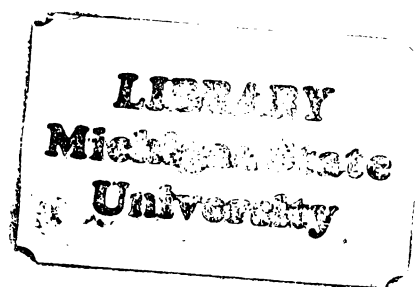




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COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION AND UNWILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE
AS PREDICTORS OF COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGY SELECTION

By

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ABSTRACT

COMMUNICATION APREHENSION AND UNWILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE AS PREDICTORS OF COMPLIANCE-GAINING STRATEGY SELECTION

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Recent research in persuasive strategy selection has resulted in findings which indicate that individual personality traits may be important determinants of the compliance-gaining tactics chosen by the potential persuader. One such individual difference is the degree to which a person desires interaction with others and finds such interaction rewarding. These characteristics, as well as anxiety or apprehension about communicating, comprise an attitudinal and behavioral complex which can be referred to as communication reticence. Based on a conceptualization of reticence as a dysfunctional personality syndrome, it was hypothesized that reticent individuals would be more willing to rely on negative (antisocial) strategies in attempting to gain the compliance of others. Results provide evidence that communication apprehension and biological gender are weak predictors of strategy selection, however, an individual's tendency to avoid, or devalue, interaction with others was found to be a significant and useful predictor of antisocial strategy selection. Limitations of the study and implications for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Much recent research has been devoted to better understanding the process by which individuals choose what communication strategy to employ in attempting to gain the compliance of others. The influence of individual differences in the selection of persuasive messages has been of particular interest in communication research. For example, Roloff and Barnicott (1978) examined the effect of Machiavellianism, a personality trait characterized by highly manipulative behavior, on compliance-gaining strategy selection. The results of their work indicate a greater willingness by high Machiavellians to use compliance-gaining strategies, that is, they were found to be more persuasively active than low Machiavellians. Also, Machiavellianism was found to be significantly correlated with the use of both prosocial and psychological force techniques.

Continuing their research on the influence of personality traits on persuasive message selection, Roloff and Barnicott (1979) next focused on dogmatism, an individual characteristic which is typified by rigid thinking and deference to authority. They found high dogmatics significantly more involved in compliance-gaining activity than low dogmatics. Also, highly dogmatic individuals were more likely to use all types of strategies, regardless of their relationship with the target of the persuasive attempt.

More recently, Lustig and King (1980) explored communication strategy choices as influenced by communication apprehension (CA), but they found no effect for CA in their data. Generally, most of this work has resulted in findings which claim that individual persuaders differ systematically in their approach to compliance-gaining. Miller and his associates (Miller, Boster, Roloff, & Siebold, 1977) are most succinct in their conclusion that "message choices are probably directly related to the characteristics of the potential persuader" (p. 37).

When focusing on individual characteristics, previous work by psychologists and communication researchers taking a psychological-trait approach has resulted in research in which personality traits are often the variables measured. However, there are at least two major problems with using personality trait variables as predictors of communication behavior. First, there is considerable difficulty in even identifying specific communication behaviors which are generally associated with personality syndromes. Indeed, general psychological dysfunction can manifest itself in abundantly diverse ways. Second, this approach is of limited utility in current communication research. Frequently it is difficult, impractical, or impossible to identify a particular personality type, and even then, knowing the characteristic personality type allows only indirect prediction of actual communication behaviors. For these and additional reasons, Burgoon and Burgoon (1974) conclude that a better approach for

communication research to follow would focus on general communication behavior sets, or patterns, rather than personality traits. This would allow a more direct prediction of communication outcomes based on actual predispositions toward communicative interaction. The present study is an attempt at estimating the influence of such a communication behavioral set on persuasive message selection.

The Communication Apprehension Construct

Oral communication apprehension has been defined by McCroskey (1977) as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with real or anticipated (oral) communication with another person or persons" (p. 78). Current research suggests several generalizations that are warranted by experimentally consistent results. First, highly apprehensive individuals tend to avoid many social situations and thereby engage in less frequent social intercourse (Daly & McCroskey, 1975; McCroskey & Anderson, 1976). Additionally, apprehensives also tend to interact less in those social situations which are unavoidable (Fenton & Hopf, 1976; Sorenson & McCroskey, 1977). Possibly as a result of this lack of practice at social interaction, it appears that high apprehensives are perceived less favorably and less competently than less apprehensive individuals (Friemuth, 1976; Burgoon & Koper, in press). In short, this conceptualization portrays the highly apprehensive individual as a communication avoider, inept and unpracticed when interacting under even moderately stressful situations, and either unable or unwilling to adapt to varying

situational communicative demands.

Lustig and King's (1980) study assessing the effect of communication apprehension on communication strategy choices initiated a probe on the impact of this trait on persuasive message use. Using volunteer undergraduates as respondents to a Likert-type item questionnaire, the investigators attempted to evaluate the impact of communication apprehension on the usage of the 16 compliance-gaining strategies identified by Marwell and Schmitt (1967). The two situations used in the study differed in the consequences if the persuader failed. In the short term consequence situation, the respondents were asked to imagine a situation in which they must persuade a steady boy/girlfriend to allow him/her to break a date in order to visit with an "old acquaintance passing through town". In the long term consequence situation, the persuasive task was to convince a close friend of the opposite sex to accompany the persuader on a permanent move to a city over 1000 miles distant.

The results of their experiment showed no significant effect for level of CA, although situation was a significant predictor of strategic differences. However, a problem with the stimulus materials is worth noting. The short-term consequence situation failed to specify whether the "old acquaintance" is of the same or opposite sex, and for that matter how "close" the relationship used to be. In other words, depending on how the respondent interpreted the question, the situation may be innocent or threatening. Since the relational

consequences of compliance and the persuadee's right to refuse have been identified as relevant variables in message selection (Cody, Woelfel, & Jordan, 1983), this situation may be expected to elicit data which contains unacceptable levels of error.

