COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION: VISUAL IMAGERY AND THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

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COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION: VISUAL IMAGERY AND THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

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ABSTRACT

Extensive research has been conducted concerning Communication Apprehension (CA), the detrimental effects associated with CA and interventions to manage CA. Research has indicated that high CA adversely affects every facet of our lives including academics and the workplace. Many interventions have been implemented to reduce CA such as Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy, Skills Training and Visualization. However, researchers argue that these interventions are not being implemented as effectively as they could be and more information is needed to do so. Presently, no research examines gender and Communication Apprehension or more specifically, whether males and females visualize themselves differently as public speakers. A sample of 12 males and 12 females were asked to complete a pre-test and post-test, deliver a short speech and draw a picture of how they envision themselves as public speakers. Drawings were then coded for Valence, Vividness and Control and analyzed. Results indicate that there are no significant differences between males and females and how they visualize themselves as public speakers. The results will be discussed in further detail later in this paper.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA – Communication Apprehension

PRCA – Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

PSA – Public Speaking Apprehension

RET – Rational Emotive Therapy

SD – Systematic Desensitization

SPCC – Self-Perceived Communication Competence

ST – Skills Training

VIZ – Visualization

WTC – Willingness to Communicate
CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The treatment of speech anxiety has long been a persistent concern of both teachers and researchers in the field of communication (e.g. Lomas, 1937; Clevenger and Phifer, 1959; McCroskey, 1972). This concern may be provoked by researcher’s assertion that “Communication Apprehension is a serious and pervasive problem…CA influences virtually every facet of a person’s life…” (Hallmark, Hansen, Padwick, Abel & Stewart, 1993, p. 4) For example, Holbrook (1987) explains that Communication Apprehension is far more than feelings of stage fright, but rather a pattern of anxiety that can profoundly affect education, emotions, oral communication, social skills, and self-esteem.

Several interventions are currently used to help individuals cope with Communication Apprehension and reduce anxiety. Now the prevailing dilemma is determining which interventions are most effective for each individual. Ayres and Heuett (1997), found that students with high communication apprehension (CA) imagine themselves differently than do students with low levels of communication apprehension (CA). Presently, nothing has been established as to whether males and females experiencing high levels of public speaking apprehension (PSA) visualize themselves differently.

This investigation will examine whether males and females who report high levels of public speaking apprehension (PSA) visualize themselves differently in a public speaking situation. If differences are significant, they may have profound implications as to how genders are treated for Communication Apprehension.
CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature

The number one fear of Americans, even more than death, is speaking in public. In fact 40.6% of those surveyed disclosed they were afraid of speaking in public while only 18.7% were afraid of death (Bruskin Report, 1973). The persistent concern of Communication Apprehension (CA) has led to a substantial amount of research regarding the nature, prevalence and intervention of Communication Apprehension.

Communication Apprehension (CA) is “an individual’s level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons.” (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991).

The negative consequences of CA are substantial. CA has shown to have an impact on learning, communication competence and communication skill. For example, high CA individuals demonstrate three typical behavioral patterns: communication avoidance, communication withdrawal and communication disruption (McCroskey, 1984). Further, those with high CA will be negatively affected in regards to their economic, academic, political and social lives. Individuals with high CA have been found to perceive themselves as less competent and less confident, are perceived by others as less dominant (Porter 1982), less assertive and responsive (Kearney & McCroskey, 1980). These individuals are less satisfied with their abilities to express self, to lead, to meet people, and to make decisions (Crozier, 1981). Those with high CA generally experience greater anxiety, nervousness, and greater expectations of failure (Morris, Harris & Rovins, 1981).
In addition, the effects of CA carry over into the classroom. For example, those with High CA score significantly lower on the American College Test (ACT), have GPA’s one-half grade point lower (McCroskey & Anderson, 1976), and score lower on both objective and written tests (Hurt, Preiss & Davis, 1976) than those with low CA. “There is scarcely a teacher of public speaking alive who has not recognized the seriousness of the problem and attempted some remedy in their classroom.” (McCroskey, 1976, p.115).

Further, the effects of CA are overwhelmingly evident in the workplace. Individuals with high CA are more likely to select jobs requiring little communication regardless of less status and income, less likely to be offered employment (McCroskey & Richmond, 1979), have less desire and probability for advancement (Scott, McCroskey & Sheahan, 1978) and are less satisfied with employment (Gibbs, Rosenfeld & Javidi, 1994). In addition to these effects, high CA individuals are less likely to communicate with those that can offer support and help such as advisors, counselors, peers and professors (McCroskey, Booth-Butterfield & Payne, 1989).

