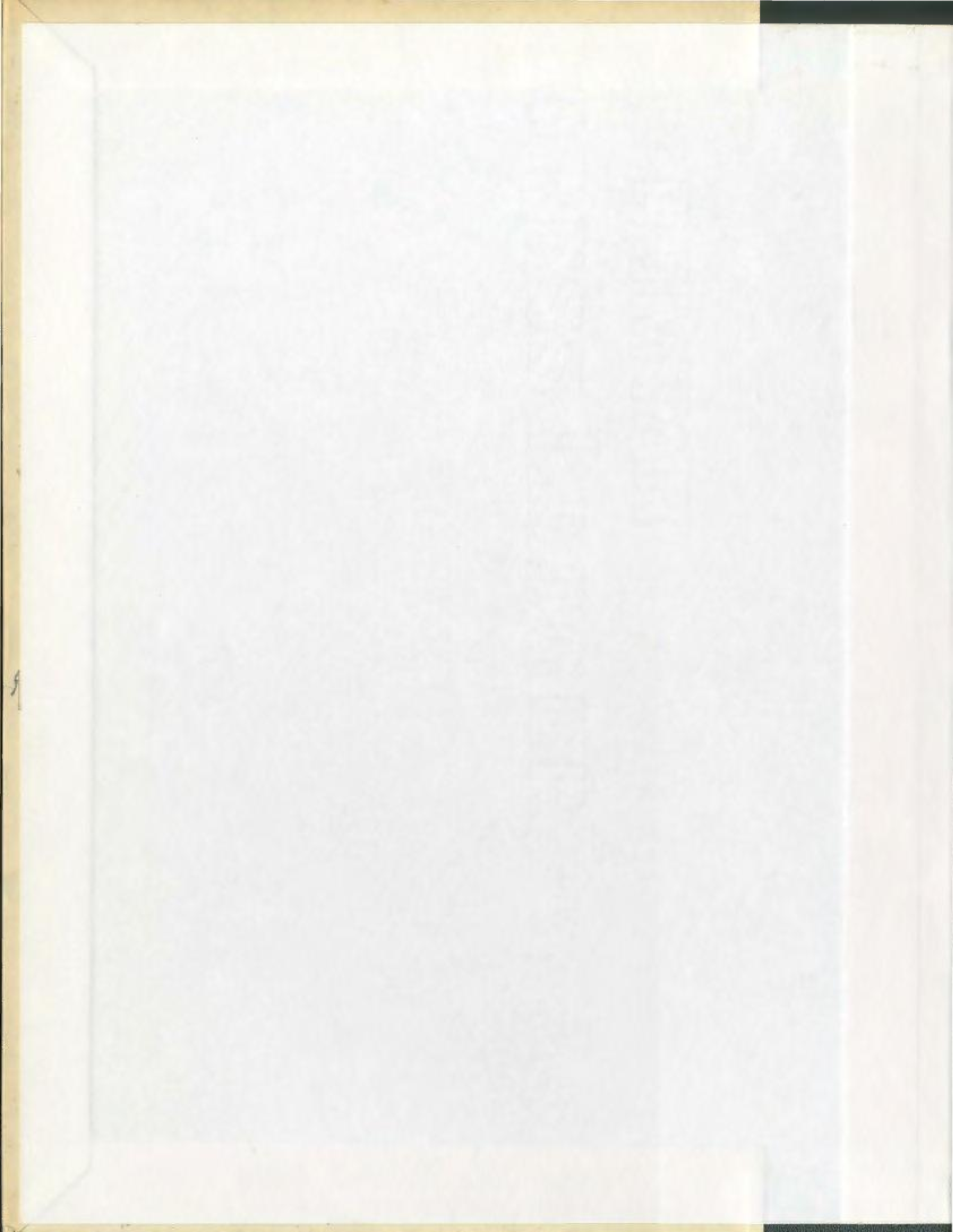
THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIES FOR TREATING AND PREVENTING RETICENCE IN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

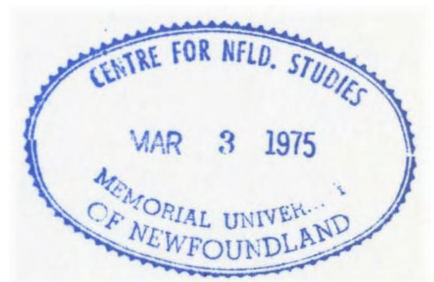
TOTAL OF 10 PAGES ONLY
MAY BE XEROXED

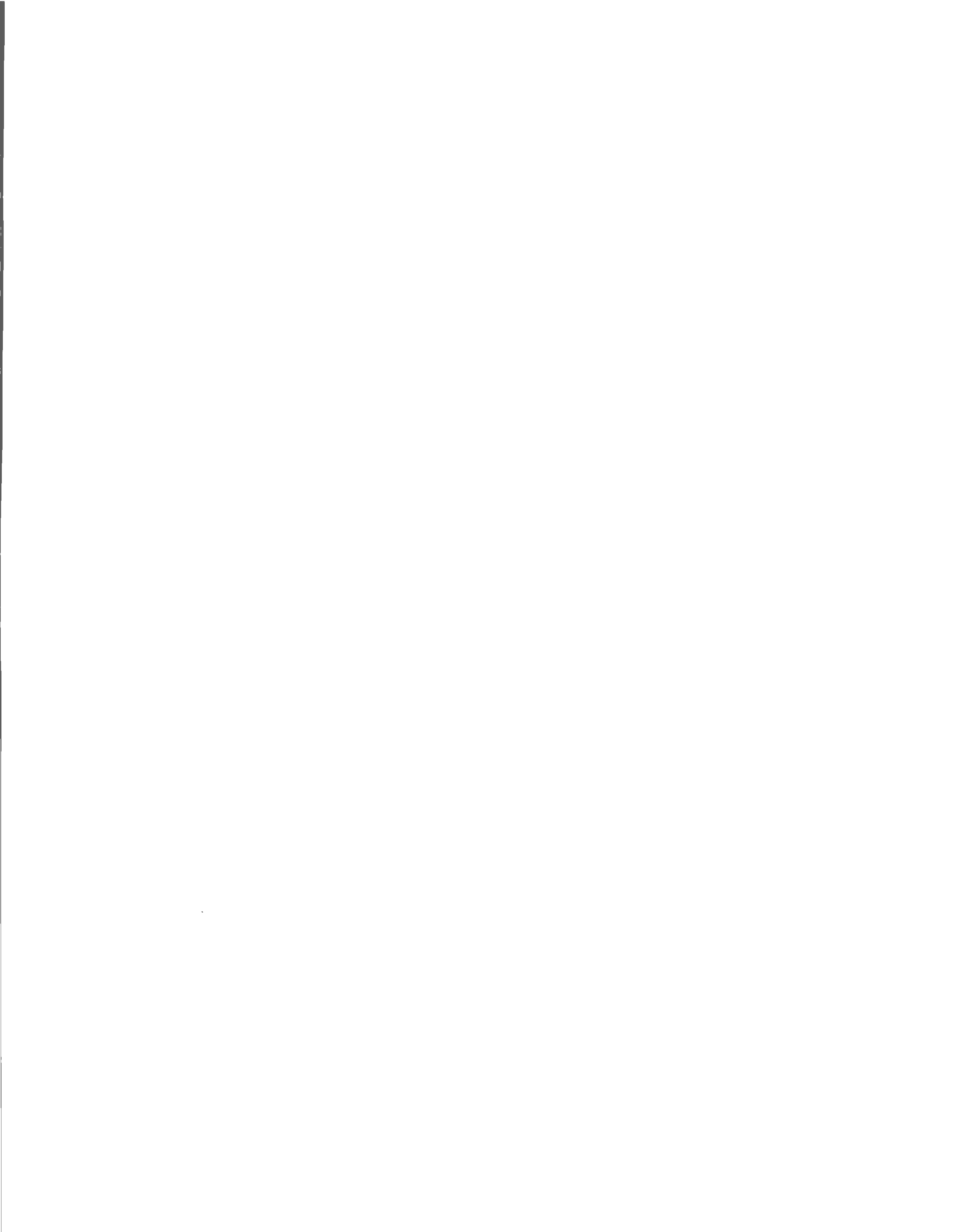
(Without Author's Permission)

THOMAS J. FARRELL



372577





THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIES FOR TREATING AND PREVENTING RETICENCE IN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by

THOMAS J. FARRELL

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Education

Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Memorial University of Newfoundland
Fall, 1973

St. John's Newfoundland

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge the assistance and guidance provided during the course of this study. Special thanks are extended to Mr. Bernard Boressoff, the supervisor of the writing of this thesis, for his helpful suggestions and expressions of confidence.

I am also indebted to Dr. Lloyd Brown and Dr. Edward Jones for their constructive criticisms and encouragement.

Especially do I wish to thank Jennifer, my wife, without whose love, encouragement, and support this thesis could not have been written.

ABSTRACT

Many writers in both psychology and education--Rogers, Johnson, Maslow, Glasser--maintain that effective oral communication is essential for self-actualization, mental health, and acceptance in society. Unfortunately, however, a large portion of our society is unable to communicate orally when it wishes because their anxiety about the communication act outweighs or precludes the consideration of a successful performance. That is, a large section of society suffers from reticence.

The main purpose of this thesis, then, is to examine the literature on oral communication, reticence, education, and psychology with a view to presenting principles and strategies for use in the high school classroom as a prevention and treatment of reticence.

This examination is presented in five chapters. Chapter I serves as an introduction to the study and explains the purpose, design, and significance of the study. Chapter II reviews the literature on reticence, including definitions of reticence, the relationship between speech and personality, and possible causes of reticence. Such a review is necessary because it provides an understanding of reticence and the reticent person. In attempting to treat reticent students, one must consider what is known about those students. Therefore, Chapter III reviews the literature on the high school student--

his physical, psychological, and intellectual development; his interests; and the influence of the peer group on him. Chapter IV presents the views and research of experts on self-concept. It presents various views of self-concept, shows how self-concept is developed and measured, and shows the relationship between self-concept and achievement. It also presents the manner in which self-concept can be changed. Finally, Chapter V presents a synthesis of the previous chapters, building the framework for the principles and strategies that follow.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	THE NATURE OF THE STUDY	1
	Introduction	1
	Purpose of the Study	8
	Design of the Study	8
	Significance of the Study	9
II.	REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES: RETICENCE	11
	Introduction	11
	Speech and Personality	15
	Early Views of Reticence	17
	Causes of Reticence	20
	Summary	25
III.	THE ADOLESCENT	27
	The Adolescent Period	27
	Physical Development	30
	Psychological Development	32
	Intellectual Development	36
	Adolescent Interests	39
	Adolescence and the Peer Group	41
	Summary	44
IV.	THE SELF-CONCEPT	46
	Varying Views of Self-Concept	46
	Measurement of Self-Concept	55
	Development of Self-Concept	56

CHAPTER PAGE

Self-Concept and Achievement 60

Changing Self-Concept 64

Summary 69

V. CONCLUSION 72

Synthesis 72

Principles 80

Strategies 97

Concluding Statement 126

BIBLIOGRAPHY 128

APPENDIX 139

CHAPTER I

THE NATURE OF THE STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION

The development of speech and the acquisition of language are two of the most necessary and fundamental of a human being's accomplishments. They are important to him as a means of asserting his psychological independence and of developing his self-concept. They are equally important in helping him to define his role in society and in the various cultural agencies under whose influence he comes. To the family, the peer group, the school, and the larger socioeconomic culture, the speech of a person serves as a measure of his intelligence and abilities. This is especially true in the modern world where such great stress is placed upon communication in general, but especially upon oral communication. Howell (in Casmir and Harms, 1970) has stated:

> The importance of speech as a method of getting things done is more generally recognized today than ever before....Governmental, educational, and business organizations are relying upon the spoken word to an unprecedented extent [p.v].

Phillips (in Erickson, 1970) has also stressed the importance of oral communication in the modern world:

> Skill at communication is necessary to success in most occupations. A recent survey

> of executives and government leaders turned up the interesting fact that ability to talk with others is considered a more vital skill in those seeking advancement than specific technical training [p. 258].

In an editorial in the Saturday Review, Norman Cousins (1964) said, "Hope today--and it may be the only hope--resides in the world-wide emergence of the articulate and communicating citizen [p. 3]." The Newsom Report (1963) stated the importance of oral communication in this way:

> There is no gift like the gift of speech; and the level at which people have learned to use it determines the level of their companionship and the level at which their life is lived [p. 118].
>
> This matter of communication affects all aspects of social and intellectual growth. There is a gulf between those who have, and the many who have not, sufficient command of words to be able to listen and discuss rationally; to express ideas and feelings clearly; and even to have any ideas at all. We simply do not know how many people are frustrated ~~in~~ their lives by inability ever to express themselves adequately; or how many never develop intellectually because they lack words with which to think and reason. This is a matter as important to economic life as it is to personal living; industrial relations as well as marriages come to grief on failures in communication [p. 15].

Harvey (1968) said, "We know that the inorate child is at a disadvantage in every kind of personal relationship, private and public[p. 17]." Harvey also pointed out that the inorate child may fail to make a proper connection with other people at every level and so may suffer from a deep sense of frustration and never develop his full personal potential.

The importance of oral communication as a preserver of mental health was demonstrated by Phillips (in Erickson, 1970) when he said, "There are indeed a number of highly reputable psychologists who regard training in oral communication as the front line in the battle for mental health [p. 257]."

Thus, it is generally accepted that oral communication is important in mental health, in educational achievement, in developing a sense of identity, in contributing to the improvement of society, and in advancing in one's occupation. Why, then, are so many students graduating from our schools without the ability to express themselves orally whenever they wish?

The answer to this question seems to fall into several parts. First, although many educators are calling for increased emphasis to be placed on oral communication training in the curriculum, this call has not been heeded by the majority of high school systems in Canada and the United States. Squire and Applebee (1968), in reporting the findings of a study of the state of the English curriculum in the United States, concluded, "In short, the evidence indicates that the teaching of speech is given short shift in a majority of English programs in the study [p. 257]."

In those systems where the development of effective oral communication is one of the stated objectives, the problem seems to be that the importance of oral communication

has not filtered down to the classroom and has not been effectively put into action by the teacher. Teachers assume that there is no need to teach oral communication since the students can obviously speak already. Squire and Applebee (1968) reported, "Not only is little time consciously devoted to speech instruction, but even the opportunities provided by class discussion are ignored or mishandled by the majority of teachers [p. 157]."

As the report by Squire and Applebee indicates, many of the teachers who do recognize the necessity of training in oral communication mishandle this training in their classrooms. These teachers provide opportunities and training in public speaking, debating, and drama for their students. Unfortunately, such training reaches only a small number of students in most cases, and even where such training is provided for all students, a misunderstanding of the psychology of communication may be causing untold damage to some students, instead of those suffering from reticence. Phillips (in Erickson, 1970) pointed this out:

> In many schools, too, oral communication training is directed toward a special interest program for exceptionally talented students. The elective public speaking course, the debate team, and the drama group normally draw students who are not intimidated by self exposure and who may even have a prurient drive toward self exposure [p. 257].

The harm done to some students who are exposed to the typical speech course with its emphasis on public speaking may be incalculable and irreparable. The assumption

that repeated exposure to the speaking situation will lessen the threat and increase the self confidence of the student is false in a large number of cases. Masserman (in Scher, 1962, pp. 57-63) demonstrated that conflict in motivations may induce coping behavior but heighten anxieties in subsequent experiences. This means that in a situation where a person experiences anxieties arising from two or more possible actions, he will choose the action which causes the lesser anxiety. However, even though he performs the action, his anxieties about that action will not lessen but will increase, so that the action becomes more difficult for him to perform in the future. As an example, the needs motivated by the grading system and the teacher may induce a student to manage his fears and to survive a speech in the classroom. This experience, however, could reinforce his anxieties and impair his ability to function in future experiences.

To date, no in-depth study of the state of oral communication training has been done on a national level in the United States or in Canada. Several smaller studies have been done, however. Typical of these is a study undertaken in Pennsylvania in 1966. Dunham (1966, pp. 63-65) found that most schools offered speech in some form at all grade levels, the most frequent being the special unit of less than one week. Although many terms were used to describe the course or unit being taught, public speaking was the most frequent. An alarming find of Dunham's study

was that only 23 per cent of those teachers teaching speech felt well prepared to teach it. In fact, 34 per cent stated that they felt inadequately prepared to teach speech.

The situation is not as pessimistic as it may seem to be. There are some schools (and their numbers are growing quickly) which have recognized the necessity of a good oral communication program and have instituted good programs. One example of such a school system would be the Nassau County system in New York. Boressoff (1967, p. 3) reported that the majority of junior and senior high schools in Nassau County offer speech courses to their students.

If oral communication training is important for a person with no major problem in speech, it is vital for a reticent speaker. Reticence is a serious speech and personality defect which hinders an individual from fulfilling his potential as a human being and from contributing his best to society. In the past the problems of the reticent person have gone unnoticed and unaided. This is partly due to the fact that the reticent person is quiet and does not create any disturbances. He is very easy to ignore and even to praise as being easy to get along with. Another reason for neglect of the reticent person is that reticence is often mistaken for stagefright and is treated as such. Unfortunately, the methods that cure stagefright only complicate the problem of reticence.

The reticent person, then, is a problem only to himself. He is to be found on the fringes of social groups

looking as if he is listening attentively. His ideas, thoughts, and problems are never expressed, for he is afraid of being ridiculed and/or rejected. And that is the saddest aspect of reticence, for the reticent person is usually very frustrated and very lonely. He is unable to relate to others, is afraid to seek help for his personal problems, and usually blunders along attempting to solve his problems by himself. At the very least, he does not fulfill his potential as a human being and does not make his best possible contribution to society. At the very worst, his condition deteriorates until he falls victim to mental illness.

In most schools students at both extremes receive help and training. Students with obvious speech handicaps receive help in the classroom and in the clinic. Students who are obviously good oral communicators receive help in the form of debating, public speaking, and drama training. But little is done for the reticent speaker. If reticence has such harmful effects, then strategies must be developed which can be used by teachers in their classrooms to prevent and treat reticence. Since good interpersonal communication is essential for the full development of an individual and for his advancement in his chosen career, steps must be taken immediately to treat reticent individuals and to prevent the growth of reticence in those not yet reticent.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of this study is to examine the literature on oral communication, reticence, psychology, and education with a view to drawing up principles and strategies that high school teachers can employ in their classrooms to prevent the growth of reticence in non-reticent students and to reduce the amount of reticence in reticent students. These principles and strategies will be derived from the psychology of learning, the psychology of communication, social psychology, reality therapy, and theories of effective and humanistic education.

III. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

First, there will be a review of the literature on reticence. The discussion will include the following: definitions and characteristics of reticence; an exploration of the relationship between speech and personality, reticence and speech, reticence and personality; early views of reticence; and possible causes of reticence. Such a survey is important because it provides some insight into the nature of reticence.

In discussing an instructional program for children, one is obliged to consider what is known about the child--his physical, psychological, intellectual, and social characteristics. Chapter III presents a discussion of these topics with reference to the high school student.

Since a positive self-concept is essential in treating and preventing reticence, Chapter IV presents a discussion of self-concept--its history, definition, measurement, and development. This chapter also shows the relationship of self-concept to achievement and presents some of the basic principles for changing a negative self-concept into a positive one.

Chapter V presents principles and strategies for treating and preventing reticence. These principles and strategies are based on the findings of the rest of the study.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is based on the view that reticence is a problem which must immediately be dealt with, and for which it is possible to draw up a program based upon what is known about psychology, education, and oral communication. This study will show that this is possible by providing a synthesis of research and views on reticence, oral communication, psychology, and education. It will provide principles and strategies that teachers in high school can use in their classrooms for treating and preventing reticence.