Furthermore, implicit in the long-term consequence situation is the assumption that the opposite-sex friend will not merely accompany the persuader to the far away city, but that the two would also live together. Certainly, it requires little imagination to appreciate the potential confounding of the dependent variable with moral values, family ties, current career status, and any number of other potential considerations in such a decision. Even random assignment of subjects to conditions is an insufficient precaution when the sample is as homogeneous as "university students", i.e., typically middle-class and upwardly mobile. The resulting nonsignificant findings in this experiment are not attributable to lack of power ($>.99$ for medium effects) or any other clear methodological or technical flaws. Therefore, in generalizing the results to the relationship of communication apprehension and strategic communication, caution must be exercised. However, there does seem to be a conceptual rationale for predicting a relationship between CA and strategy selection, and the null findings in this study should not be considered the last word.

Clearer conclusions regarding this relationship might be drawn if the context of the persuasive attempt were situated in a more typical day-to-day problem. Also, although research interests may pursue other

variables in tandem, situations should be constructed that minimize the confounding of context and other potentially relevant variables.

Because of the ambiguity of previous findings, no clear empirical basis exists for predicting the relationship of CA and strategy selection. Thus, in an attempt to replicate the Lustig and King study and further probe these issues, the following research question is posed.

RQ1: Is communication apprehension significantly related to the likelihood of employing specific compliance-gaining message strategies?

The Unwillingness-to-Communicate Construct

The problem of anxious or avoided communication attempts has been the focus of many researchers with various conceptual and operational approaches other than McCroskey's communication apprehension construct. The result has been a plethora of terms available to refer to a general class of oral communication dysfunction. For example, reticence (Phillips, 1968) and shyness (Zimbardo, 1977) overlap conceptually in that both refer to a trait of an individual which results in that individual remaining silent rather than participating in interaction. Although various forms of communication-bound anxiety have been explored (e.g., McCroskey, 1970; Mulac & Sherman, 1974), the usual characterization of the anxious communicator is that of a nervous, timid, and easily threatened individual who tends to avoid interaction.

A more recent construct, predisposition toward verbal behavior was found to impact assertiveness of verbal behavior, influence, and the credibility of the speaker (Arntson, Mortensen, & Lustig, 1980); a person with a low predisposition toward verbal behavior would most likely be less willing to communicate with others. Finally, J. Burgoon has developed an instrument designed to measure unwillingness to communicate (UCS), a chronic predisposition to avoid and/or devalue oral communication. Factor analysis of several data sets resulted in the emergence of two clear dimensions of UCS, i.e., an approach/avoidance dimension (AA) and a perceived reward dimension (R) (Burgoon, 1976). The AA dimension taps the individual's generalized level of desire to communicate and be with others, and the R dimension is a measure of the perceived reward in communicating with others.

Clearly, these related lines of research combine to provide evidence that a generalized attitude and behavioral set exists for some individuals to be less willing to communicate with others. However, while all the constructs specified above are designed to tap, in part, the individual's unwillingness to communicate, most measure other personality dimensions also.

For example, reticence and shyness, as previously noted, are both conceptualized as non-participative character traits. Speech anxiety is conceptually a transient physiological (and psychological) response to stress (not an unwillingness-to-communicate predisposition) and therefore has limited utility as a predictive measure. Also,

predisposition toward verbal behavior taps, at least, personality assertiveness in addition to communication behavior.¹ Additionally, subsequent validation of the UCS has shown the construct to not be unidimensional (Burgoon, 1976), and therefore any single personality variable would be less able to substitute for the entire communication behavior set. It should be noted that Burgoon (1976) found CA to correlate .53 ($p < .05$) with the total UCS score, .69 ($p < .05$) with the AA dimension and .01 ($p > .10$) with the reward factor. This would seem to indicate that the PRCA and the UCS (AA dimension) are tapping a similar predisposition, but that the UCS (R dimension) is identifying a factor to which the PRCA is not sensitive.

In assessing the antecedents of a generalized unwillingness to communicate, Burgoon offers four causal agents: apprehension, anomia-alienation, introversion, and low self-esteem. It is reasoned that clear understanding of the causes of this syndrome may aid in positing its effects on persuasive behavior; therefore, each causal element will be examined in turn.

Apprehension

Apprehension, particularly in regard to communication interaction, is seen as a response to perceived or actual stress (Beatty, Behnke, & McCallum, 1978; Burgoon & Koper, in press). Spielberger (1966) makes a case for distinguishing chronic from situational apprehension, however, this issue is of greater importance to clinical psychologists treating the syndrome than to communication researchers for at least two

reasons.

First, the behavioral correlates of trait and state anxiety are indistinguishable in many circumstances. A comparison of the reported behavioral correlates of high (trait) communication anxiety (McCroskey, 1970) and an individual experiencing speech anxiety (Mulac & Sherman, 1974) demonstrate the consistency of stress effects on both state and trait variables. A brief discussion of the dubious heuristic value of the state-trait distinction in communication research can be found in Burgoon and Koper (in press). Second, it is likely that situational apprehension interacts with chronic apprehension, blurring the distinction in even mildly stressful situations and minimizing its usefulness. It is not difficult to imagine the communicator with a trait anxiety predisposition in circumstances which would normally elicit some apprehension for even low apprehensives (e.g., a job interview or a public speaking performance). It is doubtful that under circumstances that would elicit the normal response pattern to situational stress there would be overtly identifiable differences in the communicative behavior of individuals with trait anxiety and those who are experiencing situation-bound anxiety. The Burgoon and Koper (in press) studies support such a contention.

If an individual cannot effectively cope with anxiety, he or she will turn to defense mechanisms as a means of minimizing awareness of the aversive nature of anxiety. These defense mechanisms may include avoidance, denial, accommodation, and aggression (Levitt, 1967). Given

a persuasive situation (which would require confronting the persuadee), avoidance and denial would clearly be unlikely defense mechanisms. While accomodation may be an acceptable approach for situations in which passive acquiescence will forestall relational enmity, many situations do not allow this option. Aggression is therefore indicated hypothetically as the predominant response to anxiety in situations which obviate accomodation, avoidance, or denial and in which other coping mechanisms are inadequate or inappropriate.

