competent performance should be changed.

Additionally, researchers might consider the implications measurement of teacher communication competence has on the validity of instruments like the PDAS. Competence is objectively assessed in most cases, and in many cases is situation-specific. If these elements of competency evaluation are not addressed, the validity of the PDAS instrument could be called into question. Communication competence is linked directly to student achievement on the PDAS instrument; therefore, supervisors should have more information on how to subjectively and quantifiably assess teacher communication competence.

Whatever the future research determines, a cooperative effort between educators and communication specialists would be beneficial for all concerned. Since education is becoming the primary item in many political agendas, the spotlight will be on those who prepare teachers for the classroom. Efforts to improve instruction, and therefore student learning, should not be overlooked.

APPENDIX A
INSTRUCTIONAL CLARITY CHECKLIST

INSTRUCTIONAL CLARITY CHECKLIST

After each statement, place a check mark next to the category that most accurately applies to it.

As our instructor, my teacher:

1. **Explains things simply.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

2. **Gives explanations we understand.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

3. **Teaches at a pace that is not too fast and not too slow.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

4. **Stays with a topic until we understand.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

5. **Tries to find out when we don't understand things and then repeats things.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

6. **Teaches things step-by-step.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

7. **Describes the work to be done and how to do it.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

8. **Asks if we know what to do and how to do it.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

9. **Repeats things when we don't understand.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

10. **Explains something and then uses an example to illustrate it.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

11. **Explains something and then stops so we can ask questions.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

12. **Prepares us for what we will be doing next.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

13. **Gives specific details when teaching or training.**

Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

14. **Repeats things that are hard to understand.**

- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
15. **Uses examples and explains them until we understand.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
16. **Explains something and then stops so we can think about it.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
17. **Shows us how to do the work.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
18. **Explains the assignment and the materials we need to do it.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
19. **Stresses difficult points.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
20. **Shows examples of how to do course work and assignments.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
21. **Gives us enough time for practice.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
22. **Answers our questions.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
23. **Asks questions to find out if we understand.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never
24. **Goes over difficult assignments until we understand how to do them.**
- Always Most of the time Some of the time Never

Source: Adapted in: Civikly, J. (1992). Clarity: teachers and students making sense of instruction. Communication Education, 41, 138 -152.

Originally in: Wlodkowski, R.J. (1985). Enhancing adult motivation to learn. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

APPENDIX B
ACHIEVEMENT QUIZ

Sinners in the hands of an Angry God
by Jonathan Edwards

QUIZ

1. In "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God," Edwards intends to make his hearers feel everything except
 - a. fear
 - b. remorse
 - c. guilt
 - d. hopelessness

2. Edwards' sermon is vivid in large part because he
 - a. uses striking figures of speech
 - b. repeats the threat of damnation
 - c. contrasts the wrath and kindness of God
 - d. uses lively descriptions of hell and of God

3. Edwards uses all of the literary devices and rhetorical devices except
 - a. suspense
 - b. simile
 - c. irony
 - d. repetition

4. In his sermon Edwards describes human beings as
 - a. stubborn
 - b. loathsome
 - c. stupid
 - d. all of the above

5. The people who would have understood the sermon were
 - a. educated Puritans only
 - b. Bible-reading adults only
 - c. sinners only
 - d. all of Edwards congregation

6. When Edwards begs his congregation to "fly out of Sodom," he is suggesting that they are all
 - a. sinners
 - b. children of God
 - c. residents of the city of Sodom
 - d. members of a secret society of Christians

7. In the sermon, Edwards chiefly has in mind which of the following?
 - a. frightening listeners away from sin
 - b. effecting a great change of heart in his listeners
 - c. preparing them for the punishment of a just God
 - d. indicating how to recognize grace when it comes

APPENDIX C

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION, ADVANCE ORGANIZER, AND LESSON