To date there are no programs available to treat reticence in the high school classroom. On the university level, Pennsylvania State and Kansas State have developed programs for treating reticence in the university classroom. At the University of Alberta a program has been developed

for treating severely reticent students in a clinic. At Memorial University of Newfoundland a program is presently being developed in oral communication with an emphasis on treating reticence in the high school classroom. The findings of all of these programs will be utilized in this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES: RETICENCE

I. INTRODUCTION

Reticence has been defined as "...the avoidance of social, verbal interaction; unwillingness to communicate unless prodded; disposed to be silent; not inclined to speak freely; reserved [Barnhard, 1950]." Muir (1964), in the first study of reticence, defined it as "...a disordered communication pattern manifested in abnormal silence [p. 104]." Steward (1968) defined the reticent individual as "...one for whom the anxiety which accompanies the communicative act consistently outweighs the projected reward or precludes the consideration of a successful performance [p. 4]." Phillips (1968) described the reticent student in the following way:

> He is unusually quiet and tends to avoid interaction. He is reluctant to discuss ideas and problems with others and seems inordinately intimidated by superordinates. He rarely asks questions, does not socialize well, and physical upsets are often associated with his attempts to communicate. Though he may be able to handle minimal communicative requirements, face-to-face contact with others normally threatens him. He does not anticipate success in communicative transactions involving speech [p. 40].

The reticent student, then, is a threat to nobody since his problems are entirely his own and his frustrations are seldom vented on others. He is usually pleasant to have in class since he never interrupts the flow of a

lecture by asking a question. At the same time, however, he will never volunteer an answer and may even leave class rather than be forced to participate orally. Socially the reticent individual suffers a great deal:

> Because of his desire to avoid verbal interaction, however, he is usually found on the fringe of social groups. He may often be found sitting with others, looking attentive, but contributing little to the conversation. He is not a good sounding board for people with problems, for, even if he wants to respond, he finds it very difficult. He tries to solve most of his own problems--alone, for better or worse--because he cannot speak freely to counselors and advisors....He offers no arguments, raises no questions; in conversation, he will not match wits with others....He makes few enemies, albeit few close friends [Phillips et al, 1970, pp. 131-132].

Phillips (1968, p. 40) further explained that people having contact with a reticent person may describe him as "shy," "tight-lipped," "curt," "uncommunicative," "withdrawn," "close-mouthed," "fearful," "apprehensive," "anti-social," and may apply other adjectives which imply denigration.

Several studies have been undertaken to determine the characteristics of reticent students. Phillips (1968, pp. 41-43), in a study of the diary reports of 198 college-age students who had been identified as being reticent, identified nine features:

1. Reticent students reported shakiness which interfered with their attempts to communicate.

2. Reticent students reported that during attempts to speak they were conscious of physical symptoms (loud or rapid heartbeat, headache, nausea, etc.) and they felt no sense of relief or accomplishment at the completion of communication.

3. Reticent students reported that, on occasion, they found it necessary to break off communication with someone abruptly because of their fears and apprehension.

4. Reticent students expressed inability to communicate with "important" people like teachers and counselors.

5. Others, such as parents or teachers, had called communicative inadequacies to the attention of reticents, or, at least, reticent speakers remembered more occasions when this had happened than normal speakers remembered.

6. Most reticent students had an image of themselves as being excessively quiet and saw themselves as being consistently on the fringes of social gatherings.

7. Reticent students felt compelled to be unnaturally apologetic when their ideas were challenged and they interpreted questions about the content of communication as personal criticisms.

8. Reticent students preferred to communicate in writing where possible.

9. Most reticent students expressed singular inability to talk with their parents.

Muir (1964, pp. 96-97) and Steward (1968, pp. 41-51), in two separate studies, both discovered very similar characteristics of the reticent students they studied. The reticent students in both studies reported: (1) being extremely conscious of the manner in which they phrased their ideas; (2) having little difficulty in communicating with those who demanded a minimum of communicative responsibility, e.g., young children, pets, and accepting family members; and (3) having the greatest difficulty in communicating with authority figures.

Phillips and Metzger (1973, pp. 14-15) listed several characteristics of reticent students which have

been identified in virtually every reticent student found in the Pennsylvania State Speech Program over the past five years:

1. Reticents are observed as maladroit in most social situations.

2. Reticents tend to see themselves as potentially more important than other people see them, and thus, reticents appear to be waiting for someone to make the first move toward them. In general, even when moves are made to communicate with them, however, they do not seem to know what to do.

3. Reticents tend to set excessively high standards for themselves and then become frustrated and eventually demoralized when they cannot meet them.

4. Reticents are generally indecisive.

5. Reticents generally do not understand the communication process and, since they do not understand their role in communication, they do not want to take responsibility for outcomes in communication.

6. Reticents see their situational failures as global. They appear to be anxious, as opposed to tense, about their relations with other people.

7. Reticents report physical symptoms associated with their attempts to speak with others. They report, among other symptoms, rapid breathing, audible heartbeat, sweating, upset stomach, and shaking limbs. These symptoms are present before, during, and after communication experiences.

Thorensen (1966) found similar characteristics in his study of 657 male and 367 female freshmen students at Stanford University and concluded:

> In many ways, the most significant characteristic of the non-participant involves interpersonal factors. He closely resembles the individual who feels uncomfortable in social group situations, who does not perceive himself as being capable of displaying any social initiative, and who describes himself with such adjectives as "timid," "awkward," and "reserved [p. 207]."

In summary, the reticent speaker, dreading failure in his performance, is in a perpetual state of self-consciousness, tension, apprehension, and fear of freezing at some stage of his speaking. He limits his choices among possible responses to interpersonal contact, and once he discovers a method which seems to exempt him from anxiety-producing situations, he habitually uses it. Should he be forced into a speaking situation, he may sometimes resolve immediate tensions and be able to perform, but only at the expense of heightening his anxieties in future communication situations.

These then, are the general characteristics of the reticent individual. It must be remembered, however, that there are varying degrees of reticence. This means that not every reticent person will possess all of these characteristics, nor will each person possess them to the same degree, nor at all times. Different moods of the individual and varied situations can alter the visible characteristics of reticence. Nevertheless, reticent persons do exhibit these general characteristics.

II. SPEECH AND PERSONALITY

The first reference in the standard literature of the speech profession to the relationship between speech and personality was made by Murray (1937, p. 4). Since that time, speech and personality have been widely acknowledged to be closely related by authorities in all fields.

Van Riper (1963) stated, "Speech is the peculiarly human function and its disorders reflect all the complex troubles of humanity [p. 11]." Barbara (1958), in explaining the premise upon which he based his book, said, "This book has grown out of the following belief: Speech and personality are one [p. xi]." Wolpe (in Travis, 1957) stated that "...speech is an integral part of the personality structure of the individual [p. 995]." Becker (1962, p. 29) pointed out that speech is the most significant projection of human personality, so intrinsic that it cannot be studied or treated without involving personality. Eisenson, Auer, and Irwin (1963) explained that "...speech and personality parallel one another and personality is directly expressed in speech [p. 340]."

The literature also indicates that reticence is a speech defect, as can be seen from Van Riper's statement:

> Speech is defective when it deviates so far from the speech of other people that it calls attention to itself, interferes with communication, or causes its possessor to be maladjusted [p. 16].

Berry and Eisenson (1965) stated, "In a broad sense, any speech deviation, however small, becomes a significant defect if it interferes with a speaker's social adjustment [p. 1]." Phillips (in Erickson, 1970, pp. 332-333) pointed out that reticence is a speech defect according to these definitions because it does interfere with communication. The reticent individual is unable to communicate in many situations, is maladjusted, frustrated, and unable to cope with commun-

ication in a social setting.

Reticence, being a speech defect, is also closely related to personality defects, as Muir (1964) stated:

> Insights derived from general semantics and psychology tend to show that an individual's language behavior is related to his personality. A personality maladjustment would be manifested through deviant communication behavior [p. 6].

Travis (1957) said, "A speech disorder is a disorder of the person as well as a disorder in the reception and transmission of spoken language [p. v]." Chess (1944, pp. 488-489) pointed out that inability to achieve adequate communication prevents children from developing both internal self-understanding and societal meaning, and that this speech disorder causes a personality disorder which in turn affects communication, and a vicious circle is set in motion.

In summary, the literature shows that speech and personality are inextricably intertwined, that reticence is a speech defect, and that reticence is closely related to personality defects.

III. EARLY VIEWS OF RETICENCE

Early attempts to understand reticence associated it with stagefright, stuttering, neurosis, and schizophrenia. Stagefright has been designated by teachers of public speaking and acting as the fear of public performance (Phillips in Erickson, 1970, p. 43). Studies have shown that a person suffering from stagefright shows qualities of shyness, seclusiveness, withdrawal, depression, and a

variety of personality problems, as Goodstein (1958, p. 364) has pointed out.

Although reticent individuals show many of the same characteristics as those suffering from stagefright, the literature shows that reticence and stagefright are not the same. Phillips and Metzger (1973, p. 17) showed that stagefright victims focus their attention and concern on a specific performance situation, but reticent people display a more generalized concern or anxiety. Although unpleasant feelings may be evoked in the reticent person by specific communication situations, his concern goes beyond a specific type of situation and pervades most of his interpersonal relationships. Kleinsasser (1968, p. 79) reported that the use of systematic desensitization as a remedy for speech fears proved effective with those individuals diagnosed as suffering from stagefright, but not with those individuals suffering from reticence. This is further proof that stagefright is specific to public performance, while reticence is general to most communication situations.

Stuttering has also been associated with reticence. Johnson (1958, p. 23) showed that stuttering is an anxiety-motivated avoidant response. Muir (1964, p. 100) stated that reticence and stuttering are evaluative disabilities that occur in the social speech situation. Although these and other statements tend to indicate that reticence and stuttering are two different forms of the same communication disorder, recent research indicates that they have many

similarities but are different disorders. Muir (1964, pp. 105-106) hypothesized that stuttering, stagefright, and reticence are closely related speech disorders with many of the same characteristics and causes. Phillips and Metzger (1973, p. 17) concluded that, although stuttering and reticence are different disorders, some consideration needs to be given to the hypothesis that at least some forms of reticent behavior are similar to stuttering.

The literature also indicates that reticence is closely associated with neurotic behavior. Schachter, Meyer, and Loomis (1962, p. 585) generalized that any failure to use speech for conventional purposes of communication may be considered a sign of mental illness to a greater or lesser degree. Of the person who is unable to communicate verbally, Barbara (1958) said:

> Unable to face himself most times in a realistic sense, one of the resigned person's active neurotic solutions is to remove himself from the conflicting situation by assuming the attitude of being the onlooker or non-participating spectator. He represses or denies many of his real feelings and desires by placing inhibitions and checks in the path of their expression [p. 480].

Phillips and Metzger (1973) stated, "The reticent communicator may be viewed as neurotic, for his avoidance of communication can be seen as a defense against social situations about which he is anxious [p. 15]."

Thus, the literature reveals that there is a close association between reticence and neuroses. Certainly, more research is needed in this area because reticence, if it is

not a neurosis in the true sense of the word, can be a transitional state, a way station to mental illness. The reticent person, if not helped, can very easily deteriorate and fall victim to mental illness.

Several writers have associated reticence with schizophrenia. Brady (1958, p. 473) is typical of these writers with his view that reduced or modified verbal output is a primary symptom of schizophrenia. However, Mosse (1958, p. 185), among others, attacked the overuse of the diagnosis of schizophrenia in these cases of reduced verbal output. Phillips and Metzger (1973) also disagreed with Brady's view when they state, "Employing the law of equifinality, however, we need not conclude that schizophrenic appearing behaviors necessarily are symptoms of schizophrenia [p. 16]." The Law of Equifinality, according to Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967, p. 127), means that in social systems behaviors which appear to be similar may arise for very different reasons. That is, while some of the symptoms of reticence and schizophrenia are similar, reticence is not thought to be a form of schizophrenia.

IV. CAUSES OF RETICENCE

Attempts to determine the causes of reticence have been very few. However, several studies have determined those factors which hinder the development of oral communication in general. Typical of these studies is that of Wilkinson (1948, p. 308) who, in a study to determine the

factors which are unfavorable to good speech development, reported the following causes in the order of the frequency with which they were reported:

1. Fear of laughter, forgetting, and opinions of others.
2. Organic malformation.
3. Limited experience in self-expression.
4. Disintegrating experiences in junior and senior high school.
5. Dominating parents.
6. Lack of social contacts because of limited environment.
7. Teacher criticism and ridicule.
8. Position among siblings unfavorable.
9. Poor English and speech environment.

Several of these same factors have also been advanced as being causes for the growth of reticence. The atmosphere of the home is especially important to the development of good speech habits, and thus, to the prevention of the growth of reticence. Phillips (1968, pp. 46-47) pointed out that if the parents are the type who tend to regard a quiet child as preferable to a noisy one, the child may become set in a pattern of non-participation in oral communication situations. If talk in the home has no apparent use other than as a vehicle for abuse or ventilation of feelings, the child may also withdraw from participation in oral communication. Phillips reasoned that in homes where children observe the hostility of parents toward each other and toward the children, it may

not be possible for the child to learn that there are social rewards to be reaped from communicative effectiveness.

Johnson (1946), in speaking of excessively quiet individuals, said:

> In varying degrees such individuals show histories of having been ridiculed, criticized, and even punished for expressing their views as children. They have been led to feel that what they have to say is unimportant, or uninteresting, or unintelligent, or uncouth, or generally inappropriate [p. 250].

The findings of Steward (1968, p. 48) tended to confirm this view that the atmosphere of the home has a great influence on the development of reticence. Steward found that all the reticent students in his study reported that one or more members of their immediate families were people with whom the prospect of oral communication produced much tension.

The atmosphere of the classroom also has an influence on the development of reticence. As Phillips (1968, p. 46) observed, the teacher who is concerned primarily with maintaining silence in the classroom, or who is critical of a student's speech, is providing an environment which is detrimental to the fostering of growth in oral communication. For the speaker who is inclined to be reticent, teacher criticism only reinforces his negative feelings of himself. Muir (1964, p. 141) has traced back several cases of reticence to such criticisms offered by teachers.

Phillips and Metzger (1973) stated that reticent behavior may be considered as being due to a problem in learning:

> We could hypothesize that reticent people do not have appropriate orientations because they either have not learned them, or because what they learned is inappropriate to the situations in which they find themselves [p. 19].

This hypothesis is supported by the fact that, as reported above,[1] a large number of reticent individuals display considerable indecisiveness in any communication situation. They do not participate because they have not learned what is required of them in the communication act.

A lack of firmly-held values also seems to be a cause of reticence. Muir (1964, pp. 107-108) formed three hypotheses based on her study of reticent individuals:

1. The clarity with which values are defined and the degree of conviction with which they are held appears to be a factor influencing the individual's communicative behavior.

2. Reticent behavior occurs when the individual perceives his values to be in conflict with the values of society and at the same time lacks firmly held convictions.

3. Reticent behavior occurs when the individual perceives a contradiction between stated values and manifest behavior of significant others.

Phillips (in Erickson, 1970) also showed the relationship between values and the growth of reticence:

> If the individual is suitably other-directed, he will also have no trouble altering his behavior and values to suit those of the mode. On the other hand, the individual who still clings to an inner-directed set may feel values and behaviors hostile to his own and find it necessary to adopt a reticence mechanism to prevent discovery and threat to his value deviation [p. 335].

---

[1]see page 11.

Thus, it can be seen that the individual who is not secure in his belief in his values may have a tendency to withdraw from any situation in which he feels his values are threatened. That is, reticent behavior can be caused by a lack of conviction about one's values.

Another cause of reticence, and one which encompasses all the others, is the lack of a healthy self-concept. Johnson (1946), in talking about those people whom he classified as being excessively quiet, said:

> Some individuals, overcome by feelings of inferiority and of guilt, appear to project these self-evaluations on to others, and so take it for granted that these others regard them as unworthy. They do not feel welcome. In some cases they are literally ashamed of themselves. They feel that if they say anything their listeners too will be ashamed of them and for them, and will more completely reject them [p. 249].

Barbara (1958) is also of this opinion when he said, "In the last analysis, ineffectual verbalization results from faulty personality integration in one who is insecure, inadequate, tense and alienated [p. 141]."

Not enough research has been done to determine the exact relationship between reticence and an unhealthy self-concept. It is not known if reticence gives rise to feelings of inadequacy and an unhealthy self-concept, or if an unhealthy self-concept leads to reticent behavior. However, as Phillips and Metzger (1973, p. 20) concluded, a lack of a healthy self-concept is definitely a factor in the growth of reticence in some individuals.

It must be made clear that, although all of these factors have been advanced as being some of the causes of reticence, not enough research has been done to determine the degree to which each of these factors is instrumental in the development of reticence. What can be concluded about reticence is that, regardless of the cause of his behavior, a reticent person is one whose perception of what he can gain through participation with others is outweighed by his perception of projected losses, and so, he deems it best not to participate in oral communication.

V. SUMMARY

The literature shows that reticence is the inability to engage in oral communication because of fears and anxieties of rejection and ridicule. The literature also shows that reticence was not investigated until 1964; that the characteristics of reticent people have been identified in several studies; that reticence is a speech defect and is related to personality defects; that reticent people exhibit some of the characteristics associated with stagefright, stuttering, neurosis, and schizophrenia; and that several causes of reticence have been identified, including the attitude towards oral communication manifested in the home and in the school.

The literature on reticence is also weak in several areas. The relationship between reticence and personality defects, stuttering, stagefright, and neuroses needs to be

investigated further. Although several causes of reticence have been identified, other factors influencing reticence should be looked for. In addition, the relative influence of each of the causes of reticence should be determined. This is especially true as regards the relationship between reticence and self-concept.

Thus, reticence is a relatively new area of exploration. The effects of reticence on the individual are very harmful because the reticent individual becomes frustrated and cannot fulfill his potential as a human being. Boressoff (1973) found this to be the case regardless of the age of the individual:

> Reticence rarely cures itself. Adult civil service workers in communication extension classes here in St. John's share the same problem with MUN students and public school children. The reticent person misses the satisfaction of communicating effectively--of relating fully--with his fellow man. As a result, he is a handicapped person in his efforts to reach his growth potential. He is an unfulfilled individual [p. 1].

Much more research needs to be undertaken so that reticence can be more fully understood and a concerted effort has to be made on all fronts to treat people already suffering from reticence and to prevent the growth of reticence in others.

CHAPTER III

THE ADOLESCENT

In devising strategies for treating and preventing reticence in junior and senior high school, one is obliged to take into consideration what is known about the young person--in this case, the adolescent. This includes his physical, intellectual, and psychological development, and his relationship with the peer group. This chapter will deal with these aspects of human development as they relate to the adolescent.

The Adolescent Period

Various concepts of adolescence account for different viewpoints and emphases in the study of the psychology of adolescence. However, all psychologists agree that the stage of adolescence lies somewhere between childhood and adulthood (Garrison, 1965, p. 2). Adolescence as defined by Garrison is a period of change: physical, emotional, and social.

Psychologist Kurt Lewin (in Seidman, 1960, pp. 63-67) said that the adolescent is really in a "no-man's land." He is neither a child nor an adult, but is caught in a field of overlapping forces and expectations. The child's role is clearly structured. He knows what he can and cannot do. The adult likewise understands pretty well what his role is.

The adolescent, however, is in an ambiguous position. He never really knows how he stands. It is believed, continued Lewin, that this uncertainty as to his role is what causes an adolescent to be in conflict--to vacillate, to be sensitive and sometimes unstable and unpredictable.

Garrison (1965, pp. 22-25) noted that there are six developmental tasks to be completed during adolescence:

1. Establishing independence from adults in self identification and emotional independence.
2. Accepting self as a person worthy of affection.
3. Accepting and adjusting to special groups with whom they are identified.
4. Learning role in heterosexual situations.
5. Developing intellectual, language, and motor skills essential for individual and group participation.
6. Acquiring moral concepts and values as guides to behavior.

Friedenberg (1959, pp. 11-14) said that the central developmental task of the adolescent period is self-definition. The young person is learning who he is, what he feels, what he can do, and what he wants to become. He has to differentiate himself from the culture in which he has grown up and from the people in that culture on whom he has depended. He can accomplish this only by setting himself apart from that culture and by breaking the ties of dependency. This process necessarily involves conflict. In fact, Friedenberg stated that adolescence is conflict, and added, "Adolescent conflict is the instrument by which an individual learns the complex, subtle, and precious difference

between himself and his environment [p. 13]." Nixon (1961, p. 19) also viewed the main developmental task during adolescence as one of achieving self-definition. According to Nixon, the process of reaching self-definition entails a crisis because the adolescent must first of all attain independence from parents and other adults, and second, must resolve questions concerning self-discovery.

Havighurst (1953, pp. 173-175) listed ten tasks that are particularly significant for the adolescent and that need much attention during this period:

1. Achieving new and mature relations with age mates of both sexes.
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role.
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
7. Preparing for marriage and family life.
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior.