On the other hand, McCroskey (1984) explains that low CA seems to be a facilitator of the development of communication competence and skill. Rather than withdraw from opportunities to communicate, these individuals seek opportunities to communicate. These individuals are more confident in their ability to verbalize and do not feel the need to restrict their verbal behaviors to control interactions as various contexts are presented (Jordan & Powers, 1978).
The concern of CA has generated a vast amount of research regarding the nature and etiology of CA. Daly and McCroskey (1984) discuss two types of CA: Trait and State.

**Trait CA**

Trait-like CA is often viewed as an invariant characteristic of an individual or a relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward communication across a wide-variety of contexts. Trait CA can be experienced with all types of people in all types of situations (Daly & McCroskey, 1984).

The etiology of trait CA is different to varying writers. In the past, studies have been done only in naturalistic environments and not carefully controlled experiments. Therefore, significant results are hard to measure when there is large amounts of potential error. McCroskey (1984) found only two explanations to seem viable for trait CA: it is hereditary or environmental. Either we are born with it or we learn it, but more importantly a combination of both can help us better understand the etiology of trait CA. Researchers have established that significant social traits can be found in infants shortly after birth. Also, research on twins reinforces the theoretical role of heredity, suggesting that heredity can be one of the contributing causes of CA (McCroskey, 1984).

**State CA**

State CA represents reactions of an individual communicating with a given group or an individual at a given time. State CA can be experienced with a given person at any one time but not another. State CA is viewed not as personality based but instead a response to different situations generated by others and should be expected to fluctuate widely (Daly & McCroskey, 1984).
Research concerning the etiology of state CA are more specific than those of trait CA. For example, Buss (1980) suggests there are seven elements in a situation that may increase CA: Novelty (uncertainty about how one should behave or communicate in a new situation); Formality (situations with highly appointed behaviors and little room for deviation); Subordinate status (interacting from a lower position); Conspicuousness (feeling eminent in a group); Unfamiliarity (interacting with unique people, places, or contexts); Dissimilarity (Interacting with those who are unlike oneself); Degree of attention (too little or too much attention may increase CA).

Daly and Hailey (1981) have researched two more elements beyond these seven: Evaluation and Prior history. When being evaluated, a person seems to be more anxious than otherwise. Also, if a person has prior history of failing, he or she will be likely to fear failure again and therefore becomes more apprehensive as they experience the same environment or situation again. Contrarily, success brings confidence and decreases apprehension. Throughout these different situations, expectations are created as to what behavior is ‘normal’ or acceptable. When the expectations are not continually fulfilled a person loses confidence and fear can become associated with a situation and expectation, especially if a person feels it is impossible to meet the expectation. This is likely to be a catalyst for learned helplessness.

Willingness to Communicate and Self-perceived Communication Competence are two components highly correlated with CA. Thus, the following paragraphs will discuss each component respectively.
Willingness to Communicate

WTC has shown to be highly correlated with CA. “People have the ability to choose to communicate or to choose not to communicate” (McCroskey and Richmond, 1991, pg 20). When confronted with an uncomfortable situation a person has a choice of whether they will avoid the situation and therefore avoid discomfort or confront the situation and make the best of it. Thus, every person has a different level of what is called Willingness to Communicate (WTC). McCroskey (1997) defines Willingness to Communicate “as an individual’s predisposition to initiate communicating with others” (pg. 77). An individual’s level of CA is probably the best predictor of a person’s willingness to communicate. Whether or not a person is willing to communicate is affected by situational constraints such as: who is communicating, time demands, how a person feels, and other interactional contexts. Therefore WTC is highly situationally dependant. A primary reason why people are less willing to communicate than others is because of the deficiency of communication skills and Communication Apprehension (McCroskey and Richmond, 1991).

Self-Perceived Communication Competence

Research has shown a substantial association between Self-Perceived Communication Competence and WTC (McCroskey Richmond, 1991). McCroskey & Richmond (1991, p.46) define Communication Competence as an “individual’s ability to properly process information in such a way that communicative behaviors occur in some orderly, rule-governed way.” Therefore, Self-Perceived Communication Competence (SPCC) is defined “as an individual’s self-perception of that competence or skill” (McCroskey, 1997, p.104). Thus, if an individual perceives they do not have the
competency or skill to communicate appropriately, this may decrease their willingness to communicate and increase their CA.

