The Impact of Social and Cognitive Variables on Communication Competence

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL AND COGNITIVE VARIABLES ON COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

by

Griffin Joseph Cheek

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL AND COGNITIVE VARIABLES ON COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL AND COGNITIVE VARIABLES ON COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

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by

Griffin Joseph Cheek
DEDICATION

I want to dedicate this work to my wife and kids. Courtney, I am inspired by the hard work and dedication you apply to our home, family and your career every day. The patience you have shown, as I have worked through my studies, has given me the confidence to move forward believing in myself with each step. Sevanna, Grace, and Griffin. I hope that I have shown that hard work can allow you to reach your dreams. I know the frustration of balancing my studies with everything else sometimes make me difficult to be around. I love you all and know I could not have done this without you.
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The Impact of Social and Cognitive Variables on Communication Competence

Abstract

by Griffin Joseph Cheek
University of the Pacific
2019

College students are increasingly engaged in watching online videos and using social media. Therefore, researchers should attempt to better understand how these variables as well as other social and cognitive variables, affect the communication competence of students. The researcher administered a questionnaire to 392 college students from a private medium-sized West Coast university using various modified scales examining student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, self-esteem, personal reports of public speaking anxiety, and communication competence. Student-to-student confirmation and online video viewing were measured using new sets of scales developed by the researcher. The data from the surveys was analyzed to determine which independent variables have the greatest influence on communication competence. Student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, and self-esteem all have a significant positive relationship with communication competence. The correlation analysis also found a significant negative correlation between personal reports of public speaking anxiety and communication competence. A regression analysis showed that the combination of social support through social media, online video viewing, self-esteem, and personal reports of public speaking anxiety...
demonstrated predictive power regarding communication competence. These results suggest that there are important relationships between both social and cognitive variables and communication competence. **Keywords: Confirmation, Social Support, Social Media, Communication Competence, Self-esteem, Public Speaking Anxiety, Online videos.**
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Chapter 1: The Problem

Statement of the Problem

There is a common line of thought that the communication skills of students are eroding as they spend more time using digital or technological forms of communication like texting or social media. These forms of communication are often vilified as a distraction in the classroom, and the omnipresent cell phones of college students are considered public enemy number one in some settings. Rules are used to reduce their use in attempts to limit those distractions. There needs to be more research regarding the overall effects of these forms of communication and it would be helpful to compare them to other facets of communication to gain more context regarding their effects. Communication competence has long been considered a broad-ranging measure of a student’s overall communication ability (Wright et al. 2013). This study seeks to discover some of the effects of college student behaviors on communication competence. First, a better understanding of the social support of student-to-student confirmation and social support through social media and their effects on communication competence is needed. Those effects should be compared to internal influences on communication competence. The measures of self-esteem and personal reports of public speaking anxiety can gauge facets of the self that may be related to overall communication competence. Finally, there should be a gauge of a student’s overall exposure to media in communication competence. The fastest growing segment of media in college-age students is online video viewing, like YouTube videos (Vorhaus, 2009). The amount of time spent watching online videos should be measured. The media usage can then be compared to peer influences and internal influences that may affect communication competence. This study seeks to better understand the different influences on communication competence by measuring these five variables in hopes of discovering empirical evidence that shows which of
these five factors has the most effect. If increasing communication competence can have far-reaching and various positive effects on overall communication ability and effectiveness, then knowing what the leading factors are in bolstering that competence is of great value. In addition, if there are specific variables that stand out as having a significant effect on communication competence, then it would be important to know. Those specific variables can then be emphasized and studied deeper to provide benefits to students, faculty, and other stakeholders in the education field.

**Purpose of the Thesis**

College students balance their interactions with many activities and people in life. The requirements of the classroom, social environments, family, and work are all providing input to the student’s college experience. Those activities undoubtedly have effects on one another. Social connections are made in the classroom or over social media, and these connections may be valuable sources of social support for the students. The social support that is gained from face-to-face and through social media may be influencing the ability for those students to communicate with other people in different settings. The social support can have a confirming effect that encourages students to be more confident in other communication settings. As social media and online activities of students increase over the years (Carter, 2004; Vorhaus, 2009), it is important to gain an understanding regarding the differing effects of social support that are obtained from online activities such as social media use and online video viewing. These supportive activities can then be compared to social support in face-to-face situations. In addition, social activities should be considered alongside the cognitive variables that may be influencing communication competence.
There have been many studies over the decades that study overall communication competence (Carmack & Holm, 2014; Chesebro et al., 1992; Duran & Kelly, 1989, 1985, 1988, 1994; Hawken, Duran & Kelly, 1991; McCroskey 1982; Morreale et al., 2015; Wright et al., 2013; Zakahi & Duran, 1985). Variables associated with cognitive aspects of students have been studied as far back as Rosenberg’s work on the self-image (1979) and McCroskey’s initial analysis of public speaking anxiety (1970). The comparison of these cognitive variables has not been studied alongside the social variables that are simultaneously at play in the lives of college students. In addition, those previously conducted studies may need to be reexamined when we are presented with the technology available to college students today.

The purpose of this study is to compare the effects of five independent variables on communication competence. The dependent variables are grouped into two categories that include, social variables and cognitive variables. The social variables are student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing. The cognitive variables are self-esteem and personal reports of public speaking anxiety. This study examines the difference in the effects of social and cognitive variables on communication competence. It allows the comparison of social support in face-to-face environments through student-to-student confirmation and that which is provided remotely through the measurement of social support through social media.

**Definition of Key Terms**

**Confirmation**

Confirmation has been defined as, “the interactional process through which individuals are made to feel valuable and significant (Johnson & LaBelle 2016). Johnson & LaBelle credit Sieburg (1973) with describing it as, “a process that validates the experience of the other and indicates a
willingness to engage in the relationship.” It can be a way to recognize and validate one’s self with peers in social settings. They also note the work of Buber (1957) and Laing (1961), Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967) who argued “confirmation occurs when others accept an individual’s definition of himself or herself as accurate. In this way, confirmation is a key component of an individual recognizing his or her true self (Buber, 1957), but also encompasses the content of a message and the relationship between interactants.” (Johnson & LaBelle 2016).

Social Support

Social support is the concept that people will offer encouragement and kindness to others in social situations. It has been studied as an important behavior that occurs between people and helps people feel more included in social settings. Inclusivity has been associated with benefits ranging from higher motivation and confidence. The classroom setting is an important environment to understand the social behaviors that are occurring. If socially supportive behaviors are exhibited between students, they may be gaining benefits from that support.

Social Media

Howard, & Parks (2012) found that social media may be defined in three parts. First, the information infrastructure and tools used to produce and distribute content. Next, the content that takes the digital form of personal messages, news, ideas, and cultural products. Finally, the people, organizations, and industries that produce and consume digital content (p. 362).

Communication Competence

Communication competence has been described as, “a person’s abilities to demonstrate skills, either innate or developed, to accomplish communicative goals” (Wright et al. 2013). It was first quantified as a communication research variable when McCroskey developed the
Communication Competence scale in 1988 and has been used to measure the respondent’s basic communication capabilities.

Self-esteem
Rosenberg (1979) explains that self-esteem refers to an individual’s overall subjective evaluation of his or her value or worth. Self-esteem is most generally associated with an individual’s overall positive evaluation of the self (Caste & Burke, 2002) and is composed of two distinct dimensions: “The competence dimension (efficacy-based self-esteem) refers to the degree to which people see themselves as capable and efficacious. The worth dimension (worth-based self-esteem) refers to the degree to which individuals feel they are persons of value” (p. 1042).

Public speaking anxiety
Anxiety is composed of the general feeling of unease that people feel in their mind and body. Anxiety manifests itself in many different ways and has many different causes. It has long been associated with fear. One of the more fear-inducing tasks associated with college courses is the public speaking required in the college general education public speaking classes. Public speaking anxiety has been studied by communication scholars for decades. One of the early studies conducted by renowned communication scholar James McCroskey was conducted in an attempt to quantify self-reports of public speaking anxiety. In that study, McCroskey (1970) developed the scale for Personal Reports of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA).