Adolescence, then, is the transitional stage between childhood and adulthood. During adolescence an individual has certain developmental tasks to undertake. These tasks bring with them a certain amount of conflict, both within the individual and with others with whom he comes into contact.

Physical Development

The adolescent period is one of many physical changes. Blair and Jones (1964, p. 50) stated that physical development can cause much concern to adolescents. Skeletal and muscular development is more rapid than the learning required to make use of the new muscle mass. Motor habits that once served the child are no longer appropriate. The new body requires new learnings. Bodily proportions also undergo changes. Facial features alter because the growth of the lower part of the face lags behind the growth of the upper part. Legs, proportionally, usually grow more rapidly than the body stem, and hands and feet anticipate by several years the total body size of their owners. General body growth is paralleled by physiological changes such as cardiovascular and respiratory growth and changes in metabolism and in general movement toward the adult status.

Variations in the age of the onset of puberty and in the rates of growth cause adolescents to worry about their physical development, as Blair and Jones (1964) explained:

> Many studies show that practically all adolescents, regardless of their rate of development, are very sensitive about physical defects and somatic variations. Boys and girls worry because they feel they are too thin or too heavy, too tall or too short, or that their hips are too wide or their legs too big. Of great concern to adolescents is their facial appearance [p. 92].

Stone and Church (1968, p. 479) also expressed the view that adolescence is a time of painful sensitivity about one's physical appearance. They stated that girls may feel that

they cannot bear to be looked at and may adopt a hunched or cringing posture to minimize their height or their breasts. Boys, on the other hand, are traditionally less modest about their bodies than are girls, but during adolescence they still try to find all manner of excuses not to expose themselves in the school locker room or shower room for fear their development differs greatly from that of their peers.

There seems to be no doubt that many adolescents consider themselves to be abnormal in physical characteristics when in reality they are well within the normal range, as Garrison (1965) pointed out:

> Children often suffer from the "tyranny of the norm," an expectation that at a certain chronological age they will be a "normal" size and will have "normal" physical abilities. There is, however, no "normal" physical development commensurate with each age level [p. 38].

Early and late maturity also causes problems for adolescents. As Stone and Church (1968, p. 477) said, any deviation from the group average is likely to make the adolescent feel out of step. The early-maturing girl is handicapped and feels out of place among her unripe classmates. She is also subjected to social experiences for which she may not be prepared. The late-maturing girl is a lost soul among the hips and bosoms that surround her. Elkind (1971, p. 98) pointed out that the early-maturing boy is not handicapped and is generally admired by his peers for his greater strength, athletic ability, and prowess. He may, however, suffer the pangs of dethronement when the

others catch up and even surpass him. The late-maturing boy, on the other hand, is likely to be made a butt, a scapegoat, and an object of scorn and ridicule for his baby fat, rosy cheeks, high voice, and small size. Stone and Church (1968) summed up the effects of early and late physical maturing:

> Let us remember that markedly early or late maturing has both practical social consequences for how the child fits in, and psychological consequences for how he views himself, objectively as measured against his mates, and intersubjectively in terms of how he perceives their perception of him [p. 479].

Thus, adolescents can suffer from and be very sensitive about their physical development. As Garrison (1965) stated,

> Many and diverse problems related to physical growth appear among adolescents. Some of these stem from differences in rate of growth, others stem from the wide variations in abilities and appearance among adolescents, while others grow out of cultural expectations [p. 75].

Psychological Development

Concerning psychological development in the adolescent, Blair and Jones (1964) said, "Among the human personality needs that are particularly urgent during adolescence are the needs for status, independence, achievement, and a satisfying philosophy of life [p. 8]." The need for status means that adolescents are very sensitive about being treated like children or having to engage in activities they feel to be beneath their dignity. The need for independence means that the adolescent craves to be weaned from

parental restrictions so that he may become a self-directing person. Closely related to these two personality needs is the need for achievement. This means that the efforts of the adolescent must be followed by a sense of achievement. The final personality need of adolescents, according to Blair and Jones, is the need for a satisying philosophy of life. The adolescent is concerned with questions about truth, religion, ideals, and values. He wants the gaps in his knowledge about the purposes of life to be filled. A satisfying philosophy or set of beliefs tends to provide him with psychological security.

As Elkind (1971) stated, "From the psychological point of view, the major task of adolescence is the establishment of a stable and resilient ego identity [p. 100]." Or, as Stone and Church (1968) expressed it, "The central theme of adolescence is that of identity, coming to know who one is, what one believes in and values, what one wants to accomplish and get out of life [p. 437]." That is, the adolescent's main task is to bring all of his knowledge about himself together and to arrange it into some meaningful, workable whole that he can call himself and with which he can live reasonably well. Blair and Jones (1964, p. 73) pointed out that the adolescent internalizes all the views of himself furnished by others and by his comparison with others, and makes out of it a self-concept that may, even in mid-adolescence, become stabilized and difficult to change. In some cases the discrepancy between his perceived

self and his idealized self (the way he would like to be) is so great that he despairs of ever realizing his ambitions and desires. Self-concept will be considered in greater detail in Chapter IV.

The adolescent is also busy losing old illusions and building new ones to take their place. Stone and Church (1968) expressed the view that the adolescent at times becomes convinced of the hopelessness of all illusions and lapses into cynicism or despair, not less genuine for the melodramatic display he makes of them:

> Even though his disillusionment is often grist to his histrionic mill, it means at heart that he is really searching for an ideal and decent world for his ideal and decent self to respond to [p. 492].

In addition, the adolescent's idealism is often in conflict with his animalism, the sexual feelings and desires that are just awakening. Adolescents may be quite poignantly conscious of and troubled by a sense of duality, a split between their carnal and spiritual natures.

Some adolescents find the answer to their idealism in religion, embracing it seriously for the first time, intensifying the beliefs they have always held, or converting to another, more promising faith. For some adolescents, though, religion as it is practiced exemplifies the worst in hypocrisy and corruption, and religious belief the most debased of superstition. Such adolescents often idealistically leave their faith, frequently with great difficulty.

By the end of the adolescent period, most adolescents

are able to reconcile their idealism with the realities of life, as Garrison (1965) explained:

> Adolescents are idealistic. They are unwilling to admit that nothing can be done to better existing conditions. Later, their idealism is tempered by a recognition of the realities of conditions and by the felt need to conform to existing conditions and standards [p. 210].

In his attempts to find his identity, the adolescent frequently turns to the identities of others in society, sometimes those of other adolescents and sometimes those of heroes in the adult world. Stone and Church (1968) expressed this point of view:

> In his role playing, then, the adolescent can be seen as trying on ready-made identities to see how well they suit him. Some of these roles are modeled on particular people, movie and television stars and heroes of the day, others are based on fictional characters from literature or the mass media, and some are based on culturally defined "types": the tough guy, the sweet young thing, the clown, the beatnik, and so on [p. 482].

The problem of sex, although only one aspect of the life of the adolescent, is one that causes many anxieties and problems. For many adolescents the awakening of the sex drive means that the world becomes sexualized so that the most innocuous objects and events take on erotic implications. In addition, the adolescent is attempting to derive a set of values and mores regarding sex, as Garrison (1965) pointed out:

> Adolescents, like many adults, are in a state of confusion about sex codes. In literature, on television and radio, at the movies, in the classroom, at home, and at

> church they are bombarded with codes that are at variance with each other. Furthermore, members of a single group of boys and girls may have different codes. Thus, in our democratic spirit, each adolescent has to unravel from these a code that is acceptable to himself and not too much at variance with that of his peers [p. 315].

Thus, the period of adolescence is one of many psychological problems and conflicts. By the end of the adolescent period most young people are able to come to grips with themselves and to define their various roles in society. Stone and Church (1968) concluded as follows:

> By late adolescence, the young person may, with luck, be able to reintegrate the various selves he knows--his body, his public personality, and the private core of feeling that is the "real me," his past, his present, and an image of the future--into a single schema that he can take for granted without endless embarrassment, introspection, and anxious reading off of other people's reactions [p. 483].

Intellectual Development

The changes that take place in adolescents' mental prowess are both quantitative and qualitative; they have to do with both the amount and the kinds of knowledge and mental abilities that adolescents have at their disposal. Elkind (1971, pp. 122-126) described the following mental abilities of the adolescent:

1. Adolescents have the ability to reason about verbal propositions, not just concrete ones.
2. Adolescents have the ability to introspect and to examine their own thinking. During adolescence young people talk for the first time about their minds, beliefs, ideas, and hunches.

3. Adolescents have the ability to understand metaphor. This means they no longer take everything literally and they begin to sense the multiple meanings inherent in a given word, picture, or gesture.

4. Adolescents have the ability to think in terms of ideals and of contrary-to-fact conditions. They can begin to think of all possible situations and events, and hence, of those that have never existed.

5. Adolescents have the ability in problem-solving situations to raise and test hypotheses in a systematic way. This includes the ability to distinguish between facts and hypotheses and the ability to give priority to facts over hypotheses.

6. Adolescents have the ability to deal with complex problems involving many factors simultaneously.

Several major themes run through Piaget's account of adolescent thought processes. Ginsburg and Opper (1969) summarized these as follows:

> One is that the adolescent's system of mental operations has reached a high degree of equilibrium. This means, among other things, that the adolescent's thought is flexible and effective. He can deal effectively with the complex problems of reasoning. Another major theme is that the adolescent can imagine the many possibilities inherent in a real situation. Unlike the concrete-operational child, whose thought is tied to the concrete, the adolescent can transcend the immediate here and now. He can compensate mentally for transformations in reality [p. 181].

Ginnsburg and Opper also stated that, according to Piaget, the adolescent has a tendency to become involved in abstract and theroretical matters. He constructs elaborate political theories or invents complex philosophical doctrines. He may develop plans for the complete reorganization of society or indulge in metaphysical speculation. Having just discovered capabilities for abstract thought, he then proceeds to

exercise them without restraint. Indeed, in the process of exploring his new abilities the adolescent sometimes loses touch with reality, and feels that he can accomplish everything by thoughts alone.

Muuss (1968, p. 162) said that while the child at the concrete operational stage becomes able to reason on the basis of objects, the adolescent begins to reason on the basis of verbal propositions. He can make hypothetical deductions and entertain the idea of relativity. An adolescent, according to Muuss, is an individual who thinks beyond the present and forms theories about everything. He not only thinks beyond the present, but also reflects analytically about his own thinking. His theories may still be oversimplifications of reality, but the adolescent does have social and political theories, and may even have religious, philosophical, and scientific ones.

According to Blair and Jones (1964), the need for a feeling of achievement is also important to the intellectual growth of the adolescent. They stated, "Thorndike, Hull, and Skinner, all leading theorists of our time, hold that learning is most effectively accomplished when a student's efforts are followed by a sense of achievement [p. 10]." The way to get adolescents to learn rapidly and to like their work is to take notice when they do good work. Every adolescent at times does something that is worthy of commendation. This should be called to the attention of the student, for adolescents need successful experiences if they

are to make any worthwhile progress.

During adolescence, then, students move from the concrete to the formal operations level of intellectual competence. This brings about abilities related to hypothetical thinking. The individual is able to deal with logical relations and the operations necessary for their verification or refutation. He can consider what might occur, as well as what does occur. He is better able to process large bodies of organized and potentially meaningful bodies of information so that they may be better used in making choices and decisions. He develops an intuitive grasp of formal logic that may be used to obtain an understanding of new relationships among events, which allows the testing of alternative hypotheses. He develops the ability to grasp qualitative growth patterns, including increases in the breadth and depth of subject-matter knowledge and the ability to organize this knowledge into more meaningful wholes.

Adolescent Interests

Garrison (1965) has described the word "interest" in the following manner:

> That "something between" that secures some desired goal, or is a means to an end that is of value to the individual because of its usefulness, pleasure, or general social and vocational significance [p. 124].

That is, certain parts of the environment are singled out because the individual favors some reactions to the exclusion of others. This means that interest is directly related

to voluntary attention; when interest is present, attention tends to be high.

Studies have shown, as Garrison (1965, p. 129) has explained, that adolescents are likely to be most interested in those things they do best. This explains why students usually like best those subjects they do well in, since interests grow out of experiences that are satisfying. That is, students will be more interested in those school subjects that bring forth satisfaction.

The out-of-school activities of adolescents reflect their interests. The "local hangout," music, television, and movies are focal points for adolescents, not only because they are interested in these things, but also because of the opportunities provided by these things for socializing with members of the opposite sex. With the onset of adolescence both boys and girls become interested in each other and in their appearance. The adolescent girl, in particular, spends hours in front of the mirror experimenting with articles of clothing, makeup, and hairstyles.

Adolescents are also interested in sports. This is particularly true of the boys who favor, as Cole and Hall (1970, p. 200) stated, highly organized games played with established rules. For girls, their social interests appear earlier so that their concentration upon organized group games diminishes earlier.

Music is another strong interest of adolescents. Most teenagers collect phonographic records, which they

listen to by the hour, as they do to music on the radio. This interest in music extends to the lyrics, which adolescents spend much time analyzing and discussing.

Adolescents also have an interest in reading, even though their subject matter may not necessarily be so-called "good" literature. As with television programs and movies, boys are mainly interested in stories filled with action--westerns, mysteries, science fiction--as Cole and Hall (1970, p. 204) found in their study. They also found that girls of the same age are more interested in romance stories, mainly because they are more mature. In later adolescence, boys find adventure stories less attractive; they read more romance stories and more literature. Most boys read magazines that deal with mechanics, sports, and heroics, while girls of the same age tend to concentrate upon magazines that deal with stories of movie stars, "true life" stories, and adult fiction of sentimental nature.

Adolescence and the Peer Group

There is no doubt as to the tremendous influence of the peer group on the adolescent. As Stone and Church (1968) stated, "The dependence of the adolescent on peer-group standards and values is, if anything, even more slavish than that of the middle-child years [p. 460]." Elkind (1971) made the same point when he said, "In many respects the peer group is the single most important influence upon adolescents [p. 110]."

The greater the wall between adolescents and adults,

the more elaborate the peer culture becomes and the more the adolescent has to turn to it for support and identity. The adolescent seizes upon and displays all the trademarks of his kind, so that nobody can possibly miss them. As Elkind (1971) noted, "It (the peer group) sets the style of clothing, the kinds of issues that are to be fought over with parents and the kinds of social arrangements that are permissible [p. 110]." He elaborated on this point by describing how one of the prime interest areas of adolescents is the area of clothing. After about the age of thirteen, boys become as clothing conscious as girls and spend a lot of time before the mirror getting their clothing to fit just right. Having the right or "in" type of clothing is particularly important to adolescents, for whom such clothing is a badge of membership in the peer group.

Although every adolescent is a member of the peer society by virtue of his being an adolescent, not every adolescent is an accepted member of a peer group. In fact, as Winter and Nuss (1964) pointed out, "Entrance into the face-to-face arrangement known as the peer group is easy for some, difficult for others, but exceedingly important to adolescents generally [p. 315]."

Peer relations during adolescence have several functions. Garrison (1965) said, "Such developmental tasks as learning to get along with age-mates and acquiring a satisfactory sex role can be satisfactorily achieved only through good peer relations [p. 114]." It is with their

peers that adolescents have opportunities to intimately share their problems and their experiences, and its from their peers that they are able to find sympathy and relatively complete understanding. Through doing they learn to cooperate, give and take, and clarify their sex role. Stone and Church (1968) elaborated on this point:

> We have stressed how the adolescent escapes from the adult world into peer society. We can see how he is also escaping from himself, how the roles the peer culture offers him are a refuge from the doubts, ambiguities, and ambivalences that confront him in solitude [p. 463].

Blair and Jones (1964) made a similar point:

> It (the peer group) helps them (adolescents) to find a role for themselves. It helps them in an insecure period to attain the necessary emancipation from the home, and it teaches social skills necessary for living a community life [p. 38].

Unfortunately, the peer group has some harmful effects on the adolescent as well. Group life entails endless invasions of privacy and there may be powerful pressures to act contrary to conscience. To what extent peer group membership requires the surrender of individuality no doubt varies among groups and certainly among individuals. However, all group membership requires some degree of conformity and standardization, as Winter and Nuss (1969) stated:

> When the need for group acceptance is of paramount importance to the adolescent, and when he finds it difficult to win such acceptance, he may readily succumb to group dictates. In fact, he may seek anonymity within the pack as the *sine qua non* of his belongingness. Alienation and isolation from the child and adult worlds tend to motivate the adolescent to seek status as

> an individual within a group of his peers. Once there, he is susceptible to the potent influence of the group. When this influence promotes conformity, he will most likely conform [p. 315].

Garrison (1965, p. 114) is also of the opinion that the normal adolescent, though idealistic in his attitudes, is a slave to group conformity. If the peer group frowns upon noble ideals, the adolescent will most likely also frown upon such ideals; if the group keeps late hours, he is bent upon keeping late hours; and if the group swears and uses slang, he will do the same. The attitude of conformity to the peer group is one of the most important motivating forces in the adolescent's life.

Summary

Adolescence, the period between childhood and adulthood, is a time of great change. While adolescence may not be the problem age some seem to think it is, nevertheless, it is an age when the individual is confronted with many problems, resulting largely from the social and economic demands of his culture.

Today's adolescent is growing up in a world radically different from that of his forefathers. Mass production, automation, urbanization, materialism, and a great conflict in values have vastly changed our society and have created new problems for the growing child. Against this changing background, the adolescent must still accomplish the age-old task of growing up; he must adjust to his parents, establish friendships, acquire an appropriate sex role, develop

intellectually, attain economic independence, and evolve a set of values.

Adolescence is a period of physical growth as well. Many and diverse problems related to physical growth appear among adolescents. Some of these problems stem from wide variations in abilities and appearance among adolescents, while others grow out of cultural expectations.

Adolescence is also a time of growth of intellectual abilities. Adolescent thought is flexible and effective. The adolescent can deal effectively with the complex problems of reasoning. He has a tendency to become involved in abstract and theoretical matters. He begins to reason on the basis of verbal propositions, not just concrete ones. He is not only able to think beyond the present, but to reflect analytically about his own thinking.

The attainment of a satisfactory role among peers is another task faced by the adolescent. Problems of social approval, making friends, being popular, being accepted, and the like are real to most adolescents. Since they feel that their parents either do not understand and appreciate them or are often critical of them in relation to their activities, and since they are often unable to secure the needed help and guidance from their teachers, they seek help and sympathy from their peers. The need to conform to the standards and beliefs of the peer group can have very unsatisfactory effects.

CHAPTER IV

THE SELF-CONCEPT

In studies of reticent students it has been discovered that lack of an adequate self-concept is at the root of the problem of reticence and that any attempt to devise methods of treating reticence must take into account self-concept. Consequently, this chapter will deal with self-concept--what it is, how it develops, its relationship to achievement, and how it can be made more positive.

Varying Views of Self-Concept

Self-concept as a determinant of human behavior is not a recent theoretical formulation. From the earliest recorded history of man there is evidence that he has sought to understand the causes of his conduct. An awareness of this quest and curiosity is found primarily in the context of religious thought. The most primitive religions consider man to have some inner regulatory agent which influences his destiny or responds to a supernatural force. This "inner agent" has been variously labeled "soul," "nature," "will," and other such names.

LaBenne and Greene (1969, p. 1) quoted a Hindu scripture written in the first century B.C.:

> Oh, let the self exalt itself,
> Not sink itself below;
> Self is the only friend of self,
> And self self's only foe.

For self, when it subdues itself
Befriends itself. And so
When it eludes self-conquest, is
Its own and only foe.

So calm, so self-subdued, the self
Has an unshaken base
Through pain and pleasure, cold and heat
Through honor and disgrace.

Purkey (1970) pointed out, "During the middle ages, terms such as mind, soul, psyche, and self were often used interchangeably, with scant regard for an invariant vocabulary or scientific experimentation [p. 3]." For the most part, though, a general state of confusion with regard to self-concept existed until the present century.

Since 1860, when psychology became an official discipline and science of human behavior, self-concept has had cyclic resurgance and fallowness. As LaBenne and Greene (1969) stated, "It would be proper to say that much of the controversy theorizing about self-concept derives from William James [p. 2]." James (1890, p. 35) considered the self to be the individual's sense of identity and felt that self included spiritual, material, and social aspects. James also gave the self a dynamic quality in terms of self-preservation and seeking.

Freud (1943, pp. 115-119) gave attention to self under the concept of ego development and functioning. He gave self or ego a central place in his theory of personality structure. For Freud self was a functional agent or executive of the personality which makes rational choices and controls action in a healthy person. Freud, however, paid

little attention to self-concept as such. Rather, he concentrated on self or ego as a system of processes.