Anomia-alienation

Anomia has been defined as "the failure to understand or internalize society's norms and values" (Burgoon, 1972, p. 12). As a result, the anomic will feel that "he cannot act as an entity directing his own life, or change other people's attitudes toward him, or effectively influence the world around him" (May, 1953, p. 22). This overall view of external reality as a powerful force to be reckoned with may encourage the anomic to lead a frustrated and submissive life.

Indeed, Roberts and Rokeach (1956) found anomia and alienation to both correlate with authoritarianism, a construct identified by extreme deference to authority and use of authority-centered appeals. Bloom (1970) found anomics to express such characteristics as general anxiety, negative self-evaluation, negative affect states, and aggressive impulses. McClosky and Shaar (1965) conclude that "anomie...reflects patterns of communication and interaction that reduce opportunities to see and understand how society works, and what

its goals and values are" (p. 19). More recently, Parks (1977) found anomia to be negatively related to interpersonal communication skills.

Given this conceptualization of the anomic, several possibilities seem apparent in positing the effect of anomia on strategic communication. First, it seems reasonable to suggest that the anomic will avoid persuasive communication if possible. This is clearly consistent with Burgoon's conclusions. However, given the necessity of confronting an unpleasant situation, the strategic decisions made by an anomic are posited to differ from those choices made by less constrained individuals. For example, the characteristics cited above suggest that the anomic may behave aggressively when "authority" is perceived to support such a choice. Indeed, Putney and Middleton (1962) support such a conceptualization of the ethically relativistic nature of the anomic.

Introversion

Introverts are characteristically quiet and shy. They tend to withdraw from others, be generally more introspective and inner-directed, and less sociable (Eysenck, 1971). It can be concluded that either introverts find communicating with others anxiety-producing (and therefore aversively stimulating) or unrewarding to the extent that the effort required to do so is not justifiable. Available evidence suggests that introverts are less likely to engage in interpersonal communication than extroverts (Eysenck, 1971; Burgoon, 1976). This is frequently demonstrated during interaction when

introverts less often speak first and participate less assertively in group discussions (Carment, Miles, & Cervin, 1965). While it could probably be argued that introverts would be less likely to engage in any kind of persuasive venture and would accomodate others to a great degree, the predictive task at hand is to posit the style used in compliance-gaining attempts. Since interaction can be seen as aversively stimulating or unrewarding, a typical introvert's approach to an imminent persuasive task might be characterized as "whatever works". Efficiency is of course most important when interaction attempts are fewest, and if indeed communication situations are aversive to introverts, it is not a great leap to suppose that they would not hesitate to exercise social influence styles that are also inherently aversive in nature.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem, or self-image, has been a central issue in discussions of personality (e.g., Secord & Bachman, 1965) and interpersonal communication (e.g., Bales, 1970). The conclusion drawn by theorists and researchers is that the perceptions one has of self significantly affect the attitudes and behaviors of the individual. Considerable research has attempted to assess the role of self-esteem in the individual's routine communicative functioning. For example, Jourard (1971) has studied the relationship between self-esteem and self-disclosure behavior. In summarizing a number of studies in this area, McCandless (1970) concludes that "the literature is consensual

that a good self concept is related to other indices of social adjustment" (p. 456).

Literature addressing the problems inherent in such communicative dysfunctional syndromes as communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1970) and unwillingness to communicate (Burgoon, 1976) has painted a picture of the reticent communicator as "tight-lipped, uncommunicative, shy, diffident, fearful, apprehensive, and *antisocial*" (Phillips, 1968, p. 40, emphasis mine). Other researchers have obtained results which support such a conceptualization, and which also suggest that communication reticents avoid competitive situations (Giffin & Gilham, 1971), have less trust in others' communicative attempts (Giffin & Heider, 1967), and feelings of isolation and ineffectiveness in social activities (Low & Sheets, 1951).

Taken together, this work suggests that there exists a relationship between self-esteem and communication reticence, and that, when given the choice, highly reticent individuals will avoid interaction, and *particularly* social influence attempts. In circumstances where such an individual is involved in gaining the compliance of another, a likely course of action consistent with the personality profile outlined would be to exercise the most efficient strategy available. Since reticents lack trust in the communicative attempts of others, there is little reason to believe they will demonstrate highly trusting or prosocial persuasive attempts. On the contrary, it would appear that they would engage in fewer socially

acceptable behaviors and, because they find interaction punishing, would not hesitate to exercise aversive strategies.

The above discussion warrants a conceptualization of the reticent communicator as a frustrated and detached person, perhaps with an outwardly submissive demeanor, that may turn to aggressive tactics when situational constraints limit his or her ability to avoid an unpleasant interaction. From the literature cited it would appear that there is a cluster of predispositions within the unwilling communicator which are potentially able to influence persuasive communication behavior. On this basis, the following hypothesis can be formally stated:

- H1: Unwillingness to communicate will predict a greater likelihood of employing antisocial compliance-gaining message strategies and a lesser likelihood of employing prosocial compliance-gaining strategies.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Sample

Subjects were 285 university undergraduates recruited from lower division communication courses at Michigan State University. Data collection took place during regular class hours in order to maximize participation. However, all potential respondents were explained their option to not take part in the research project if they preferred. Volunteers received no class credit or tangible reward for their participation. Three questionnaires were eliminated from the analysis due to missing data, reducing the total N to 282. The sample was 54% female.

Materials

All questionnaires were identical and consisted of the 20 PRCA Likert-type items and the 26 UCS Likert-type items randomly ordered with about half of the items reflected so as to minimize response set bias. The following description of a typical persuasive situation was the stimulus:

"You and your roommate share a two bedroom apartment near campus. While you make every effort to do your share of the housekeeping chores (i.e., vacuuming the floors, dusting, cleaning the bathroom and kitchen, etc.), your roommate prefers to let you do most of these tasks. You decide that it is only fair for your roommate to help with these chores, and so you decide to talk him (her) into doing his (her) share of the work."

Subjects were asked to rate their likelihood of using each of the 16 Marwell and Schmitt strategies on a 7-item bounded-interval scale anchored by "definitely would not use" and "definitely would use" with a higher score indicating greater likelihood of use. (See Appendix).