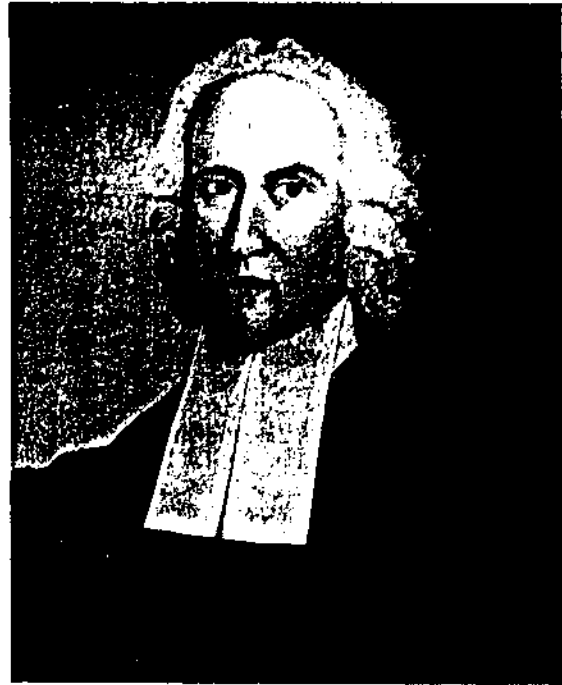
ANTICIPATORY SET

JONATHAN EDWARDS
1703–1758

The Puritan minister Jonathan Edwards once wrote a short treatise entitled "Of Insects." In it he recorded his observations of spiders as they sailed from tree to tree, and from their behavior he drew the conclusion that everything in God's universe exists for some purpose. The surprising fact about "Of Insects" is neither that its descriptions of insects are exact nor that its arguments are ingenious, but that Edwards wrote it when he was eleven years old.

Born in East Windsor, Connecticut, in 1703, Edwards entered Yale College at the age of thirteen. Soon he began writing philosophical works on the nature of existence and of the mind. At the age of seventeen he discovered that thunder and lightning no longer terrified him. Indeed, he now found them beautiful—one of the several signs that made him certain he had experienced grace. In his early twenties he married Sarah Pierrepont of New Haven, a woman as otherworldly and absorbed in God as he, and began preaching at one of the leading American churches, in Northampton, Massachusetts.

Edwards' power as a preacher became evident during the Great Awakening, the revival of religious fervor that swept the American colonies from about 1735 to 1742. Suddenly, people all over America began denouncing their sins and dedicating themselves anew to God. During this time Edwards wrote and preached such sermons as "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God," which aroused his listeners to frenzy. As he depicted the furnace of eternal torturous fire awaiting sinners, members of the congregation began calling out, "What shall I do to be saved? Oh, I am going to Hell—Oh what shall I do for Christ?" One listener wrote that the "shrieks and cries were piercing and amazing"; the "great moaning and crying" forced Edwards to stop before he had finished preaching the sermon. Edwards approved of such outbursts but feared that they might sometimes arise not from sincere religious feeling but from delusion or hysteria. In fact, the Great Awakening did not last long.



Rev. Jonathan Edwards. Oil on canvas
by Joseph Badger (1708–1765).

Edwards' passionate conviction brought him fame but also antagonism. As happened to Edward Taylor, his insistence on grace as the essence of religious life displeased many members of his Northampton church. In 1750 the church dismissed him as minister. He moved to the raw town of Stockbridge, Massachusetts, where he preached to Indians and wrote several of his longest works, works of rigorous logic such as *Freedom of the Will* (1754) and *The Nature of True Virtue* (published in 1765). In 1757 he was elected president of Princeton University, but he died just after taking office, from the effects of a smallpox inoculation.

Edwards' writings remained popular, helping to keep Puritan ideas alive even after Puritanism had vanished. His method of reading nature as a representation of spiritual truth, for instance, survives in the attempts of Henry David Thoreau to read moral meanings in the beans and pickerel at Walden Pond. Edwards' works endured because he was a great writer, able to express in seemingly simple prose a subtle and complex vision of human life. He and Benjamin Franklin were the first of the American writers to show the Old World that the New World could produce its share of genius.