As Wylie (1961, p. 17) explained, during the 1920's through the 1940's self received scant attention from the behavior-oriented psychologists who dominated American psychology. This decline of interest in self was encouraged and cheered by the behavioristic psychologists because they did not believe in anything that could not be directly observed. However, all the fault for the neglect of self cannot be laid at the door of the behavioristic psychologists. Diggory (1966, p. 153) pointed out in his comprehensive review of theories about self that very little of the literature on self during those years described experimentation or contained references to experimental psychology. Those few who advocated the importance of self weakened their position by the neglect of rigorous experiments.

Whatever the cause, emphasis on self declined as a concern of American psychology and education during the first half of this century. However, there were a few exceptions to this general neglect. Mead (1934, pp. 70-78) made the concept of self a major part of his theoretical writing on the philosophy of society and described in detail how self is developed through transactions with the environment. Lewin (1935, p. 25) viewed the self as a central and relatively permanent organization which gave consistency to the entire personality. Allport (1937, p. 31) called the ego, or self, the propriate function of the personality. The "Proprium" comprises awareness of self and striving

activity; it includes bodily sense, self-image, self-esteem, and identity, as well as thinking and knowing. For Allport, the terms "self" and "ego" should be used as descriptive adjectives to indicate the propriate functions of the personality.

Combs and Snygg (1949, pp. 44-49) had a notable influence upon the reintroduction of the concept of self into psychology and education. They proposed that the basic drive of the individual is the maintenance and enhancement of self. They further declared that all behavior, without exception, is dependent upon the individual's personal frame of reference. That is, how a person behaves is the result of how he perceives the situation and himself at the moment of his action. In fact, awareness is the cause of behavior: how a person feels and thinks determines his course of action. The insistence of Combs and Snygg on giving major importance to the ways in which people see themselves and their worlds was a significant contribution to psychology and education.

Carl Rogers was also partly responsible for the resurgence of interest in self-concept. Rogers (1951, pp. 185-197) presented a system of psycho-therapy called "nondirective" which was built around the importance of self in human adjustment. In Rogers' theory, self is the central aspect of personality. Rogers' impact was so great that his general approach soon became known as "self theory."

Since 1950 a new force has appeared on the scene in psychology, especially in American psychology, due to the

influence of Rogers and Maslow, to name just two. This new force is called variously the Third Force, being psychology, humanistic psychology, and the human potential movement. Whatever name it goes by, this new movement expresses a deep concern with questions of man's being and becoming. It sees man as a dynamic, growing organism and regards him not as something to be made or molded, but as a unique entity in the process of becoming.

One of the key points in this view of man is the primacy of the need for adequacy, for self-actualization, for the person to believe that he is worth something as a human being. In other words, man must develop a positive self-concept. This need is the fundamental motivation of a human being throughout his life. As Davis (1971) explained, "It governs his relationships with others, his constant attempts to learn the things which will enable him to cope with and control his environment [p. 67]."

Weinstein and Fantini (1970, p. 18) showed that three things are necessary for achieving and maintaining a healthy self-concept: a satisfying self-definition, constructive relationships with others, and some control over what is happening to him. In a study of students the authors found that the concerns they expressed fell into three categories: "concern about self-image, concern about disconnectedness, and concern about control over one's life [p. 39]."

Schutz (1971) expressed somewhat the same idea. He

stated, "Our self-concept is largely derived from our relations with other people [p. 21]." According to Schutz, self-concept is manifested by three basic interpersonal needs: inclusion, control, and affection. Inclusion refers to feelings about being important or significant, to association between people, to being excluded or included. The aspect of self-concept related to control is the feeling of competence, the decision-making process between people, and the areas of power, influence, and authority. The area of affection revolves around feelings of being lovable, of feeling that if one's personal core is revealed in its entirety it will be seen as a lovely thing.

Thus, the humanists view self-concept as a dynamic force which determines man's behavior. As Davis (1971) expressed it, "The importance of this inner motivation, this inner drive of the organization to maintain its integrity, is one of the building blocks on which the new humanism is built [p. 70]." Only when a person has a healthy self-concept, including his needs for inclusion, control, and affection, can he fulfill his potential as a self-actualizing human being.

Self-Concept Defined

Raimy (1943) defined self-concept as follows:

> Self-concept is the more or less organized perceptual object resulting from present and past self observation:..(it is) what a person believes about himself. The self-concept is the map which each person consults in order to understand himself, especially during moments of crisis or choice [p. 4].

Purkey (1970) defined self as "...a complex and dynamic

system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value [p. 6]." Combs and Snygg (1959) said:

> The self is the individual's basic frame of reference, the central core, around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organized. In this sense, the phenomenal self is both product of the individual's experience and producer of whatever new experience he is capable of [p. 146].

What this means is that everything is comprehended from the personal self-referent vantage point; the world exists for the individual only as he is conscious of it. Things are significant or insignificant, important or unimportant, attractive or unattractive, valuable or worthless, in terms of their relationship to one's self. A person evaluates the world and its meaning in terms of how he sees himself.

Self-concept, then, as it is generally used in the professional literature, is a group of feelings and cognitive processes which are inferred from observed or manifest behavior. LaBenne and Greene (1969) defined self-concept in this way:

> By way of a formal definition, self-concept is the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behavior. We here hold that a person's conscious awareness, what he thinks and feels, is that which primarily guides, controls, and regulates his performance and action [p. 10].

Unfortunately, self-concept, as can be seen from these definitions, is a psychological construct, an imaginary mechanism which helps the psychologist think about the

phenomena he is studying. A construct is a concept of self inferred from behavior. In other words, since self-concept cannot be studied directly, the behavior of the individual is studied and his self-concept is inferred from that behavior.

Thus, a person's self-concept is the principal dynamic in all human behavior. The constituents of self-concept, as Maslow (in Hamachek, 1972, p. 581) pointed out, are the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origin, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in his behavior. This dynamic causes some people to attempt a task given a minimal chance for success, while others will not attempt a task without a great deal more opportunity for a successful outcome. Self-concept conditions the way people interpret the comments of others toward their behavior and influences the way they behave in the future in a similar situation. To say that self-concept is a prime factor controlling all human behavior is not overstating the case. In fact, self-concept is becoming a more important dimension in the control of human behavior than has been generally realized.

As self-concept develops, experiences can only be interpreted in terms of that emerging self. This means that perception plays a large part in the development and maintenance of self-concept. One of the most revealing aspects of perception is that it is a selective process. A person cannot simultaneously register everything in his

surroundings. Thus, when a person walks into a room of varying decor, people, and conversations, he is of necessity forced to focus on fewer stimuli than the total number possible. The choices he makes under these circumstances invariably relate to his past experiences as well as his present needs and current self-concept. Rogers (1951) stated:

> As experiences occur in the life of an individual, they are either symbolized, perceived and organized in some relationship to the self; ignored because there is no perceived relationship to the self structure; denied symbolization; or given a distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self [p. 503].

In other words, perception is very instrumental in maintaining the stability of self-concept. As Purkey (1970, p. 159) stated, an individual's perception causes him to ignore aspects of experience which are inconsistent with his self-concept and to select perceptions in such a way as to confirm the concepts of self he already possesses. That is, a person with a negative self-concept is likely to reject a successful experience as being something that could not possibly happen to him, despite the evidence to the contrary. Combs and Snygg (1949) summarized this view when they stated:

> Perceptions are selected which are consistent with the perceived self of the behaver. Such selection occurs, furthermore, without regard to whether such perceptions seem to be complimentary or self-damaging in the eyes of the outside observer. It will be recalled that we have stated the belief that the fundamental need of all human beings in the maintenance and enhancement of the phenomenal self. Since the first need of the individual is to maintain his perceived self, perceptions inconsistent with what he believes are unlikely to occur because they would not fit his self structure [p. 153].

Measurement of Self-concept

The fact that self-concept is a psychological construct and so cannot be directly observed presents severe limitations in determining the state of self-concept at any given time. If self-concept cannot be observed, how can it possibly be measured? Although self-concept cannot be seen, behavior can be observed. In this instance the nature of self-concept is inferred from observable behavior over a period of time. The behavior is known to be symptomatic of the underlying cause; therefore, if a person continues to behave in a particualar manner, a linking mechanism from his behavior my be inferred. Rogers (1951) expressed this view when he stated, "The best vantage point for understanding behavior is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself [p. 494]."

LaBenne and Greene (1969, p. 12) pointed out four techniques that are used to determine the relative status of a person's self-concept:

1. Introspective self-reflections in personal, family, social, and school or work settings.
2. Congruence between descriptions of current self-concept and ideal self-concept.
3. Congruence between subjective self-reports and action, and the objective reports of clinically trained observers.
4. Nonintrospective inferences derived from projective techniques and clinical interviews.

Unfortunately, some of the instruments used to measure self-concept have severe limitations and restrictions. Because of the imprecise nature of some instruments, resulting scores must necessarily be interpreted in a guarded manner.

As Wylie (1961, pp. 5-7) pointed out, in many instances there is little agreement on definition of self-concept and great differences in theoretical orientation. Wylie stated further that a bewildering array of hypotheses, research designs, and measuring instruments have been used in studies of self-concept.

Thus, self-concept, although not directly observable, can be measured in a variety of ways. Care must be taken in evaluating studies of self-concept, however, because of the limitations and restrictions of some of the instruments used and because of differences in definition and theoretical orientation.

Development of Self-Concept

Self-concept is developed through accumulated social contacts and experiences with other people. Individuals learn their identity, who and what they are, from the kinds of experiences the growing-up process provides. Sullivan (1947, p. 45) called this development learning about self from the mirror of other people. What a person believes about himself is partly a function of his interpretation of how others see him. Since he really has no way of knowing precisely how other people see him, he infers this from their behavior toward him. Therefore, his concept of self rests in part on what he thinks others think of him.

The development of self-concept is particularly affected by the role of "significant others" in the life of the individual. Significant others are the people who most intimately administer the "rewards" and "punishments" in a

person's life. At an early age, the most significant others in his life are his parents. How they help him grow and how they react to his exploratory experiences have tremendous influence on him. Combs and Snygg (1949) supported this view when they stated, "No experience in the development of the child's concept of self is quite so important or far-reaching as his earliest experiences in his family [p. 133]."

It is the family which introduces a child to life, which provides him with his earliest and most permanent self definitions. Here it is that he first discovers those basic concepts of self which will guide his behavior for the rest of his life. The family provides the earliest experience of the individual's adequacy or inadequacy. Manis (1958, p. 484) reported from his research that a child's level of self-regard is closely associated with his parents' reported level of regard for him. The research which has given us the clearest picture to date of the enhancing home environment is that reported by Coopersmith (1967, pp. 35-37), who listed three conditions which lead the developing individual to value himself and to regard himself as an object of worth. These were: (1) parental warmth, whereby the child senses the love and concern of his family and feels that they see him as a person of value; (2) respectful treatment, whereby the child's views are considered and where he has a rightful and democratic position in the family; and (3) clearly defined limits, whereby the child comes to know, through his parents' relatively high demands and expectations for success, that they care what happens to him.

Parents, then, are the first and most important significant others to influence the development of a child's self-concept. However, there comes a point in every person's life when he begins to recognize the power and influence of his friends and other adults. Although his parents are still important to him, he sometimes feels that they have a legal and moral obligation to love and accept him. His friends, on the other hand, have no such committment. They like and accept him for what he is and not out of a sense of duty. When he realizes this, the significant others in his life begin to shift from his parents to his peers.

Teachers are also significant others in a child's life who strongly influence the development of his self-concept. The child entering school is malleable; his self-concept is in the process of developing. How teachers treat him and react toward him become factors in how he views himself. This is especially true as regards his conception of his academic ability.

As LaBenne and Greene (1969, pp. 126-127) pointed out, each person has a need to be successful and it is imperative that teachers recognize this need. Teachers must provide many opportunities in the classroom setting for students to be successful. The standards must not be so high as to make successful attainment impossible for an individual. On the other hand, the tasks must be challenging enough and still contain the possibility of failure. In

other words, there must be a challenge which gives meaning and purpose to accomplishments, with real dangers of failure possible. Only in this way can a student develop a positive self-concept.

The importance of social and cultural influences on the development of self-concept must not be underestimated. Combs and Snygg (1949) recognized this influence:

> The culture in which we move is so completely and inextricably a part of our experience as to overshadow almost all else in determining the nature of the concepts of self developed by each of its members [p. 141].

Even a person's definitions and values with respect to the purely physical aspects of his environment are not left entirely to his own experience but are colored, interpreted, and valued one way or another by the culture into which he has been born. The inclusion by the individual of the meanings of his culture applies not only to things and events, but to himself as well.

The influence of the culture on the development of self-concept might lead one to believe that the individual must always conform to his culture. However, the concepts of self that people possess are not always what one might expect from the culture in which they live. Such differences may be the result of a change in the culture or a change in the self-concept, or both of these, as Combs and Syngg (1949, p. 142) pointed out.

The development of an individual's self-concept, then, is influenced by the significant others in his life

and by the culture in which he lives. During early childhood these significant others are his parents who exert the strongest influence on his development. As he grows older, teachers, other adults, and his peers become significant others and influence the development of his self-concept.

Self-Concept and Achievement

Since self-concept is inferred from behavior and behavior is all that is ever seen, why do some students attempt a new task with confidence, while others are fearful of attempting it at all? Why is it that some students can accept failure without fear, while others fear to fail? It would be a misconception to view a person with a strong or positive self-concept as one completely without failure or other negative experiences. No one escapes some disappointments and failures. However, the person who is able to deal effectively with these negative onslaughts in life is one whose self-concept is essentially positive. When weighed in the balance he feels himself adequate to meet life's challenges because of a sufficient backlog of successful encounters which allows his belief that he is valuable and worthy. One defeat can appropriately be interpreted by such an individual as "I have failed," not "I am a failure."

The conclusion that the successful student is one who is likely to see himself in essentially positive ways has been verified by a host of studies. The most extensive of these is the research project of Brookover and his associates (1962-68) who have completed three projects which represented

continuous phases of a six-year study of the relation of self-concept of academic ability to school achievement among students in one school class while in the seventh through twelfth grades. Among their findings were that the reported self-concept of ability is significantly related to achievement among boys and girls, that achievement in school is limited by the student's concept of his ability, and that a person's concept of his ability is a better predictor of success in school than his over-all self-concept.

Studies which support the notion that underachievers tend to have negative self-concepts are numerous. Judging by the preponderance of available research, it seems reasonable to assume that unsuccessful students are likely to hold attitudes about themselves and their abilities that are pervasively negative. They tend to see themselves as less able, less adequate, and less self-reliant than their more successful peers. The research of Brookover, Erickson, and Joiner (1967, p. 134) has indicated that students with negative self-concepts of their ability rarely perform well in school.

The basic question of whether children see themselves negatively because of their poor school performance, or whether they perform poorly in school because they see themselves negatively, is unresolved. It may be that the relationship between the two is caused by some factor yet to be determined. Purkey (1970) expressed this idea when he stated, "The best evidence now available suggests that it is

a two-way street, that there is a continuous interaction between the self and academic achievement, and that each directly influences the other [p. 23]."

The indications seem to be that success or failure in school significantly influences the ways in which students view themselves. Students who experience repeated success in school are likely to develop positive feelings about their abilities, while those who encounter failure tend to develop negative views of themselves.

Teachers exert an almost overpowering influence on the child's concept of his achievement. Perceptual psychologists have developed the plausible theory that people more often than not do what is expected of them, and they become what they are thought to be. This is so because the reflected image a person sees of himself in social contacts and experiences with significant others, as well as with their expectations of his performance, helps to establish his self-concept. Brookover, Erickson, and Joiner (1967, p. 110) concluded that a student's performance is influenced by his perceptions of the evaluations of his academic ability by others (teachers, parents, and friends). In other words, when a teacher believes that his students cannot achieve, the students will be influenced by this and will not achieve.

This self-fulfilling prophecy has been illuminated in dramatic fashion by the research of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968, pp. 175-182), who had as their basic hypothesis that

students, more often than not, do what is expected of them. To test this hypothesis, the two researchers conducted an experiment in a public elementary school of 650 students. The teachers were told that, on the basis of ability tests administered the previous spring, approximately one-fifth of the students could be expected to evidence significant increases in mental ability during the year. The teachers were then given the names of the high-potential students. Although in fact the names had been chosen at random by the experimenters, when intelligence tests and other measures were administered some months later, those identified as potential spurters tended to score significantly higher than children who had not been so identified. Rosenthal and Jacobson concluded, "Children who are expected by their teachers to gain intellectually in fact do show greater intellectual gains one year later than do children from whom such gains are not expected [p. 121]."

As to why such events occurred, Rosenthal and Jacobson were not quite certain, though they were able to state tentatively:

> To summarize our speculations, we may say that by what she said, by how and when she said it, by her facial expressions, postures, and perhaps by her touch, the teacher may have communicated to the children of the experimental group that she expected improved intellectual performance. Such communications, together with possible changes in teaching techniques, may have helped the child learn by changing his self-concept, his expectations of his own behavior, and his motivation, as well as his own cognitive style and skills [p. 180].

Thus, teacher expectations influence not only the

child's self-concept but also his actual performance as measured by tests. The ramifications of this are far-reaching and have tremendous implications for teachers and for educators in general.

Changing Self-Concept

An individual who has a negative self-concept can generally be described as one who lacks confidence in his abilities, who despairs because he cannot find a solution for his problems, and who believes that most of his attmepts will result in failure. His expectations, in terms of his own behavior and performance, are very low because he believes that he can do few things well. Although everybody, at some point in time, questions his worth and place in society, the person with a negative image of self often feels humiliated by his behavior, disgraced by his failures, and inferior in many situations in which he finds himself. He continually operates on the assumption that he cannot succeed, that for some reason he is doomed to failure, and consequently that he is not a worthy being.

What can be done to develop a positive self-concept in such a person? Indeed, can anything be done to change a self-concept once it has become established in a person?

There is little doubt that self-concept is very stable. Combs and Snygg (1949) expressed this view when they said, "Once established in a given personality, the perceived self has a high degree of stability [p. 130]." Self-concept represents a person's fundamental frame of reference, his

anchor to reality, and even an unsatisfactory self-concept is likely to prove highly stable and resistant to change. Purkey (1970, p. 159) pointed out two ways in which self makes change difficult. He said that a person will ignore aspects of his experience which are inconsistent with his self-concept and will select perceptions in such a way as to confirm the concept of self he already possesses.

Of course, a rapidly changing self would not provide the kind of stable frame of reference the individual needs in order to deal with life effectively and efficiently. To be able to deal with life at all, he needs a firm basis from which to operate and so the maintenance of his phenomenal self is essential. The very operation of this fundamental need leads to a high degree of stability in the perceived self.

To say that self-concept is stable and resists change, however, does not imply by any means that once it is established no further changes are possible. Indeed, as Purkey (1970) stated, "It is probable that throughout the lifetime of the individual change is constantly occurring in the self-concept as he perceives the reactions of others to himself [p. 157]." The individual's own fundamental need requires change in his concept of self. One cannot be truly adequate in a changing world without adapting to the changes going on about him. A static self-concept existing in a moving world would soon be out of touch with the world about it. An adequate self must be stable but not rigid; it must

be changing but not fluctuating.

While changes in peripheral aspects of self-concept may sometimes occur fairly quickly, changes in the important or fundamental concepts of self usually take place slowly and gradually. Purkey (1970), in expressing this view, stated, "It seems likely that gradual changes of this sort, as a result of repeated experiences, represent the most frequent type of change in the concept of self [p. 160]."

Self-concept cannot be changed by words alone nor by intellectual knowledge. For better or for worse, self-concept is changed only by experience. Memories of past successes act to provide the impetus to move forward. Perhaps this is why the cliché "Nothing succeeds like success" has, in fact, significance. Reviewing over a dozen experiments, Wylie (1961, p. 173) made the tentative statement that students are likely to change their self-evaluations, and hence their self-concepts, after experimentally induced success. Glasser (1969) also arrived at this conclusion:

> From these struggles I have discovered an important fact: regardless of how many failures a person has had in his past, regardless of his background, his culture, his color, or his economic level, he will not succeed in general until he can in some way first experience success in one important part of his life [p. 5].