Given that CA affects almost all people at sometime (Motley, 1995) and is very difficult to avoid (Kendall, 1974), that it is among people’s greatest fears (Bruskin Report, 1973) and is a source of significant and detrimental effects, a great amount of research has been done regarding interventions to help people cope with CA. The following are only four of several interventions:

**Systematic Desensitization**

Systematic Desensitization (SD) was developed by Wolpe (1958) to reduce anxiety. Based on learning theory, Systematic Desensitization trains your body to respond to stimulus such as speaking in public with a relaxed response instead of a fear response. The three steps in carrying SD out is first to create a hierarchy of events that lead to anxiety about public speaking and identify specific situations that arouse anxious feelings arranged in order of intensity. The second step is to train the body to completely relax using deep muscle relaxation instructions and developing the ability to differentiate between tension and relaxation. The last step conditions the body to relax while visualizing progressively difficult situations in the hierarchy (Ayers & Hopf, 1993).

**Rationale Emotive Therapy**

Rationale Emotive Therapy (RET) is concerned with recognizing underlying beliefs that contribute to irrational thoughts and maladaptive behavior. Anxiety associated with irrational thinking can be overcome by developing rational responses to our irrational thoughts (Ellis, 1962). Two steps in accomplishing the ambition of RET is first to identify the irrational thoughts that cause apprehension and second replace these
irrational thoughts by challenging them and restating them into rational thoughts (Ellis & Harper, 1975).

**Skills Training**

Skills Training (Fremouw & Zitter, 1978) is based on the concept that individuals experience communication apprehension because of perceived lack of skills. This intervention focuses on helping individuals learn and practice skills necessary for effective public speaking which in turn reduces fear and anxiety (Dwyer, 1998).

**Visualization**

Visualization, first developed by Roberto Assagioli (1976), is based on the premise that if the images we hold in our minds of what we perceive as future situations are negative, then we will feel anxiety. If the image of the perceived future situation is positive, we will have positive feelings and less anxiety (Fanning, 1988). Visualization emphasizes development of positive thinking and positive images and ignoring negative feelings, helping one feel confident rather than anxious (Ayers & Hopf, 1993). This technique is used extensively by athletes to successfully improve performance (Assagioli, 1976). Visualization is also being used in the medical field to help patients cope with their illnesses. For example, Achterberg & Lawlis (1978) report people who recover from life threatening illnesses visualize themselves as strong, vivid and active and the disease as relatively weak, while those who do not recover visualize the opposite.

Ayers and Hopf (1985) have performed extensive research on visual imagery and communication apprehension and have found that visualization effectively reduces apprehension in communication settings.
**Imagery**

Imagery has been used in research to find differences between low and high CA individuals. For example, Ayers and Heuett (1997) found students who are high CA imagine themselves differently than do students with low levels of CA. This data was found by analyzing illustrations of high and low PSA individuals in regard to Valence (positive, negative, neutral), Vividness (little detail, moderate detail, considerable detail) and Control (In control, not in control, control not detected). This research was based on the findings which found high PSA’s to envision themselves as more negative than low PSA’s (Ayers, 1988; Booth-Butterfield & Butterfield, 1990). Research found that high PSA’s construct less vivid images than low PSA’s (Wadleigh, 1995). In addition, Gordon (1949) found control to be another important aspect of imagery, also a characteristic found in Ayer’s and Heuett’s (1997) study. Those with high CA depict themselves as not in control significantly more than low PSA’s (Ayers & Heuett, 1997).

**Gender Differences**

The study of gender differences concerning CA may facilitate the information needed to more effectively implement treatments on individual levels. Though research on gender differences in communication is abundant, Canary and Hause (1993) argue it is still a “muddled picture” (p. 129). Gender has largely been regarded as an independent variable that affects communication behavior while we should be examining gender as a dependant variable. Despite this muddled picture, research has shown there are in fact differences between men and women concerning communication (Canary & Hause, 1993). Further, gender differences have been studied in regard to nonverbal behavior and interpersonal communication (Knofler & Margarete, 2007), small groups and leadership
emergence (Hawkins, 1995), self-disclosure (Dindia & Allen, 1992), and organizational communication (Ashcraft & Mumby, 2004).