Online Videos
Video content has been provided through media like cinema screens and television in previous generations of media. The use of computers to watch video content has changed the landscape of broadcasting and journalism (Snelson & Perkins, 2008). Online viewing of videos is a form
of entertainment and learning for people that is especially prevalent among younger people and generations (Vorhaus, 2009).

**Significance of the Study**

Examining student-to-student confirmation and social support through social media, self-esteem, personal reports of public speaking anxiety, and online video viewing as a predictor of communication competence has yet to be quantified through communication research. Student-to-student confirmation was specifically chosen because there is minimal research conducted on this variable. Furthermore, social support through social media is still new to the communication field, and its effects are worth examining. Within the field of communication, many of the variables have reached saturation, meaning that they have been studied as much as they can be without providing new insight into the field. However, the variables within this study were chosen specifically in opposition to that statement. Overall, understanding student-to-student confirmation and relation to social support through social media and their differing levels of effects on communication competence gives insight into the difference between face-to-face and online social support. These two variables in conjunction with online video viewing can be grouped to better understand the impacts of social variables on communication competence.

In addition to social influences, there are cognitive influences on communication competence. Understanding how self-esteem and personal reports of public speaking anxiety affect communication competence allows more insight into how the self plays a role in developing broad communication competency. Self-esteem and personal reports of public speaking anxiety are variables related to internal aspects of communication. They are associated with cognition. Self-esteem is associated with how one thinks about themselves, and PRPSA is related to the way a person responds to external pressures. These two levels of cognition are
important because they represent levels of communication that cannot be directly observed. It is important to gain more information about them and the impacts they may have on communication competence.

Comparing the five independent variables in order to measure their comparative impacts on communication competence can lend further insight into the field of communication research. By understanding which variables greater or lesser effects on communication competence instructors can emphasize the importance of those variables in the classroom. A better understanding of the relationships between the variables in the study has the potential to enhance students’ learning in and out of the classroom.
Chapter 2: Review of Literature

Social Variables

**Student-to-student confirmation.** Johnson and LaBelle write that confirmation is described as the “process through which individuals are made to feel valuable and significant” (2016). Confirmation was first theorized as a concept of psychology by Watzlawick in 1967. As early as 1961, Laing described three aspects of confirmation: endorsement, recognition, and acknowledgement. These three aspects are important because they each are a pathway that social support can be delivered from one person to another. These are important factors to general people in their everyday lives, yet the concepts can be especially important in the college classroom where confirming behaviors from others in the class can contribute to success in class.

When studying these relationships, communication researchers have focused on investigating confirmation behaviors between the students and teachers in the classroom (Schrodt, Turman, and Soliz, 2006). Kathleen Ellis studied teacher confirmation in 2000 and 2004 with reports of a correlation between confirmation and receiver apprehension, motivation, and learning. Ellis focused her research on the effects of confirmation. Other scholars researched the student outcomes associated with confirmation (Cuny, Wilde, & Stevens, 2012; Goodboy & Myers, 2008). The studies that focused on outcomes were focused on the behavior of the teachers in relation to students in the classroom. Some researchers have used communication confirmation scales developed to study teacher behaviors and adjusted them to study student behaviors (Frisby & Sidelinger, 2013). The usage of instructor confirmation scales is not always ideal for measuring student confirmation, and a specific measure to study student-to-student confirmation would be desirable.

The process of creating a scale to measure student-to-student confirmation was begun in 2016. Johnson and LaBelle sought to determine the role a student’s classmates might play in the
classroom. They conducted a study researching student-to-student confirmation behaviors, (2016). In that study, they explained in detail that there are three dimensions of student-to-student confirmation (i.e., acknowledgement, assistance, and individual attention). The dimensions are closely aligned with the originally recognized aspects described by Laing in 1961: endorsement, recognition, and acknowledgement. Johnson & LaBelle further broke down each dimension into two components: acknowledgement of competence, acknowledgement of ability, functional assistance, content assistance, encouragement, and individualization. The recognition of specific dimensions and subservient components related to student-to-student confirmation allows the creation of a scale to measure these sets of factors together, as a communication research variable. The scale, once developed, can be used to assist the understanding of the correlation between student-to-student confirmation and other communication variables. Social support is something that can be provided in differing ways. Student-to-student confirmation measures social support from the standpoint of face-to-face situations. Social support can be provided through mediated communication channels as well.

**Social support through social media.** Social media applications are a technology that is providing another channel for social support. The proliferation of cell phone technology makes this technology commonplace. In a study published in 2016, Good reviewed the role that technology has played in the classroom. The author noted that the reality of the role that technology would play did not always match the expectations and that a deeper understanding of how technology was implemented would benefit students and instructors. The use of social media on cell phones in the classroom may be one of these forms of misunderstood technological situations. Mass media communication scholars studied social media applications to understand the phenomenon. In 2012, Howard, & Parks found that social media may be defined in three
parts. The first part includes information infrastructure and tools used to produce and distribute content. The second part includes the content that takes the digital form of personal messages, news, ideas, and cultural products. The final part includes the people, organizations, and industries that produce and consume digital content (p. 362). These concepts encapsulate the use of applications like Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram among others. There have been studies that have researched different aspects of these types of social media. Wright et al. (2013) explain that “since its creation in 2004, Facebook has become immensely popular among college students” (p. 44). Because of its popularity in use, researchers have asked why the popularity is occurring. Igartua & Rodriguez-De-Dios (2016) found that seeking entertainment is the motivational factor that keeps a stronger statistical relationship with Facebook and as the daily consumption of Facebook increases, in turn, it provides more entertainment. Some of the motivational factors for using social media give insight into the way students use the applications. Wright et al. (2013) describe the role that social media can play in providing social support and wrote that social media applications, such as Facebook, appear to “enhance or extend face-to-face support networks in terms of providing greater access to the increased social capital available in a larger, easier to maintain, network of individuals” (p. 44). The ability to connect online may help with geographically separated students that are physically away from other students, friends, or family (Drentea & Moren-Cross, 2005; Ellison et al., 2007). Soukup & Paul conducted a review of 400 articles published between 2006 and 2017 (2018). The textual analysis concentrated on the role of Facebook in educational settings. Some of the findings endorsed the use of Facebook in schools. Soukup & Paul wrote that “Schools use Facebook for co-curricular organization and for providing information” (p. 14). They also noted, “Facebook has also proven successful to support students in education abroad programs” (p. 14). The
difference between social support in face-to-face situations versus using technology is an important concept. The inclusion of social support through social media as a communication variable in this study will allow it to be compared to student-to-student confirmation to understand the difference in impacts of the two variables on communication competence. Social support through social media is also an important variable in its role as a form of social communication.

The wide range of implications of social media in the classroom has demonstrated a need to understand better how social media can be used for social support. Ye (2006) noted that social media allows another avenue to gain social support for some students. They write that “students who feel embarrassed to ask questions in face-to-face contexts may find that the relative anonymity of online services gives them the freedom to discuss their concerns more openly” (p. 874). The online channel of support provides an avenue of feedback and social support that is not available to these students in face-to-face situations. The process can also be used to build and maintain relationships. Boyd & Ellison, 2007, wrote about bridging offline and online social networks. They noted that “Facebook is used to maintain existing offline relationships or solidify offline connections, as opposed to meeting new people. These relationships may be weak ties, but typically there is some common offline element among individuals who friend one another, such as a shared class at school” (p. 221). In addition, they wrote, “although exceptions exist, the available research suggests that most SNSs primarily support pre-existing social relations” (p. 221). Social support has been connected with benefits when it is provided online and through social media applications. Yu, Ellison, & Lampe (2018) reported that social support through Facebook provided social benefits for older adults and provided stronger social contacts and motivation to increase relationship maintenance behaviors. Chang (2014) noted that online
social networking is advantageous for those in need of emotional support and other research showed the relationship between social support and a reduction in fear and sadness among those with health issues. Zhang et al. (2015) noted that students could provide support to each other through social media anytime and anywhere on mobile devices. Grieve et al. (2013) found an inverse relationship between social media use for social connectedness and anxiety. They noted in their research that “Facebook social connectedness was associated with positive psychological outcomes: lower depression, lower anxiety, and greater subjective wellbeing” (p. 608). Ki, & Jang (2018) conducted a review of social support provided through Facebook for health and mental health purposes. They found that informational support was the most frequently offered type of social support, followed by emotional support in supportive messages. They also found that support recipients also received emotional support such as encouragement, comfort, and reassurance.