This does not mean that a person should be told he is doing well when he is not. What it does mean is that teachers must provide meaningful activities in which students can explore and discover the personal meaning of events for themselves. To do this demands that teachers know their

students and select for them experiences that provide, at a minimum, the opportunity for success. When the task is seen to be virtually impossible to attain or to be ridicuously easy, there is no desire to perform. The most adequate tasks, in terms of incentive and satisfaction, are those which contain a probable chance of success. LaBenne and Greene (1969) stated this idea as follows:

> The mandate is clear: To help a child develop a positive self-concept, one must help him select experiences which provide a challenge, and at the same time help him maximize his opportunities for success [p. 29].

The process of developing a positive self-concept is also based on changes to be made in attitudes, beliefs, and expectations. To some extent, expectations are the most important, since most people tend to move in the direction of what they expect to occur. Therefore, any attempt to alter expectations must also result in a change of behavior. Johnson (1946) realized the importance of expectations when he wrote:

> Failure is a matter of evaluation. Failure is the felt difference between what you assume you have to do, what you demand of yourself, and what you actually do. It is what you feel when your expectations exceed your realizations. If your ideals or goals are too high, in the sense that they are too vague, or too highly valued, or unrealistic, then you are likely to experience a sense of failure. Eventually you are likely to suffer from an inferiority complex, a low opinion of yourself. You are likely to be more or less overwhelmed by what you call "the general impenetrability" of things [p. 13].

The classroom teacher can also help change a negative self-concept into a positive one. A basic assumption of the

theory of self-concept is that a person behaves according to his beliefs. It follows, then, that a teacher's beliefs about himself and his students are crucial factors in determining his effectiveness. Available evidence indicates that the teacher's attitudes toward himself and others are as important, if not more so, than his techniques, practices, or materials. Purkey (1970) concluded:

> The way the evidence points is that each teacher needs to view himself with respect, liking, and acceptance. When teachers have essentially favorable attitudes toward themselves, they are in a much better position to build positive and realistic self-concepts in their students [p. 47].

Staines (1958, pp. 109-111) conducted a study involving careful observations, recording, and analyzing of data from teacher-child and child-child interaction in four elementary classrooms. The investigations showed marked differences between teachers in the frequency of references about the child in their comments, particularly in their positive or negative comments on the child's performance, status, and self-confidence. Also, it was found that it is possible to teach so that, while aiming at the normal results of teaching, specific changes can be made in the child's self-concept. Staines concluded that changes in a child's self-concept do occur as an outcome of the learning situation, and that self must be recognized as an important factor in learning.

Purkey (1970, pp. 49-50) presented a checklist by which teachers can judge whether or not their attitudes are conducive to developing a positive self-concept in their students:

1. Am I projecting an image that tells the student I am here to build, rather than to destroy, him as a person?

2. Do I let the student know that I am aware of and interested in him as a unique person?

3. Do I convey my expectations and confidence that the student can accomplish work, can learn, and is competent?

4. Do I provide well-defined standards of values, demands for competence, and guidance toward solutions to problems?

5. When working with parents, do I enhance the academic expectations and evaluations which they hold of their children's ability?

6. By my behavior, do I serve as a model of authenticity for the student?

7. Do I take every opportunity to establish a high degree of private or semi-private communication with my students?

Thus, although self-concept is stable and not easily changeable, it is possible to change a negative self-concept into a positive one. The expectations of the individual must be made more realistic and opportunities for successful experiences must be provided. The classroom teacher is perhaps in the best position to initiate and guide such experiences.

Summary

Self-concept, a person's evaluation of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings, is responsible for guiding, controlling, and regulating his actions and performance. Self-concept conditions the way in which people interpret the comments and actions of others toward their behavior and influences the

way in which a person will act in future situations. That is, self-concept is a prime factor controlling human behavior.

Because self-concept is a psychological construct, it cannot be directly observed. Instead, a person's behavior is observed and his self-concept is inferred from that behavior. Instruments have been developed to help determine self-concept, but care must be taken in interpreting any results achieved with some of these instruments because there are many different definitions of self-concept and many differences in theoretical orientation.

The development of a person's self-concept is influenced by significant others in the person's life and by the culture in which he lives. For the first several years of his life, these significant others are the parents who exert perhaps the strongest influence on the development of self-concept. When a child enters school, teachers become significant others and their influence is also very strong. Eventually members of the peer group and other adults become significant others, though their influence is not usually as strong as that of parents and teachers.

A person's concept of his ability to achieve is the strongest factor influencing how well he will perform. The successful person is one who is likely to see himself in essentially positive ways, while the unsuccessful student tends to have a negative self-concept.

Teacher expectations about the ability of a student to achieve appear to be transmitted to the student who then

fulfills these expectations. For this reason, the teacher is in a position to strongly influence a student's performance in either a positive or negative manner.

Although self-concept has a tendency to be stable, it is possible to change a negative self-concept into a positive one. The most important thing is to introduce the person to successful experiences and so change his expectations from ones of failure to ones of success. This is not an easy thing to accomplish, but teachers can provide opportunities for the student to perform tasks which have a probable chance of success.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The literature has been reviewed on the teaching of oral communication; on the nature, causes, and remediation of reticence; on the physical, intellectual, emotional, and psychological characteristics of the adolescent; and on various psychological theories pertaining to self-concept. There now remains the task of synthesizing the views and findings that have been discussed, and of drawing up principles and strategies for treating and preventing reticence. This synthesizing will take the form of a discussion of those elements covered in the first four chapters which must be taken into consideration.

SYNTHESIS

Proficiency in oral communication is essential if a person is to develop his full personal potential and lead a satisfying life. Too few people in the modern world have succeeded in actualizing their potential even without the added handicap of reticence. Whether such a condition is due, as May (1967a, p. 153) and other humanists suggest, to the fact that this is an age of transition, that the values, myths, and symbols which used to give meaning to life are disappearing and new ones are emerging to take their place, is uncertain. Nevertheless, whatever the causes, mankind seems to many to be more bewildered, more frustrated, more

unfilled than ever before.

The reticent person in the modern world is even worse off. Unable even to communicate his feelings, he has to suffer silently and keep his frustrations, feelings, and ambitions pent up inside him. In addition, the reticent person has, in the past, been almost totally ignored in the education system. The person with a more severe speech handicapp has generally received speech training, often in a clinical environment. The person with a facility for speaking has received additional training in the form of drama, debating, and public speaking. But little, if anything, has been done for the reticent student.

The causes of reticence are many. However, several emerge as being primary. These are: (1) the attitude toward communication in the home and in the school, (2) the condition of self-concept, and (3) the amount of conviction with which values are held. The most obvious source of reticence is the home, for it is here that the child's attitude towards oral communication is formed, the self-concept developed, and values handed down. The following are some of the things in the home that contribute to the growth of reticence:

1. Speech is used as a weapon, to scorn, ridicule, or chastize the child.

2. Conversation is discouraged because it interferes with listening to the radio and watching television.

3. The child is told that he must not speak unless spoken to, or that he must be seen and not heard.

4. The child is laughed at or made a fool for what he says.

5. Parents show little or no affection and love through their speech. That is, they remain cold and aloof. The child cannot learn the regard of speech in such an atmosphere.

6. Parents are too busy with other things to take time to listen to and talk with the child.

Such treatment not only discourages the development of good speech habits and prevents the child from learning how to communicate effectively, but can also have a damaging effect on the child's self-concept. If the child is treated in such a manner, he finds it difficult to establish his identity as a person and to have a high level of self-esteem. If he is unable to find himself and if he feels that he is inferior, he will not risk rejection and ridicule by attempting to communicate with others. Not all children who live in such an environment become reticent. Some are strong enough to develop good interpersonal communication habits and are able to communicate effectively in spite of the condition of the home environment. However, the atmosphere of the home, especially as regards oral communication, is critical as to whether or not the child develops reticence.

The atmosphere of the school is another important factor in the development of reticence. For eleven years or more a child spends several hours a day in the classroom. The following are things which occur in some classrooms and which contribute to the growth of reticence in some students:

1. The teacher is authoritarian and permits students to speak only to ask or answer questions.

2. The teacher uses sarcasm as a weapon against the student.

3. The teacher criticizes the student's manner of speaking--either his pronunciation, accent, or grammar. Because of the complex relationship between speech and personality, the child perceives such criticism as referring to his total self.

4. The teacher acts as a switchboard operator, plugging in and pulling out speakers. This means that communication in the classroom takes place between teacher and student, but not between student and student.

5. The teacher is interested only in receiving the "right" answers from the student, who spends his time trying to guess what answer the teacher is looking for.

6. The teacher is determined to stay rigidly to the subject matter to be covered for that day. No digression is permitted, even if the whole class is interested.

7. The teacher does not help the student to understand the communication process and the benefits to be reaped from oral communication.

The effects of some of these practices on students have been well documented in recent years by critics of the education system. One has only to read what some of these critics (for example, Glasser, 1969; Holt, 1964; Leonard, 1968; Silberman, 1970; Postman and Weingartner, 1969) have written to realize that some of the things that cause reticence are also being criticized for having adverse effects on the educational system.

A lack of conviction about values is another cause of reticence. A child receives his value system from his family and from the culture of the society in which he lives. When the child becomes an adolescent, he begins to question the values he has received from others. The adolescent will accept some of these inherited values,

reject others, and will accept new ones into his value system. While this process is taking place, he is very vulnerable. If he does not have a healthy self-concept, he may be afraid to express his values because he fears they will be attacked and criticized. If he is not secure enough to defend his values, or if he perceives an attack on his values as an attack on his personality, withdrawal from communication may be the result. Rather than risk being attacked, he will not participate. He is like a turtle who will not expose his head because he is afraid it will be snapped off. So, he withdraws farther and farther into his shell. As time goes by, as experience after experience tells him his fears were correct, he gradually ceases to talk at all. It is at this stage that he has fallen victim to severe mental illness. Fortunately, only a small percentage deteriorate to this stage. Unfortunately, far too many become reticent. Their self-concepts have been so bruised and battered by their experiences that they cringe at the very thought of a verbal encounter.

A child who has been raised in a small community (such as a Newfoundland outport) or in a subculture (a ghetto, for example) where he feels very secure will often suffer a shock when he ventures into a larger community where the value system is different. Whether the student is attending school out of his local area, or he moves into a new area, a difference in the value system can result in an attack on his self-concept. Unless his self-concept is strong enough to stand up to the attack and unless he has a good foundation

in interpersonal communication, he has to change his behavior to compensate for the clash between his values and those of the culture. Many times this compensating behavior is withdrawal from oral communication, reticence. Although little research has been done on the effects of culture on reticence, many educators and sociologists feel that in many cases (children of migratory workers, for example) this influence is strong.

Whatever the causes of reticence--and not enough research has been done to determine all of them or their precise effects--it is clear that reticence develops for different reasons, depending upon the culture, the individual, and the situation. The fact remains that teachers are faced with students whose fear of oral communication is so great that they refuse to risk an encounter. So, given the situation that reticence exists and is a problem, what can be done to alleviate it?

Fortunately, there are a number of things that can be done, all of them based on the premise that the reticent student is one whose self-confidence in his ability to communicate orally is so low that he is afraid to risk speaking. The aim of any program to treat reticence must be to raise the level of self-confidence, develop a positive self-concept, educate about the communication process, and train in the basics of interpersonal communication.

The first step in helping the reticent student must be to introduce him to successful oral communication

experiences, and in this way help him to build up his self-confidence and change his self-concept from negative to positive. Since the self-concept is relatively stable, any attempt to change it must be a long-range project. Results must not be expected immediately, though some reticent students may show immediate gains. The important thing is for the teacher to help the students determine where they are, where they want to go, and what the next step is.

The strategies the teacher uses when he first begins to treat reticence must help the student experience success and must remove as much threat as possible. In addition, these strategies must be of such a nature as to permit all students to have an equal footing. As it happens, the exercises developed by advocates of affective education, humanistic education, the human potential movement, and the use of labratory methods (all of these overlap) have precisely this effect.[1] The philosphy of these movements, that of developing man to be a fully functioning person, lends itself to the treatment of the reticent person.

Since most reticent students have little conviction in their values and are weak in decision making, any attempt to treat reticence must make provision for training in these areas. The philosophy and strategies developed by Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966) can be of inestimable help to the

---

[1] For example, see Maslow (1962), Rogers (1961, 1969), Glasser (1965), Schutz (1967), Brown (1971), and Hunter (1972).

teacher who desires to aid students develop the processes of valuing and decision making. These authors maintain that teachers can help students in these areas while at the same time teaching a standard curriculum.

In providing successful experiences, the teacher must take into consideration the influence of the peer group. A reticent student will not perform in front of a large group of his peers for fear of appearing to be ridiculous. However, put that same individual in a small group of four or five, give him something to talk about that concerns and interests him, let him experience success, and he will eventually lose some of his inhibitions and fears, gain self-confidence, and achieve the respect of his peers. Let him know that others feel the same way as he does regarding many things, but especially about communicating orally in front of others, and he will begin to perceive that he is not abnormal after all. Help the reticent student to evaluate his present position, to set goals that are realistic, to take the next step, and he will begin to see that his problem is not insurmountable and that he can succeed. Place him in a group of students all working to improve their interpersonal communication and he will draw strength from the others and will in turn support them.

There is more to solving the problem of reticence than just helping the student to speak in a public situation. Interpersonal communication results only when there is honesty, openness, and trust between the two who are communicating.

If a person does not disclose himself to the other, interpersonal communication cannot take place. Disclosure begets disclosure. Trust begets trust. For far too long people have tried to hide behind a front, an image of themselves they project to others while protecting their real selves. Unfortunately, after a time a person is no longer able to differentiate his real self from his projected false self. The two blend and merge. Only when a person knows himself and shows himself to others can interpersonal communication take place. Any attempt to treat reticence must try to help the individual become open and honest. Otherwise, the result will be a shallow, talking person where once there was a withdrawn, silent person. And that is not much of an improvement.

II. PRINCIPLES

1. The atmosphere of the classroom must be communication-oriented.

The first principle means a great many things, but most of all it means that the teacher must make the classroom a place where students are encouraged to express themselves on any topic whatsoever without fear of being evaluated and judged on the manner in which they speak or on what they say. The goal, then, is to supply a new interpersonal environment which is acceptable to the participant, i.e., an environment in which he will respond. This goal can best be achieved in a climate of total acceptance, which means that the teacher

must avoid seeking to instill his own value system in his students. He encourages discussion, asking questions designed to elicit responses from all group members. Giffin and Bradley (1969, pp. 26-27) stated five techniques to be employed by the teacher in attempting to create this type of atmosphere:

(a) Encourage participation of all group members.

(b) Be supportive of all comments which appear to expose students' fears and anxieties regarding communication.

(c) Be patient when nothing seems to be happening.

(d) Be calm when emotional behavior occurs.

(e) Show no negative attitudes towards students.

As Phillips (1970) stated, "The goal of the communication-centered classroom is to minimize threat to the student, while maximizing the extent to which he feels free to participate according to his disposition [p. 148]." The objective of the communication-centered classroom, then, is to provide maximum exposure to situations wherein any contribution of the reticent student will be valued by the teacher and the rest of the class. Repeated exposure in favorable circumstances will induce further verbalization from the participant to the point where he will regard "speaking" as a familiar and even favorable experience.

2. Help the student to develop a strong positive self-concept.

In reality, this principle is the aim of all the other principles and all the strategies. The relationship

between reticence and self-concept has already been discussed,[1] as has the method of changing a negative self-concept into a positive one.[2] The reticent student has been found to have an abnormal self-concept, either of inferiority or superiority. Those with feelings of inferiority will not say anything either because they are afraid others will ridicule what they say, or because they feel they have nothing worth saying. Those students with superiority complexes feel that they are far superior to others and will often not speak because they consider others stupid and not worth the effort. At any rate, by working to develop a positive self-concept, the teacher can help both these groups overcome their problems.

3. The teacher must have the characteristics of realness, prizing, and empathy.

Rogers (1969, pp. 106-112) stated three principles which he feels are absolutely essential for a teacher to have if he is to effect any change in any student, but especially in a reticent student. Perhaps the most basic of these essential qualities is realness or genuineness. When the teacher is a real person, being what he is, entering into a relationship with the student without presenting a front or façade, he is much more likely to be effective. It seems to be axiomatic in education for the teacher to remain aloof

---

[1]See page 24 above. [2]See pages 56-58 above.

from the students and to put on a front of being emotionally uninvolved. When this is so, there is no way that interpersonal communication can take place since realness is one of the basic elements necessary for disclosure. Without disclosure on the part of the teacher, there is no possibility for communication to take place since the student will not have trust and hence will not risk disclosing himself to the teacher. This does not mean that the teacher must bare his innermost thoughts and emotions to the student, since each person has the right to decide how much of himself he is able to disclose. However, without letting himself be known by the students as a real person, the teacher has no chance of establishing real communication with his students.

There is a second characteristic which stands out in those who are successful in facilitating learning: prizing the learner, prizing his feelings, his opinions, and his person. This means caring for the learner, but a non-possessive caring. It is an acceptance of this other individual as a separate person, having worth in his own right. It is a basic trust, a belief that this other person is fundamentally trustworthy.

The third characteristic necessary for those who would influence others is empathic understanding. When the teacher has the ability to understand students' reactions from the inside, has a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student, then again the liklihood of significant changes is increased.

Students feel deeply appreciative when they are simply understood--not evaluated, not judged, simply understood from their own point of view, not the teacher's. Rogers (1969) concluded as follows:

> When a facilitator creates, even to a modest degree, a classroom climate characterized by all that he can achieve of realness, prizing, and empathy; when he trusts the constructive tendency of the individual and the group; then he discovers he has inaugurated an educational revolution. Learning of a different quality, proceeding at a different pace, with a greater degree of pervasiveness, occurs. Feelings--positive, negative, confused--become a part of the classroom experience. Learning becomes life, and a very vital life at that. The student is on his way, sometimes excitedly, sometimes reluctantly, to becoming a learning, changing, being [p. 115].

4. Reduce the level of anxiety about communicating orally.

According to Steward (1968, p. 4), reticence occurs when a person's anxieties and fears of communicating outweigh his perceptions of the anticipated rewards or preslude consideration of a successful performance. That is, the level of fear is so great that the individual sees the communication act as not being worth the risk or concludes that he has no chance of success. This being so, one of the major aims of any attempt to alleviate the problem of reticence must be to reduce the fears and anxieties which an individual has regarding oral communication.

Researchers have found that reticent students reported no difficulties in communicating with people much younger than themselves.[1] This is due to the fact that such

---

[1] See page 13 above.

people represent no threat in the sense that they will not judge and criticize either the manner in which the individual speaks or the content of what he says. With the reduction of fears and anxieties of rejection and ridicule, the reticent individual finds little or no anxiety in expressing himself orally. Thus, the aim of the teacher must be to reduce students' anxieties about speaking. Steward (1968) expressed this idea as follows:

> The important thing, then, is to focus attention on a task, to provide situations in which the student will find himself involved in communication in spite of his apprehension; where he might, for a moment, forget his fears, and thereby learn something about their management [p. 144].

5. Raise the level of self-confidence of the student.

Self-confidence may be described as intrapersonal trust, a person's opinion or belief that he can do well (or not so well) under a specified set of conditions (Giffin and Masterson, 1969, p. 312). Thus, self-confident behavior is reliance upon oneself to achieve a desired but uncertain objective in a risky situation. Low self-confidence in a speaker is his unwillingness to rely upon himself in a communication situation and means that such a person would never undertake an activity such as speaking if the outcome was uncertain unless he is forced to by a powerful social forces. If the reticent person is to be helped, his level of self-confidence must be raised--he must be convinced that he has an excellent chance to succeed.

6. Provide opportunities for successful oral communication experiences.

One way to raise the level of self-confidence of a reticent speaker is to provide him with situations in which he can communicate orally with a minimum of threat and a maximum chance of success. The cliché "Nothing succeeds like success" is applicable here. Glasser (1969, p. 5) stressed this point when he said that regardless of how many failures a person has experienced (and the reticent speaker has experienced many), he can raise his level of confidence and his level of performance only by experiencing success. The raising of the level of self-confidence is a long process and results should not be expected immediately. However, each time a student experiences success, his fears are lessened and he sees his chances of succeeding as being greater with every successful experience. Memories of past successes act to provide the self-confidence needed for the present task and the impetus to move forward.