In contrast, gender differences directly related to CA are seldom examined according to McCroskey, Simpson and Richmond (1982). “Conclusion and summary statements about CA usually fail even to mention any possible relationship between sex and CA” (McCroskey, Simpson and Richmond, 1982, p. 129). However, other studies do indicate that females report slightly more anxiety than males (Andersen, Andersen, & Garrison, 1978; Zimbardo, 1977). Researching these gender differences may help determine what treatment is most effective for each gender in regard to high CA individuals in a public speaking situation.

Considering the research and the complex nature, the considerable prevalence and the detrimental effects of CA, it is evident that effective interventions are imperative. Although, Dwyer (2000) asserts that while there are a variety of effective intervention programs to reduce anxiety, the difficulty lies in determining which intervention will be most effective for each individual. “…no single intervention will work for everyone” (p. 72). Ayers and Hopf (1993) suggest that it is difficult to say why one approach is effective for some and not for others. Furthermore, Allen, Hunter, & Donahue (1989) recommend that we need to seek to improve treatment and determine which treatment actually changes the person. The difficulty in improving treatment, according to Kelly (1982), is that we do not have the information to decide which treatment is appropriate. In order to better treat those with CA, interventions must be implemented more effectively (Dwyer, 2000).
Researching gender and CA may provide information that allows us to more effectively implement treatment. For example, studies have been done on visualization and the difference in how people envision themselves. Ayers & Heuett (1997) found that individuals with High CA visualize themselves differently than those who have low CA. In addition they suggest that future research regarding whether or not males and females visualize themselves differently may be significant.

Currently there is no data indicating whether High CA males and females envision themselves differently in a public speaking situation. If data proves to be significant, it may suggest that males and females may need to be treated differently. Furthermore, other studies do indicate that females report slightly more anxiety than males (Andersen, Andersen, & Garrison, 1978; Zimbardo, 1977). Therefore the following hypotheses have been developed and tested.

**Hypotheses:**

**H1:** Women with a high degree of public speaking apprehension will depict more negative drawings than men with a high degree of public speaking apprehension.

**H2:** Men with a high degree of public speaking apprehension will depict more positive drawings than women with a high degree of public speaking apprehension.

These hypotheses are grounded in the extensive literature that indicates males and females experiencing high CA may produce and process images of themselves differently in the public speaking environment.
CHAPTER THREE
Research Design and Methodology

Participants

Participants were a convenience sample consisting of 24 undergraduate students enrolled in various communication courses during the Fall Semester of 2007. There were 12 males and 12 females ranging from their freshman to senior year. Each participant completed a pre-test and post-test of the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA, Levine & McCroskey, 1990). Each participant was offered extra credit and received a verbal thank you.

Instruments

The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA, Levine & McCroskey, 1990) was used to measure participant’s level of Trait CA and used to determine those with high CA. The PRCA consists of 20 likert-type scales and has a high inter-item reliability (> .90 in most studies) and solid evidence of validity (McCroskey, 1977, 1982). Reliability was .70 (Using Cronbochs Alpha). Participant’s drawings were used to analyze whether males and females experiencing high CA envisioned themselves differently in regards to being a positive or a negative public speaker.

Procedure

A total of 60 students from various communication courses completed the PRCA (Levine & McCroskey, 1990) pre-test. The scores on the PRCA were used to identify high communication apprehensive (CA) students. Students who scored one standard deviation above the mean were considered high apprehensive in regard to public speaking. Of these participants, 12 High CA males and 12 High CA females were asked
to prepare and deliver a 2 to 3 minute informative speech on “what they plan to do after college.” They were given 5 minutes to prepare. Afterwards, each participant was given an 8.5 x 11 inch white piece of paper with instructions to draw a picture of how they imagine themselves as a public speaker (See Appendix A). Participants then completed the post-test PRCA. All students were informed that participation was completely voluntary, that they could discontinue the study at anytime and that responses would remain completely confidential. They were given a verbal thank you and dismissed.
CHAPTER FOUR

Analysis and Results

Coding Categories

The first step of data analysis was the coding of each drawing for Valence, vividness and control. Valence involved the positive (e.g. smiling, confident, standing erect, etc.), negative (e.g. shaking, sweating, frowning, etc.) and neutral (no positive or negative cues were present) tone for each picture.

Vividness involved the amount of detail evident in the drawing. Drawings were categorized as “considerable detail” (e.g. depicted all three elements, the speaker, the audience and the setting), “moderate detail” (e.g. depicted two of the three elements) and “little detail” (e.g. depicting one of three elements such as only the speaker).