LESSON MATERIAL

FROM
**Sinners in the Hands
of an Angry God**

... [T]here is nothing between you and Hell but the air; it is only the power and mere pleasure of God that holds you up.

You probably are not sensible of this; you find you are kept out of Hell, but do not see the hand of God in it, but look at other things, as the good state of your bodily constitution, your care of your own life, and the means you use for your own preservation. But indeed these things are nothing; if God should withdraw his hand, they would avail no more to keep you from falling than the thin air to hold up a person that is suspended in it.

Your wickedness makes you as it were heavy as lead, and to tend downwards with great weight and pressure towards Hell; and if God should let you go, you would immediately sink and swiftly descend and plunge into the bottomless gulf, and your healthy constitution, and your own care and prudence, and best contrivance, and all your righteousness, would have no more influence to uphold you and keep you out of Hell than a spider's web would have to stop a falling rock. . . . There are the black clouds of God's wrath now hanging directly over your heads, full of the dreadful

you ever have done, nothing that you can do, to induce God to spare you one moment. . . .

How dreadful is the state of those that are daily and hourly in the danger of this great wrath and infinite misery! But this is the dismal case of every soul in this congregation that has not been born again, however moral and strict, sober and religious, they may otherwise be. Oh that you would consider it, whether you be young or old! There is reason to think that there are many in this congregation now hearing this discourse, that will actually be the subjects of this very misery to all eternity. We know not who they are, or in what seats they sit or what thoughts they now have: it may be they are now at ease, and hear all these things without much disturbance, and are now flattering themselves that they are not the persons, promising themselves that they shall escape. If we knew that there was one person, and but one, in the whole congregation, that was to be the subject of this misery, what an awful thing would it be to think of! If we knew who it was, what an awful sight would it be to see such a person! How might all the rest of the congregation lift up a lamentable and bitter cry over him! But alas! Instead of one, how many is it likely will remember this discourse in Hell? And it would be a wonder if some that are now present should not be in Hell in a very short time, before this year is out. And it would be no wonder if some person that now sits here in some seat of this meetinghouse in health, and quiet and secure, should be there before tomorrow morning. Those of you that finally continue in a natural condition; that shall keep out of Hell longest, will be there in a little time! Your damnation does not slumber; it will come swiftly, and in all probability very suddenly upon many of you. You have reason to wonder that you are not already in Hell. 'Tis doubtless the case of some that heretofore you have seen and known, that never deserved Hell more than you, and that heretofore appeared as likely to have been now alive as you; their case is past all hope; they are crying in extreme misery and perfect despair; but here you are

in the land of the living, and in the house of God, and have an opportunity to obtain salvation. What would not those poor damned, helpless souls give for one day's opportunity such as you now enjoy!

And now you have an extraordinary opportunity, a day wherein Christ has thrown the door of mercy wide open, and stands in the door calling and crying with a loud voice to poor sinners; a day wherein many are flocking to him, and pressing into the kingdom of God. Many are daily coming from the east, west, north and south; many that were very lately in the same miserable condition that you are in, are now in a happy state, with their hearts filled with love to him that has loved them and washed them from their sins in his own blood, and rejoicing in hope of the glory of God. How awful is it to be left behind at such a day! To see so many others feasting, while you are pining and perishing! To see so many rejoicing and singing for joy of heart, while you have cause to mourn for sorrow of heart, and howl for vexation of spirit! How can you rest one moment in such a condition? . . .

Therefore let everyone that is out of Christ now awake and fly from the wrath to come. The wrath of Almighty God is now undoubtedly hanging over a great part of this congregation: let everyone fly out of Sodom.³ "Haste and escape for your lives, look not behind you, escape to the mountain, lest you be consumed!"⁴

3. **Sodom:** in the Bible, a city destroyed because of its people's sinfulness.

