Volume IV Number 1

Fall, 1974

JOURNAL OF THE Arizona Speech & Drama Association

THE JOURNAL OF THE
ARIZONA SPEECH AND DRAMA ASSOCIATION

Volume IV Fall, 1974 Number 1

Co-Editors

John Monsma
Northern Arizona University

Jo Anne Taft
East Flagstaff Junior High School

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Dear ASDA Member:

The publication of this issue of the Journal marks the beginning of our fourth year. Throughout the past years, we have attempted to present articles concerned with the various aspects of our discipline, articles which are stimulative in nature, and articles representing both faculty and student output. The current issue is no exception. It contains a thought-provoking concept on the rhetoric-communication theory problem, two reports and analyses of student studies, and a reaction to a reader's theatre program. We invite your careful study of this issue. Even more, however, we invite your submission of material for future issues. The Journal should include an even greater spectrum of content; the Journal should reflect current thought and issues; the Journal should reflect YOU. Why not share your thinking through its pages? Deadline for the Spring issue is March 1, 1975.

Cordially,

Jo Anne Taft
John Monsma
Co-Editors

TOWARD AN INTEGRATION OF BEHAVIORAL RESEARCH AND RHETORICAL CRITICISM

By

James Edward Sayer & Lawrence J. Chase

INTRODUCTION

While the analysis and criticism of public discourse has been carried on for many centuries (see, for example, Socrates' rhetorical criticism in the Gorgias), the development of a systematized body of theory for such criticism occurred but several decades ago. Citing Herbert Wichelns' "The Literary Criticism of Oratory" in 1925 as the theoretical starting point, Baird and Thonssen concluded that:

> As a research technique...the art is a contribution chiefly to twentieth century scholars. Only in the latest decades have investigators systematically developed and formulated working principles and techniques of rhetorical evaluation.[1]

Wichelns' emphasis upon the criticism of rhetorical effectiveness and the subsequent use of basically Aristotelian and classical criteria in the evaluation of this effectiveness served as the main focal point for rhetorical criticism for the following thirty years. This Aristotelian model of criticism was developed in greater detail by Thonssen and Baird in 1948,[2] and it was with this work that the sketchy model developed by Wichelns reached full maturity. The impact and use of this classical rhetorical methodology caused Bormann to conclude that it "has been the most influential in rhetorical criticism in this century."[3] Examples of this Aristotelian methodology may be found in most scholarly works of the period and is best exemplified by the majority of monographs appearing in the initial two volumes of A History and Criticism of American Public Address.[4]

James Sayer is a member of the faculty at Wright State University. Lawrence Chase is a member of the faculty at Cleveland State University.

However, while the Aristotelian methodology reigned supreme in the area of rhetorical criticism, there occurred the development of another area within the speech discipline that would have a profound impact upon the field--empirical investigation and communication theory. This new wrinkle in the speech field was not greeted with widespread acceptance in many parts of academia. Often, rhetorical theorists found themselves at odds philosophically and methodologically with their empirically-oriented counterparts, and an air of hostility between two opposing "forces" developed.

> During recent years a state of cold war has existed in the field of speech. Humanists who seek to understand rhetoric primarily through the use of historical scholarship and behavioral scientists who seek to develop a communication theory primarily through empirical description and experimental research have tended to see one another as threatening enemies.[5]

This "cold war" extended itself to include the arena of rhetorical criticism, wherein many classically-oriented scholars adopted the position that empirical research was to play, at most, a minimal part in the criticism of public discourse. A social science bias was developed and advocated:

> ....the purpose of rhetorical criticism is to express a judgment on a public speech; that such judicial appraisal is a derivative of composite judgments formulated by reference to the methodologies of rhetoric, history, sociology and social psychology, logic and philosophy; and that the materials and techniques of experimental science require these other evaluative agencies in any satisfactory appraisal of public address.... To derive judicial conclusions from such approaches calls for techniques other than purely or mainly experimental.[6]

Thus, the methodology and results of experimental research were not to be applied to rhetorical criticism in any large measure. Since rhetorical criticism was based upon ideas and concepts derived from the various social sciences,

empiricism was seen to have minimal applicability to the criticism of public discourse.

However, the Aristotelian-based method of criticism came under increasing fire by the mid-1950's, despite the claim that this mode of criticism, founded upon the social sciences, represented the proper approaches to rhetorical criticism. In 1954, Wayne Thompson wrote that many approaches to rhetorical criticism must be adopted, because "each evaluative method has shortcomings and rarely, if ever, does a single measure yield conclusive results. For this reason, the research worker must approach the problem from all possible viewpoints."[7] Two years later, Albert Croft directly indicted the Aristotelian or "standard" approach to rhetorical criticism by arguing that such criticism provided mainly contributions to history and biography and that the current mode of criticism was stultifying:

> ....we have made rhetorical criticism a deadend street. In this view, our first need is to create a dynamic interaction between theory and criticism; we must encourage creative theorizing as a part of criticism....There is no need for all research in rhetoric to follow a single pattern. Indeed, a pluralistic approach to research is the only intellectually defensible position.[8]

Despite the criticism of contemporary criticism as offered by Thompson and Croft, despite the development of the semantic and Burkean critical appraoches, and despite the continued development of experimental research, Thompson found in 1963 that "serene and undisturbed, both writers and lecturers continue to express classical doctrines, and the main stream of rhetoric is proceeding uninterrupted and unchanged."[9] In an attempt to disturb this serenity, Thompson suggested the use of empirical research in approaching rhetorical problems:

> ....a realization of the potential contributions of communication theory may lead to creative thoughts upon rhetorical problems, produce insights worthy of examination both empirically

> and investigatively, and assist experimentalists in devising hypotheses and interpreting results.[10]

Thus, Thompson proposed a reapprochement of the rhetorical and the empirical to pump new life and cooperation into the study of human communication.

However, although the rhetorical-empirical reapprochement was begun and still continues, the criticism of public discourse remained largely unchanged. Therefore, in 1965, Edwin Black launched another indictment against the dominant mode of speech criticism, calling this methodology "neo-Aristotelianism." Moreover, Black went beyond Croft's suggestion that this style of critical methodology was a dead-end street; Black charged that it was inaccurate:

> ....variety is wanting in the methods of rhetoric....the options available to the critic need to be multiplied, and, above all,....the prevailing mode of rhetorical criticism is profoundly mistaken.[11]

Like others, Black found rhetorical criticism to be largely based upon the tenets laid down by Wichelns some forty years before, and Black argued for a proliferation of critical methods in the analysis of public discourse. Although Black's indictment of neo-Aristotelian criticism was challenged by many rhetorical scholars,[12] his main quest for a variety of critical methods continues to be a primary concern of those directly involved in rhetorical criticism.[13]

In attempting to provide for a broader approach to the criticism of public discourse, the area of experimental research and communication theory continues to be largely ignored, despite the claim by McGuckin that both the rhetorician and the experimentalist are "rhetorical critics in the broadest and best sense of that term."[14] The major reason for the absence of the use of principles derived from experimental research in rhetorical criticism has been the lack of cohesion of these derived principles.[15] Experimental studies have covered a broad array of subject matter and the results of these studies have rarely been tied together into one cohesive whole. Thus, the rhetorical critic who desired to use a critical methodology different than neo-Aristotelianism, different than a semantic analysis, different than Burke's Pentad, and different than the self-surfacing experiential approach, would have an extremely

difficult task if he wished to turn to communication theory and experimental research--the synthesis of concepts and ideas has not occurred that would provide the needed critical method. The development of such a synthesis is seen as beneficial due to the nature of the complementary interaction of rhetorical and communication theory:

> Each serves as a check on the inevitable excesses of the other: experimentation forces a parsimony which is unnatural to descriptive research; description keeps theory in touch with reality by preventing ethereal simplicity. Only as the two interact upon the same concepts and problems can rhetorical theory achieve its maximum abstraction while at the same time achieving the closest possible fit with all the facts of rhetorical experience.[16]

The utilization of communication theory and experimental research in the development of the process of rhetorical criticism will further aid in the development of a pluralistic approach to such criticism. Thus, the potential rhetorical critic will have many more tools available to him with which to work. And the advantage of such development is crystallized by Bormann: "Pluralism in critical viewpoint enables a critic to adopt a method for a given project in criticism that is more appropriate to the subject matter."[17]

THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE MODEL

To this end, the behaviral science model of speech criticism was developed. This paradigm was constructed for the interpretation and evaluation of the speech itself, and was, therefore, not devised to evaluate the speaker's ideas or the extrinsic factors which influence the communicative event. Moreover, it was intended to complement existing frameworks and add to the critic's analytic potential, rather than replace or supercede other models of rhetorical criticism. Finally, the proposed model was created in order to suggest a general plan of action for rhetorical critics, rather than to prescribe a specific procedure. The first step was the

determination of the analytic dimensions to be included in the model. Speeches have been examined on the basis of types of appeals (emotional, logical, ethical), style, use of rhetorical devices, and so forth. From the viewpoint of the communicologist, such attempts at structural analysis of the communication process should proceed with care. As David K. Berlo has cautioned:

> The basis for the concept of process is the belief that the structure of physical reality cannot be discovered by man; it must be created by man. In 'constructing' reality, the theorist chooses to organize his perceptions in one way or another. He may choose to say that we can call certain things 'elements' or 'ingredients.' In doing this, he realized that he has not discovered anything, he has created a set of tools which may or may not be useful in analyzing or describing the world.[18]

This does not mean that model construction in human communication is futile; rather, communication researchers should realize the limitations involved in paradigm construction. Kenneth Burke addresses this issue in A Grammar of Motives:

> Men seek for vocabularies that will be faithful reflections of reality. To this end, they must develop vocabularies that are selections of reality. And any selection of reality must, in certain circumstances, function as a deflection of reality.[19]

It is important to note Berlo's inclusion of the word useful, and Burke's use of the term selection. These usages encourage the continuation of scholarly efforts in model-building despite previously articulated admonitions. With both hope and caution, then, dimensions for symbolic analysis were created.

In concert with the implications of the strong caveat expressed above, two broad classifications, Content and Method, were selected. The "content" of a speech refers to what is said; it is the "stuff" or substance of a given discourse. The method of a speech includes arrangement and strategic considerations. Thus, content and method may be

alternatively expressed as what is said and how it is said, respectively. Advantages accruing from the use of these categories include: 1) a parsimonious, somewhat "natural," intuitive division of rhetorical endeavor, 2) flexibility, especially in terms of accommodating a wide variety of communicative postulates, and 3) clarity--the absence of terminological esotericity.

The second phase in the development of a behavioral science model involved the specification of appropriate critieria and subsequent assignment under one of the two structural divisions. In the previous three decades, a large amount of research dealing with persuasive discourse has accumulated. A major barrier to the development of a behavioral science model of speech criticism has been the lack of a coherent framework for the organization of these findings. However, recent research has provided more than a semblance of order to this unfortunate situation.[20]

In a comprehensive review of the persuasion literature, Karlins and Abelson[21] presented research findings in synopsis form and established guidelines for effective advocacy. Those guidelines or portions thereof which were deemed appropriate in terms of reliability and relevance to the current effort were incorporated into the existing framework as shown below.

Content:

1) When the audience is generally friendly, or when your position is the only one that will be presented, present one side of the argument.

2) When the audience initially disagrees with you, or when it is probable that the audience will hear the other side from someone else, present both sides of the argument.

3) A communicator's effectiveness is increased if he initially expressed some views that are also held by his audience.

4) Successful persuasion takes into account the reasons underlying attitudes as well as the attitudes themselves.

5) People are more persuaded by a communicator they perceive to be similar to themselves.

6) People who are most attached to a group are probably least influenced by communications which conflict with group norms.

Method:

1) The more extreme the opinion change that the high credibility communicator asks for, the more actual change he is likely to get.
2) There will probably be more opinion change in the direction you want if you explicitly state your conclusions than if you let the audience draw their own.
3) Pleasant forms of distraction can often increase the effectiveness of persuasive appeals.
4) Arguments presented at the beginning or the end of a communication will be remembered better than arguments presented in the middle.
5) The impact of a persuasive appeal is enhanced by requiring active, rather than passive, participation by the listener.
6) Opinion change is more persistent over a period of time if the persuasive appeal is repeated.

As Karlins and Abelson have pointed out, care should be taken to interpret the elements of this paradigm as "directives, not dogma--flexible guidelines, not rigid boundaries, in understanding behavior change."[22]

The behavioral science model for the criticism of persuasive discourse is not intended as a representation of all that is "known." Instead, it is offered in an effort to stimulate further research in this area, and as a consequence, facilitate increased understanding of human interaction through the fullest possible utilization of the concepts and procedures available in the speech communication arsenal.

APPLICATION OF THE MODEL

The inclusion of the behavioral science model within a broad critical schema would expand the analytic scope of the rhetorical critic in several directions. For rhetoricians, this model provides empirically-based critieria with which to evaluate discourse; for communicologists, this framework provides information which may warrant inferences concerning the generalizability of experimental findings.

Analyses of discourse by rhetoricians which attribute effectiveness to certain postulates mainfested in the

behavioral science model may increase the probability of greater generalizability for the guidelines. This exemplifies the dynamic nature of the proposed model, as experimental findings contribute to the scholar's critical potential, and critical judgments in turn supply further data relating to the use of these strategies in discourse.

Where there are discrepant approaches to speech-making between the particular postulates and the actual discourse, situational factors accounting for the disagreement may be specified. The critic may then re-examine the extant literature to determine whether the "influencing" variable or set of variables has been dealt with. If it has not, he may either engage in or recommend testing the relationship between that variable and the given "principle" in anticipation of rejecting, modifying, or reaffirming the validity of the postulate. Thus, the employment of these critieria may generate new starting points for communication research, and this further underscores the process-nature of the behavioral science model. From these beginnings may emerge experimental data which are more accurate than those postulates which were previously utilized, and may, therefore, stimulate the formulation of new postulates which will replace or supplement existing structural components.

A third possible outcome resulting from the inclusion of this paradigm concerns the possible determination of the operational parameters of the guidelines. Postulates which are deemed effective in particular situations only--those which are context-sensitive--may be distinguished from those which operate in most rhetorical settings, or context-free postulates, using critical analytic methods. This type of information will aid the critic when initiating his analysis and selecting appropriate critieria.

The behavioral science model for the analysis and criticism of public discourse provides a functional overlap of the rhetorical and experimental methodologies. This mode of criticism permits the one-world of communication to operate as a cohesive unit, accepting the proposition as suggested by Arnold: "Not even two <u>metaphysical</u> dogs can gnaw the bone of communication without occupying a single world of mind and space."[23]

FOOTNOTES

[1]A. Craig Baird and Lester Thonssen, "Methodology in the Criticism of Public Address," Quarterly Journal of Speech, XXXIII (April, 1947), 134.

[2]Lester Thonssen and A. Craig Baird, Speech Criticism (New York, 1948).

[3]Ernest G. Bormann, Theory and Research in the Communicative Arts (New York, 1965), p. 233.