Wylie (1961, p. 173) has provided experimental proof that students are likely to change their levels of self-confidence after experimentally-induced success. Steward (1968) also expressed this idea:

> Certainly, many ways can be devised to provide additional props and aids to help reduce threat and provide the student with experiences which he might perceive as successful and rewarding. With continuing success and gradual improvement, the student may, hopefully, become willing to risk increasingly demanding exposures until an optimum degree of autonomy is achieved [p. 145].

7. Educate the student to realistically evaluate his ability to communicate orally.

Reticent students have been found to set very high standards for themselves and to become demoralized and give up when they cannot perform to these standards. For this reason, it is important that reticent students be able to evaluate their abilities to communicate orally and to set goals and standards that are attainable. Johnson (1946, p. 13) pointed out that failure is a matter of evaluation. It is what a person feels when his expectations exceed his realizations. If a person's ideals or goals are too high (in the sense that they are too vague or too highly valued, or unrealistic), then he is likely to experience a sense of failure and eventually suffer from an inferiority complex.

A person's expectations of himself in oral communication should be based on objective appraisals of his current capabilities and his potential for improvement. An objective appraisal of personal goals must be made by the individual himself; nobody else can do it for him. However, the teacher and other members of the class (when in a group situation) can be useful in helping an individual to see unreasonable fears and anxieties attached to an unreasonable goal.

Johnson (1946) has aptly summarized the danger of self-evaluation:

> In our own culture, too, there are these kinds of fear, but there is also, and rather more importantly, what we might call evaluative fear. This is to say, it is not so much facts

> of actual experience that torment us; it is to a greater degree the evaluations we make of these facts, and the hobgoblins we create out of thin air [p. 344].

8. Develop in the reticent person a concern for spontaneous, open, honest relationships.

Here the emphasis is on personal involvement, but this does not mean that the individual frantically hurls himself into every event or at everybody. In a communication situation, involvement can be achieved by the appropriate application of the skills of non-evaluative listening and self-disclosure. Rogers and Roethsliberger (1952, p. 19) stressed the importance of non-evaluative listening when they stated that the major obstacle to mutual interpersonal communication is the natural tendency in humans to judge, to evaluate, to approve or disapprove the statement of the other person or group. The goal of non-evaluative listening is to see the expressed idea and attitude from the other person's point of view, to sense how it feels for him, and to achieve his frame of reference in regard to the things he is talking about. Sometimes the skill is described as listening <u>with</u> as opposed to listening <u>to</u> a person, or trying to think <u>with</u> him instead of thinking ahead and mentally jumping forward to get the story over with before the other person is halfway there.

Self-disclosure, the other skill necessary for students to become personally involved in a communication situation, does not mean exposing one's most imtimate

secrets as in therapeutic situations. Rather, self-disclosure, according to Jourard (1968, p. 21) means showing oneself in willful honesty before the other person and responding to the other with an expression of one's experience as the other person has affected. According to Jourard, self-disclosure begets self-disclosure. As he stated, "The most powerful determiner of self-disclosure appears to be the willingness of the audience to disclose himself to the same extent that he expects the subject to confide his experience [p. 23]."

Communication in the real sense cannot take place unless a person knows how to be open and honest. Thus, one of the aims of an attempt to deal with reticence must be to enable the students to listen without evaluating and to trust others enough to disclose parts of one's self.

9. Develop in the student the process of valuing.

Investigations have shown that reticent students generally show a lack of firmly-held values (Muir, 1964, pp. 107-108). That is, reticent students do not have clearly-defined values nor do they have any great degree of conviction about what values they do possess. What is needed, then, is to help students develop their ability to value. This does not mean presenting students with values to be adopted, but it does mean helping them to be able to decide which beliefs, attitudes, activities, and feelings are values in their lives.

Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966, p. 30) showed that

the process of valuing consists of the following steps:

CHOOSING: (1) freely
(2) from alternatives
(3) after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative

PRIZING: (4) cherishing, being happy with the choice
(5) willing to affirm the choice publicly

ACTING: (6) doing something with the choice
(7) repeatedly, in some pattern of life

That is, to select values, a person must choose, prize, and act. Only when all of these elements are present is something to be called a value.

These same writers (1966, pp. 38-39) also showed how teachers could help their students develop values:

(a) Encourage children to make choices, and to make them freely.

(b) Help children weigh alternatives thoughtfully, reflecting on the consequences of each.

(c) Help them discover and examine available alternatives when faced with choices.

(d) Encourage children to consider what it is that they prize and cherish.

(e) Give them opportunities to make public affirmations of their choices.

(f) Encourage them to act and live in accordance with their choices.

(g) Help them to examine repeated behaviors or patterns in their life.

As well as lacking firm values, reticent students have shown indecisiveness; they were unable to make decisions about large or small things and were not likely to commit themselves to causes and ideas.[1] Training in decision making

---

[1]See page 14 above.

like training in the process of valuing, has to be a very important part of any attempt to treat reticence. Indeed, these two--valuing and decision making--are really part of the same thing, since the process of valuing includes making decisions.

Allowing students to make decisions about matters in the classroom and in the school--for example, determining subject matter to be studied and grading their own performances--presumes a great deal of maturity. However, even if the system fails (and it sometimes will), it has exposed the students to some of the problems they are likely to encounter in making decisions in their later life. Decision-making experiences like these convey an air of reality to the student and the operation of the society around him. Phillips (1970, p. 154) explained that participation in decision making reveals to the reticent student that he has deficiencies at communication which in turn motivates him first to recognize and verbalize some of his problems, and then to initiate activities and projects designed to remedy them.

10. Educate the reticent student about the communication process.

Reticent students have been discovered to have no understanding of the communication process and to have no knowledge of what is required of them in the communication act.[1] Thus, one of the things that must be done in an attempt

[1]See page 14 above.

to alleviate the problem of reticence is to help the student become aware of just what the oral communication process entails and what the responsibilities of a communicator are. The teacher himself must first have a clear understanding of the theories of communication.

The theory of communication adopted by the teacher is very important. Until recently books on oral communication stressed public speaking and debating, with an emphasis on the one-to-many situation and on such terms as "influence," "achieving a desired response," and inducing behavior consistent with the speaker's view (Llardo, 1972, p. 1). During the past several years, however, emphasis has shifted to interpersonal communication with a view of communication as transaction. As Giffin and Patton (1971, p. ix) stated, the more traditional view of communication usually focused on two objectives: (1) to tell others what I know or believe, and (2) to get others to see things as I do. At present, however, emphasis is shifting to interpersonal communication with such goals as improved person-to-person communication (especially at the dyadic and small group levels), the establishment of more meaningful and satisfying interpersonal relationships, and the fulfillment of individual potential (Llardo, 1972, p. 2). The former emphasis on "speaker-acting-upon-auditor" is giving way to "mutual-interaction-and-influence." In explaining the communication process to reticent students, the teacher must be careful to use an interpersonal communication orientation, not a public speaking one.

11. Help the student to set his goals regarding oral communication.

Although the main emphasis in this attempt to treat and prevent reticence has been on the affective domain, the cognitive domain is not to be ignored. Since the reticent student is weak in decision making and in his knowledge and understanding of the communication process, he must set goals for himself and then determine whether or not he has reached these goals. Although changing the communicative behavior of the reticent student is not enough, it is one of the aims, for change in behavior can also lead to change in attitude, as Glasser (1965) stated:

> Waiting for attitude to change stalls therapy, whereas changing behavior leads quickly to a change in attitude which in turn can lead to fulfilling needs and further better behavior [p. 13].

In changing his behavior the student retains the right to decide on his own goals and to report satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his accomplishments. Although the focus is on behavior change, the effectiveness of the behavior change is evaluated against how the student feels about himself as a communicator, as Phillips and Metzger (1973, p. 22) explained.

Goal-setting implies a specific plan of action. Mager (1972, pp. 18-26) has explained in great detail the process of goal-setting. Based on Mager's ideas, Phillips and Metzger (1973, p. 22) have developed the following guidelines for helping students set goals in communication:

(a) The subject must set goals that can be accomplished. Goals must be limited by time, space, facilities, and mental and physical abilities.

(b) The subject needs to know what would have to happen to indicate that the goal was reached.

(c) The subject needs to be able to lay out some steps in orderly progression to reach the goal.

(d) The subject needs to be able to evaluate his own progress against some guidelines for judgment.

(e) The subject needs to prepare some alternative methods to achieve the goal if progress is deemed insufficient.

Students may need extensive coaching in following these steps at first, but with a little practice they should be able to use this method with ease to effectively increase their performance in oral communication situations. A word of caution is necessary. This principle should not be practiced at the beginning of the attempt to treat reticence. Unless the groundwork has been laid and the level of self-confidence has been raised, this method could very easily increase the fears and anxieties of the reticent student. However, when he has advanced enough that he will not feel threatened, then is the time to effectively take this step.

12. Be very careful about evaluation of the students' oral communication performance.

Several studies have shown, as Phillips (1970, p. 147) has pointed out, that there is virtually no agreement among speech teachers on evaluation. This is not due to teacher incompetence, but rather to the fact that evaluation of performance in oral communication is a function of the taste of the evaluater. What this means is that the teacher cannot

isolate elements of performance in order to evaluate them.

When a teacher evaluates speech performance, he is in effect evaluating the projected personality of the student because of the close relationship between speech and personality.[1] Even if the teacher does not mean it that way, the student perceives grades on his oral performance to be evaluations of himself as a person. Far from helping the reticent student, such evaluations cause him to retreat farther into himself and to withdraw even more from oral communication because of the threat to his self-concept.

As Steward (1968, p. 143) stated, the relationship between the teacher and the student should be non-judgmental so as to minimize as far as possible the prospect of threat to the student's self-concept. This means, simply, that the student must feel free to communicate without penalty and must be able to feel that he can speak without risking rejection as manifested either in a grade or in an admonition.

Evaluation, then, is harmful if it means interpreting a student's oral communication behavior in grades and marks. However, evaluation can be successful if it means

> ...devising procedures for giving the student constructive feedback, for helping the student to become aware of his oral communication behavior, and for helping the student to become aware of his strengths [Boressoff, 1972, p. 123]

---

[1] See page 16 above.

All students should receive feedback concerning their strengths in a variety of ways. They should know the elements of communication in which they are successful if their self-concepts are to be positive. To give the student a list of his faults in oral communication can do incalculable damage to his self-concept. However, Boressoff's "next step" concept works very well with reticent students:

> Teachers and students, as they work in groups and work together should have the "next step" philosophy. In other words, the student should get feedback from the teacher and from his peers as to that one thing which he now needs to do better--his one "next step." The next step for one student might be to speak a little louder, for another to speak a little less, and for another to listen more. Each student should be aware of his next step [Boressoff 1972, p. 108].

Psychologically, the reticent student realizes that all students in the classroom are on an equal footing if each has a next step to work on. Progress is then measured by whether or not the student achieves his next step.

If a grade is necessary, the teacher must assure the reticent student that the grade will be based on improvement, effort, and achievement. Conferences with the student will help enormously provided the student feels that the teacher is on his side and really cares about him as a person.

Grading, then, should be avoided if at all possible, especially when the teacher first begins trying to treat reticent students. If a final grade is absolutely necessary, it should be based on achievement, effort, and improvement, and arrived at in conference with the student himself.

Evaluation is better thought of as feedback to the student to help him become aware of his oral communication behavior and strengths so that he can decide on his next step.

III. STRATEGIES

The strategies presented here are designed to help alleviate the problem of reticence. However, they are really only the bare minimum needed to treat the problem. They provide the foundation upon which the teacher can build further. Once the foundation has been laid and the students' self-confidence raised, the teacher can use other strategies such as oral interpretation, Readers Theatre, educational drama, and the traditional oral communication exercises, including role playing, drama, public speaking, and debating. What the teacher uses depends upon how his students respond and how much progress they make.

Teachers need to exercise care and caution in implementing these strategies. The following are some of the things a teacher must consider:

(a) Where are the students now? What are their strengths and weaknesses in oral communication?

(b) Plan the strategies in sequence, using variety so that students do not become bored. Some exercises are more valuable when the teacher first begins to treat reticence, while others should wait until the students have gained self-confidence.

(c) The teacher must have the goals of the strategy in mind at all times. These strategies are not games to be completed just for entertainment. They do have a definite, stated purpose.

(d) The sense of timing of the teacher is very important. He must know when to pursue a point and when to go on

to something else. He must know how to differentiate between disclosure and nosiness. Students, especially at first, will try to protect their real selves. The teacher must be sensitive enough to realize how far to go at any particular time.

(e) The teacher must not be afraid to experiment with these strategies, to adapt and revise them, and to invent similar exercises of his own.

(f) Sufficient time must be alloted in class to complete the exercise being worked on. It is frustrating for the student to have the exercise stopped before it is finished just because the bell rings. If possible, a double period should be allowed for some exercises. In addition, the goals of the strategies require discussion at the end of the exercise. If time is not allowed for this discussion, the goal of the strategy may not be achieved.

(g) These strategies should be integrated with other subjects. They should tie in with literature, language, social studies, science, and other subjects. It is easier to begin using these strategies apart from the regular program, but once students develop self-confidence the teacher can use them with any subject.

Grandmother's Trunk

Goal: To discover and establish individual and group identity; to begin to build individual and group faith via a listening exercise.

Students are seated in a circle or double horseshoe. The teacher begins by giving the class the statement, "My grandmother went to Toronto and in her trunk she had _____ and _____." The blanks are to be filled in with the student's name and an item that begins with the same initial sound as the person's name (Mary and mustard, for example). The next student then repeats what the previous person has said and adds his own name and item. The game proceeds until each member of the class has added to the contents of grandmother's

trunk. If a student has trouble remembering, he may ask for help from the student whose name and/or item he has forgotten. Students should not offer aid by calling out the forfotten items. If the list gets too long or the class has difficulty remembering, the teacher should go back two or three students and begin from there. The important thing is to keep the game from becoming competitive. The atmosphere must be kept friendly so that each student will feel at ease in contributing.

Sentence Completions

Goal: To help students to know one another better; to provide students with topics that do not rely on previous knowledge so that all students are on an equal footing.

This strategy can be accomplished in small groups or in a large group. Each student completes the statement with his own wishes and feelings. Discussion can follow on reasons for choices. The following is a sample of some of the statements that can be used:

1. The reason I'm here is....
2. With a gift of $100, I would....
3. Right now I'm feeling....
4. I can hardly wait to be able to....
5. My children won't have to _____ because....
6. If I had a car of my own....
7. Some people seem to want only to....
8. My bluest days are....

9. My advice to the world would be....

10. When I think about the future, I see myself....

11. When I am in a new group I....

12. I am happiest when....

13. Breaking rules that seem arbitrary makes me feel....

14. The thing that turns me off the most is....

15. When I am alone I usually....

16. In crowds I....

17. To me, taking orders from another person....

18. I'm for....

19. I'm against....

20. I feel that....

21. If you ask me....

22. One of these days....

23. After school I usually....

24. If I could be someone else, I'd be....

25. When I talk in front of the class, I feel....

26. When I lose an argument or a game, I feel....

27. I feel happy (sad, angry, proud, shy, etc.,) when....

28. If I were a teacher, I'd....

29. I feel like yelling (smiling, crying, hitting, etc.,) when....

30. I think school is....

What Can It Be Used For?

Goal: To introduce the concept of working in small groups.

Divide the students into small groups of four to six students in each group. Have each group choose a

student to act as recorder. Next, hold up some object (a yardstick, a softdrink can, a stick of chalk, etc.,) and ask the students to think of as many ways as possible to use the object. Encourage creative thinking by stressing that no idea is too far out. Walk around to each group, giving hints if necessary. After several minutes, ask for answers from different groups. Do not be critical of any answer. Have each group choose what they consider to be their most original suggestions and share them with the rest of the class.

When the exercise has been completed, ask the students to think back and recall how the recorder for each group was chosen. Did someone volunteer? Did the group elect someone? Did someone act as leader and appoint someone? Were the ideas contributed primarily by one student? Was there any student who made no contribution? These questions need not be answered vocally, but the students should have time to think about them.

Rumor Clinic

Goal: To illustrate the distortions in communicating information as it is transmitted from the original source through several individuals.

The teacher selects six members of the class to be the participants. Five of these six are asked to leave the classroom, while one remains with the teacher and the rest of the students. The teacher then reads the message, using a tape recorder if possible. The second participant is then called back into the room and listens as the first participant

reports what he heard from the teacher. It is important to keep in mind that each participant is to transmit the message in his own way, with no help from anyone. This process is repeated until all the participants have reported. The final message is then compared with the first, by tape recorder if one is being used. The teacher then leads a discussion with the class on the implications of the rumor clinic experience.

The following is an example of the type of story that can be used for the rumor:

"I just overheard this at the Principal's office. They were talking about how students are seeking ways to have more say in running the school. The Vice Principal said he would quit his job before he would turn over the school to students. Anyway, it sounded as if we are going to have more say around here, especially after that protest demonstration in front of the Principal's house. Student Council will prepare a code of student conduct to be enforced by students. The school newspaper will have less censorship. There may be a faculty-student review board to rehear discipline cases now decided by the Principal alone. And class attendance may become voluntary."

Mirroring

Goal: To demonstrate that total concentration leads to an understanding of the other person; to reduce student anxiety about public performance.

This exercise is helpful if it is used early and often in an attempt to treat reticence. Students pair off,

with each pair finding enough space for itself. Both students of each pair face each other and hold up their hands, palms outward. As they look into each other's eyes, one assumes leadership and the other tries to follow or mirror his hand movements. After several minutes, the other student becomes leader. Finally, the students try the same thing, this time with neither as the designated leader. When the exercise has been completed, students form into small groups and discuss how they felt during the exercise. The teacher can ask them to consider who led most of the time during the last part of the exercise.

Once the students become proficient at this exercise, they are ready to try a more difficult version found in Clarke, Erway, and Beltzer (1971, p. 142). In groups of two, one student is designated as the person looking into the mirror, the other as the mirror reflection. The student looking into the mirror may manifest any behavior he wishes and the other tries to mirror it. Eye contact throughout this exercise is essential. At first, relatively simple and slow movements should be encouraged. Things such as combing the hair, brushing the teeth, and shaving are good beginners. More complicated movements can follow.

A discussion in small groups should follow. Students should express their feelings about the exercise, including how they felt as the exercise progressed.

Microlabs

Goal: To foster openness and trust; to encourage a

sharing and caring atmosphere.

The teacher divides the class into small groups and gives them some topics to discuss. The teacher should move from group to group encouraging sharing. After small group discussion is finished, the class can share their experiences with each other. Below are some suggestions for topics of discussion:

1. Tell the best thing that ever happened to you.
2. Tell about something unpleasant that happened to you.
3. Tell about something pleasant that happened to you in school.
4. Tell something that you like about yourself.
5. Describe something about yourself that you do not like.
6. Decide as a group on two people who must leave and join another group so that all have the chance to talk to some new people (all groups change two members). Tell how you usually feel when you enter a new group.
7. Share a worry that you have now--something that is bothering you.
8. What is there in your life that makes you happy?
9. What are some of the things you like about this class (school)?
10. What are some of the things you dislike about this class (school)?

Trust Walk

Goal: To develop in students a trust of others.

The students form groups of two. One of each pair is designated to lead. The other student is blindfolded and led or guided around the classroom, other parts of the school, and out-of-doors if possible. Then roles are reversed and the

walk repeated. During the walk, the students should be aware of their feelings both while being led and while leading. Upon completion of the exercise, the students meet in small groups and then as a large group to discuss their reactions.

Faraway Island

Goal: To help students become aware of, and articulate, the criteria they use for attaching significance to other people; to give students practice in working in groups.

This exercise was developed by Weinstein and Fantini (1970, p. 123). The students form small groups and choose a recorder. The teacher then gives the students the following directions: "Assume that you have to spend the rest of your life on a remote island with just six people and nobody else. None of these people can be anyone you already know, but you are allowed to specify what they should be like. What kinds of people would you pick to spend the rest of your life with? You might think about how old they would be, their sex, their personalities, their looks, the things they can do, and any other qualities you can think of. Assume also that all your basic needs are taken care of, so you don't have to scrounge around for food, clothing, and shelter. All you have to do is describe as fully as you can what the people you would choose to live with would be like."

The teacher has each group draw up its own list, trying to arrive at a consensus. Each group should then share its results with the rest of the class and give reasons

for their choices.

When the exercise has been completed, the teacher should lead a discussion of the group forces at work during the exercise. Did every member of the group make a contribution? Did the group agree on their choices? Did one student assume leadership?

Group Pressure

Goal: To help students become aware of the effects of others on their decisions.