Measurement

McCroskey's (1970, 1978) 20 item version of the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) and J. Burgoon's (1976) 26 item Unwillingness-to-Communicate Scale (UCS) provided the operational means of identifying various degrees of communication reticence. Both scales have proven in many experiments to be reliable measures of the concept with reliability coefficients consistently above .90 (McCroskey, 1970; McCroskey, Daly, Richmond, & Falcione, 1977; Burgoon & Burgoon, 1974; Burgoon, 1976). Additionally, recent evidence indicates that the PRCA, the approach-avoidance (AA) dimension of the UCS, and the reward (R) dimension of the UCS tap into different (although not independent) aspects of the communication reticence syndrome (Kelly, 1982; Burgoon & Koper, in press).

The construct and criterion-related validity of both measures has been demonstrated using a correlational approach with other related measures. Communication apprehension was found to be positively

correlated with anxiety, dogmatism, and external control, and negatively correlated with cyclothymia, emotional maturity, dominance, surgency, character, adventurousness, confidence, self-control, tolerance for ambiguity, and need to achieve (McCroskey, Daly, & Sorensen, 1976). Statistically significant relationships were found between the UCS measure and tension, alienation-anomia, communication anxiety, and small group participation (Burgoon, 1976). Although recently some controversy has arisen over the nature of the reticence syndrome and its measurement (Porter, 1981), both measures are considered by most practicing researchers in the field to be satisfactory measures of the communication reticence syndrome.

In this study, as in many previous studies, the taxonomy of persuasive strategies required to operationalize the dependent variable has been the category system outlined by Marwell and Schmitt (1967). Culled from an extensive review of the persuasion literature, the strategies are a collection of frequently used techniques of social influence. Although Marwell and Schmitt make no claim that their list is exhaustive, the typology offers a wide range of approaches and has proven useful in numerous studies (e.g., Miller, Boster, Roloff, & Siebold, 1977; Roloff & Barnicott, 1978, 1979; Lustig & King, 1980; Burgoon, Dillard, Koper, & Doran, in press). The strategies specified by Marwell and Schmitt are presented and defined in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

MARWELL AND SCHMITT STRATEGIES*

1. Promise - If you comply, I will reward you.
2. Threat - If you do not comply, I will punish you.
3. Positive Expertise - If you comply you will be rewarded because of the "nature of things".
4. Negative Expertise - If you do not comply you will be punished because of the "nature of things".
5. Liking - Actor is friendly and helpful to get target in "good frame of mind" so that he will comply with request.
6. Pre-giving - Actor rewards target before requesting compliance.
7. Aversive Stimulation - Actor continuously punishes target making cessation contingent on compliance.
8. Debt - You owe me compliance because of past favors.
9. Moral Appeal - You are immoral if you do not comply.
10. Positive Self-feeling - You will feel better about yourself if you comply.
11. Negative Self-feeling - You will feel worse about yourself if you do not comply.
12. Positive Altercasting - A person with "good" qualities would comply.
13. Negative Altercasting - Only a person with "bad" qualities would not comply.
14. Altruism - I need your compliance very badly, so do it for me.
15. Positive Esteem - People you value will think better of you if you comply.
16. Negative Esteem - People you value will think worse of you if you do not comply.

*Constitutive definitions of strategies taken from Marwell & Schmitt (1967).

In order to operationalize the 16 Marwell and Schmitt strategies, a situation was developed which was considered to be as generic a setting as possible. It was reasoned that, although many situations have been developed for studies similarly using the Marwell and Schmitt typology, all too often the situations are too highly specific. For example, the Lustig and King (1980) situation in which one member of a romantic couple gets a job offer for a position in a distant city is far from being a general context for social influence. The persuasive task is to convince the partner to make the move to the new city. Clearly, this is a highly atypical situation with far-reaching implications. It also seems that the outcome would very likely be independent of the persuasiveness of the subject, which probably would have some impact on the strategic approach taken by the potential persuader.

A second problem in many compliance studies is that persuasive situations are too often not relevant or easily identified with by the subject population, i.e., college students. An example of this can be found in the Miller *et al.* study; one of the four operationalizations of the 16 strategies involved convincing a neighboring homeowner to cut down a tree on the property line. This type of situation is clearly not one which normally occurs in the typical college student's average day. Responses to such unlikely situations are probably not indicative of "real" persuasive behavior and therefore are suspect.

The situation which was developed for this study was premised on the assumption that most of us, including non-students, share a residence with at least one other person. Although in the non-college environment roommates are frequently family, university students in particular often share a dwelling with non-relatives (ranging from best friends to complete strangers). Further, in all but the most unique circumstances, household chores are, to some degree, the responsibility of the residents of the living unit. Consequently, a common persuasive task would likely involve seeking the assistance of roommates in maintaining the residence.

It is this task which provided the theme for operationalizing each of the Marwell and Schmitt strategies. Although this could reasonably be described as a short-term consequence situation, the potential relational implications for non-compliance may be expected to be long range.

Procedures

After a brief explanation of the nature of the study, all subjects agreed to participate. Questionnaires were then distributed to class members, who were given as much time as they needed to complete all of the items. After all of the questionnaires had been returned, the respondents were debriefed in detail and thanked for their participation.

Analysis

An initial Pearson correlation matrix was calculated with the reticence measures correlated with each of the sixteen strategy likelihood-of-use scores. Data were then subjected to a series of stepwise multiple regression analyses. The predictor variables were the reticence measures, i.e., PRCA, AA, and R, for which high scores indicated high apprehension, avoidance, or lack of reward, respectively, and subject gender. The criterion variables were the 16 Marwell and Schmitt strategy usage scores taken individually. Traditional levels of significance ($p < .05$) were deemed appropriate as cut-off limits for interpreting the results. In addition, intercorrelations of the reticence measures and measurement reliability estimates were computed.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Inspection of the scale means and standard deviations indicate that the reticence measures contained sufficient variance to provide a test of the hypothesized relationships. The descriptive statistics were as follows:

TABLE 1

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR RETICENCE MEASURES

	RANGE	MEAN	ST. DEV.	ALPHA ²
PRCA (20 items)	20-140	69.91	20.45	.91
AA (14 items)	14-98	42.26	15.09	.90
R (12 items)	12-84	24.18	9.62	.85

Internal reliability of the construct measures (as indicated by Cronbach's *alpha*) was found to be high for all three reticence measures. Deleting any of the items in the measurement scales would have resulted in a decrease in the reliability coefficient. Thus, further analyses were warranted.