[4]William Norwood Brigance, ed., A History and Criticism of American Public Address (New York, 1943).

[5]Wayne Brockriede, "Dimensions of the Concept of Rhetoric," Quarterly Journal of Speech, LIV (February, 1968), p. 1.

[6]Baird and Thonssen, "Methodology in the Criticism of Public Address," pp. 134 and 138.

[7]Wayne N. Thompson, "Contemporary Public Address: A Problem in Criticism," Quarterly Journal of Speech, XL (February, 1954), p. 28.

[8]Albert J. Croft, "The Functions of Rhetorical Criticism," Quarterly Journal of Speech, XLIX (October, 1956), pp. 285 and 287.

[9]Wayne N. Thompson, "A Conservative View of a Progressive Rhetoric," Quarterly Journal of Speech, XLIX (February, 1963), p. 1.

[10]Ibid., p. 7.

[11]Edwin Black, Rhetorical Criticism--A Study in Method (New York, 1965), p. viii.

[12]See, for example, J.A. Hendrix, "In Defense of Neo-Aristotelian Rhetorical Criticism," Western Speech, XXXII (Fall, 1968), pp. 246-252.

[13]See, for example, Robert L. Scott and Bernard L. Brock, Methods of Rhetorical Criticism--A Twentieth-Century Perspective (New York, 1972), pp. 13-14. These writers explicitly agree with Edwin Black.

[14]Henry E. McGuckin, Jr., "The Experimentalist As Critic," Western Speech, XXXIII (Summer, 1968), p. 168.

[15]Wayne Brockriede, "Toward A Contemporary Aristotelian Theory of Rhetoric," Quarterly Journal of Speech, LII (February, 1966), p. 35.

[16]Theodore Clevenger, Jr., "The Interaction of Descriptive and Experimental Research in the Development of Rhetorical Theory," Central States Speech Journal, XVI (February, 1965) p. 12.

[17]Bormann, p. 237.

[18]David K. Berlo, The Process of Communication (New York, 1960), p. 25.

[19]Kenneth Burke, A Grammar of Motives (Berkeley, 1945), p. 59.

[20]See, for example, Ralph L. Rosnow and Edward J. Robinson (eds.), Experiments in Persuasion (New York, 1967); and William J. McGuire, "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change," in Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson (eds.), The Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. 3, second edition (Reading, Massachusetts, 1969), pp. 136-314.

[21]Marvin Karlins and Herbert Abelson, Persuasion, second edition (New York, 1970).

[22]Ibid., p. 3.

[23]Carroll C. Arnold, "Rhetorical and Communication Studies: Two Worlds or One?", Western Speech, XXXVI (Spring, 1972), p. 80.

A CLASS PROJECT AS A LEARNING EXPERIENCE

By

William E. Arnold

The project contained in the following article was designed and conducted by undergraduate students who had no previous experience in speech or courses in research methods. Their goal and the purpose of the assignment was to provide an experience where communication variables could be seen and studied outside of the classroom. While textbooks and lectures provided valuable information, firsthand observation can make a point much more vivid.

This assignment is not unlike assignments given in all of my other courses. In each class, students are given the assignment to study some aspect of communication as it related both to the student's area of interest (sometimes a major or even a hobby) and to the course. While the general requirement demands a relationship to the course, the actual format could be any of the following:

1. Develop a film or slides or some other media demonstration which presents some point of nonverbal communication and an area which interests you.
2. A thorough library research project on nonverbal communication.
3. Develop and conduct an empirical laboratory study related to nonverbal communication.
4. Develop a teaching unit or curriculum related to an aspect of this course.
5. Develop and conduct a field study related to this course.
6. Develop a computer or programmed learning unit for an aspect of this course.
7. etc.

William E. Arnold is Chairman of the Speech and Theatre Department, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona.

If the class is in small group communication, a stress would be placed on the possibility that students could work together. In fact, they would be encouraged but not forced to work as a class rather than doing individual projects. The project presented here was agreed upon by the entire class of 22 students. They worked as a team from the start to the finish.

Aside from the benefits of having students learn something about the course content outside of the classroom, several fringe benefits can also be attributed to the class project. In most classes where I have used the project approach, students develop their own organization in order to complete the project. They learn how to function as a team resulting in a better awareness of the concepts of trust, leadership, cooperation, sensitivity, and role functions. For a more complete discussion of the advantages of class projects, see Arnold (1965).

The project is presented here as the class developed and wrote it. Many of their limitations could have been eliminated by the instructor if I had chosen to take a direct hand in the project. I believe that they learned much through experience. Had elaborate experimental designs and analysis been employed, the students would have become less involved in the project. While students should not be totally left to their own devices, much of the work and planning should come from them. These students did not submit their data to complicated procedures such as analysis of variance which might have been appropriate had they had a larger sample. Instead they analyzed their results with simple procedures familiar to all involved. Obviously, the study has more value to pedagogy than to the world of theory building and research. Nevertheless, their results suggest that further analysis of the area would be most appropriate.

Hopefully this project will encourage my colleagues in Arizona to continue their experimentation in the classroom or to begin it if you have not already done so.

References

Arnold, William E. "Student Outside-of-Class Projects," Speech Teacher, Vol. XVII, (November, 1968)pp. 336-338.

THE EFFECT OF CREDIBILITY AND GROUP SIZE ON WAITING TIME, ANXIETY & NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

As a part of a class assignment, a project was to be selected that related to small group communication. As a class we decided to discover the effects of communication variables on the group process. Specifically we were interested in the effects of communicator credibility and group size on waiting time, anxiety, and nonverbal behavior. From observations in various campus activities and from the materials assigned in class, several research questions emerged:

1. What is the effect of high and low credibility inductions on waiting time?
2. What is the effect of high and low credibility inductions on anxiety?
3. What is the effect of high and low credibility inductions on nonverbal behavior?
4. What is the effect of group size on waiting time?
5. What is the effect of group size on anxiety?
6. What is the effect of group size on nonverbal behavior?

To answer these questions, we devised and conducted the experiment described in the remainder of this paper.

The authors: Frank Butz, David Byers, Paul Darezzo, Thomas Elliott, Sara Homan, James Johnson, James Leahy, Patricia Leonard, Terry McLaughlin, Nadine Miller, Gary Mortensen, Kay Randolph, Robin Rogers, Kristy Sanders, Richard Saul, Michael Seaman, Dennis Walsh, and Carole Wickham are students at Arizona State University.

SUBJECTS

All the subjects in the experiment came from two Speech 100 classes. They received extra-credit in these classes for participating. Volunteers signed up for the experiment on a days and time chart and were asked to leave their phone numbers. They were not given any information about the experiment. Two days prior to the experiment, each person was called and reminded of the date and time he signed for.

METHOD

A total of eight groups participated in the experiment at different times - four groups consisted of three naive subjects, and four groups consisted of six naive subjects. The subjects were taken to the lab, a room where they could be seen and heard without their knowledge through the use of one-way mirrors and hidden microphones. The only things in the room were six chairs arranged in a circle.

When all the subjects were present the group was given either a high credibility induction by a well-mannered, well-groomed female or a low credibility induction by a slovenly, unkempt male.

High credibility induction:

Good morning, afternoon. I am assisting the Communication Research Center with the conduction of this experiment. We are enlisting only college level students and we appreciate your willingness to participate. You will probably find the content of the study interesting. It deals, basically, with human interaction. The results will be complete in June or July and you can check with the Speech Department if interested. We would like you to wait in here and we will get started shortly.