The teacher chooses six or seven students to sit in front of the class. These students should either be blindfolded or sit with their eyes tightly closed. The remainder of the class observes. The teacher, holding a length of string in his hands, goes to each student sitting in front of the class and gives them the string for a moment. The students are asked to estimate the length of the string and to remember their answer. For one subject, the last, the teacher substitutes another piece of string which is much shorter. For example, five students may get a string of twenty inches, while the last student may get one of eight inches.

The teacher then asks the students to give their guesses as to the length of the string. Very often the last student to be asked, the one who had held the short piece of string, will "go along with" the group's estimate rather than express his own perception of the length of the string.

After the exercise has concluded, the teacher leads

a discussion with the whole class. What actually happened in this situation? What alternative might have happened? Why? Why do many people accept the group norm against their better judgment? How do you feel if you are the only one defending a certain position?

Listening Exercise

Goal: To develop listening ability in the students; to introduce the students to the concept of understanding other people.

The teacher divides the class into small groups and gives them a list of topics from which to choose. The discussion should be unstructured, except that before each participant speaks he must first summarize, to the satisfaction of the person who last spoke and in his own words, what has been said by the previous speaker.

After enough time has elapsed so that each member of each group has had an opportunity to participate, the teacher leads a discussion of the following questions, first in small groups and then with all the students in a large group:

1. Did you find you had difficulty listening to others? Why?

2. Did you find that you had difficulty in formulating your thoughts and listening at the same time?

   a) forgetting what you were going to say
   b) not listening to others
   c) rehearsing your response

3. When others paraphrased your remarks, did they do it in a shorter, clearer way?

4. Did you find that you were not getting across what you wanted to say?

5. Was the manner of presentation of others affecting your listening ability?

Fishbowl Discussion

Goal: To help students become aware of the dynamics of small group discussion.

The students sit in a double horseshoe. The students on the inner horseshoe carry out a discussion while those on the outer horseshoe look for the interaction patterns, the effects of various speakers, and so on. After a long enough period of time the discussion is stopped to allow the observers to identify the processes. The discussion may be evaluated in terms of what helped the discussion and what disrupted or hurt it.

Another possibility is to assign partners and have one of the pair sit in the inner horseshoe and one in the outer one. The observers have specific responsibility for observing the part their partners play in the discussion.

Gloria Rakovic (1972) used the following as a guide:

A. Place a check next to the statements that describe best the way the group discussion was held:

_____ There was much warmth and friendliness.

_____ There was a lot of aggressive behavior.

_____ People were uninterested and uninvolved.

_____ People tried to dominate and take over.

_____ Participants were in need of help.

_____ Much of what was said was irrelevant.

_____ The participants were strictly task oriented.

_____ The members were polite to each other..

_____ There was a lot of underlying tension.

B. Whose behavior was like this?

_____ warm and friendly

_____ didn't participate much

_____ concentrated on the job

_____ tried to get others involved

_____ took over leadership

_____ was polite to all members

_____ suggestions were frequently off the point

_____ was a follower

_____ was irritated

_____ was eager and aggressive

Volunteer

Goal: To help the students realize how widespread are feelings of inadequacies; to help students recognize and conquer their fears and anxieties regarding performing in front of others.

The teacher begins by saying to the students, "Today we're going to need a few volunteers to lead us in an activity. Who is willing to volunteer?" After giving the students a few minutes to consider whether or not they will volunteer, the teacher tells them that this time volunteers are not actually needed, but instead all will participate in an exercise to look at their feelings regarding volunteering.

Next the teacher gives the following directions:

"Let's all close our eyes and get comfortable. Then, each of you will have a conversation inside your head between the you who wants to volunteer and the you who doesn't. Just let yourself go and actually have these two meet and talk to each other, each one trying to convince the other. Continue the conversation until one or the other wins."

After several minutes the teacher says, "Now open your eyes for a moment while listening to the next instructions. This time you will have your antagonists meet without words. While they won't talk to each other this time, they will use some nonverbal means to try and win out. Close your eyes now and if possible stay with this until one or the other prevails."

After a few minutes, the teacher has the students divide into small groups to share their experiences and feelings.

Leadership

Goal: To help students become aware of the different types of group leaders and of the various situations in which each is best.

The teacher divides the class into six small groups and designates one student from each group to be leader. Unknown to the groups he assigns two leaders to each of the three three types of leadership roles (authoritarian, democratic, and leaderless). The teacher then gives a written problem to each of the leaders, along with the following directions, developed by Galvin and Book (1972, pp. 64-65):

Authoritarian: Do not pass written problem around.
Read it to the group.
Express your own solution.
Try to bring the group to your solution.
Express your answer as the final group solution, but make allowances for another point of view if you are pressed.

Democratic: Pass written problem around.
Get reactions from all members.
Try to summarize or synthesize at certain points.
Express your own ideas only as a member.
Try to create a group consensus, or give a majority/minority report as the final solution.

Leaderless: Immediately put written problem on desk or give away completely.
Tell group that this is the problem to be solved.
Do not be responsible for directing discussion.
Do not give much in the way of personal solution.
Give group solution only if someone else will not.

Following completion of the exercise, discussion should take place centering around the following questions: Describe the behavior of the leader in your group. How did you feel about his behavior? How effective was your leader in bringing you to a solution? How would you characterize or label the types of leaders? In what situations might each of these types be useful?

Physical Confrontation

Goal: To help students relax and lose some of their anxieties about group performance; to enable students to work out feelings of aggression in a non-violent manner.

Danish thumb-wrestling is a method that does not rely on strength. The teacher asks the students to break into pairs. The participants begin to shake hands with each other but instead curl their four fingers and hook them into each other. This coupling must be held firmly throughout the match. The two thumbs are laid side by side, and then switch places by jumping over each other three times. After they come to rest the third time they are quickly raised in combat, the objective being to "pin" the other thumb so that it cannot be moved for at least a count of three.

Arm-wrestling is another common and ancient activity that can be used to achieve this objective.

The Press can also help. The two students are asked to stand facing each other and are given the following instructions: "one of you place your hands on the other's shoulders and press him to the floor. This is not a wrestling match. He may cooperate or resist or do whatever he wishes. After he is down, you are to help him to his feet. Again, he may help or resist, depending on how he feels. When that is completed, reverse roles and do the same thing."

Pushing is another useful activity to achieve this goal. The two participants stand facing each other and clasp both hands, palm to palm, intertwining their fingers. When they agree, they begin pushing each other, attempting to make the other give ground. They stop whenever they wish.

When the exercise has been completed, students break into small groups and discuss how they felt during the exercise. Feelings can then be shared in a large group.

Isolation

Goal: To enable students to experience feelings of isolation, with a view to helping them become aware of how it feels to be ignored and rejected by a group.

The students divide into groups of six or seven. The teacher asks two students from each group to leave the classroom for a few minutes. The remaining students in each group are told to accept one student when they return and to direct all their conversation and questions to that person. The other student is to be ignored completely, and is not to be talked to under any circumstances. The students outside the classroom are asked to return and a discussion (with a choice of topics) commences. After ten or fifteen minutes, the teacher calls a halt to the discussion and asks the students who had been outside for their feelings and reactions about what happened to them. The rest of the students should be included in this discussion.

Group Rejection

Goal: To help students to understand how people feel when they are accepted and/or rejected by a group.

The teacher asks the students to get into groups of five (or any number, for that matter), and stresses that each group must have exactly five members, no more and no less. Once the groups have been formed, the teacher tells them that a group with five members no longer qualifies. The new rule

of eligibility is that a group has to have only four members. When the new groups have been formed, they should sit in a double horseshoe. The teacher then questions them to find out how they felt. "How did you feel when I asked you to get into groups? How did you feel when I asked you to reduce your group? How did those who remained in the group feel? How did those who were rejected feel?"

One-Way Glasses

Goal: To help students realize that a person's dominant feelings of the moment affect what they see and how they respond, and that their perceptions of the world are not necessarily true or shared by others.

If possible, the teacher brings to the classroom a box of old dimestore glasses. If this is not possible, several pairs of old sunglasses would do, or the students could simply pretend that they have the flasses on.

The teacher chooses a few of the more vocal students and asks them to put on a pair of glasses, the "suspicious" ones, for example, and to react to everyone and to everything said in the manner indicated by the glasses. The comments made should be enlarged on and discussed by the rest of the students. The teacher can have several students put on different glasses and give their varied reactions to the same statements. This exercise forms the basis for a discussion as to the manner in which people look at things and how this effects what they see. That is, how a person

perceives things is colored by how he feels at the time.

This exercise was developed by Weinstein and Fantini (1970, pp. 71-80) who gave the following as examples of the types of glasses that can be used: suspicious, stubborn, proud, hateful, gloomy, happy, boastful, show-off, scared, helpful, curious, bored, impatient, nobody-cares-for-me, and everybody-cares-for-me.

Split the Take

Goal: To help students perceive elements of human nature at work in group dynamics.

The teacher divides the students into four groups of five, with the remainder of the students assigned to be observers of the various groups. The teacher then gives the following instructions to the students: "Your objective is to split the take of the items contained in your envelope. As a group you are to make the decision of who gets what. You may decide through any means whatsoever, but the person the group decides should have an item must agree to accept that item. If all items have not been distributed to group members and accepted within the time limit, no one will receive anything. There will be only four items in each envelope, so that one person in each group will receive nothing. The observers are to note the manner of decision making used in each group."

This exercise was developed by Gloria Rakovic (1972). Below are some sample items for the envelopes. Teachers may wish to develop more meaningful ones for their students.

Envelope # 1

1. a job as Vice-President of Air Canada
2. a college education
3. $1,000 tax free
4. an evening with Miss Canada

Envelope # 2

1. a job as an F.B.I. agent
2. a two-month prison sentence
3. $1,000 to be spent on clothes only
4. wisdom

Envelope # 3

1. you are star player on your school's hockey team
2. a date with the girl of your choice
3. two tickets to a concert by the Rolling Stones
4. an all-expense paid trip to the next Olympics

Envelope # 4

1. a two-week vacation in Paris with your family
2. a visit to a Montreal hockey game with one other person
3. a new car of your choice
4. a job paying $200 per week

Allow the students about fifteen minutes to complete their choices. The teacher then leads a discussion of the exercise, soliciting reactions and feelings from various members of the groups, especially the ones who received nothing. The comments of the observers on the methods of decision making should also be discussed.

Prisoner's Dilemma

Goal: To help students explore the effects of trust and trust betrayal between groups; to demonstrate the effects of competition on trust; to have students experience the difficulties associated with a lack of feedback.

There are many forms of this exercise, but the one used here was expressed by Giffin and Patton (1971, pp. 10-12). The teacher divides the class into four groups of equal size, and gives them the following directions: "The objective of this game is to score as many positive points as possible. Each team will, after discussion, vote "red" or "green" secretly Each team will try to reach unanimously agreement before they vote, but this is not always possible. There are ten rounds and you will be asked to select a representative to meet with other group representatives in the center of the room before making decisions three, five, eight, and ten. Remember, the object is to score as many points as possible. The scoring system is written on the blackboard. I will answer no questions."

The following chart should be placed on the black-board:

GGGG 50 points for each team

GGGR 300 points for the one team voting "red"
-100 points for the three teams voting "green"

GGRR 200 points for the two teams voting "red"
-200 points for the two teams voting "green"

GRRR 100 points for each team voting "red"
-300 points for the team voting "green"

RRRR -50 points for each team

Note that the points scored double in rounds three, five, and eight, and triple in round ten. The game may seem complicated, but is actually very simple when played. The following are the steps to be followed:

1. Allow the groups a few minutes to make their decision.

2. Collect and post the first-round decisions and scores.

3. Allow three minutes and then collect and post second-round decisions and scores.

4. Have the four representatives meet for five minutes in the center of the room, talking loudly enough for everyone to hear. At the end of the discussion they return to their groups and have three minutes to make decision number three.

5. Collect and post the third-round decisions and scores.

6. Continue this process through round ten, remembering to have the representatives meet before rounds five, eight, and ten.

7. After round ten has been completed, add up the scores to see which team has scored the most points.

When the exercise has been completed, the teacher leads a discussion about the pressure of the game to compete rather than to cooperate. What effect did the lack of feedback have in the frustrations students felt? What were the feelings of students during the game? How honest were the teams with each other? Why? How did their honesty or dishonesty affect the outcome? How much trust developed between teams? Why? What effect did the element of competition have on communication? What was the purpose of communication between teams, particularly when the representatives met? Did each team try to influence the others to do something?

Whether or not students are mature enough to understand this game is a decision the teacher must make. The teacher may want to simplify the rules by doing away with the doubling and tripling of the scores, and might have a negotiation session after every round, changing negotiators

This would help everyone to understand the implications of the game.

Horse Game

Goal: To demonstrate informally the processes of problem solving and persuasion.

Read the following problem to the students and ask them to decide on their individual answers:

A man buys a horse for $50.
He sells it for $60.
He buys it again for $70.
He then sells it again for $80.
How much profit did he make? (Answer $20)

The teacher then asks for answers and divides the class into groups, according to their answers. Each group is then to discuss the basis for their position and arrive at arguments that can be used to refute other answers. Each group selects a representative who will defend the group's answer before the rest of the class. Any time a student changes his mind, he can go to another group, or even form his own group if nobody else holds that answer. Each representative then presents his arguments for his answer and against the other answers, without the use of any visual aids.

When this part of the exercise has been completed, the teacher leads a discussion of the forces at work in each group's deliberations. Emphasis should be placed on how the facts were collected, decisions made, minds changed, and arguments presented.

Process Observation Practice

Goal: To help students recognize the various roles that people play in group discussion.

The teacher divides the class into two groups, participants and observers. Observers may operate in one of several ways:

1. Each observer may select one participant and concentrate on him, noting into which category each of his statements falls.

2. All observers may note all behaviors of the entire group of participants.

3. One-third of the observers may note all task behavior, one-third may tally maintenance behavior, and the other third will watch for self-oriented behavior in participants.

The participants discuss a topic that calls for solutions or decisions, one which will provoke differing opinions. Any current local, national, or international problem may be used. About twenty minutes should be allowed for discussion. The observers will then give feedback to the participants, using the data they have gathered based on group membership roles. To be effective this exercise should be done often, making certain that all students get the opportunity to be both participant and observer.

The following is an explanation of the types of behavior to look for in group discussion, as explained by Hunter (1972, pp. 47-50):

A. Group Task Behavior: Conduct that furthers the work of the group

1. Initiating	Has new ideas or suggestions
2. Informing	Asks for or gives information
3. Clarifying	Helps to explain better

4.	Summarizing	Pulls ideas together
5.	Consensus testing	Finds out if the group is ready to decide what to do

B. Group Maintenance Behavior: Conduct that helps the group function productively

1.	Harmonizing	Helps people get together and reconciles differences
2.	Gate Keeping	Brings others into the group
3.	Encouraging	Is warm and responsive; shows interest and kindness
4.	Compromising	Is willing to change own ideas to help group
5.	Giving Feedback	Tells others, in helpful ways, how their behavior is received

C. Personal or Self-Oriented Behavior: Conduct that interferes with the work of the group

1.	Aggressing	Attacks others and uses sarcasm
2.	Blocking	Won't go along with other people's suggestions
3.	Dominating	Interrupts and talks too much
4.	Avoiding	Strays off the subject and prevents group from facing the problem
5.	Abandoning	Shows that he does not care about what is happening

Behavior by the Label

Goal: To give practice in recognizing and experiencing the various kinds of behavior exhibited in group interaction.

The teacher chooses about ten participants to sit in a circle, with the rest of the class acting as observers. There will be a sign in front of each participant, with one or two of the individual role behaviors written on the front and back (so all can see). For example, one student's lable may say "summarize" and "clarify." Those playing self-oriented roles should not overdo them to the point of parody, but should make them realistic.

The teacher gives a selection of topics and asks the group to choose one and discuss it for about ten minutes. During the discussion each participant will exhibit the behavior written on the sign in front of him. At the end of ten minutes, the students should move one seat to the right and continue the discussion, this time exhibiting the new behaviors. The exercise may be continued for as long as the teacher desires.

When the exercise has concluded, the rest of the students are asked for their observations about what happened. A discussion is held as to the ways in which the various behaviors helped or hindered the discussion.

NASA Type Problem

Goal: To foster discussion by presenting students with a problem that all are equally equipped to solve; to have students experience group decision making.

The teacher divides the students into small groups and gives them the following instructions:

"You are living in a small mountain town. Spring has arrived early this year which has caused the rivers to run exceptionally high due to melting snow. On top of that, the weather bureau has forcast heavy thundershowers in the nearby mountain ranges. A local R.C.M.P. officer has just come to your house and told you to immediately evacuate your family to high ground because of an on-coming flash flood. You have a maximum of thirty minutes to complete your

evacuation. Due to the location of your town and the size of the flood, all homes are predicted to be lost; therefore, you must decide what you should try and save."

"You each have a list of items. Your task is to rank order them in terms of importance or value to you and your family. Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important item, and so on through to the last and least important item. You are each to make up your own list first, and then one list for each group."

_____clothing	_____pets
_____money	_____food
_____jewelry	_____medical supplies
_____matches	_____portable heating unit
_____rope	_____battery powered radio
_____t.v.	_____five gallons of water
_____furniture	_____plants
_____stereo	_____valuable papers
_____car	_____collections (paintings, etc.,)
_____silverware	_____books

When each group has prepared its list, a discussion of the choices made with reasons for the choices should take place. In addition, the teacher should question the students as to the forces at work in each group during the reaching of decisions about their lists.

<u>Human Anagrams</u>

Goal: To help the students experience the feelings of being needed by others in achieving a goal; to allow students to observe the role-behavior of the members of a group.

The teacher chooses several letters of the alphabet that can be used to form words and writes each of them on a

sheet of paper. Students are chosen from the class and each is given a letter to pin to his front. The letters must be large enough to be visible to all. The teacher then asks the members of the group to form as many words as they can with the letters available to them in a given period of time (perhaps five minutes).

The game is played twice. The first time, members of the group are not permitted to speak during the game. The second time the game is played, the members may talk to each other.

After the game has been played, a discussion takes place about how the roles and behaviors of the participants affected others in the group. The focus here is on the feelings of the various members of the group. The teacher should also try to bring out the differences in the behaviors during the two sections, the first with no talk, the second with talk permitted.

Ten Years From Now

Goal: to discover the concerns of students; to help students to vocalize their concerns; to reduce anxiety about oral communication.

The teacher divides the students into small groups and gives them the following directions: "Think of yourself ten years from now. How would you like to see yourself in ten years from now? How will you get there? What steps would you take to get there? What are your real chances of getting there?"

When the students have had a few minutes to think about their answers, the teacher asks them to discuss them in their small groups. Later, all the students can be brought together in a double horseshoe to share their ideas with the rest of the students. By asking some clarifying questions the teacher can help the sharing.

The Ideal School

Goal: By using a topic that is not threatening and that all students have ideas about, to encourage participation and sharing of ideas by all students in the class.

The teacher divides the class into small groups and gives them the following directions: "A new school is to be built and the people who are planning it want it to be the best ever. They have asked a lot of questions, talked with many teachers, and visited many schools, but they think that students know more about schools than anyone else. So, they are asking you to help them. Tell me, what do you think the best school would look like, be like, what you would do there, who would be there, and what you would learn there."

When the students have had sufficient time to reach some decisions in their small groups, the teacher asks for ideas from each group and the class discusses the feasibility of each.

IV. CONCLUDING STATEMENT

This thesis is in a sense a plea for teachers to attempt to solve the problem of reticence. It has taken the position that reticence is a crippling handicap for a large number of students; that it prevents students from establishing meaningful relationships with others, from advancing in their occupations, and from achieving self-actualization. It further suggests that reticence is a problem that can be solved and prevented by proper training in the fundamentals of interpersonal communication. This being so, it holds that the principles and strategies presented here should be incorporated into the curriculum of every high school. It presents principles and strategies that have been arrived at by synthesizing the views of the experts and the findings of research about the following: the necessity of oral communication; the nature, causes, and remediation of reticence; the physical, intellectual, and emotional characteristics of adolescents; and the various psychological theories pertaining to self-concept. It specifies that if these principles and strategies were incorporated into the high school program, the atmosphere of the classroom would change, as would the performance of students in interpersonal communication. There would be more openness, honesty, trust, sharing, understanding, and--yes--even love of mankind. Students would be well on their way to becoming fully functioning human beings with

deep feelings and emotions, and having the ability to share those feelings and emotions with others.