4. **Haste . . . consumed:** from Genesis 19:17, the angels' warning to Lot, the one upright man in Sodom.

storm, and big with thunder; and were it not for the restraining hand of God it would immediately burst forth upon you. The sovereign pleasure of God for the present stays¹ his rough wind; otherwise it would come with fury, and your destruction would come like a whirlwind, and you would be like the chaff of the summer threshing floor.

The wrath of God is like great waters that are dammed for the present; they increase more and more, and rise higher and higher, till an outlet is given; and the longer the stream is stopped, the more rapid and mighty is its course when once it is let loose. 'Tis true that judgment against your evil works has not been executed hitherto; the floods of God's vengeance have been withheld; but your guilt in the meantime is constantly increasing, and you are every day treasuring up more wrath; the waters are continually rising and waxing more and more mighty; and there is nothing but the mere pleasure of God that holds the waters back that are unwilling to be stopped, and press hard to go forward; if God should only withdraw his hand from the floodgate, it would immediately fly open, and the fiery floods of the fierceness and wrath of God would rush forth with inconceivable fury, and would come upon you with omnipotent power; and if your strength were ten thousand times greater than it is, yea, ten thousand times greater than the strength of the stoutest, sturdiest devil in Hell, it would be nothing to withstand or endure it.

The bow of God's wrath is bent, and the arrow made ready on the string, and justice bends the arrow at your heart, and strains the bow, and it is nothing but the mere pleasure of God, and that of an angry God, without any promise or obligation at all, that keeps the arrow one moment from being made drunk with your blood.

Thus are all you that never passed under a great change of heart, by the mighty power of the Spirit of God upon your souls; all that were never born again, and made new creatures,

and raised from being dead in sin, to a state of new and before altogether unexperienced light and life (however you may have reformed your life in many things, and may have had religious affections, and may keep up a form of religion in your families and closets,² and in the house of God, and may be strict in it), you are thus in the hands of an angry God; 'tis nothing but his mere pleasure that keeps you from being this moment swallowed up in everlasting destruction.

However unconvinced you may now be of the truth of what you hear, by and by you will be fully convinced of it. Those that are gone from being in the like circumstances with you, see that it was so with them; for destruction came suddenly upon most of them, when they expected nothing of it, and while they were saying, "Peace and safety": now they see that those things on which they depended for peace and safety were nothing but thin air and empty shadows.

The God that holds you over the pit of Hell, much as one holds a spider, or some loathsome insect, over the fire, abhors you, and is dreadfully provoked; his wrath towards you burns like fire; he looks upon you as worthy of nothing else but to be cast into the fire; he is of purer eyes than to bear to have you in his sight; you are ten thousand times more abominable in his eyes than the most hateful venomous serpent is in ours. . . .

O sinner! Consider the fearful danger you are in: 'tis a great furnace of wrath, a wide and bottomless pit, full of the fire of wrath, that you are held over in the hand of that God, whose wrath is provoked and incensed as much against you as against many of the damned in Hell: you hang by a slender thread, with the flames of divine wrath flashing about it, and ready every moment to singe it, and burn it asunder; and you have no interest in any mediator, and nothing to lay hold of to save yourself, nothing to keep off the flames of wrath, nothing of your own, nothing that

1. stays: restrains.

2. closets: private rooms.

ADVANCE ORGANIZER

Aristotle (born 324 B.C.E.) developed classical rhetorical analysis. Using this method of analysis allows a reader or listener to determine the purpose in the speaker's message.

The components of classical rhetorical analysis are : situation, purpose, audience, and method. If we look at Patrick Henry's famous speech to the Virginia Convention ("Give me liberty or give me death!"), we can apply this method of analysis to more easily understand Henry's purpose in speaking.

Situation: What is the situation - historical, economic, political - surrounding the speech?

The United States had been taxed unfairly by England for several years without representation in Parliament. The Virginia Convention had met to determine what should be done. One faction, to which Henry belonged, advocated going to war against England.

Purpose: What is the purpose of the speech? What does the speaker hope to accomplish?