Low credibility induction:

Hi! Glad you're all here. I'm doing this project for my Basic Communication class. If you'll wait in here, I'll be back shortly with my stuff.

Two three-member groups and two six-member groups were given high credibility inductions, and two three-member groups and two six-member groups were given low credibility inductions. After the induction was given, the facilitator left the room closing the door behind him and did not return.

Each subject was observed by one member of the OSC 300 class. Recordings of his non-verbal anxiety behaviors and their frequency were made during the first five minutes which began when he sat down and again during the last ten minutes on rating sheets. Subjective notes were also taken. The amount of time the subject spent in the lab was also recorded.

After the subject gave up waiting for the facilitator to return and he left the room he was asked to fill out a Self-Analysis Questionnaire for anxiety.

DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the data, the scores were obtained from the non-verbal rating sheets and surveys presented to the subjects. The former scores were divided into a beginning period and an ending period and were tabulated for each subject. In addition to these totals, there were the two other measurements; anxiety scores from each subject and the time in minutes each subject waited before departing.

For each cell, i.e., type of group with respect to number and kind of induction, we summed all the totals and divided by the number of subjects. As a result we obtained mean scores for beginning non-verbal behavior, ending non-verbal behavior, anxiety felt by the subjects, and waiting time.

GROUP SIZE

	THREE	SIX
High Credibility	Beginning Behaviors: 25.50 Ending Behaviors: 40.17 Anxiety Behaviors: 34.17* Time Spent: 45.84	Beginning Behaviors: 22.17 Ending Behaviors: 30.67 Anxiety Behaviors: 27.67* Time Spent: 41.00

*the lower the scores the less anxiety

	THREE	SIX
Low Credibility	Beginning Behaviors: 28.28 Ending Behaviors: 38.07 Anxiety Behaviors: 31.40 Time Spent: 35.57	Beginning Behaviors: 30.25 Ending Behaviors: 36.25 Anxiety Behaviors: 38.25 Time Spent: 40.75

Furthermore, in relation to observed behaviors there is the following breakdown:

	HGIH Credibility	LOW Credibility	THREE Member Groups	SIX Member Groups
Beg. Behaviors:	23.84	29.27	26.89	26.21
Ending Behaviors:	35.42	37.16	39.12	33.46
Anxiety Behaviors:	30.92	34.82	32.78	32.96
Time Waited:	43.42	38.16	40.71	40.86

From these results, several things become evident in relation to whether our initial hypotheses are supported by the data, or whether they should be rejected as a result of it.

Does the level of credibility affect the amount of waiting time? We hypothesized that it would. Specifically, we wanted to test the hypothesis that waiting time would be longer with a high credibility induction than with a low one. As is seen above, the mean waiting time is 43.2 minutes with the high credibility induction and only 38.16 minutes with the low credibility induction. Although the difference is not very large, it is probably significant for there is a difference of 5.26 minutes between them - 6.4% of the total. Therefore, our hypothesis is probably supported.

We also see from the data above, that the size of the group has no effect on waiting time. Although we didn't hypothesize an outcome here, we wanted to see what the effect of two differently sized groups would have on the waiting time.

A second hypothesis made was that anxiety, manifested in the form of certain non-verbal behaviors, would increase as the waiting time increased. Here it is necessary to look at the behavioral means for beginning and ending non-verbal behaviors. Regardless of size or type of credibility induction, the behaviors increased across the board. Looking at these figures more closely, however, there was a greater increase in high credibility inducted groups than in low (51.1%). This supported a minor hypothesis, that anxiety behavior would be more evident with the high credibility group as time increased.

There was also more non-verbal behavior with a three-person group than a six-person group (15.1%). Here again, we had not hypothesized a relationship, but were only interested in its outcome.

In answer to several questions raised in respect to the relation between verbal and non-verbal behavior, only a sketchy picture can be made.

With regard to a delay in the initiation of conversation, subjects began to talk almost immediately in every group. As a result of this, we could determine no discernible relation between the kinds of non-verbal behaviors observed and whether these led to initiation of verbal behavior.

Finally, with the question concerning group departure, there were several variations, none of any significance.

With the larger group of high credibility, the experimenter had to end the experiment due to a time limitation. With one group of three (high credibility), one person initiated departure and the rest left with her. But with the other three high credibility groups, one left before the others and the experimenter eventually ended it.

With the smaller low credibility group, two people left eleven minutes ahead of the other two, the latter subject arguing about who should be the next to leave. And again, the same thing occurred with the larger low credibility group; two subjects left ten minutes before anyone else, the rest being stopped by the experimenter.

So it is seen that the decision to leave was not made by the group and that one person's departure did not necessarily influence anyone else's departure.

LIMITATIONS

Before concluding this report, it is necessary to comment on several factors which probably influenced the results in respect to their contamination.

The major source of contamination was the subject pool. In almost every instance two or more subjects knew each other and proceeded to talk about anything and everything until the experimenter stopped them. Furthermore, they were aware of the fact that they might be under observation.

Also, our desired group sizes were not available every time. There were several instances where we lacked subjects and those where we had too many. In a couple of experiments sexual differences may have operated for there was an all female and all male group at two different times. In addition, one group had all males and one female.

The sample we derived our conclusions from was not large enough and not really random. We had less than 30 subjects, and all were students from speech classes. Therefore, we cannot infer that results obtained can be applied to the general public.

Finally, we can say that although we report no earth-shaking results from what we have done, we learned a great deal by the experiment. We gained knowledge in the mechanics of conducting a unique experiment and analyzing results obtained. Most importantly, by interacting and working on a common problem, each class member increased his ability to effectively communicate within a small group.

THE USE OF HALOPERIDOL IN THE MANAGEMENT OF STUTTERING: A CASE STUDY

By

Sandra Martin, M.A. and L. George Hershey, D.O.

The client, a 22-year-old single male, manifests silent blocks, sound prolongations, and sound repetitions with a frequency approaching every syllable in multisyllabic words and almost all monosyllabic words. Blocks of 60 to 95 seconds duration have been noted. There are no overt mannerisms other than occasional eye blinks. Eye contact is good and no easily observed signs of struggle or tension are apparent.

The problem was recognized prior to the client's beginning kindergarten. No favorable results have come about after thirteen years of therapy for stuttering. The first therapy experience the client remembers was in a group with boys not having speech problems, which occurred during his fifth grade year. A therapist emphasized eye contact, bouncing, and the client's admitting to being a stutterer during the sixth grade year; another therapist attempted reciprocal inhibition the seventh grade year. The client has forgotten the method used the eighth grade year. A combined therapy approach utilizing both a speech therapist and a clinical psychologist was used the ninth grade year; and,

---

Sandra Martin is a Speech Pathology teacher at Northern Arizona University. L. George Hershey is a Doctor in Flagstaff, Arizona.

EDITORS NOTE: Data for this study was collected by Paul Braun , a student at Northern Arizona University. The client and the data collector met on a weekly basis to make baseline tape recordings of the client performing the aforementioned tasks. The reading passages were varied to provide the client with a variety of challenges and to promote concentration. The conversation samples were unrehearsed discussions of topics which had low propositional content. Topics were selected to give the client a maximum opportunity to speak at length on a given subject and to minimize participation on the part of the d.c. It was the weekly resonsibility of the data collector to listen to the samples and tabulate the results in order to keep the two experimenters abreast of current progress or regression.

the client was exposed to systematic desensitization between the eleventh and twelfth grades. The client had psychotherapy, again, his freshman year in college. Delayed auditory feedback was utilized the final year-and-a-half of his undergraduate career. A complete neurological examination in the summer of 1970 found the client to be "neurologically fit." However, the neurologist prescribed valium for two years. The client made initial contact with the Northern Arizona University Speech and Hearing Clinic in September, 1973, upon his arrival in the community.