Chen & Bello noted that “although there is clear evidence that self-esteem influences life satisfaction in offline relationships, little research has examined the potential moderating mechanism of self-esteem on the relationship between social support via Facebook and health outcomes” (p. 2929). Indian and Grieve (2014) reported that social support received from Facebook positively predicted life satisfaction among individuals with high levels of social anxiety, but this effect was not detected among those with low levels of social anxiety. Because social anxiety often stems from low self-esteem, Chen & Bello (2014) studied the connection between social support on Facebook and life satisfaction. They explain, “examining the role of self-esteem may better reveal the fundamental psychological mechanisms that moderate the link between Facebook social support and life satisfaction” (p. 2929). The use of social media by young people has a rival when it comes to media consumption. The millennial audience spends
about as much of their time online perusing social-media platforms as they do online watching video content (Baumgartner, 2015). The time spend watching online video shows a need for more research and clarity regarding the role of online video viewing.

Glaser & Bingham conducted a study in 2008 that combined quantitative and qualitative research to understand the role of social support in the classroom better. The two-pronged approach was effective in gaining a list of attributes that community college students felt were important regarding social support. Having an understanding of what to ask regarding social support is important to better determine the kinds of questions that could be used in a survey to collect data from students. Barrera, Sandler & Ramsey developed a social support scale in conjunction with their research that as conducted in 1981. The scale that was developed was named the Inventory of Socially Supportive Behaviors (ISSB). It was designed to measure the amount of social support that someone was receiving from other people. It is a 40-item self-report scale. The Likert scale utilizes numbers from one to five for the respondent to indicate the frequency that they experience supportive behaviors from others. Kim (2014) was interested in socially supportive behaviors and utilized the ISSB scale as well.

Kim studied the nature of social support through social media and its effects on the well-being of those who gave and received that support (2014). Her description of the specific phrasing of the items included in the scale allowed for replication by other researchers. The 40-item scale was reduced for operationalization, and she reported high reliability with the shortened version of the instrument (α = .94). In addition, she prefaced the scale with a contextual phrase regarding Facebook. The addition of the conditional phrase made the scale for social support usable for social media. The high level of reliability, a shorter form, and the
ability to utilize it for social media make her version of the ISSB well suited for studying student-to-student social support through social media.

Chen & Bello used the ISSB scale in an online survey to study the role of social support, through Facebook, on life satisfaction, stress, and self-esteem (2017). The study included a full implementation of the scales developed by Kim (2014). Results of the study also reported high validity with the scale ($\alpha = .94$). The survey collected data on many aspects of life and found mixed results regarding the role social media played in them. Social support through Facebook did not appear to influence life satisfaction and increased stress levels. The research results indicated complications in the relationship between social media and social supportive behaviors and expected effects. The study revealed a need to for more in-depth research to better understand the role of social support through social media and other communication variables that may be associated with anxiety and levels of competence when communicating.

When the role of social media is better understood, then the role it plays in the lives of students can be better understood as well. There is evidence that social media platforms like Facebook have a role in providing social support and there is an instrument that has proven effective to measure the frequency that people report receiving that support. What is less well understood is if the support that is provided through social media is having any effect on historically problematic communication issues like public speaking anxiety and communication competency. The adjusted ISSB survey that has been operationalized to answer questions regarding social media can be utilized to gain information from students in public speaking classes about the frequency of social support. The utilization of the scale will allow social support through social media to be studied in relation to communication competence along with
other social variables. Another social variable is related to the growing trend of watching video online.

**Online video viewing.** In 2007 Vorhaus reported that more than 44% of online Americans, ages 12 to 64, were watching videos and there was a “preference of younger consumers in watching videos on the computer rather than television.” The study indicates the advance of technology and its influence on the channels of communication that people choose. The trend grew in the years that followed, and online video viewing in Great Britain saw rapid growth from April 2007 to 2009, (Suter & Amsell, 2009). The increases among younger demographics also continued. Carter (2014) reported, “increased involvement of teenagers in the online video contents as compared to TV viewing,” and the “popularity of web resource YouTube for American youth accounting for 63 percent of online viewing.” According to a researcher, “online-video viewing has really reached critical mass, as more than 75% of all U.S. internet users watch online videos at least every now and then; almost 45% are watching every week and 12% view them daily,” (Vorhaus, 2009). The use of online formats to watch movies, TV shows, and other content through Netflix, Hulu, and other streaming services has been well documented, and the move away from traditional media broadcasting sources has been going on for years. The use of YouTube to watch content has continued to grow as well.

Snelson & Perkins (2008) studied YouTube in the context of motion picture history and its use for education. They noted that “the current manifestation of video technology brings the combination of a global online delivery system and an interactive interface that permits both viewing and authoring of video content, which extends previous video capabilities to include greater levels of engagement with the media.” The choice to provide and recommend content also appears to be a factor. “People are increasingly viewing, providing, and recommending
video content through the internet” (Bandad-Brown, Rice & Pearce, 2012 p. 471). Some of the same content that was previously available for television or the big screen is available online. “A content analysis of 882 videos on YouTube reveals that most news videos adhere to traditional production practices (e.g., editing techniques, audio quality), but break from common content standards (e.g., use of sources, fairness). We find that these more relaxed content practices are rewarded with a higher number of views” (Peer & Ksiazek, 2011). The smaller size of the screen being used for online videos does not appear to be a problem as some might have predicted. Vorhaus reported in 2009 that, “it turns out the small screen and shorter length can be just as compelling. More than a third (37%) of short-form video viewers find that content equally or more entertaining than full-length shows on their TV set. Although, 9% of online video viewers say they watch more TV live on their TV set due to watching online video, 20% say they are watching less live TV on their set due to online video viewing.” The comfort with new technology may also be a factor related to younger people. “Characteristics and attitudes of online video-viewing audiences differ based on the individual user's experience and comfort level with the medium” (Shields, 2008). If young people are more engaged with technology and therefore more engaged with online video formats, it is no surprise that college students are highly engaged with the practice. It appears that college students are more than comfortable with the medium. There have been studies of online video viewing and college students. One such study conducted in 2012 noted, “online video viewing is associated with less time spent on schoolwork.” The same study noted, “evidence suggests that the interaction of the high-choice media environment and users' self-control may account for a decline in learning among college students” (College Students, 2012). This factor coupled with the growing prevalence is why it becomes important to understand better the value of watching videos online and how it may
contribute to overall communication competence. In addition, CC represents an important aspect of social communication. Media has a role in the creation of social concepts among people. If students are increasingly engaging with media through online videos, then it is important to study the impact that online video viewing may have on levels of communication competence.

RQ1: What is the relationship between the social variables in this study and communication competence?

H1: Student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing will have a positive relationship with communication competence.