Patrick Henry wanted to convince the members of the Convention to declare independence from England with the knowledge that England would probably answer with force.

Audience: Who is the immediate audience?

Henry was speaking to the members of the Virginia Convention, the political leaders of the day.

Method: Does the speaker use pathos, ethos, logos, or a combination?

Henry employs all three sources of persuasion. (Teacher shows examples in text.)

APPENDIX D
TEKS FOR ENGLISH III (LANGUAGE ARTS)

Writing - Purposes

- Write in various forms with particular emphasis on business forms such as a report, memo, narrative or procedure, summary/abstract, and resumé. (1A)
- write in a voice and style appropriate to audience and purpose. (1B)
- organize ideas in writing to ensure coherence, logical progression, and support for ideas. (1C)

Writing - Writing Process

- use prewriting strategies to generate ideas, develop voice, and plan. (2A)
- develop drafts both alone and collaboratively by organizing and reorganizing content and by refining style to suit occasion, audience, and purpose. (2B)
- proofread writing for appropriateness of organization, content, style, and conventions. (2C)
- frequently refine selected pieces to publish for general and specific audiences. (2D)
- use technology for aspects of creating, revising, editing, and publishing texts. (2E)

Writing - Grammar/Usage/Conventions/Spelling

- produce legible work that shows accurate spelling and correct use of the conventions of punctuation and capitalization such as italics and ellipses. (3A)
- demonstrate control over grammatical elements such as subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, verb forms, and parallelism. (3B)
- Compose increasingly more involved sentences that contain gerunds, participles, and infinitives in their various functions. (3C)
- produce error-free writing in the final draft. (3D)
- use a manual of style such as Modern Language Association (MLA), American Psychological Association (APA), and The Chicago Manual of Style (CMS). (3E)

Writing - Inquiry/Research

- use writing to formulate questions, refine topics, and clarify ideas. (4A)
- use writing to discover, organize, and support what is known and what needs to be learned about a topic. (4B)
- compile information from primary and secondary sources in systemic ways using available technology. (4C)
- represent information in a variety of ways such as graphics, conceptual maps, and learning logs. (4D)
- use writing as a study tool to clarify and remember information. (4E)
- compile written ideas and representations into reports, summaries, or other formats and draw conclusions. (4F)
- analyze strategies that writers in different fields use to compose. (4G)

Writing - Evaluation

- evaluate writing for both mechanics and content. (5A)
- respond productively to peer review of his/her own work. (5B)

Reading - Word Identification/Vocabulary Development

- expand vocabulary through wide reading, listening, and discussing. (6A)
- rely on context to determine meanings of words and phrases such as figurative language, connotation and denotation of words, analogies, idioms, and technical vocabulary. (6B)
- apply meanings of prefixes, roots, and suffixes in order to comprehend. (6C)
- research word origins as an aid to understanding meanings, derivations, and spellings as well as influence on the English language. (6D)
- use reference material such as glossary, dictionary, thesaurus, and available technology to determine precise meaning and usage. (6E)
- discriminate between connotative and denotative meanings and interpret the connotative power of words. (6F)
- read and understand analogies. (6G)

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Reading - Comprehension

- establish and adjust purpose for reading such as to find out, to understand, to interpret, to enjoy, and to solve problems. (7A)
- draw upon his/her own reading strategies and make modifications when understanding breaks down such as by rereading, using resources, and questioning. (7C)
- construct images such as graphic organizers based on text descriptions and text structures. (7D)
- analyze text structures such as compare/contrast, cause/effect, and chronological order for how they influence understanding. (7E)
- produce summaries of texts by identifying main ideas and their supporting details. (7F)
- draw inferences such as conclusions, generalizations, and predictions and support them with text evidence and experience. (7G)
- use study strategies such as note taking, outlining, and using study-guide questions to better understand texts. (7H)
- read silently with comprehension for a sustained period of time. (7I)