Considering the client's history of resistance to therapy, it was assumed that conventional, and already attempted, management techniques were not likely to meet with success. Therefore, the decision was made to attempt to replicate the Massachusetts General Hospital study by Wheelden and Rosenberger. The paper, "The Effect of Haloperidol on Stuttering", was presented at the 1973 American Speech and Hearing Association Convention in Detroit. The study utilized a double blind procedure with seven stutterers and found significant change in speech behavior for four patients while they were receiving the medication as opposed to when they were receiving a placebo.

Because of possible side effects from the medication, strict medical supervision is maintained. Initial and periodic laboratory tests are run to monitor for these side effects. The current level of medication is 1 mg. three times a day. The data which follow indicate the change in the client's speech behavior, which has occurred during the period he had been receiving the medication, without any form of behavior therapy. The original baseline data taken upon the client's initial contact with the clinic (September 17, 1973) are included to indicate the client's relative speech stability over the period prior to the study. The February 1, 1974 baseline was taken the day before he began taking the medication.

The speech sample collected includes vital information, such as name, age, family names, employer's name, telephone number; counting to 25; reading a 130-145 word passage, which was originally a ten minute task; and an estimated ten to fifteen minute sample of conversation. The percent of stuttered words (Figure 1) utilized the word as the smallest unit; thus, numerous stutterings on a multisyllabic word were counted as one stuttering episode. Hyphenated words were considered single words. The rate (Figure 2) was based upon the number of single words per

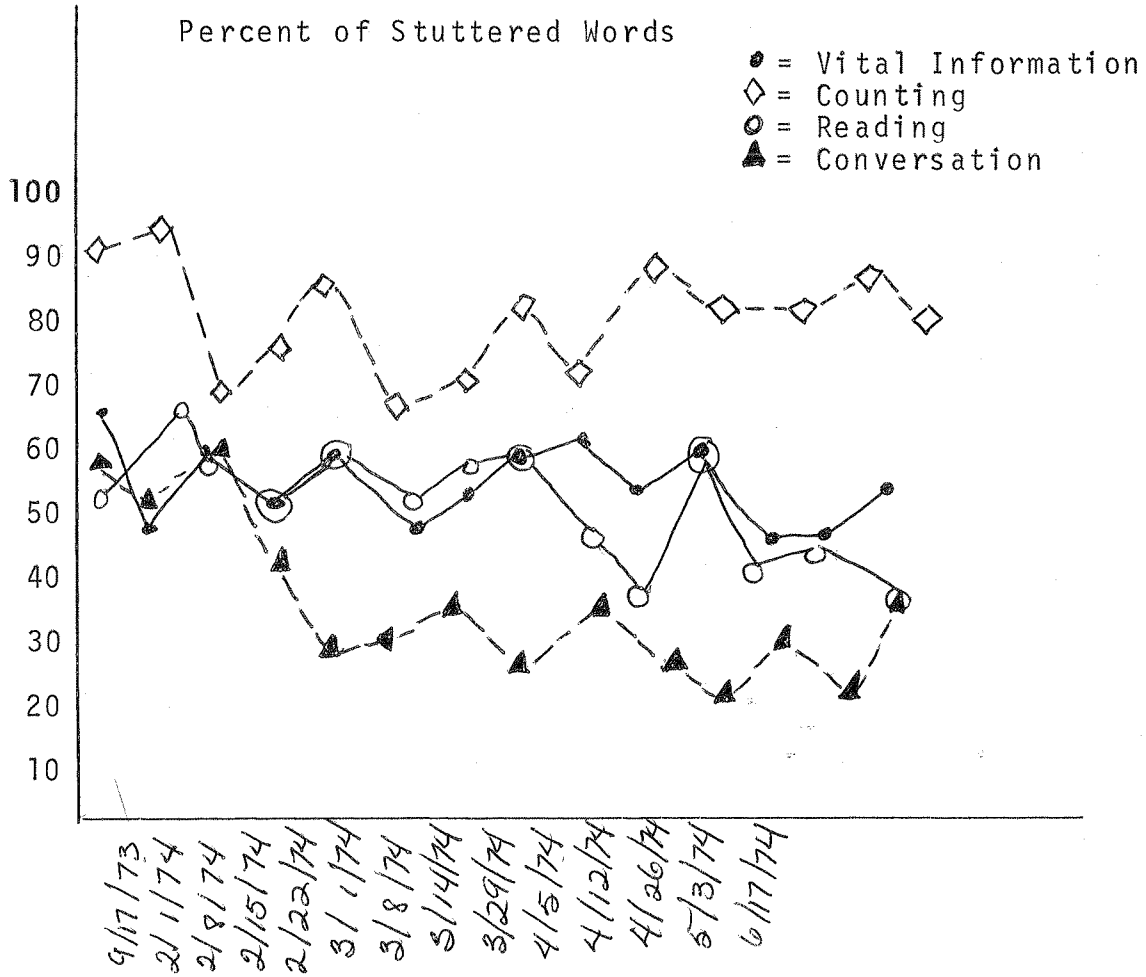
minute. A chart of the data collected is included (Figure 3).

The graphs (Fig. 1 & 2) give a better visual representation of speech change. Generally, the percent of stuttered words is about ten percent less in all tasks; the rate of speech is between two and five times greater in all tasks. The somewhat startling increase in rate, as compared to the more modest decrease in percent of stuttered words, is due to the decrease in multisyllabic stutterings and a decrease in the duration of blocks.

Since no therapy was offered during the time period noted, it appears that the change in speech behavior is due to the haloperidol.

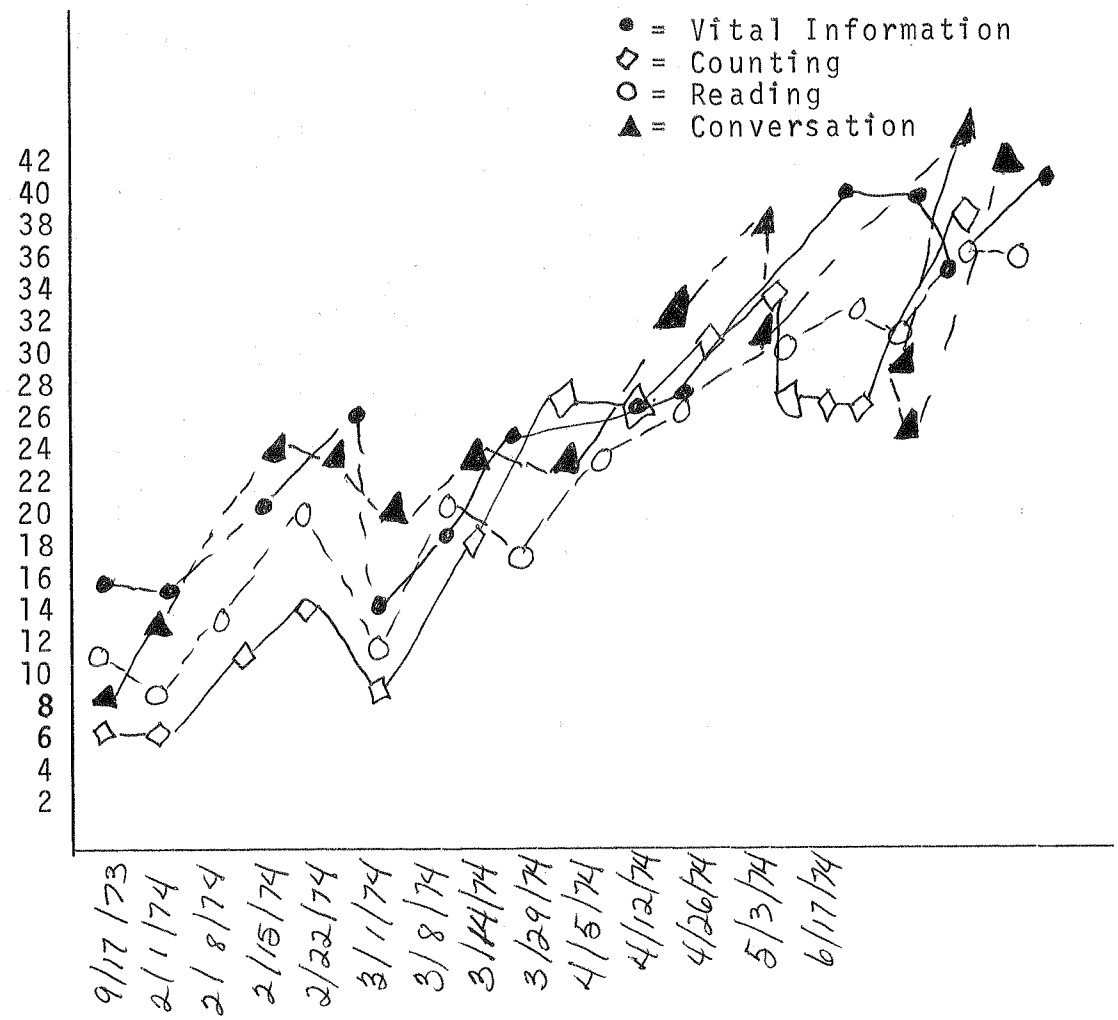
The decision has been made to initiate therapy in conjunction with the medication in an attempt to effect a greater speech change.