In order to further examine the reticence measures, intercorrelations were calculated. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

INTERCORRELATIONS OF RETICENCE MEASURES³

	AA	R
PRCA	.71 ($p < .01$)	.33 ($p < .01$)
AA		.39 ($p < .01$)

Unlike Burgoon's (1976) results, in which the reward dimension was not significantly correlated with the PRCA, all three measures are statistically significantly intercorrelated. Presumably, each measure is tapping both common and unique elements of the reticence syndrome. Results reported by Kelly (1982) are consistent with these findings. It is unclear why orthogonal dimensions of the construct would be found

to be significantly correlated, however, it is possible that situational variables interact with reticence, obscuring the unique contribution of each dimension to the overall profile. The overlap of communication apprehension and the approach-avoidance dimension is particularly noteworthy ($R^2=.50$). The correlation of the PRCA and the reward dimension accounted for 11% of the variance ($R^2=.11$) and the correlation of the two dimensions of the UCS accounted for 15% of the variance ($R^2=.15$).

The mean likelihood ratings for the 16 strategies are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3

MEAN LIKELIHOOD-OF-USE RATINGS FOR
THE SIXTEEN MARWELL AND SCHMITT STRATEGIES⁴

STRATEGY	MEAN	ST. DEV.
Negative Self-feeling	2.20	1.40
Pregiving	2.42	1.62
Moral Appeal	2.46	1.71
Promise	2.52	1.79
Threat	2.56	1.82
Aversive Stimulation	2.80	1.90
Positive Self-feeling	3.03	1.73
Positive Esteem	3.19	1.84
Debt	3.38	1.96
Negative Esteem	3.43	1.85
Negative Altercasting	3.78	2.06
Liking	4.14	1.97
Positive Altercasting	4.54	1.94
Negative Expertise	5.18	1.80
Altruism	5.86	1.48
Positive Expertise	5.87	1.41

Although it was expected that primarily positive strategies would populate the high end of the spectrum, the pleasant, affiliative strategies and the unpleasant, coercive strategies seem fairly evenly distributed. This result calls into question the value of Hunter and Boster's (1978) empathy model, which predicts that strategies will be arranged in a Guttman-simplex pattern ranging from pro- to antisocial strategies. Apparently, the sample felt that a wide range of strategic choices were appropriate for the persuasive task.

Pearson product-moment correlations between the reticence measures and each of the 16 Marwell and Schmitt strategy use scores are shown in Table 4. This provides the first general test of whether there is an association between the predictor and the criterion variables.

TABLE 4

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE PREDICTOR MEASURES AND
THE SIXTEEN MARWELL AND SCHMITT STRATEGIES

STRATEGY	PRCA	AA	R
Negative self-feeling	.13*	.18*	.07
Pregiving	.11*	.08	.02
Moral Appeal	.03	.08	.15*
Promise	-.07	.03	-.06
Threat	.03	.06	.15*
Aversive Stimulation	.14*	.22*	.21*
Positive Self-feeling	.02	.10*	.00
Positive Esteem	-.06	-.03	-.10
Debt	.16*	.17*	.11*
Negative Esteem	.03	.06	.03
Negative Altercasting	.05	.08	.11*
Liking	.01	.00	-.08
Positive Altercasting	-.01	.05	-.05
Negative Expertise	.00	.03	.00
Altruism	-.08	-.06	-.15*
Positive Expertise	-.08	-.14*	-.20*

* indicates $p < .05$

Stepwise multiple regression procedures (in which the independent variable that accounts for the most variance is entered into the regression equation first, the variable accounting for the most of the

remaining variance, second, and so on) were utilized to further assess the predictive value of the communication reticence measures. Of the sixteen strategies, eight proved to be not significantly predicted based on reticence levels and gender: promise, positive self-feeling, pre-giving, liking, positive altercasting, positive and negative esteem, and negative expertise.

The UCS demonstrated significant predictive power for seven of the remaining strategies. Specifically, the approach/avoidance dimension predicted likelihood of using aversive stimulation, debt, and negative self-feeling, and the reward dimension predicted use of threat and moral appeal and the disuse of positive expertise and altruism. Supplementary analyses resulted in finding that gender significantly predicted the likelihood of using the remaining strategy, negative altercasting, and entered strongly into the regression for aversive stimulation. Males were more likely than females to use both strategies in the experimental situation. The PRCA added little to the variance accounted for in any of the 16 strategies beyond what the UCS had already partialled out.

For those strategies that demonstrated a significant relationship with any of the independent variables, the results were as follows. The regression of AA on the likelihood of using an aversive stimulation strategy produced significant results ($F=14.50$, $d.f.=1,276$, $p<.05$), and when gender was added ($F=12.74$, $d.f.=2,275$, $p<.05$) the R^2 for the equation was .09. The likelihood of using a debt strategy (being

regressed on the predictor variables) resulted in AA emerging as the only significant predictor ($F=7.87$, $d.f.=1,276$, $p<.05$) with an R^2 of .03. The likelihood of not using positive expertise strategies was found to be significantly predicted by the reward dimension (R) of the UCS ($F=8.16$, $d.f.=1,276$, $p<.05$) accounting for about 3% of the variance ($R^2=.03$). The other predictor variables were unable to add significantly to the model. Threat strategies were also predicted by the reward dimension (R) ($F=4.93$, $d.f.=1,276$, $p<.05$) with an R^2 of .02. Like positive expertise, the reward dimension was found to be negatively related to likelihood of using altruism strategies ($F=5.43$, $d.f.=1,274$, $p<.05$); R^2 was .02. The UCS reward dimension again proved useful in predicting use of moral appeal strategies ($F=5.20$, $d.f.=1,274$, $p<.05$), accounting for 2% of the variance ($R^2=.02$). Again the other predictor variables added little to the simpler model. The likelihood of using negative self-feeling strategies was predicted by the AA dimension of the UCS ($F=9.98$, $d.f.=1,274$, $p<.05$) resulting in an R^2 of .04. One last result linked the willingness to use negative altercasting strategies with gender (male) ($F=9.40$, $d.f.=1,276$, $p<.05$) accounting for 3% of the variance ($R^2=.03$).