Cognitive Variables

**Self-esteem.** Rosenberg’s *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*, published in 1965, was the first large-scale sample survey of the self-concept. The work also produced Rosenberg’s Self-esteem scale. It was the first time that empirical data was collected regarding self-esteem. Rosenberg used the scale to produce three large data sets that led to the writing of *Conceiving the Self*, published in 1979. He noted that self-esteem refers to an individual’s overall subjective evaluation of his or her value or worth. In the book, “Rosenberg maps out the conceptual territory of the self-concept, identifies principles and processes of self-concept formation, and analyzes the conditions under which they operate” (Gecas, 2018 p. 1042). Rosenberg’s set of concepts creates a framework that can be used to understand the self and how a person may understand how they perceive the self. The term self-esteem is referred to as a person’s overall positive perception of the self (Gecas 1982; Rosenberg 1990; Rosenberg et al. 1995). The explanation of self-esteem in this way establishes the idea that a positive perception of the self is preferred. Research has been conducted to better understand how self-esteem is created. Caste and Burke (2002) determined that self-esteem has two dimensions and they are described as, “the
competence dimension (efficacy-based self-esteem) that refers to the degree to which people see themselves as capable and efficacious and the worth dimension (worth-based self-esteem) that refers to the degree to which individuals feel they are persons of value” (p. 1042). The different dimensions have led to additional research being conducted into each. They continue to use the scale created by Rosenberg to better understand the dimensions. As previously noted, Rosenberg (1965) produced the first scales to measure self-esteem empirically. “The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale has become one of the most widely used measures in the study of self-esteem” (Gecas, 2018). One issue has been noted regarding the use of the scale to measure self-esteem. One inherent problem is associated with the use of self-reporting scales regarding self-esteem. As previously noted, there is has been an established and widely held idea that positive self-esteem is of greater value. The emphasis put on the value of higher self-esteem in society may encourage respondents to inflate the measure of their own self-esteem. Although inflate self-reporting may be problematic, the ease of use and concise nature of the scales make the Rosenberg scale especially well-suited for survey research. The issue of inflated self-reports must be considered when reporting the data collected with self-reporting self-esteem scales. The use of the scale has been reported in various studies designed to better understand communication variables. Self-esteem has been related to the prediction of empowerment (Dong & Cao, 2006), motivation (Gecas, 1986), and education outcomes (Banmeister, 1993; Smesler, 1989). These studies highlight the relationship between self-esteem and socially related concepts. Research has also been conducted to relate it to internal concepts associated with the self. Dong (2005) studied the relationship between self-esteem and emotional intelligence competencies. Dong furthered the research in 2007 and found that self-esteem aids in increasing intercultural sensitivity. Social anxiety often stems from low self-esteem (Cheng, Zhang, Ding &
Chen & Bello (2017) note that little research has examined the potential moderating mechanism of self-esteem on the relationship between social support via Facebook and other outcomes. The lack of data regarding the comparison between self-esteem and social variables is an important reason for the inclusion of self-esteem in this study. Another cognitive variable will accompany self-esteem to provide the cognitive variables for this study. Self-esteem represents the inner value that is placed on the self. Personal reports of public speaking anxiety is a variable that represents the internal pressures that people feel regarding communication.

**Personal reports of public speaking anxiety.** In 2012, Dwyer and Davidson investigated an often-quoted report that “people fear public speaking more than death” (p. 99). The purpose of their study was to investigate the genesis of the 1973 R. H. Bruskin Associate’s *American Fears* study appearing in the *London Sunday Times* and often reported in communication textbooks and repeated by public speaking instructors. Dwyer and Davidson’s more recent research found that college students, “selected speaking before a group more often than they selected death,” when asked about their most common fears. It should be no surprise that anxiety about public speaking would be a heavily studied aspect of communication research. According to James McCroskey, “Since the late 1960's one of the most researched constructs in the field of human communication has been Communication Apprehension” (2009). He was integral in the development of the original measure for communication anxiety; PRCA-24 (McCroskey, 1982). The PRCA-24 is a twenty-four-item scale designed to collect information about the respondent’s personal reports of communication anxiety. Additional sets of measures related to inter-ethnic and intercultural communication anxiety were also developed and named the PRECA, and PRICA (Neuilep & McCroskey, 1997). A measure specific to public speaking anxiety (PSA) was developed by McCroskey in 1970. It does not measure PSA specifically, but
the personal reports of public speaking anxiety (PRPSA) (McCroskey, 1970). The self-reporting measure has been consistently used in communication research to examine the role of anxiety in delivering speeches in the classroom. The number of studies over the years are so vast that research has been conducted to gain a better understanding of the measure. The large number of studies led researchers to complete textual analyses to better understand the body of work.

Allen, Hunter, & Donahue (1989) completed a detailed study on the effectiveness of anxiety treatments to combat public speaking anxiety. They analyzed previous work and found that an approach to deter anxiety required a wide combination of techniques as the most effective approach. Bodie conducted a wide-ranging study in 2010 that created a comprehensive collection of the types of anxiety associated with public speaking and the types of mitigation approaches that have been studied, (2010). Hunter, Westwick, & Heleta studied the role of a public speaking course in the reduction of public speaking anxiety (PSA) and found that the act of simply taking the course reduced self-reports of that form of anxiety (2014). Holmquist, Konda-Verilek & Westwick conducted group activities to reduce PSA and wrote that the activity “would be most successful once the students are familiar with one another” (2014). The role of public speaking anxiety is most often studied as a dependent variable with an array of independent variables measured to determine the relationships that mitigate or contribute to PSA. In this study, positioning PSA as an independent variable allows it to be considered as a cognitive factor, and it can be measured to understand its relationship as a factor in impacting communication competence.

RQ2: What is the relationship between the cognitive variables in this study and communication competence?

H2: Self-esteem will have a positive relationship with communication competence.
H3: Personal reports of public speaking anxiety will have a negative relationship with communication competence.

**Dependent Variable**

**Communication competence.** Communication competence was first modeled by Wiemann in 1977. James McCroskey, Lynne Kelly, and Robert Duran dominate the early study of the variable. It was first studied in conjunction with communication studies by McCroskey in 1980 when he studied fear and anxiety in classrooms. He found that there may be multiple ways to study the variable through different approaches to the concept. Then he furthered that work in 1982 when he researched speaking and listening skills in children (McCroskey 1982). His research lays the groundwork for understanding the role of communication competence (CC) in the classroom. Other studies applied these concepts and began the process of measuring the relationship between CC and other established communication variables. Communication competence was studied over the next few years in relation to communication apprehension, shyness, interactive involvement, and cognition (Zakahi & Duran, 1985; Kelly & Duran, 1989, 1985, 1988). Duran & Kelly studied the relationship between communication competence and cognition and first noted the need for a specific scale to measure the variable. That scale was developed by McCroskey in 1988 when he used it to study self-reports of communication competence (PRCC). The scale was reliable for McCroskey in that first use, reporting a Cronbach’s Alpha of .92. With the development of the scale came the ability to collect empirical data on the variable and to use it in conjunction with other scales in surveys to collect data and compare the variables through statistical analysis.

The PRCC scale was used through the 90s to study at-risk students and social experience (Chesebro et al., 1992; Duran & Kelly, 1994) and was used in a college setting to research
academic success in 1991 (Hawken, Duran & Kelly). More recently communication competence has been studied in relation to first-year college students and college forensics coaches (Morreale et al., 2015; Carmack & Holm, 2014). Wright et al. (2013) noted that “communication competence predicts higher social support network satisfaction and lower depression scores.” These studies each provided information regarding CC that was specific to the college experience. Some of the studies involve social variables and some involve cognitive variables. None of the research compares the impacts of the social, and cognitive variables in relation to communication competence

RQ 3: Will the social variables in this study have a greater influence on communication competence than the cognitive variables in this study?

Summary

Social variables and cognitive variables have effects on communication competence. What is not known is how they compare to one another and how they might compare to each other in some instances. Communication competence was chosen as the dependent variable in this study to better understand the effect that the independent variables may have. It is a broad measure of general communication abilities in a broad range of settings with varying numbers of people. The broad measure of communication is ideal for the measure of the wide-ranging independent variables in this study. Some of the intendant variables represent the social influences on people as communicators. These social influences are represented by student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing. Each of these, in turn, represents different avenues that people engage socially. Student-to-student confirmation represents the face-to-face interactions that people have. Social support through social media represents the interpersonal interactions that people have through online channels.
Online video viewing represents the interactions that people have with other people and media through online channels of communication. Taken together these three variables will offer insight into the varying social influences on communication competence. The two other independent variables represent the cognitive influences on communication competence. Self-esteem represents the value that a person puts in themselves. Personal reports of public speaking anxiety represent the pressures that a person feels regarding communication tasks. These two variables taken together represent the internal influences that may affect a person’s level of communication competence. Although the selected variables are far from encompassing all influences that may affect a person’s level of communication competence, they will allow the researcher to compare the impact of social and cognitive variables on communication competence.
Chapter 3: Methodology

Sample

Participants for this study included 392 individuals who were between 18 and 46 years of age. They were all students enrolled in college general education courses. The population was chosen because diverse departments were represented by the students enrolled in these classes. Additionally, the survey utilized was a paper and pencil survey that was completed and collected in person. The participants represent a convenience sample of respondents that were available at the time it was distributed.