Lastly, drawings were coded for Control. Drawings were categorized as “in control” (e.g. looking directly at audience, large compared to audience or setting, confident, etc.), “not in control” (e.g. small compared to the audience or setting, not standing erect, frazzled, etc.) or “control not detected” meaning that control cues were not present in the drawing.

Coder Training

Two Communication Graduate Students, blind to the purpose of the study, were chosen as coders. Both coders volunteered and received a verbal thank you. Coders were trained to code each drawing for valence, vividness and control. Each coder was given a reference sheet with directions and definitions of each category. Training consisted of explaining each category and their definition, but without giving examples, and through practice coding sessions using drawings independent of the data set. When coders
achieved .80 intercoder reliability in regard to the practice drawings, they then
independently coded the 24 drawings (12 High CA males and 12 High CA females)
under investigation. Intercoder reliability for these drawing was .82. After coding was
finished coders were debriefed.

The data was analyzed using crosstabulations and Independent-Samples T Tests.

**TABLE 1: INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TESTS OF VALENCE, VIVIDNESS AND CONTROL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
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<tr>
<td>Valence</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>.36237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vividness</td>
<td>-1.119</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.275</td>
<td>-.25000</td>
<td>.22332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>-.405</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>-.16667</td>
<td>.41133</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the T Tests indicate that there are no significant differences between
high CA males and high CA females and how they envision themselves as public
speakers. Thus, the hypothesis that women with a high degree of public speaking
apprehension will depict more negative drawings than men with a high degree of public
speaking was not supported.
The T Test value computed for Valence was $t(22) = .000$, $p > .05$. In addition, an examination of Table 1 reveals that the positive, negative and neutral aspects of valence proved to be equal for both genders. Results show that 3 of 12 (25%) male and 3 of 12 (25%) female drawings were considered “positive”, 2 of 12 (16.7%) male and 2 of 12 (16.7%) female drawings were considered “neutral” and 7 of 12 (58.3%) male and 7 of 12 (58.3%) female drawings were considered “negative”. These results suggest there are no significant differences in how high CA males and females visualize themselves in regard to valence and public speaking.
The T Test value computed for Vividness was $t(22) = -1.119$, $p>0.5$. Table 2 shows that 3 of 12 (25%) male and 5 of 12 (41.7%) female drawings were placed in the “Little Detail” category, 8 of 12 (66.7%) male and 7 of 12 (58.3%) female drawings were placed in the “Moderate Detail” category and 1 of 12 (8.3%) male and 0 of 12 (0%) female drawings were placed in the “Considerable Detail” category.
The T Test value computed for Control is $t(22) = -0.405$, $p > .05$. In regards to Control, results show that 7 of 12 (58.3%) male and 8 of 12 (66.7%) female drawings were placed in the “not in control” category, 5 of 12 (41.7%) males and 4 of 12 (33.3%) female drawings were placed in the “in control” category and 0 male and 0 female drawings were placed in the “control not detected” category.
This study was designed to determine whether High Communication Apprehensive males and females visualize themselves differently as public speakers. Drawings provided by 24 high Communication Apprehensive (12 male, and 12 female) students were compared in regard to Valence, Vividness and Control (Ayres & Heuett, 1997). The T-Test applied to data indicated no significant differences between high communication apprehensive males and females and how they visualize themselves in the public speaking environment (Table 1).

Illustrations (Appendix B, 1-12) 1 and 2 are depictions of one high apprehensive male and one high apprehensive female as negative in regards to Valence. Illustration 1 depicts a negative male who is very small in comparison to the setting. Illustration 2 depicts a female who is not smiling and has shaky legs and arms. Illustrations 3 and 4 are drawings of one male and one female considered to have “little detail” in regards to Vividness. For example, illustration 3 shows a male who only drew himself and not the setting or the audience. In addition, the illustration is very simple and does not show facial expressions, hair or other specific details. Illustration 4 shows a female who has only drawn her head and facial features and did not include the setting or the audience. Illustrations 5 and 6 depict drawings of one male and one female as “not in control” while delivering a speech. Illustration 5 shows a picture of a male who is “not in control”, depicting himself as sweating, shaking and unconfident. Illustration 6 shows a female who depicts herself as being stiff as a board, is frowning and has large eyes. Both of these
participants depicted themselves as being more controlled by the situation than being in control.