(Figure 1)



(Figure 2)

Rate of Speech in Words Per Minute (WPM)



(Figure 3)

date	% information	rate information	% counting	rate counting	% reading	rate reading	% conversation	rate conversation
9-17-73	64.0	12.6	90.0	7.2	53.5	9.8	58.0	7.5
2 -1-74	48.7	13.2	92.0	7.1	66.9	8.6	53.0	12.4
2 -8-74	59.6	17.5	72.0	11.3	58.0	12.9	59.0	21.0
2-15-74	54.0	20.9	76.0	13.1	53.6	17.3	49.0	20.4
2-22-74	60.0	13.0	84.0	9.2	60.3	10.8	32.0	17.6
3 -1-74	50.0	17.5	68.0	15.0	56.0	18.5	34.3	20.8
3 -8-74	54.7	20.5	72.0	20.0	58.8	18.1	36.0	18.7
3-14-74	58.8	20.4	80.0	20.0	59.0	22.6	29.8	23.8
3-29-74	60.0	20.0	72.0	23.1	52.0	24.0	39.0	28.4
4 -5-74	55.0	32.6	84.0	25.0	47.0	25.8	31.4	24.1
4-12-74	59.0	34.1	80.0	21.3	59.0	26.5	26.0	38.9
4-26-74	49.0	29.5	80.0	21.3	46.5	25.4	34.0	24.3
5 -3-74	48.0	37.1	84.0	21.3	47.5	30.8	25.0	21.6
6-17-74	54.0	28.6	80.0	29.1	41.0	30.9	41.0	34.0

TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS TO INDIAN CHILDREN: A SURVEY

By

Clifton O. Johnson

INTRODUCTION

The writer, while enrolled in an independent study course at Northern Arizona University during the Spring Semester of 1974, chose to do a survey consisting of fifty classroom teachers who taught primarily Indian children.

The survey is entitled "Teaching Oral Communication Skills to Indian Children." The purpose of this survey was to find out what communication skills the teachers felt should be taught; the priority given to each skill; the percent of time per day this skill is taught; and the percent of time per day the teacher thought that this skill should be taught.

The teachers were identified by the local school administrations in the Tuba City community. Twenty-five teachers were selected from kindergarten through eighth grade and 25 teachers were selected from the secondary level, grades nine through twelve.

The procedure consisted of the development of two instruments to survey the fifty teachers in the area of oral communication. The instruments were given to the teachers by the local school administrations of Tuba City Boarding School, Tuba City Public Elementary School and the Tuba City High School, which is an amalgamation of Public and Bureau of Indian Affairs school programs.

THE DESIGNING OF THE INSTRUMENTS

Two instruments were needed in order to conduct this survey. The instruments were designed by the writer and

---

Clifton O. Johnson is a Teacher-Administrater in Tuba City, Arizona.

consist of four parts. The writer endeavored to make these instruments as simple as possible, each instrument consisting of only one page and requiring only a short time for the participating teachers to complete. When the first instrument was completed by the participating teachers, this information was compiled and served as the basis for the development of the second instrument, which consists of three parts.

As you will note, the writer asked for percentages on the second instrument, but would change this to "time in actual minutes," if this survey were repeated. Time in minutes would be converted to percent by the writer. It is felt that the participating teachers could have responded more accurately using time in minutes rather than using a percentage.

The First Instrument

The instruction page and the first instrument are inserted next for review. Note that the purpose of the first instrument was to solicit from each teacher 15 basic oral communication skills that they felt should be taught to Indian children. Listed on the left side of the instrument are suggested ideas to assist the teachers in this task.

Dear Fellow Educator:

You have been selected to participate in this survey because of your interest in the education of Indian children. Please complete the attached form. This is a survey relative to the teaching of communication skills to Indian children. The purpose of this survey is to identify those communication skills that teachers feel should be taught to Indian children. A minimum of fifty teachers at Tuba City will participate in this survey. The results of this survey will be shared with all participating teachers.

This survey will be conducted to two parts. The attached represents the first part and the second part will be presented to you after the first part is completed and compiled.

A special box will be placed in the Principal's office marked "Cliff Johnson's Survey," for the deposit of the completed form.

It would be most helpful if you would complete this form within one week.

Thank you.

A SUGGESTED LIST AND/OR IDEAS

List fifteen basic communication skills that you feel should be taught to Indian children. You may use the other side of this form if needed.

Grammar

Sentences (Complete thoughts)

Vocabulary

Organization of ideas

Courtesies (Respect for others speaking)

Attitudes regarding oral communication

Study and research experiences

Giving information

Creative expression

Choral speaking

Listening

Dramatization

Articulation (Audibility, distinctness, enunciation, accurate pronunciation, voice control, pitch, quality and melody)

Word perception

Interpretation

Establishing a background for conversation

Encouraging oral personal reading

Please note: It is not necessary that you sign this form.

Table 1 is based on the compilation of the first instrument and shows the priority in which each communication skill was mentioned by the fifty teachers.

The information in Table 1 was not known by the participating teachers but was the results of the compilation of the first instrument. The communication skills listed in Table 1 served as the basis for the development of the second instrument.

Note that there are only fourteen communication skills listed. The fifteenth skill was listed by the teachers as "reading skills" which would include all of fourteen skills listed and was left out to avoid duplication. From this point forward in this paper, we will be working with fourteen communication skills instead of fifteen.

Table 1

Priority and Number of Times Each Skill Was Mentioned

Communication Skill	Priority	Number of Times This Skill Was Mentioned by the Fifty Teachers
Grammar	1	49
Vocabulary	2	46
Listening	3	42
Sentences	4	36
Creative Expression	5	34
Articulation	5	34
Interpretation	6	33
Organization of Ideas	7	32
Courtesies	7	32
Word Perception	8	30
Giving Information	9	29
Public Speaking	10	23
Dramatization	11	19
Encouraging Oral Reading	12	14

The Second Instrument

The instruction page and the second instrument are inserted next for review. Note that the communication skills most frequently mentioned by the teachers are listed, but they have been scrambled.