Procedure

A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to students at a private university, a public state college, and a public community college in Northern California. The survey was completed within public speaking, interpersonal communication, and other general education courses. Each of the classes was a general education course, which enabled a broader representation of the population. Students at the university are required to take many general education courses, which means each of the classes had an array of students from different fields of study. The researcher’s university institutional review board reviewed, approved, and granted permission for this study prior to research being conducted. All respondents to the survey were 18 years of age or older and voluntarily completed the survey. Participants were given a brief introduction to the survey and its purpose prior to beginning the questionnaire. After the introduction, students were given 15 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire and turn it in.

Measurement

The questionnaire contained seven sections to measure the participants’ personal reports of behaviors and experiences in the classroom. The specific sections pertained to student-to-
student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, self-esteem, personal reports of public speaking anxiety, and demographics. The dependent variable for this study was communication competence. The independent variables were student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, self-esteem, and personal reports of public speaking anxiety.

Section 1 is designed to measure student-to-student confirmation. The section is designed to measure the amount of social support students feel they receive from other students in class. This is a measure of face-to-face social support in the classroom environment. There are twenty-four items in this scale, and each of them was drawn from the exploratory research conducted by Johnson and Labelle (2016). Each item is derived from a student quote regarding student-to-student confirmation that was described in their study. The scale can be broken into six distinct subcategories of student-to-student confirmation. The first four items are associated with acknowledgement of competence. Each set of four items that follows is associated with, acknowledgement of ability, functional assistance, content assistance, encouragement, and individualization, respectively. Each item is measured via a semantic differential scale from “1” that denotes “very infrequent,” to “5” that denotes “very frequent.” The scale was extensively pre-tested to ensure reliability for this study and proved to be highly reliable ($\alpha = .86$). Items 3, 13, and 19 of this scale were reverse coded.

Section 2 is designed to measure social support through social media. This scale was adapted from a version of scale originally designed by Barrera, Sandler & Ramsey (1981). They developed a social support scale in conjunction with their research and named the scale the Inventory of Socially Supportive Behaviors (ISSB). It was designed to measure the amount of social support that someone was receiving from other people. It is a 40-item self-report scale.
This Likert scale utilizes numbers from one to five for the respondent to indicate the frequency that they experience supportive behaviors from others. On the scale, a response of “1” indicates “not at all,” and “5” represents “about every day.” The scale was shortened and operationalized by Kim (2014) to measure social support through Facebook. She reported high reliability with the shortened version of the instrument ($\alpha = .94$). Kim’s scale was operationalized for this study. The scale was preceded with a script that read, “How often have your friends supported you through social media in the following ways in the last 30 days?” The adapted version of the scale proved to be highly reliable for this study ($\alpha = .93$).

Section 3 is intended to measure self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965) produced the first scales to measure self-esteem empirically. “The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale has become one of the most widely used measures in the study of self-esteem” (Gecas, 2018). This study utilized the Rosenberg scale to collect data regarding the way respondents perceive themselves. This scale is a ten-item Likert scale with a range of choices from one to four. One is associated with strongly agree, and four is associated with strongly disagree. An adjustment was made to this scale after analysis for validity was conducted. Initial alpha reliability was .64, and an adjustment was made. The adjustment is detailed later in this work. The scale proved to be reliable for this study ($\alpha = .85$). Items 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7 of this scale were reverse coded for the data analysis.

Section 4 is designed to measure personal reports of public speaking anxiety (PRPSA). The PRPSA scale was developed by McCroskey (1970) and is a thirty-four item Likert scale. The respondents have a selection of one through five to respond to the items regarding their level of agreement with the statements in each scale item. It is a self-reporting scale and therefore does not measure actual anxiety. It is instead designed to measure the perceptions that respondent has regarding personal anxiety levels. This scale has historically proved to be highly
reliable with alpha reliability reports regularly above .90. The scale was highly reliable for this study (α = .95). Items 4, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 24, and 26 were reverse coded.

Section 5 is designed to measure communication competence. A scale was first developed for measuring the self-reports of communication competence by McCroskey in 1988. The scale was reliable for McCroskey in that first use, reporting a Cronbach’s Alpha of .92. This study utilized the same scale that includes a 12-item set of measures. The items are a semantic differential scale that has the choice of numbers from one to five. The one corresponds to “completely incompetent,” and the five corresponds with” completely competent.” An example of an item from this scale is question number five that asks the respondent to rate an item that says, “Talk with a friend.”

Section 6 is designed to measure online video viewing. This scale was developed by the researcher to collect data specifically for this study. The measure contains a ten-item semantic differential scale. The questions ask the respondent to rate each question on a scale from one to five with a “1” denoting, “very infrequent” and a “5” denoting, “very frequent.” This scale allowed the study to collect personal reports of the frequency of online viewing of videos. An example of an item from this scale is number 9 that reads, “I watch online videos to get innovative ideas.”

Section 7 is designed to measure the demographic information about the respondents to the survey. It contains five questions regarding gender, class standing, age, ethnicity, and major course of study in college. These items are important to allow the researcher to segment the responses of the population in the study. In terms of communication competence, the information gathered in this section may help in the understanding of how a respondent’s background may contribute to differing levels of communication competence.
Chapter 4: Results

This chapter explains the findings from the statistical analysis of the data. Based on these results, some important and useful information can be gathered in terms of understanding the population.

Demographic Information

Demographic background information was collected from the participants. The sample for this study consisted of a random and convenient sample of students. Participants in this study were students enrolled in classes at University of the Pacific, Stanislaus State University, and Modesto Junior College (N = 392). The students enrolled in the classes were undergraduate and graduate students. Class standings included freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and graduate students (43.0%, 32.6%, 14.2%, 7.5%, and 2.6% respectively). The average year in school was 1.94 (SD = 1.051). The respondents were from 18 to 46 years of age. The average age of the sample was 20 (SD = 3.33). The sample was made up of 44.7 % male, 54.8 % female and .3 % who did not wish to specify. The sample was ethnically diverse with 16 students identifying as African American, 118 as white/Caucasian, 104 as Asian American, 91 as Latinx, and 55 as other. The sample included student respondents from 31 different majors with the largest number of students reporting as biology, business, and communication majors (24.7%, 15.3%, and 12.8% respectively).

Independent Variables and Dependent Variables

All of the scales used in the study proved to be highly reliable. The new scale for measuring student-to-student confirmation produced a Cronbach’s Alpha of .86 across the 24 items in the scale. The scale for measuring social support that was adjusted to be used for social media situations produced a Cronbach’s Alpha of .93 over the 11 items in the scale. The newly
created scale to measure online video viewing reported a Cronbach’s Alpha of .74 over the ten items of the scale. The scale for personal reports of public speaking anxiety (PRPSA) produced a Cronbach’s Alpha reliability of .95 across the 34 items in the scale. The scale for self-esteem resulted in a Cronbach’s alpha of .85 over eight items in the scale. The scale for communication competence resulted in a Cronbach’s Alpha reliability of .89 over 12 items.

Table 1: Reliability of Student-to-student confirmation, Social support through social media, Self-esteem, Personal reports of public speaking anxiety, Communication competence, and Online video viewing scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student-to-student confirmation</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support through social media</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal reports of public speaking anxiety</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication competence</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online video viewing</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An issue arose when analyzing the reliability of the scale used for self-esteem. Initial reports showed an alpha score of 64. The result was not reliable enough to provide generalizable results from the data collected on the variable. When the individual items, of the ten-item scale, were looked at in relation to one another there were two problematic items. The first item read, “I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.” The third item read,
“All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.” The first item had a positive valance and is the first item with that valence that the respondents encountered in the scale. The third item had a negative valance, and it is the first occurrence of that valance in the scale (item two had a positive valance). It is possible that the context of the survey caused some confusion regarding the answers for these two items.