Some of the principles and strategies presented here have been tried in the classroom, though only a few of them have been used to treat reticence. However, in view of the framework around which these principles and strategies have been presented, there seems to be little doubt that their use can only help the reticent student.

The time for ignoring the reticent student is past. Reticent students are crying out for help, albeit internally. With this presentation teachers will have available to them in one source all the information they need to help students build their self-confidence and overcome the problem of reticence. All that remains is for teachers to use it effectively--not an easy task, but a profitable one for all of society.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ainsworth, Stanley H. "A Study of Fear, Nervousness and Anxiety in the Public Speaking Situation," Speech Monographs, XVII (March, 1949), 119-128.

Akin, J. et al. Language Behavior: A Book of Readings in Communication. The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1970.

Allen, R.R., and S. Clay Willmington. Speech Communication in the Secondary School. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1972.

Allport, Gordon W. Personality: A Psychological Interpretation. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1937.

________. Becoming. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955.

Anderson, H.H. (ed.). Creativity and Its Cultivation. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959.

Atkinson, John, and Norman Feather (eds.). A Theory of Achievement Motivation. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Barbara, Dominick. The Art of Listening. Springfield, Ill.: Charles Thomas, 1958.

________. (ed.). Psychological and Psychiatric Aspects of Speech and Hearing. Springfield, Ill.: Charles Thomas, 1960.

Barnhard, Clarence L. (ed.). American College Encyclopedic Dictionary. Chicago: Spencer Press, 1950.

Barton, Robert, et al. Nobody In the Cast. Don Mills, Ont.: Longmans Canada, 1969.

Becker, Ernest. The Birth and Death of Meaning. New York: Free Press, 1962.

Berne, Eric. Games People Play. New York: Grove Press, 1964.

Berry, Mildred F., and Jon Eisenson. Speech Disorders: Principles and Practices of Therapy. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956.

Bills, R.E. "Nondirective Play Therapy with Retarded Readers," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XIV (April, 1959), 140-149.

Blair, Glenn Myers, and R. Stewart Jones. Psychology of Adolescence for Teachers. New York: Macmillan Co., 1964.

Boressoff, Bernard. "Long Island Speech Survey," Reports, XIV (May, 1967), 1-3.

________. Memorandum to Research Committee, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, St. John's, Newfoundland, September 26, 1973.

________. "Oral Communication", English Grades 7 & 8 ed. Ed. Jones. Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, Department of Education, 1972.

Bradfield, Joan, and Roger Bradfield. Who Are You? Racine, Wisc.: Whitman, 1966.

Brady, John Paul. "Language in Schizophrenia," American Journal of Psychiatry, XII (November, 1958), 73-81.

Brookover, Wilbur B., Ann Paterson, and Shailer Thomas. Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement I. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1962.

________. "Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement," Sociology of Education, XXXVII (June, 1964), 271-278.

________, et al. Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement II. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1965.

________, Edsel L. Erickson, and Lee M. Joiner. Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement III. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1967.

Brown, George Isaac. Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education. New York: Viking Press, 1971.

Buys, William E., et al. "Speech Communication in the High School Curriculum," Speech Teacher, XVII (November, 1968), 297-315.

Casmir, Fred, and L. Harms (eds.). International Studies of National Speech Systems: Current Reports on Twelve Countries. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. Brown, 1970.

Chess, Stella. "Developmental Language Disability as a Factor In Personality Disorders," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XIV (July, 1944), 483-490.

Clark, Margaret, Ella Erway, and Lee Beltzer. The Learning Encounter: The Classroom as a Communications Workshop. New York: Random House, 1971.

Cole, Luella, and Irma N. Hall. Psychology of Adolescence. 7th ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.

Combs, Arthur W., and Donald Snygg. Individual Behavior. 2d ed. New York: Harper & Row, 1959.

Coopersmith, S. The Antecedents of Self-Esteem. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman & Co., 1967.

Cousins, Norman. "Editorial," Saturday Review, August 29, 1964, p. 3.

Davis, David C. Model For A Humanistic Education: The Danish Folk High School. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971.

Diggory, J.C. Self-Evaluation: Concepts and Studies. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966.

Dillon, J.T. Personal Teaching. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971.

Douglass, Robert L. "The Relation of Feelings of Personal Security to Effective Public Speaking," Speech Monographs, XVI (May, 1948), 228-234.

Dunham, Robert E. Speech Education in Pennsylvania High Schools. Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1966.

Eisenson, Jon, J. Jeffery Auer, and John V. Irwin. The Psychology of Communication. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

Elkind, J.W. "The Self-Picture as a Factor in the Classroom," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXVIII (January, 1958), 97-111.

Erickson, Keith (ed). Dimensions of Oral Communication Instruction. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1970.

Fessenden, Seth A., et al. Speech for the Creative Teacher. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1968.

Freud, S. A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing, 1943.

Friedenberg, E.Z. The Vanishing Adolescent. Boston: Beacon Press, 1959.

Furr, H. Bedford. "Influence of a Course in Speech-Communication on Certain Aspects of the Self-Concept of College Freshmen," Speech Teacher, XIX (January, 1970), 24-31.

Furth, Hans G. Piaget for Teachers. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Gallup, G., and E. Hill. "Youth: The Cool Generation," Saturday Evening Post, (December 12, 1961), 63-80.

Galvin, Kathleen M., and Cassandra L. Book. Speech Communication: An Interpersonal Approach for Teachers. Stokie, Ill.: National Textbook Company, 1972.

Garrison, Karl C. Psychology of Adolescence. 6th ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Giffin, Kim. "An Exploratory Study of Group Counselling for Speech Anxiety," Journal of Clinical Psychology, XXV (January, 1969), 98-101.

________. Fundamentals of Interpersonal Communication. New York: Harper & Row, 1971.

________, and Kendall Bradley. "Group Counseling for Speech Anxiety: An Approach and a Rationale," Journal of Communication, XIX (March, 1969), 22-29.

________, and Shirley Masterson. "A Theoretical Model of the Relationships Between Motivation and Self-Confidence in Communication," Communication Spectrum, VII (March, 1969), 311-316.

________, and Bobby Patton (eds.). Basic Readings in Interpersonal Communication. New York: Harper & Row, 1971.

Gilkinson, Howard. "A Questionnaire Study of the Social Fears Among College Speech Students," Speech Monographs, X (January, 1943), 74-83.

Ginott, Haim G. Between Parent and Child. London: Staples Press, 1965.

Ginsburg, Herbert, and Sylvia Opper. Piaget's Theory of Intellectual Development: An Introduction. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Glasser, William. Reality Therapy. New York: Harper & Row 1965.

________. Schools Without Failure. New York: Harper & Row 1969.

Goble, Frank. The Third Force. New York: Grossman, 1970.

Gorman, A.H. Teachers and Learners--The Interactive Process of Education. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1969.

Goldenson, Robert M. The Encyclopedia of Human Behavior. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1970.

Goodstein, Leonard. "Functional Speech Disorders and Personality: A Survey of the Research," Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, I (December, 1958), 359-376.

Hamachek, D.E. The Self in Growth, Teaching, and Learning. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

________. (ed.). Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1972.

Harris, Thomas A. I'm OK--You're OK. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

Harvey, Basil. The Scope of Oracy: Teaching Spoken English. London: Pergamon Press, 1968.

Havighurst, Robert J. Human Development and Education. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953.

Hejna, Robert F. Speech Disorders and Nondirective Therapy. New York: Ronald Press, 1960.

Holt, John. How Children Fail. New York: Delta Press, 1964.

Homans, George. Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1961.

Hopf, Theodore S. "Reticence and the Oral Interpretation Teacher," Speech Teacher, XIX (November, 1970), 268-271.

Hunter, Elizabeth. Encounter in the Classroom: New Ways of Teaching. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

James, William. Principles of Psychology. 2 vols. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1890.

Jersild, A.T., and R.J. Tasch. Children's Interests. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Johnson, Wendell. People in Quandries. New York: Harper & Row, 1946.

________. (ed.). Stuttering in Children and Adults. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958.

_______. Stuttering and What You Can Do About It. Danville, Ill.: Interstate, 1961.

_______, et al. Speech Handicapped School Children. 3rd ed. New York: Harper & Row, 1967.

Jones, Edward. (ed.). English, Grades 7 & 8. St. John's, Nfld: Department of Education for Newfoundland and Labrador, 1972.

Jourard, Sidney M. Disclosing Man to Himself. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1968.

_______. The Transparent Self. rev. ed. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1971.

Kahn, J.H. Human Growth and the Development of Personality. London: Pergamon Press, 1965.

Kibler, Robert, and Larry Barker. Conceptual Frontiers in Speech-Communication. New York: Science Press, 1969.

Kleinsasser, Dennis. "The Reduction of Performance Anxiety as a function of Desensitization, Pre-Therapy Vicarious Learning and Vicarious Learning Alone." Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1968.

LaBenne, Wallace D., and Bert I Greene. Educational Implications of Self-Concept Theory. Pacific Palisades, Cal.: Goodyear Publishing Co., 1969.

Leonard, George. Education and Ecstasy. New York: Delta, 1968.

Lewin, Kurt. A Dynamic Theory of Personality. New York: McGraw Hill, 1935.

Llardo, Joseph A. "Why Interpersonal Communication," Speech Teacher, XXI (January, 1972), 1-6.

Low, Gordon N., and B.V. Sheets. "The Relation of Psychometric Factors to Stage Fright," Speech Monographs, XVIII (June, 1951), 266-271.

Lyon, Harold C. Learning to Feel-Feeling to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971.

Mager, Robert. Goal Analysis. Belmont, Cal.: Fearon, 1972.

Manis, M. "Personal Adjustment, Assumed Similarity to Parents, and Inferred Parental Evaluations of the Self," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XXII (May, 1958), 481-485.

Maslow, Abraham H. Toward A Psychology of Being. New York: Van Nostrand, 1962.

________. Motivation and Personality. 2d ed. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

________. (ed.). New Knowledge in Human Values. New York: Harper, 1959.

May, Rollo. Man's Search for Himself. New York: Signet Books, 1967a.

________. Psychology and the Human Dilemma. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1967b.

________. Love and Will. New York: W.W. Norton, 1969.

Mead, G.H. Mind, Self, and Society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.

Mosse, Hilde. "The Misuse of the Diagnosis 'Childhood Schizophrenia,'" American Journal of Psychiatry, CXIV (March, 1958), 183-195.

Muir, F.L.C. "Case Studies of Selected Examples of Reticence and Fluency". Unpublished Master's Thesis, Washington State University, 1964.

Murray, Elwood. The Speech Personality. Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott, 1937.

________. Gerald M. Phillips, and J. David Truby. Speech: Science-Art. New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.

Muuss, Rolf E. Theories of Adolescence. 2nd ed. New York: Random House, 1968.

Nelson, Donald D. "Student Speaking Disorders--Beyond the Symptoms," Journal of Communication, XIV (January, 1964), 1-9.

Newsom, John, Chairman. Central Advisory Council for Education (England). Half Our Future: A Report. London: Her Majesty's Stationary Office, 1963.

Nixon, R.E. "An Approach to the Dynamics of Growth in Adolescence," Psychiatry, XXIV (January, 1961), 18-31.

Otto, Hubert A. Group Methods Designed to Actualize Human Potential.. Salt Lake City: University of Utah, 1967.

Pfeiffer, J. William, and John E. Jones. A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. 4 vols. Iowa City: University Associates Press, 1969-1973.

Phillips, Gerald M. "The Problem of Reticence," Pennsylvania Speech Annual, XXII (September, 1965), 22-38.

________. "Reticence: Pathology of the Normal Speaker," Speech Monographs, XXXV (March, 1968), 39-49.

________, and David Butt. "Reticence Revisited," Pennsylvania Speech Annual, XXIII (September, 1966), 40-57.

________, and Eugene C. Erickson. Interpersonal Dynamics in the Small Group. New York: Random House, 1970.

________, Nancy J. Metzger. "The Reticent Speaker: Etiology and Treatment." Journal of Communication Disorders, VI (1973), 11-28.

________, et al. The Development of Oral Communication. New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1970.

Postman, Neil, and Charles Weingartner. Teaching as a Subversive Activity. New York: Delacorte, 1969.

Purkey, William W. Self-Concept and School Achievement. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Raimy, V.C. "The Self-Concept as a Factor in Counseling and Personality Organization." Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Ohio State University, 1943.

Rakovic, Gloria. "Self-Determinism Through Educational Environment (STEEP)." New York: Park East High School, 1972. (Mimeographed.)

Raths, Louis E. Teaching for Learning. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

________, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon. Values and Teaching: Working with Values in the Classroom. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966.

________, et al. Teaching for Thinking: Theory and Application. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1967.

Rogers, Carl R. Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications and Theory. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1951.

________. On Becoming A Person. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961.

________. Freedom to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

________. Carl Rogers On Encounter Groups. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

________, and F.J. Roethsliberger. "Barriers and Gateways to Communication," Harvard Business Review, XX (July, 1952), 17-22.

________, et al. Person to Person. Lafayette, Cal.: Real People Press, 1967.

Rosenfeld, Lawrence B., and Kenneth D. Frandsen. "The 'Other' Speech Student: An Empirical Analysis of Some Interpersonal Relations Orientations of the Reticent Student," Speech Teacher, XXI (November, 1972), 296-302.

Rosenthal, Robert, and Lenore Jacobson. Pygamalion in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils' Intellectual Development. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968.

Schachter, Francis, Lucie Meyer, and Earl Loomis. "Childhood Schizophrenia and Mental Retardation," American Journal of Psychiatry, XVI (May, 1962), 169-175.

Scher, Jordan. (ed.). Theories of the Mind. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1962.

Schutz, William. FIRO: A Three Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1958.

________. Joy: Expanding Human Awareness. New York: Grove Press, 1967.

________. Here Comes Everybody. New York: Harper & Row, 1971.

Seidman, J.M. (ed.). The Adolescent--A Book of Readings. rev ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1960.

Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education. New York: Random House, 1970.

Snygg, D., and A.W. Combs. Individual Behavior. New York: Harper & Row, 1949.

Spolin, Viola. Improvisation for the Theatre. Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1963.

Squire, James R. and Roger K. Applebee. High School English Instruction - Today; The National Study of High School English Programs. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 1968.

Staines, J.W. "The Self-Picture as a Factor in the Classroom," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXVIII (January, 1958), 97-111.

Steward, Larry A. "Attitudes Toward Communication: The Content Analysis of Interviews with Eight Reticent and Eight Non-Reticent College Students". Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1968.

Stewart, Jonn. "An Interpersonal Approach to the Basic Course," Speech Teacher, XXI (January, 1972), 7-14.

________. Bridges Not Walls: A Book About Interpersonal Communication. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1973.

Stone, L. Joseph, and Joseph Church. Childhood and Adolescence: A Psychology of the Growing Person. 2d ed. New York: Random House, 1968.

Sullivan, H.S. Conceptions of Modern Psychiatry. Washington, D.C.: William Alanson White Psychiatric Foundation, 1947.

Symonds, P.M. The Ego and the Self. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951.

Thorensen, Carl E. "Oral Non-Participation in College Students: A Study of Characteristics," American Educational Research Journal, VIII (May, 1966), 198-210.

Travis, Lee Edward (ed.). Handbook of Speech Pathology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Van Riper, Charles. Speech Correction: Principles and Methods. 4th ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1963.

Walden, James (ed.). Oral Language and Reading. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1969.

Waltzlawick, Paul, Janet Beavin, and Don Jackson. Pragmatics of Human Communication. New York: W.W. Norton, 1967.

Weinstein, Gerald, and Mario D. Fantini (eds.). Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect. New York: Praeger, 1970.

Wilkinson, Esther Jensen. "A Study of Disintegrating Background Factors in the Development of Effective Speech Personality," Speech Monographs, XI (November, 1944), 297-305.

Winter, Gerald D., and Eugene M. Nuss. The Young Adult. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1969.

Wylie, R. The Self-Concept: A Critical Survey of Pertinent Related Research. Lincoln, Neb.: University of Nebraska Press, 1961.

APPENDIX

SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY
FOR TEACHERS

Brown, George Isaac. Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education. New York: Viking Press, 1971.

The author presents the idea of confluent education, a philosophy and a process of teaching and learning in which the affective or emotional domain flows together with the cognitive or intellectual domain. The author presents affective techniques and shows how they can be incorporated into the regular school curriculum. As well as giving the teacher the philosphy of humanistic education, this book contains many exercises for use in the classroom.

Clark, Margaret, Ella Erway, and Lee Beltzer. The Learning Encounter: The Classroom as a Communications Workshop. New York: Random House, 1971.

The authors present the classroom as a communication workshop. They offer a set of parameters for viewing student/teacher relationships and for teaching interpersonal communication with the hope of opening up new vistas and stimulating student and teacher to extend their thinking, to probe their potential for cooperative creativity. The book contains many strategies for achieving these goals.

Dillon, J. T. Personal Teaching. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971.

The author describes honestly and fully his mistakes and deficiencies as he stumbles and gropes toward a humanistic

method of teaching. This book should stimulate teachers to a much more honest appraisal of their own methods, their own attitudes in class, their own effectiveness with students, and the extent to which they actually increase permanent, significant meaningful learning in the young people with whom they come into contact. This book shows that it is possible to teach with an emphasis on the affective domain.

Galvin, Kathleen M., and Cassandra L. Book. Speech Communication: An Interpersonal Approach for Teachers. Stokie, Ill.: National Textbook Company, 1972.

The authors present large numbers of behaviorally-oriented learning objectives supported by large numbers of soundly based learning activities connected with interpersonal and intrapersonal communication. This book should prove invaluable for any teacher concerned with teaching oral communication.

Glasser, William. Schools Without Failure. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

This book applies the author's theories of Reality Therapy to contemporary education. The author details the shortcomings of current education and proposes a daring new program to reduce school failure--a program based on increased involvement, relevance, and thinking. The author presents a philosophy and methods designed to build self-confidence and a positive self-concept in students.

Hamachek, Don E. (ed.). Human Dynamics in Psychology and Education. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1972.

This book is a collection of essays about the human dimensions involved in psychology and education. The essays focus primarily on human behavior, human meanings, and human understandings that grow out of uniquely human experiences. This is an excellent introduction to humanistic education.

Hunter, Elizabeth. Encounter in the Classroom: New Ways of Teaching. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

This book is written by a teacher and contains a number of activities that provide involvement of the student in the learning process. Activities are included which will help the teacher to use encounter techniques for increasing personal and interpersonal effectiveness. There are also skill sessions for analyzing and improving classroom talk, for improving the quality of classroom questions, and for helping teachers work harmoniously with others.

Lyon, Harold C. Learning to Feel--Feeling to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971.

The author presents the philosophy behind humanistic education and describes methods teachers can use to bring the whole student into the classroom, with the feeling aspects of himself, the intellectual aspects, and the capacity for self-responsibility.

Phillips, Gerald M. et al. The Development of Oral Communication. New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1970.

The authors present a philosphy of oral communication as well as principles and strategies for developing oral

communication ability in students. This book also contains an excellent chapter on reticence.

Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon. Values and Teaching: Working with Values in the Classroom. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966.

The authors present a theory of the process of valuing and the teaching strategies associated with that theory. The emphasis is on the process of valuing, rather than on presenting a set of values. Teachers will find this book very helpful in teaching the process of valuing, since the many examples presented can be used within the regular curriculum.

Schutz, William. Joy: Expanding Human Awareness. New York: Grove Press, 1967.

This book is an attempt to provide a framework for various approaches to joy and the development of human potential. The author presents an explanation of the philosophy of the human potential movement and explains some of the strategies used in encounter groups.

Stewart, John. Bridges Not Walls: A Book About Interpersonal Communication. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1973.

This book is a collection of the best articles, talks, and essays about interpersonal communication. The approach to interpersonal communication taken in this book is based primarily on dialogical philosophy and humanistic psychology. The book contains contributions by such people as Buber, Rogers, Maslow, and Jourard; it should be of great value to any teacher who wishes to develop a philosophy of interpersonal communication.

Weinstein, Gerald, and Mario D. Fantini (eds.). Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect. New York: Praeger, 1970.

This is a report of a study of two and a half years, whose purpose was to find a curriculum alternative based on the affective characteristics of children. The book relates the philosophy behind the drive for a curriculum of affect and presents strategies that teachers can use in attempting to reach the goal of humanistic education.