March 29, 1974

Dear Fellow Educator:

I would appreciate it very much if you would complete the attached form. This is the second part of the survey relative to the teaching of communication skills to Indian children.

The fifteen communication skills most frequently mentioned by the fifty teachers have been compiled and are listed on the form. You are asked to:

1. Place these skills in a priority from one to fifteen.

2. List the percent of time you use per school day to teach each skill. If you do not teach a certain skill or skills, then put a zero in the column marked "percent of time per day you teach this skill."

3. List the percent of time per day you think each skill should be taught. If you think that a certain skill should not be taught, then place a zero in this column.

A special box will be placed in the Principal's office marked "Cliff Johnson's Survey" for the deposit of the completed form.

It would be most helpful if you would complete this form within one week.

Thank you.

COMPILED LIST	PRIORITY	PERCENT OF TIME PER DAY YOU USE TO TEACH THIS SKILL	PERCENT OF TIME PER DAY YOU THINK THIS SKILL SHOULD BE TAUGHT
DRAMATIZATION	____	____	____
COURTESIES	____	____	____
CREATIVE EXPRESSION	____	____	____
GRAMMAR	____	____	____
SENTENCES	____	____	____
ARTICULATION	____	____	____
ORGANIZATION OF IDEAS	____	____	____
VOCABULARY	____	____	____
INTERPRETATION	____	____	____
WORD PERCEPTION	____	____	____
LISTENING	____	____	____
GIVING INFORMATION	____	____	____
READING SKILLS	____	____	____
PUBLIC SPEAKING	____	____	____
ENCOURAGING ORAL READING	____	____	____

Please note: It is not necessary that you sign this form.

Table 2 is based on the compilation of the second instrument which specifically asked the teachers to place each skill in a priority from one to fifteen. Note that these are the same skills that were listed by the teachers and compiled from the first instrument.

When the teachers were asked to list the fifteen basic communication skills they felt should be taught to Indian children, grammar was listed as number one and word perception was listed as number eight. However, these two skills reversed positions when the teachers were specifically asked to place these skills in a priority from one to fifteen. You will also note that other skills shifted positions significantly. The writer feels that grammar received a high priority on the first instrument because it happened to be listed first on the suggested list. When the teachers were specifically asked to place these skills in a priority, more concentration and judgment were exercised by each teacher and the priority asked for on the second instrument is probably more valid.

The second instrument had two other categories listed and the teachers were asked to respond to each category.

Table 3 is based on a compilation of the percentages listed by the fifty teachers and shows the average percent that the total group used to teach each communication skill per day and also shows the average percent that the total group thought should be used to teach each skill.

According to Table 3 all communication skills listed, with the exception of three, suggest that more teaching time should be allowed for each skill. However, the writer is unaware as to why, for example, that the teachers teach word perception 2.9% per day when they feel that it should be taught 5.6% per day. Table 3 suggests that the teachers do not have adequate in-put in the planning of the curriculum in the Language Arts area or that they do have input, but it is not given full consideration. Usually forty-five percent of the school day is allowed for teaching Language Arts. Perhaps the curriculum specialists, school administrators and teachers should re-examine the time allowed for Language Arts to determine if this is sufficient time to teach these skills to bilingual children.

Let us examine one more point before leaving this table. We know as educators that sentences, grammar, articulation, courtesies and dramatization are very important skills for bilingual children, learning English as a second language. Note that the teachers feel that these skills should be taught almost twice as long as they are now teaching them. To the writer, this is significant and warrants further investigation.

Table 2

Priorities of Communication Skills as Listed by the Teachers

Communication Skill	Priority
Word Perception	1
Encouraging Oral Reading	1
Listening	3
Vocabulary	4
Organization of Ideas	5
Sentences	5
Grammar	6
Interpretation	6
Creative Expression	7
Articulation	7
Courtesies	8
Giving Information	8
Public Speaking	11
Dramatization	12

Table 3

Communication Skills and Time Allocations

Communication Skill	Percent of Time Per Day You Use to Teach This Skill	Percent of Time Per Day You Think This Skill Should Be Taught
Word Perception	2.9%	5.6%
Encouraging Oral Reading	3.6	3.4
Listening	5.3	6.9
Vocabulary	4.0	5.4
Organization of Ideas	5.8	7.0
Sentences	2.8	6.4
Grammar	4.6	8.6
Interpretation	5.4	4.4
Creative Expression	4.0	5.2
Articulation	2.9	6.2
Courtesies	3.6	6.2
Giving Information	6.2	4.5
Public Speaking	1.8	2.0
Dramatization	.7	3.9

SUMMARY

This survey was initiated to identify: 1) the oral communication skill needs of Indian children as perceived by their teachers; 2) the time allotted for specific instruction in these skills; 3) the priority placed on each skill; and 4) correlations between the time allocated to teach these skills and the time the teachers felt should be allocated to teach these skills.

The above is the intent and extent of the survey. The reader is cautioned to read this survey with a great deal of judgment, always keeping in mind that this survey was conducted using fifty teachers and is very brief in scope and sequence.

To the writer's knowledge, no survey of this type has been conducted in the Tuba City community. Although this survey was conducted on a very small scale, it is felt that the results will be of some significance to school administrators, teachers and curriculum specialists in the selection and development of oral communication skills for Indian children.

The writer feels that he has only made a small beginning and hopes that there were enough significant factors brought out in this survey to motivate further study regarding the time used to teach these skills and the time the teachers feel should be used. Table 3 shows some significant differences in the time used by teachers and the time that they thought should be used in teaching the following skills to bilingual children: Word Perception, Sentences, Grammar, Articulation, Courtesies and Dramatization. The writer suggests that a study be conducted regarding the time used to teach these skills. The writer further suggests that this same survey be conducted again on a broader scale, using only grades kindergarten through eighth and that this same survey be conducted on the secondary level, grades nine through twelve and the results compared between the two groups. A study of this nature may prove to be very worthwhile to the Language Arts Curriculum and will probably suggest many changes that would bring the two groups closer together in their teaching of these skills.

The writer is very grateful to the school administrators and the participating teachers for the part they played in making this survey possible.

REPORT ON FIRST NATIONAL READERS THEATRE WORKSHOP

By

Joan Steen Silberschlag

Readers Theatre? Theatre of the Mind? Interpreter's Theatre? Whatever name you call it, this type of theatre by any name is a most unique experience.

Readers Theatre is an activity that I have incorporated as a unit in my classes of speech, oral interpretation and freshman English at Central High. Approximately twenty-five students participate in our "Readers Repertory" and perform various programs for our Performing Arts Department's monthly recitals, community club programs and elementary school students. "Readers Rep" is strictly an extra curricular activity and the students rehearse after school and sometimes on week-ends at each other's homes. Readers Theatre is a fascinating method of bringing life to literature and provides a creative outlet for those students who are interested in performance, but not always cast in plays.

This past summer of 1974, I was one of fifty-six educators who attended the First National Readers Theatre Workshop at San Diego State University, where we were fully immersed in Readers Theatre activities. The Workshop was such an enriching, stimulating and rewarding experience that I feel that <u>every</u> drama and speech teacher in Arizona should experience this marvelous opportunity for personal growth, in learning the techniques, concepts and applications of Readers Theatre in a climate of creativity.