Each of the scales in the survey used a similar style of question and answers. Each of the scales used number “5” to denote a strongly agree response. The self-esteem scale, on the other hand, used the “1” to denote strong agreement. The lack of consistency may have contributed to some confusion among the respondents. The first question and the third question of the self-esteem scale were the items that were problematic in the data set. It is likely that these were the questions that respondents may have been confused by the reverse order of the numbers and their associated meanings. When these factors were considered, it was useful to remove these two items from the survey and use an eight-item scale for measuring self-esteem in this study. When the first and third items were removed from the self-esteem scale, the alpha reliability moved upward dramatically. For this reason, the eight-item self-esteem scale was utilized for data analysis in this study. The alpha reliability is strong ($\alpha = .85$) as previously reported.

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables in the proposed research questions. The mean score for communication competence was (M= 3.14). The standard deviation was .75. Each item measured on a 5-point Likert type scale measuring from 1 “strongly agree,” to 5 “strongly disagree” which could explain why the standard deviation was low. The mean score for the independent variables included student-to-student confirmation (M=3.19), followed by social support through social media (M=3.24), online video viewing (M=3.14), self-esteem (M=2.93), personal reports of public speaking anxiety (M=3.24).
Standard deviations were reported for communication competence (.61), student-to-student confirmation (.56), social support through social media (.95), online video viewing (.75) self-esteem (.62), and personal reports of public speaking anxiety (.74).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication competence</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student-to-student confirmation</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support through social media</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online video viewing</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal reports of public speaking anxiety</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation Analysis**

A correlation analysis was run to explore the relationships between the variables in the proposed in the research questions. Table 3 shows a correlation matrix of the bivariate correlations between student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, self-esteem, personal reports of public speaking anxiety, and communication.
competence. Table 3 demonstrates statistically significant correlations obtained within the study. More precisely, student-to-student confirmation was significantly positively correlated with communication competence ($r = .25, p < .01$). As was, social support through social media ($r = .20, p < .01$), online video viewing ($r = .16, p < .01$), and self-esteem ($r = .29, p < .01$). Finally, personal reports of public speaking anxiety showed a significant negative correlation with communication competence ($r = .51, p < .01$).

The correlations exhibited in the data support the hypothesis predicted in the study. The first hypothesis was associated with the social group of independent variables. Hypothesis 1 stated, “Student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing will have a positive relationship with communication competence.” This hypothesis is supported by the correlations. More concretely student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing show significant positive correlations with communication competence ($r = .25, r = .20, \& r = .16$ respectively, all $p < .01$). Hypothesis 2 stated, “Self-esteem will have a positive relationship with communication competence.” This hypothesis is supported by the correlation analysis. More concretely, self-esteem showed a significant positive correlation with communication competence ($r = .29, p < .01$). Hypothesis 3 stated that “Personal reports of public speaking anxiety will have a negative relationship with communication competence.” This hypothesis is supported by the correlation analysis. More concretely, personal reports of public speaking anxiety displayed a significant negative correlation with communication competence ($r = -.51, p < .01$).
Figure 1: Correlation analysis of independent variables on communication competence.

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3: Correlation analysis of independent variables on communication competence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Communication competence</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>-.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Student-to-student Conf.</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social support through SM</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Online video viewing</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Self-esteem</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. PRPSA</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** correlation is significant, p < .01
* correlation is significant, p < .05
An Independent sample T-test (gender) and a One Way ANOVA (ethnicity, class standing, age, and major field of study) analysis was conducted to explore the relationships between student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, self-esteem, PRPSA, communication competence, and the demographic information collected from the respondents. The were no significant findings between any of the six variables and class standing, gender, ethnicity, age, or major in college.

There is another portion of the correlation analysis that is not related to the hypothesis predicted in this study. For reasons that will become clear in the following section, it is important to analyze the correlation data to determine what variables have the greatest effect on reducing personal reports of public speaking anxiety. The data indicates that when all of the variables are analyzed for this correlation, there are three variables that showed a highly significant negative relationship. The results indicate that each of these three variables would reduce personal reports of public speaking anxiety as they are increased. The variables are student-to-student confirmation ($r = -0.19$, $p < .001$), self-esteem ($r = -0.25$, $p < .001$), and communication competence ($r = -0.51$, $p < .001$). The set of variables should be considered important when researching important ways to reduce public speaking anxiety (PRPSA). This finding supports existing research regarding communication competence and self-esteem. The role of student-to-student confirmation in reducing PRPSA is a new finding in this study. The role that these variables have in reducing PRPSA becomes clearer when Multiple Regression Analysis is conducted.
Multiple Regression Analysis

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the strongest predictors among the independent variables toward higher levels of communication competence. This analysis is helpful in gaining insight into whether a model is effective at predicting a level of variance between independent variables and the dependent variable. The beta weights in the results of the analysis can be helpful in understanding the predictive capacity of a given model. The beta weights are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Multiple regression analysis of PRPSA, social support through social media, self-esteem, and online video viewing as predictors of communication competence (note: student-to-student confirmation was not an effective portion of the model and is not shown).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRPSA</td>
<td>-.38</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>-10.70</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support SM</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Video Viewing</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The multiple regression analysis indicated that a combination of variables ability to predict communication competence was highly significant, $F (4, 344) = 46.64, p < .001$. The adjusted R-square value is .344. The results indicates that a variance of 34.4 % in communication competence is explained by the model. The model indicates that personal reports of public speaking anxiety is working against the other three variables in the model. Table 5
indicates, the beta values for social support through social media (.11), self-esteem (.17), and online video viewing (.13) are all positive predictors. Table 5 also shows that personal reports of public speaking anxiety (-.38) is a negative predictor. This is significant because as an aggregate they only have a net positive of .03, yet the variance of over thirty-four percent is explained by the model. It is therefore important to consider what variables have the greatest effects in reducing the one negative variable of the model, personal reports of public speaking anxiety. Those results were noted earlier in this study.

The variables that reduce PRPSA (student-to-student confirmation, self-esteem) should be considered to have a strong influence on the model. The role they have in reducing PRPSA may have direct positive effects on the model. When it is taken into account that a small level of effect (.03) resulted in a large percentage of change in the variance (34.4 %). The logical conclusion is that any variable that helps to reduce PRPSA will have a domino effect on the model’s effect on communication competence.

The model also excludes one of the independent variables as insignificant to the model. The excluded variable is student-to-student confirmation. The exclusion is important because as previously noted the face-to-face element of social support was represented by student-to-student confirmation in this study. The exclusion of student-to-student confirmation indicates that the face-to-face variable in the study did not have a significant role in the variance. The lack of significance of student-to-student confirmation gives more importance to the other four variables when utilizing them as predictors for communication competence. The results may have some interesting implications that will be discussed further in the discussion section. It should be kept in mind that the influence of student-to-student confirmation in reducing PRPSA means it should not be dismissed altogether.
Figure 2: Model of social and cognitive effects on communication competence.
Chapter 5: Discussion

Implications of the Study

There are a handful of important takeaways from this study and some intriguing implications that the data may point to. In order to understand the results of this study, the hypotheses proposed in this study must first be considered regarding the results of the data collected. Next, the research questions then need to be addressed. The new scales created for this study need to be considered, and finally, some of the implications regarding the model introduced by the results of this study should be addressed.

The first important takeaway is the scale reliability for the newly created and customized scales used for this study. The research was able to produce strong Cronbach’s Alpha reports on the scales including student-to-student confirmation (.86), social support through social media (.93), and online video viewing (.74). These three new scales give researchers a whole new set of tools to quantify behaviors associated with social aspects of communication. Taken together, they provide a set of measures that can be used to gain insights into a wide range of face-to-face and online communication behaviors.