Table 5 provides the regression equations for the significant relationships found in this study.

TABLE 5

REGRESSION EQUATIONS FOR THE SIXTEEN STRATEGIES⁵

Negative Self-feeling	$y = 1.45 + .02A$
Pregiving	not significant
Moral Appeal	$y = 1.84 + .02R$
Promise	not significant
Threat	$y = 1.92 + .03R$
Aversive Stimulation	$y = 1.70 + .03A + .39G$
Positive Self-feeling	not significant
Positive Esteem	not significant
Debt	$y = 2.45 + .02A$
Negative Esteem	not significant
Negative Altercasting	$y = 3.82 + .38G$
Liking	not significant
Positive Altercasting	not significant
Negative Expertise	not significant
Altruism	$y = 6.43 - .02R$
Positive Expertise	$y = 6.52 - .02R$

The present results can be seen as a replication of Lustig and King's (1980) findings for the PRCA as a nonsignificant predictor of strategy use. Since the PRCA failed to significantly predict even a single strategy, it must be concluded that public speaking anxiety and more general communicative apprehension is not related to strategic communication choices. With the exception of pregiving ($r=.11$, $p<.05$) which was not significantly correlated with either dimension of the UCS, those few strategies that did correlate with the PRCA, i.e., aversive stimulation ($r=.14$, $p<.05$), debt ($r=.16$, $p<.05$), and negative self-feeling ($r=.13$, $p<.05$), were even more highly correlated with the approach-avoidance dimension of the UCS. It is therefore reasonable to

conclude that after AA had been entered into each regression equation, the PRCA was unable to account for any further significant variance, probably due to the intercorrelation of the PRCA and AA.

The research question posed in this study must be answered cautiously. While communication apprehension is related to four of the sixteen strategies, the UCS (AA dimension) appears to be more sensitive in three cases to the same aspects of the predisposition. Therefore, it can be concluded that the PRCA is a very weak predictor of the likelihood of using particular persuasive strategies.

The approach-avoidance dimension of the UCS clearly predicts three of the most antisocial (or at least interpersonally unpleasant) strategies - aversive stimulation, debt, and negative self-feeling. The reward dimension is more sensitive to threat and moral appeal strategies, but is also able to predict that communicators who find communication unrewarding are less likely to use the more prosocial approaches of altruism and positive expertise. Despite no significant findings for the other eight strategies, the supporting evidence is strong enough to warrant the conclusion that the hypothesized relationships exist for a number of important compliance-gaining strategies.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The results from this study provide a first look into the relationship between communication reticence (unwillingness to communicate) and compliance-gaining message selection. It was hypothesized that individuals who avoid interaction or who find communicating with others unrewarding would rely on fewer prosocial persuasive techniques and, instead, use more antisocial approaches to accomplish desired outcomes.

Rushton (1979) provides a general definition of prosocial as "that which is socially desirable and which in some way benefits another person or society at large" (p. 323). He included four categories of prosocial behavior: altruism, friendliness, self-control, and fear diminution. Although not specified by Rushton, antisocial behaviors would presumably include selfishness, unfriendliness, lack of self-control, and instilling fear to accomplish personal goals.

A more specific distinction between prosocial and antisocial actions which focuses on strategic communication behavior has been offered by Roloff (1976):

"Prosocial communication strategies reflect people's attempts to obtain relational rewards by techniques that facilitate understanding of their attitudes and needs...These strategies would be expected to facilitate relational growth and development. On the other hand, antisocial communication strategies represent people's attempts to obtain relational rewards by imposing their position on another through force or deception. Such use of force or deception might be expected to impede relational growth or development." (p. 181)

Avoiders of communicative interaction reported that they are significantly more likely to use aversive stimulation, debt, and negative self-feeling strategies than individuals who are more willing to engage others in verbal interaction. Clearly, aversive stimulation, which was operationalized as acting irritated and refusing to talk to the persuadee until compliance was accomplished, is not likely to facilitate understanding or relational growth, and the persuader may be characterized as unfriendly and lacking in self-control.

Debt strategies, which remind the persuadee of past favors received and then call for payment of the debt, are a form of force, or coercion. A typical response in describing someone's use of such tactics might be, "I didn't want to do it, but what could I say? I owed him the favor." Again, this manner of "collecting payment" for favors done is unlikely to facilitate understanding or relational growth, and such selfish behavior may in fact jeopardize a relationship.

Negative self-feeling strategies, which remind the persuadee that he will feel badly about himself if he does not comply, ostensibly hold that it is in the best interest of the persuadee to comply. This is

nothing short of deceitful when the persuader is really the beneficiary if compliance is obtained. This approach is also meant to instill an especially unpleasant form of fear - loss of self-esteem. Thus, these three strategies that were found to be related to communication avoidance can reasonably be described as antisocial, lending support to the stated hypothesis.

The second dimension of unwillingness to communicate, which taps perceived lack of rewards for communicative attempts, was found to be positively related to threat and moral appeal strategies and negatively related to altruism and positive expertise strategies. Threats of any type are designed to gain compliance based on the fear that the threat will be carried out. Additionally, such coercion is highly unlikely to facilitate relational growth, understanding, or any apparent positive affect for either the persuadee or the persuader.

Moral appeal strategies are similar to negative self-feeling tactics in that they are an attempt to coerce the target into complying out of the fear that their self-esteem will be adversely affected. For example, if others label me as immoral for my behaving (or failing to behave) in some way, might that not force me to question my self-concept as a moral individual? Certainly, even if that is not my response to the labeling, it is undoubtedly the purpose of the labelers to cause such fear. The use of moral appeals attempts also to force the issue into a "higher court", where perhaps God is on the side of the persuader.

While individuals that find communication unrewarding are significantly more likely to report the use of threat and moral appeal strategies, they also reported a significantly lower likelihood of using altruism and positive expertise, both of which are relatively pleasant and potentially likely to engender positive affect. In operationalizing each strategy, the notion of relational and domestic harmony was the clearly identifiable concern of the persuader.