Dr. William J. Adams, a brilliant, inspiring and energetic professor of speech at San Diego State, coordinated the workshop and invited five distinguished guest lecturers, all nationally known, and authors of text books used at all educational levels. Each guest was in residence for one week. It was so exciting to hear and work with: Dr. Charlotte Lee, retired professor from Northwestern University and author of <u>ORAL INTERPRETATION</u>, Dr. Leslie Irene Coger, Southwest Missouri State College, co-author of <u>READERS</u>

Joan S. Silberschlag is a teacher at Central High School, Phoenix, Arizona.

THEATRE HANDBOOK; Dr. Joanna Maclay, University of Illinois, author of READERS THEATRE: TOWARD A GRAMMAR OF PRACTICE; Dr. Robert Breen, Northwestern University, creator of Chamber Theatre; and Paul Gregory, producer of the original Readers Theatre productions of DON JUAN IN HELL and JOHN BROWN'S BODY; and E. Kinglsey Provenmire, professor emeritus, San Diego State, author of CHORAL SPEAKING AND THE VERSE CHOIR.

The six week workshop met daily from 2 to 5 p.m., for six hours credit. Included in the tuition fee was an outstanding entertainment package providing aesthetic awareness of San Diego's cultural and recreational attractions. As a group we attended the Old Globe Theatre, Cassius Carter Theatre, Off-Broadway Theatre, San Diego Symphony, Rueben Fleet Space Theatre, San Diego Zoo, Wild Animal Park, Sea World, and five other activities. The evening before the last class session, the Harbor Cruise boat was reserved for our group for a two-hour cruise, complete with hors d'oeuvres and beverages.

Participants came from various states: New York, Kentucky, Texas, Oregon and Washington. They included graduate and under-graduate students, elementary, high school, junior college and university educators of speech, dramatics, English and school librarians. I was the only one from Arizona. It surprised me that more in our area did not take advantage of this tremendous opportunity. Readers Theatre is certainly not a new concept to our region. The University of Arizona hosts an Oral Interpretation Festival for college and university students every March. Arizona State University has given several outstanding productions in the style of Readers Theatre and, last year, Phoenix College hosted a Readers Theatre Workshop where students from Arizona State University, Mesa Community College and Central High presented programs.

For those people living outside of the San Diego area, a lovely privately owned dormitory, one block from campus, was available for a moderate price. The excellent facilities offered three meals a day, five days a week; a swimming pool, sauna baths, exercise room, recreation room with table-tennis, billiards, pin-ball, etc. Participants could bring their families. My family of three teen-aged boys loved the dorm life, meeting people from other states, and the opportunity to surf every day.

The workshop was organized so that beginning and advanced students were involved in activities to match their experiences. Participants chose what aspect of Readers

Theatre to pursue and everyone in the class performed in at least one production. Some were interested in the selection and compilation of scripts, others in directing and/or performing, while others engaged in research projects. The atmosphere was charged with scintillating dialogue, sharing of ideas and healthy, creative competition.

Those of us performing in productions would rehearse approximately two hours in the morning or in the evening. The guest lecturers critiqued the productions and offered suggestions for other approaches to the presentations, in addition to presenting lectures and conducting exercises. It was a real thrill to meet these people and "pick their brains," having read their books and articles for many years.

A Readers Theatre script file was available in the Speech Office. Master copies were issued on a loan-basis, the student could Xerox or type a copy from the Master. Those who adapted scripts shared their materials with the group.

Innovative ways of presenting Readers Theatre were offered. Students of Dr. Adams presented a repeat of their Spring production of Shakespeare's TROILUS AND CRESSIDA, a very seldom produced, but enchantingly workable play for Readers Theatre.

One of the four productions I was in, was the musical GYPSY. We presented some scenes from this show and were delighted with the results of doing a musical alo Readers Theatre style. The songs were taped and we did voice-sync--what a challenge for an oral interpreter to physically express the emotion of the lyrics without being able to vocalize! I had never considered presenting a musical in Readers Theatre form and now realize this is an ideal low-budget approach to producing musicals. Students could possibly be in a musical a month, if so ambitious.

This October, some of my students and I will demonstrate and present a Readers Theatre program of poetry, short stories, newspaper columns, science fiction and dramatic literature to teachers attending the Arizona English Teachers Conference in Flagstaff. The emphasis of this conference is on reading and it is our intent to interest English and reading teachers to utilize this excellent medium as a means of enriching the reading and language program. Have you as a speech or drama teacher incorporated Readers Theatre in your program? If you haven't tried it - do - you and your students will delight in it. The following bibliography is offered as a spring-

board to assist you in getting started on a creative and inspiring activity.

ENJOY!

N.B. The San Diego "vacation for mind and body" experience was such a wonderful one for me, that I urge speech and drama teachers on all educational levels to attend this workshop next summer. Plan now to attend the Second Annual Readers Theatre Workshop. For information, write to Dr. William J. Adams, Speech Communication Department, San Diego State University, San Diego, California 92115.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bacon, Wallace A. THE ART OF INTERPRETATION. 2nd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972.

_____, and Robert S. Breen. LITERATURE AS EXPERIENCE. New York: MacGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959.

Beck, Roy A. GROUP READING: READERS THEATRE. Skokie, Illinois, National Textbook Company, 1973.

Beloof, Robert. THE PERFORMING VOICE IN LITERATURE. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1966.

Callahan, Daniel J. READERS THEATRE, an annotated bibliography. New York: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading Communication Skills.

Coger, Leslie Irene, and Melvin R. White. READERS THEATRE HANDBOOK: A DRAMATIC APPROACH TO LITERATURE. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1967 & revised edition, 1973.

Geiger, Don. THE SOUND, SENSE, AND PERFORMANCE OF LITERATURE. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1963.

Johnson, Albert and Bertha. PLAYS FOR READERS THEATRE. Hollywood; Samuel French, Inc., 1972.

Lee, Charlotte I. ORAL INTERPRETATION. 4th ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1971.

Maclay, Joanna H. READERS THEATRE: TOWARD A GRAMMAR OF PRACTICE. New York: Random House, Inc., 1971.

Olfson, Lewy. DRAMATIZED CLASSICS FOR RADIO-STYLE READING. Volumes 1 and 2. DRAMATIZED READINGS OF FAMOUS STORIES. RADIO PLAYS FROM SHAKESPEARE. Boston: Plays, Inc.

Povenmire, E. Kingsley. CHORAL SPEAKING AND THE VERSE CHOIR. Cranbury, N.J. A.S. Barnes. 1974

Roloff, Leland H. THE PERCEPTION AND EVOCATION OF LITERATURE. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1973.

The Arizona Speech and Drama Association recently presented its "Outstanding Teacher Award." This annual award was given to Klonda Lynn.

Klonda Lynn taught in various locations in the State of Arizona for more than forty years. She was Associate Professor at Northern Arizona University for seventeen years. (At that time, the school was known as Arizona State College.) She then joined the University of Arizona Speech Department where she served as department head from 1955-1964.

Klonda Lynn had perhaps taught more students than any other teacher in the state. Among her many are such well known names as Raul Castro, candidate for Governor, and Charles Ares, Former Dean of Law at the U. of A. Upon her retirement, Klonda said, "As I end this lifelong association with young minds, I realize no greater pleasure can come to one than having had a small hand in the maturing process of our youth."

When presenting the "Outstanding Teacher" award to Klonda at the Spring, 1974 ASDA Convention, Frank LaBan, Chairman of the Speech Department at the U. of A., stated: "She is one of the few people I have known who, when she says she is a teacher, indeed is exactly that. The whole teaching process to her is a worthwhile work which she regards with dignity and pride."