Reading - Variety of Texts

- read to be entertained, to appreciate a writer's craft, to be informed, to take action, and to discover models to use in his/her own writing. (8A)
- read in varied sources such as diaries, journals, textbooks, maps, newspapers, letters, speeches, memoranda, electronic texts, and other media. (8B)
- read American and other world literature, including classic and contemporary works. (8C)
- interpret the possible influences of the historical context on literary works. (8D)

Reading - Culture

- recognize distinctive and shared characteristics of cultures through reading. (9A)
- compare text events with his/her own and other readers' experiences. (9B)

Reading - Literary Responses

- respond to informational and aesthetic elements in texts such as discussions, journal entries, oral interpretations, enactments, and graphic displays. (10A)
- use elements of text to defend, clarify, and negotiate responses and interpretations. (10B)
- analyze written reviews of literature, film, and performance to compare with his/her own responses. (10C)

Reading - Literary Concepts

- compare and contrast aspects of texts such as themes, conflicts, and allusions both within and across texts. (11A)
- analyze relevance of setting and time frame to text's meaning. (11B)
- describe the development of plot and identify conflicts and how they are addressed and resolved. (11C)
- analyze the melodies of literary language, including its use of evocative words and rhythms. (11D)
- connect literature to historical contexts, current events, and his/her own experiences. (11E)
- understand literary forms and terms such as author, drama, biography, myth, tall tale, dialogue, tragedy and comedy, structure in poetry, epic, ballad, protagonist, antagonist, paradox, analog, dialect, and comic relief as appropriate to the selections being read. (11F)

Reading - Analysis/Evaluation

- analyze the characteristics of clearly written texts, including the patterns of organization, syntax, and word choice. (12A)
- evaluate the credibility of information sources, including how the writer's motivation may affect that credibility. (12B)
- recognize logical, deceptive, and/or faulty modes of persuasion in texts. (12C)

Reading - Inquiry/Research

- generate relevant, interesting, and researchable questions. (13A)
- locate appropriate print and non-print information using text and technical resources, including databases and the Internet. (13B)
- use text organizers such as overviews, headings, and graphic features to locate and categorize information. (13C)
- produce reports and research projects in varying forms for audiences. (13D)
- draw conclusions from information gathered. (13E)

Listening - Speaking/Critical Listening

- demonstrate proficiency in each aspect of the listening process such as focusing attention, interpreting and responding. (14A)
- use effective strategies for listening such as prepares for listening, identifies the types of listening, and adopts appropriate strategies. (14B)
- demonstrate proficiency in critical, empathic, appreciative, and reflective listening. (14C)
- use effective strategies to evaluate his/her own listening such as asking questions for clarification, comparing and contrasting interpretations with others, and researching points of interest or contention. (14D)
- use effective listening to provide appropriate feedback in a variety of situations such as conversations and discussions and informative, persuasive, or artistic presentations. (14E)

Listening - Speaking/Purposes

- use the conventions of oral language effectively. (15A)
- use informal, standard, and technical language effectively to meet the needs of purpose, audience, occasion, and task. (15B)
- communicate effectively in conversations and group discussions while problem solving, and planning. (15C)
- use effective verbal and nonverbal strategies in presenting oral messages. (15D)
- ask clear questions for a variety of purposes and respond appropriately to the questions of others. (15E)
- make relevant contributions in conversations and discussions. (15F)

Listening - Speaking/Evaluation

- apply valid criteria to analyze, evaluate, and critique informative and persuasive messages. (16A)
- apply valid criteria to analyze, evaluate, and critique literary performances. (16B)
- use praise and suggestions of others to improve his/her own communication. (16C)
- identify and analyze the effect of aesthetic elements within literary texts such as character development, rhyme, imagery, and language. (16D)

Listening - Speaking/Presentations

- present and advance a clear thesis and logical points, claims, or arguments to support messages. (17A)
- choose valid proofs from reliable sources to support claims. (17B)
- use appropriate appeals to support claims and arguments. (17C)
- use language and rhetorical strategies skillfully in informative and persuasive messages. (17D)
- make effective nonverbal strategies such as pitch and tone of voice, posture, and eye contact. (17E)
- make informed, accurate, truthful, and ethical presentations. (17F)