It remains unclear why the other strategies that were tested, some of which were just as clearly pro- or antisocial, yielded nonsignificant results. However, it can be argued that some of these strategies - promise and pre-giving, in particular - are relatively ambiguous and assume that the persuader is willing to expend the effort to "do *something* really nice" for the persuadee, either as a reward for compliance or in anticipation of compliance. Since these two strategies are two of the four least likely rated strategies for the sample as a whole, it is reasonable to conclude that perhaps the inherent ambiguity of the stimulus militated against the selection of these strategies.

An alternative explanation for the reticence measures' inability to predict prosocial strategy selection may lie in the approach used to measure the dependent variable. Subjects were asked to rate their likelihood of using each of the 16 strategies individually. Of the five strategies that the sample as a whole rated above the neutral point (4.00) on the scale, four would be considered prosocial - liking,

positive altercasting, altruism, and positive expertise. Thus, several of the prosocial strategies are rated by most people as likely selections. Because of this widespread preference for prosocial techniques, the reticence measures were unable to significantly predict likelihood of use of the positive strategies. However, while persuaders with more positive attitudes toward communicating with others limit themselves to the strategies at the positive end of the spectrum, reticent communicators have demonstrated a significantly greater likelihood to report that they would use the antisocial strategies as well. This would indicate a less restrained range of potentially usable compliance-gaining strategies for unwilling communicators, while potential persuaders that are low in reticence restrict themselves to more prosocial means of accomplishing strategic goals.

As evidence accumulates on the impact of communication reticence on behavior patterns, it is becoming clear that its influence extends beyond unfamiliar situations and people and to the core of the afflicted individual's personal relationships. The evidence presented in this report suggests that communication avoiders and individuals who have received few rewards for their communicative efforts will be more likely to resort to antisocial attempts in securing the compliance of a roommate. Evidence from other recent investigations has begun to explicate the general interaction patterns of communication reticents (Burgoon & Koper, in press). In particular, Burgoon and Koper found

that in dyads comprised of strangers, reticent communicators were perceived as sending more negative relational messages, i.e., more negative arousal, noncomposure, more nonimmediacy and detachment, more submissiveness, and less intimacy and similarity. When interacting with friends, reticents exhibited nonverbal cues which suggested anxiety, less positive affect, more detachment and nonintimacy, and less facial pleasantness than less reticent communicators. Despite these nonverbal messages, the friends failed to recognize or attribute negative meanings to them, perhaps making allowances for their friends' discomfort. However, it can be concluded that the nonverbal relational message behavior of communication reticents reflects negative attitudes toward both interpersonal and noninterpersonal communicative encounters.

The nonsignificant findings for communication apprehension may be interpreted in a number of ways. First, due to the moderately high correlation between the PRCA and the AA dimension of the UCS, multicollinearity may have been a problem in this study. A separate set of regression analyses run without attempting to include the PRCA as a predictor variable yielded nearly identical regression coefficients for the significant relationships. It can reasonably be concluded that multicollinearity may be obscuring the nature of the relationships in these results. In short, after the best predictor (the UCS in every case) had been entered into the regression equation and its variance partialled out, the PRCA was simply unable to add

significantly to the variance accounted for in the model.

Second, in an argument similar to a position articulated by Parks (1980), it is likely that the PRCA is a measure of public speaking anxiety more than a measure of generalized trait anxiety. One needs merely to inspect the PRCA questionnaire items to notice the high percentage related to anxiety about public speaking performances.⁶ If it is true that the PRCA is more a measure of a predisposition to be intimidated and fearful in public speaking situations, then it would not be expected that such a measure would predict behavior in a purely interpersonal context, as was the case in this study.

The unwillingness-to-communicate scale, on the other hand, has demonstrated its utility as a predictor of communication behavior (at least as self-reported by the respondents). This adds support to Burgoon and Burgoon's (1974) contention that the "advantage of (the UCS) is in its directness in measuring communication attitudes..." (p. 36). Using communication behavior "sets" to predict communication outcomes is clearly a useful and productive approach, and future research will benefit by applying this principle.

A third possibility to explain why the PRCA was unable to predict strategy use may lie in focusing on the nature of the apprehensive communicator. It has been suggested that high CAs have the same repertoire of persuasive techniques as low CAs, but that there is a differential ability to implement them (Lustig & King, 1980). Although this was not directly tested in this study, it would appear that high

and low communication apprehensives make similar situational adaptations in strategy selection (Lustig & King, 1980), but that their actual communication performance differs. The repertoire of available choices was the sixteen Marwell and Schmitt strategies for all subjects, but in reporting on paper what message selections the respondents would make, the implementation stage was never reached. Therefore, any differences in the implementation of persuasive strategies between high and low apprehensives would not be revealed in this study. Consistent with this explanation is the notion that the state anxiety aspects of CA are less likely to appear without situational stressors present or anticipated (Burgoon & Koper, in press).

Supplementary analysis resulted in finding biological gender significantly related to the use of aversive stimulation and negative altercasting; males reported a higher likelihood of use for both strategies. It would appear that males are not opposed to using techniques that are not very pleasant in dealing with their (male) roommates. It would be interesting to vary the sex of the target of the persuasive message to determine if these results are generalizable to mixed-sex persuasive encounters.

Future research in the area of individual differences in compliance-gaining message choices might benefit by departing from an approach which offers a fixed repertoire of choices, e.g., the 16 Marwell and Schmitt strategies, and measures the dependent variable

based on the coding of subject-generated responses. Since people probably differ in their repertoires of potential persuasive strategies, such an approach would allow increased insight into the actual behavioral choices that individuals make.

A second avenue for future research to pursue might be the development and testing of other communication behavior set measures. The success of the unwillingness-to-communicate scale as a predictive tool should encourage communication researchers to explore other sets of behavior which are related to communication activity. Such measures might then be used to predict persuasive strategy selection, as in this study, or other communication outcomes. Also, the UCS might be used to predict communication behavior other than persuasive message selection.

Finally, any explanation of sex differences in communication behavior will be necessarily tied to socialization differences. Given that differences do exist in the socialization of people, it seems plausible that there are not merely two end results, i.e., maleness and femaleness. Rather, a broad range of sex role differentiations can take place, this being the rationale for viewing gender as a continuous, rather than a categorical, variable. Bem's (1975) sex-role orientation scale is designed to look at the unique mixture of typically male and female characteristics that make up each of us. Measuring gender in this way allows more fine-grain distinctions than a biological gender approach and probably more accurate judgements of individuals' gender-related proclivities.