The results are interesting because these variables are important in gauging the changes that technology is having on communication. The ability to compare face-to-face communication with online communication may provide important insights into how students and others navigate the difference between online and face-to-face situations socially. In addition, the scales may provide tools to better understand the value of social support in various forms. The results indicate that face-to-face social support (r = .25), provides greater influence on communication competence than social support through social media (r = .20). Although social support through social media offers a level of influence on communication competence, it
lags behind the level shown by student-to-student confirmation. If this is the case, then there should be a conversation regarding the importance of seeking out and meeting face-to-face with those whom we believe need that support or seeking that type of support when we feel the need to be in contact with others. It should also be noted that because the data shows that there is value in both face-to-face and online social support, incorporating both may yield the most impact. It may be interesting to isolate these two variables in a separate study to better understand how they compare to other communication behaviors. The three new scales should be important tools for researchers separately as well. Each of the three scales individually provides a new way to measure the communication variables they are associated and, this is important because researchers will be able to use them when testing the behaviors against other established communication variables. Choosing to take one of the new scales and apply them to existing research may yield important findings through the ability to quantify these behaviors. There are other findings that should be considered significant.

The multiple regression analysis model that was reported in this study may present an effective way to increase communication competence that does not include face-to-face social support. The result is interesting because it leads to a discussion regarding the future of teaching basic communication. If increased communication competence levels are a goal of basic communication courses and it can be increased without a face-to-face aspect, then is it important to continue teaching these classes in face-to-face environments. The use of social media, online video, and cognitive factors may provide enough positive effect on communication competence that using hybrid or online courses to instruct them may be effective to increase levels of communication competence. The model also indicates that a conversation regarding the role of the audience in public speaking classes may need to be re-examined. The traditional role of
students in class providing a supportive audience for the practice and delivery of speeches may not be the ideal setting for increasing communication competence.

The online aspects of social support and video viewing may offer some additional insights into the role that students desire regarding feedback and audience engagement as well. As students become more comfortable with communication that is mediated through digital and online channels, there may need to be a move toward mediums of communication that they find engaging and interesting to provide an experience that inspires them. Teaching skills that students feel will be useful in finding work and applying to their lives can be a draw for students to communication programs. These skills can be paired with skills in face-to-face communication skills to develop well-rounded levels of communication competence.

Hypothesis 1 stated, “Student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing will have a positive relationship with communication competence.” This hypothesis is supported by the correlations. More concretely student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing show significant positive correlations with communication competence (\(r = .25\), \(r = .20\), & \(r = .16\) respectively, all \(p < .01\)). Hypothesis 2 stated, “Self-esteem will have a positive relationship with communication competence.” This hypothesis is supported by the correlation analysis. More concretely, self-esteem showed a highly significant positive correlation with communication competence (\(r = .29\), \(p < .01\)). Hypothesis 3 stated that “Personal reports of public speaking anxiety will have a negative relationship with communication competence.” This hypothesis is supported by the correlation analysis. More concretely, personal reports of public speaking anxiety displayed a highly significant negative correlation with communication competence (\(r = .51\), \(p < .01\)). Therefore, all of the hypotheses proposed in this study were
supported by the data that was collected. The demographic data collected from the respondents was also analyzed for correlations.

The study results indicate that there is no significant correlation regarding the demographic questions that the respondents answered and the dependent or independent variables in the study. The results are important because there may be some who consider age, gender or class standing an important factor when measuring public speaking anxiety, communication competence, social support, or social media activity. The data does not support any of these stereotypes. This is important because it supports the idea that people each deal with the social and cognitive behaviors quantified by this study in personal ways that cannot be categorized based on the demographic information collected.

Research question 1 states “What is the relationship between the social variables in this study and communication competence?” The data from this study suggests that the social variables in this study have a positive relationship with communication competence. There are highly significant positive relationships between student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing (r = .25, .19, & .16, respectively, with p < .001). The amount of influence on communication differs from one social variable to another, with student-to-student confirmation having the greatest impact, followed by social support through social media, and finally online video viewing. The amount of impact for each of the three is not great, yet the consistent moderate levels of impact across variables that represent a similar part of communication (social), indicates that social communication may be generalized to have a positive influence on communication competence.

Research question 2 states “What is the relationship between the cognitive variables in this study and communication competence?” The data related to the cognitive variables in this
study showed that there is a mix of relationships associated with communication competence. Self-esteem showed a highly significant positive relationship with communication competence \( (r = .29, p < .001) \). Personal reports of public speaking anxiety, on the other hand, exhibited a highly significant negative relationship \( (r = -.51, p < .001) \). The data indicates that self-esteem has a moderate relationship that will rise as communication competence rises and conversely fall when it falls. The data for PRPSA indicates the opposite is true with communication competence rising as anxiety decrease and vice versa.

Research question 3 states “Will the social variables in this study have a greater influence on communication competence than the cognitive variables in this study?” The data related to social and cognitive variables in this study can be compared regarding the relationships that variables have with communication competence. The social variables measured in this study have all displayed positive correlations with communication competence. When social variables are increased communication competence (CC) also increases and vice versa. The relationship indicates that when individuals who responded to this study have increased levels of student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing it can be assumed that they will have higher levels of communication competence. Therefore, if higher levels of communication competence are desired then higher levels of these corresponding social variables should be increased to contribute to that outcome. When these results are compared to cognitive effects there is a similar relationship. Self-esteem, as noted above, has a positive relationship with communication competence and PRPSA has a negative relation with communication competence. Although these independent variables regarding cognitive concepts are juxtaposed to one another they can still be compared to the social variables. Although, the social variables are more consistently positively correlated with CC personal reports of public
speaking anxiety has the greatest impact when comparing the values. In addition, the model depicted by the multiple regression analysis indicates that the combination of two social variables and two cognitive variables are the most impactful indicators of the variance in values exhibited by communication competence. The analysis indicates a complex relationship and balance between the social and cognitive variables when considering their impacts on communication competence. In addition, the relationship that social variables have in reducing the effects of PRPSA (the most significant variable related to communication competence) indicates the interrelated nature of the social and cognitive variables. This study provides data that helps to understand the relationships between the variables. It does not, nor could it, give a definitive answer regarding the reasons for these relationships.

**Limitations and Future Research**

This study had some important limitations that should be taken into consideration. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale could have been included in the survey with slight changes to make the flow from one section of the survey to the next more consistent. The alterations could have allowed the complete ten-item scale to be used rather than the utilization of the eight items that were included. The ten-item scale has shown high levels of reliability over long years of use and could have made the data collected and analyzed for the study slightly more reliable if it had been included in the survey with a minor adjustment. Reversing the coding on the answers available would have brought it into line with the rest of the scales on the survey. The change could have alleviated any confusion that respondents may have had when answering the items in the scale. It might also have been effective to move the scale to the beginning or end of the survey to allow the respondents to more quickly realize that it was not the same answer response pattern as the other scales of measure.
There are other types of future research that can follow this study. The three scales that were either developed or adjusted for this study can all be used for further research. The development of a scale for student-to-student confirmation provides future researchers with a tool to be utilized to quantify the behaviors exhibited by student’s peers in the classroom. The new scale allows for the collection of data that may be used to explore the relationships between student-to-student confirmation and various other communication variables. Similar future work can be conducted using the scale for measuring the viewing of online videos. The scale can be very important for researchers interested in mass media communication through online channels and how it is related to other communication variables. As noted in this study, online video is a growing field and the existence of a scale to quantify the amount it is used can be critical in gaining insights into the phenomenon. In addition, the scale can be utilized to focus in on different ways students access video online. The scale can be adjusted to focus on specific ways that online video is accessed by including a vignette or qualifying question to precede this scale in a similar way that the social support scale was preceded with a qualifying statement that directed respondents to consider only social support provided through social media. The other online variable that was studied gives a similar advantage.

The adjustment of the social support scale to measure the number of respondents who receive social support through social media is an important step in the quantification of those behaviors. Previous versions of the scale were utilized for face-to-face support or support through Facebook. The expanding repertoire of social media sites being utilized requires that a tool exist to measure social support that is provided through the different social media platforms. The scale gives researchers a tool that makes quantifying that support more broadly applicable to
those who use more than Facebook. The scales for online variables open the door to better study in online learning environments.