In contrast, illustrations 7 and 8 are depictions of a high CA male and female as positive in regards to Valence. Illustration 7 depicts a positive male who is smiling, standing erect and confident. Illustration 8 depicts a female who is standing erect and smiling. Illustrations 9 and 10 are drawings of one male and one female, considered to have “considerable detail” or “moderate detail” in regards to Vividness. Illustration 8 shows a male speaker, the setting and the audience. In addition, the illustration shows facial expressions, hair, glasses and even a collar and buttons on his shirt. A “moderate detailed” picture was used for Illustration 9 because there were no female drawings that were considered to have “considerable detail”. The illustration shows the female speaker in addition to the setting. Illustrations 11 and 12 depict drawings of one male and one female as “in control”. Illustration 11 shows a male who is standing erect, pointing at a visual aid and appears to be confident. Illustration 12 shows a female who is smiling, looking up at her the audience and seems to be confident.

While results indicate that males and females who experience high levels of communication apprehension (CA) do not envision themselves differently, the results may suggest that genders can be effectively treated with the same interventions. Although, before this assumption can be made, further research is necessary and this study has narrowed down information regarding gender differences and communication apprehension and has provided opportunity for a variety of potential research.

For example, future research concerning males and females and implementation of Berelson’s (1952, p. 142) categories, for example, direction, trait, intensity, and space
could be of merit. These categories could systematically provide more detailed information as to how males and females envision themselves as public speakers. Another study might cross examine students’ drawings and written essays to determine whether students envision themselves differently through pictures and words. Thus, it might be that a picture may or may not depict how a person accurately envisions themselves as a speaker, likewise, a written essay may or may not explain more accurately how a person envisions themselves in a speaking situation.

In addition, research might examine one’s actual ability to envision, rationalize and learn. For example, if some are unable to envision situations as well as others, visualization or systematic desensitization as interventions may not be the most effective. There were no females in this study who had illustrations with considerable detail whereas some males did. If one gender visualizes better than another it may have implications as to what treatments are most effective. On the other hand, if these individuals have a greater ability to rationalize and replace negative thoughts, Rationale Emotive Therapy may be best for these individuals. Further, Skills Training may be most effective for those with specific learning styles. While genders may not visualize themselves as public speakers differently, they may vary in other aspects such as their ability to visualize, rationalize or learn which may have further implications as to which treatments are most effective for males and females.

Lastly, research needs to be considered in determining whether male’s and female’s preparation and practice periods have a bearing on a person’s high CA level and how they envision themselves delivering a speech. Furthermore it could be valuable to
research whether or not grading effects an individual’s CA and how they may depict themselves as a speaker.

Limitations:

This study contains a number of limitations. First, there is no definitive way of knowing if the pictures students provided, accurately depict how students truly envisioned themselves in their mind. Some individuals may have been experiencing some level of “drawing apprehension” or simply had poor drawing skills. Also, the students were not all tested at the same time of day. Some may have been hungrier or more tired than others which may skew their responses and the results of the study. In addition, this study only tested genders in the public speaking setting of communication. There may be significant differences between genders in other communication settings such as small groups or interpersonal settings. Further, the sample size is small and homogenous and generalization is restricted. Although, generalization was not the purpose of this study but instead serves as ground work for several repeated experiments with different homogenous samples that may lead to logical inferences based on their findings. Although, because data was obtained from a convenience sample of only college students enrolled in communication/public speaking courses, students most likely had experience with intervention and giving speeches which may have affected the results.

This study examined whether males and females envisioned themselves differently as public speakers. While there were no significant differences between males and females. Understanding there are no differences is valuable and a foundation for numerous future studies on Communication Apprehension and Gender differences.
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Appendix A: Direction of Drawings
Appendix B: Illustrations 1-12

Illustration 1:

High CA male drawing in regard to Valence (Negative)
Illustration 2:

High CA female drawing in regard to Valence (Negative)
Illustration 3:

High CA male drawing in regard to Vividness (Little Detail)
Illustration 4:

High CA female drawing in regard to Vividness (Little Detail)
Illustration 5:

High CA male drawing in regard to control (Not in Control)
Illustration 6:

High CA female drawing in regard to control (Not in Control)
Illustration 7:

High CA male drawing in regard to Valence (Positive)
Illustration 8:

High CA female drawing in regard to Valence (Positive)
Illustration 9:

High CA male drawing in regard to Vividness (Considerable Detail)
Illustration 10:

High CA female drawing in regard to Vividness (Moderate Detail)
Illustration 11:

High CA male drawing in regard to control (In Control)
Illustration 12:

High CA female drawing in regard to control (In Control)