In summary, the unwillingness-to-communicate scale was found to be a useful predictor of compliance-gaining behavior, whereas the PRCA and gender were weak predictors of strategy selection. The relationship between unwillingness to communicate and compliance-gaining message selection can be characterized as moderate, with the UCS significantly predicting seven of the sixteen messages provided. Consistent with the theoretical rationale for this study, unwilling communicators reported as likely choices several message strategies that can be characterized as antisocial, unfriendly, and uncooperative.

NOTES

- ¹ Items 2, 4, 15, 16, 17, and 18 from the 25-item instrument reported in Mortensen, Arntson, and Lustig (1977) would appear to be tapping general personality assertiveness.
- ² Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient.
- ³ Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.
- ⁴ A higher rating indicates greater likelihood of use.
- ⁵ In the regression equations, 'A' indicates the approach/avoidance dimension, 'R' indicates the reward dimension, and 'G' indicates gender (male=1, female=-1).
- ⁶ Twelve of the twenty items in the PRCA-20 specifically ask for the subject's physical and emotional responses to speaking before an audience.

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APPENDIX

Last Four Digits of Social Security Number

Below are a series of statements about communicating with others. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Work quickly, indicating your first impression as your response. Please be sure to answer every item. Thank you.

1. I would enjoy presenting a speech on a local television show.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

2. My friends and family don't listen to my ideas.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

3. I have no fear of facing an audience.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

4. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I speak before an audience.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

5. My hands tremble when I handle objects on the platform.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

6. I face the prospect of making a speech with complete confidence.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

7. I feel that I am more fluent when talking to people than most other people are.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

8. I talk less because I'm shy.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

9. I believe that my friends and family understand my feelings.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

10. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance I feel very nervous.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

11. In conversations I prefer to listen rather than talk.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

12. Other people are friendly only because they want something out of me.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

13. My friends seek my opinions and advice.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

14. I feel nervous when I have to speak to others.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

15. I avoid group discussions.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

16. I find it difficult to make conversation with strangers.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

17. I feel self-conscious when I am called upon to answer a question or to give an opinion in class.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

18. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

19. I look forward to an opportunity to speak in public.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

20. I am fearful and tense all the while I am speaking before a group of people.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

21. I like to get involved in group discussions.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

22. I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

23. If I got into some kind of trouble, I couldn't talk to anyone about it.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

24. During a conversation I prefer to talk rather than listen.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

25. I talk alot because I am not shy.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

26. I always avoid speaking in public if possible.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

27. Conversing with people who hold positions of authority causes me to be fearful and tense.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

28. I am afraid to express myself in groups

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

29. Talking to other people is just a waste of time.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

30. I find it easy to make conversation with strangers.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

31. I don't feel nervous when I speak to others.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

32. My family doesn't enjoy discussing my interests and activities with me.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

33. People just pretend to be listening when I talk.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

34. I find the prospect of speaking mildly pleasant.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

35. I look forward to expressing my opinions at meetings.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

36. I think my friends are truthful with me.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

37. I have fears about expressing myself in a group.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

38. My friends and family listen to my ideas and suggestions.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

39. I am not afraid to speak up in conversations.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

40. I dislike to use my voice and body expressively.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

41. I don't ask for advice from my family and friends when I have to make decisions.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

42. I don't think my friends are honest in their communication with me.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

43. Although I am nervous just before getting up, I soon forget my fears and enjoy the experience of public speaking.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

44. I feel relaxed and comfortable while speaking.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

45. When communicating, my posture feels strained and unnatural.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

46. Although I talk fluently with friends, I am at a loss for words on the platform.

Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Disagree

You and your roommate share a two bedroom apartment near campus. While you make every effort to do your share of the household chores (i.e., vacuuming the floors, dusting, cleaning the bathroom and kitchen, etc.), your roommate prefers to let you do most of these tasks. You decide that it is only fair for your roommate to help with these chores, and so you decide to talk him (her) into doing his (her) share of the work.

How likely would you be to use the following strategies in your persuasive attempt?

- 1) I would tell my roommate that if he (she) will do his (her) share of the housework, I will do something nice in return.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 2) I would act irritated and refuse to talk to my roommate until he (she) started doing his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 3) I would tell my roommate that only an inconsiderate person would not do their share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 4) I would remind my roommate of past favors I have done for him (her) and suggest that he (she) owes me the consideration of doing half of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 5) I would tell my roommate that two people can live together more pleasantly if they both contribute to the upkeep of the household.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 6) I would tell my roommate that I would be very proud of him (her) if he (she) would make a greater effort to do his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 7) I would tell my roommate that if he (she) doesn't attempt to do his (her) share of the housework, I will move out.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 8) I would do something really nice for my roommate and then ask him (her) to begin doing his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 9) I would tell my roommate that he (she) will feel better about himself (herself) if he (she) does his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 10) I would tell my roommate that I don't have time to do all of the house-keeping chores and that I would really appreciate it if he (she) would help with the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 11) I would tell my roommate that a considerate person would do their share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 12) I would try to be pleasant toward my roommate in order to get him (her) into the right frame of mind before asking him (her) to do his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 13) I would tell my roommate that it is morally wrong to not do one's share of the household chores.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 14) I would tell my roommate that I will be very disappointed if he (she) does not make a greater effort to do his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 15) I would tell my roommate that he (she) will feel badly about himself (herself) if he (she) does not do his (her) share of the housework.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

- 16) I would tell my roommate that two people cannot live together pleasantly if they don't both contribute to the upkeep of the household.

definitely would not use 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 definitely would use

Sex: Male Female (circle one)

Thank you very much for your participation in this research project.

This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION AND UNWILLINGNESS
TO COMMUNICATE AS PREDICTORS OF COMPLIANCE-
GAINING STRATEGY SELECTION

presented by

RANDALL J. KOPER

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

M.A. degree in COMMUNICATION

Michael Burgoon
Major professor

Date 2-24-84

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