Listening - Speaking/Literary Interpretations

- make valid interpretations of variety of literary texts. (18A)
- justify the choice of verbal and nonverbal performance techniques by referring to the analysis and interpretations of the text. (18B)
- present interpretations such as telling stories, performing original works, and interpreting poems and stories for a variety of audiences. (18C)

Viewing - Representing/Interpretation

- describe how meanings are communicated through elements of design, including shape, line, color, and texture. (19A)
- analyze relationships, ideas, and cultures as represented in various media. (19B)
- distinguish the purposes of various media forms such as informative texts, entertaining texts, and advertisements. (19C)

Viewing - Representing/Analysis

- investigate the source of a media presentation or production such as who made it and why it was made. (20A)
- deconstruct media to get the main idea of the message's content. (20B)
- evaluate and critique the persuasive techniques of media messages such as glittering generalities, logical fallacies, and symbols. (20C)
- recognize how visual and sound techniques or design convey messages in media such as special effects, editing, camera angles, reaction shots, sequencing, and music. (20D)
- recognize genres such as nightly news, newsmagazines, and documentaries and identify the unique properties of each. (20E)
- compare, contrast, and critique various media coverage of the same event such as in newspapers, television, and on the Internet. (20F)

Viewing - Representing/Production

- examine the effect of media on constructing his/her own perception of reality. (21A)
- use a variety of forms and technologies such as videos, photographs, and web pages to communicate specific messages. (21B)
- use a range of techniques to plan and create a media text and reflect critically on the work produced. (21C)
- create media products to include a seven- to ten-minute documentary, ad campaigns, political campaigns, or video adaptations of literary texts to engage specific audiences. (21D)
- create, present, test, and revise a project and analyze a response using data-gathering techniques such as questionnaires, group discussions, and feedback forms. (21E)

APPENDIX E
CONSENT FORMS

Informed Consent for Students
for the study of the
Effects of the Advance Organizer

I, _____, agree to participate in a study of the effect of the use of the advance organizer on perceived teacher communication competence, conducted at Colleyville-Heritage High School in Grapevine-Colleyville Independent School District.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time. I understand that there is no risk of discomfort involved in this study. I understand that if I choose to participate, I will be expected to 1) take a pretest , 2) take a quiz over material learned in class, and 3) take a post test.

I have been informed that any information obtained in this study will be recorded with a code rather than with my name. The researcher will not have a record which identifies me as an individual. Under this condition, I agree that any information obtained in this study may be used in any way thought best for publication or education.

If I have any questions, I should contact the researcher, Melissa MacMurray, at 817-923-3158.

Date

Participating Student

Date

Investigator

This project has been reviewed by the University of North Texas Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects.

Dear Parents,

I will be conducting a research project designed to study the effect of using a teaching strategy called the advance organizer on student perceptions of teacher communication competence. I request permission for your child to participate. the study consists of utilizing the advance organizer instead of a different type of anticipatory set for a lesson in American Literature. This project may help educators determine how students achieve in terms of perception.

Your decision whether or not to allow your child to participate will in no way affect your child's standing in his/her class. Furthermore, your child's participation in this study is voluntary. Your child may discontinue the study at any time without penalty or prejudice. The students will only be identified by number for the study. At the conclusion of the study, a summary of group results will be made available to all interested parents and teachers. Should you have any questions, please call me at 817-923-3158. Thank you for your cooperation and support.

Sincerely,

Melissa L. MacMurray, M.Ed.

This project has been reviewed by the University of North Texas Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects. (Phone: 817-565-3940)

Please indicate whether or not you wish to have your child participate in this project by checking a statement below and returning this letter to your child's teacher as quickly as possible.

I do grant permission for my child, _____, to participate in this study.

I do not grant permission for my child, _____, to participate in this study.

Parent/Guardian Signature

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