More research should be conducted to better understand hybrid and online learning platforms of classroom education. This study only scratches the surface regarding the comparison between online and face-to-face variables when researching communication competence. The results of this study suggest that more research is needed to gain deeper insight into the evolving behaviors associated with face-to-face variables versus online variables regarding communication competence. The results indicate that that more discussion may need to be had within communication departments regarding the aspects of the classroom associated with public speaking. The questions that were previously noted regarding the expansion of the concept of “public” in public speaking is perhaps the most difficult and intriguing question that should be considered going forward. Does the instruction of public speaking need to recognize the changing landscape of technology and how it may be affecting the audience of a speech? It may be time for the addition of public speaking skills that include online interviewing, video blogging, and podcasting. Maybe lectures and projects with an emphasis directed at online formats need to be added to the introduction, informative, and persuasive approaches. In addition, this study suggests that the encouragement of social support through social media should be considered. There may be issues with student privacy guidelines and the use of social media directly. Therefore, a study should be conducted to determine if classroom software applications like Canvas and Blackboard would be adequate forums to play the role of social media for students to provide social support.

It is important to note that this study was not specifically designed to study the differences between online education and face-to-face education. The data collected is not
directly focused on attitudes or experiences regarding online or hybrid classes. No direct correlations regarding these subjects are indicated by the results of this study. That being said, there are some factors associated with the variables that were measured in this study, which should lead to more research in this area.

**Conclusion**

This study sought to understand the impact of social and cognitive communication variables on communication competence. After analyzing the data collected there are some clear correlations indicated in the results. This study resulted in numerous highly significant findings. Student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, online video viewing, and self-esteem all were positively related to communication competence. The data indicates that each of these relationships was highly statistically significant. Personal reports of public speaking anxiety is negatively related to communication competence, and that relationship is also highly significant. The relationship is noteworthy because this study illuminates the complex nature of the variables involved. The fact that each of the variables is associated with communication competence in a highly significant relationship confirms the importance of each in communication research. The fact that there is little differentiation between the amount of influence that each has makes it difficult to suggest that there should be more emphasis in the future put into one variable or another. This study suggests that each of the variables has value in its own right. It also indicates that different combinations of variables have the ability to impact communication competence in combination.

We must continue to attempt to better understand the relationship between both the social influences and the cognitive influences on communication competence. A deeper understanding will contribute to future research related to interpersonal, group, and mass media
communication. The research conducted demonstrates that the evolving landscape of communication research requires a constant revisiting of existing communication variables and the exploration of new measures to help understand the changes occurring. Online communication has been shown to have effects on communication that encourages researchers to attempt to find ways to quantify it and gain a better understanding of how it is related to other facets of communication.

This thesis can offer new insights into the research that encourages the consideration of some important aspects of the way communication is understood and instructed. This study provides new scales for communication research that allow future research into student-to-student confirmation, social support through social media, and online video viewing. Each of them proved to be reliable enough to be considered important tools in communication research. The model of communication that resulted from the data in the study indicates that there is a need to discuss the role of face-to-face feedback and support in communication instruction. The idea of teaching public speaking only in face-to-face settings may need to be considered more fully. In addition, the type of speeches being taught may need to be adjusted to include channels of communication that allow the inclusion of more complex ideas of what a “public” is.


Justina, M. (2016). Use of Whatsapp to enhance reading and writing skills at undergraduate college level. Language In India, 16(11), 47-60.


APPENDIX A: SCALES

1. Student-to-student confirmation Scale..................................................70
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Student-to-student confirmation Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Infrequent</th>
<th>Infrequent</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Frequent</th>
<th>Very frequent</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. During class discussion, classmates furthered the conversation based on a comment I made.
2. Others involved in a group project were accepting of my ideas.
3. A classmate let me know what I had to say was not important.
4. I told a classmate after class that I enjoyed hearing their input during class.
5. A classmate came up to me and thanked me for my contribution in class.
6. I have been told by a classmate that I have a deep understanding of the material.
7. A classmate said that I was important to the group and that made me feel valuable to the group.
8. A classmate said my skills would be helpful for a class project.
9. A classmate helped me with notes.
10. I was absent on a day and there was an important handout distributed. A classmate took an extra handout and gave it to me the next day.
11. A classmate warned me of an upcoming exam.
12. I reminded others about a deadline for an assignment.
13. I chose not to help a classmate with a tough question.
14. I helped a classmate out when they didn’t understand something.
15. When I had a classmate who needed help studying for a test, I helped them.
16. A classmate asked me to help them study to do better for the next test.
17. A classmate told me my help kept them from failing the class.
18. I was nervous about presenting in class and other students encouraged me.
19. After a presentation, classmates near me failed to support or encourage me.
20. During my presentation, classmates made eye contact, focused, and really seemed to listen to me.
21. A classmate didn’t know me, but they were nice to me anyway.
22. I saw one of my classmates out of class and went over and talked to them about class.
23. I asked another student how their weekend plans went.
24. A classmate included me in conversation.

Social support through social media Scale (adapted from Kim, 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often have your friends supported you through social media in the following ways over the last 30 days?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Expressed esteem or respect for a competency or personal quality of yours.
2. Suggested some actions/ideas that can be helpful for you.
3. Agreed that what you wanted to do was right.
4. Let you know that she/he will always be around if you need assistance.
5. Expressed interest and concern in your well-being.
6. Let you know what to expect in a situation that was about to happen.
7. Joked and kidded to try to cheer you up
8. Gave you some information on how to do something
9. Gave you some information to help you understand a situation you were in
10. Let you know what she/he did in a situation that was similar to yours
11. Let you know that you are OK just the way you are
Online video viewing Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Frequent</th>
<th>Infrequent</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Frequent</th>
<th>Very frequent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

___ 1. I watch online videos to understand classroom information.
___ 2. I watch videos online that are recommended by friends.
___ 3. I watch online videos instead of doing classwork.
___ 4. I watch TED talks and other informative seminars online.
___ 5. I use YouTube videos to get answers to questions.
___ 6. I watch videos for more than two hours a day.
___ 7. I watch online videos to help understand content for class.
___ 8. I watch videos online for language acquisition.
___ 9. I watch online videos to get innovative ideas.
___ 10. I watch videos online for entertainment.

Self-esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)

1 = strongly agree 2 = agree 3 = disagree 4 = strongly disagree

_____ 1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.
_____ 2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
_____ 3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
_____ 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
_____ 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
_____ 6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
_____ 7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
_____ 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
_____ 9. I certainly feel useless at times.
_____ 10. At times I think I am no good at all.
Personal reports of public speaking anxiety (PRPSA) Scale (McCroskey, 1970)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. While preparing for giving a speech, I feel tense and nervous.
2. I feel tense when I see the words “speech” and “public speech” on a course outline when studying.
3. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
4. Right after giving a speech I feel that I have had a pleasant experience.
5. I get anxious when I think about a speech coming up.
6. I have no fear of giving a speech.
7. Although I am nervous just before starting a speech, I soon settle down after starting and feel calm and comfortable.
8. I look forward to giving a speech.
9. When the instructor announces a speaking assignment in class, I can feel myself getting tense.
10. My hands tremble when I am giving a speech.
11. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
12. I enjoy preparing for a speech.
13. I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to say.
14. I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic that I don’t know.
15. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
16. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself while giving a speech.
17. My mind is clear when giving a speech.
18. I do not dread giving a speech.
19. I perspire just before starting a speech.
20. My heart beats very fast just as I start a speech.
21. I experience considerable anxiety while sitting in the room just before my speech starts.
22. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
23. Realizing that only a little time remains in a speech makes me very tense and anxious.
24. While giving a speech, I know I can control my feelings of tension and stress.
25. I breathe faster just before starting a speech.
26. I feel comfortable and relaxed in the hour or so just before giving a speech.
27. I do poorer on speeches because I am anxious.
28. I feel anxious when the teacher announces the date of a speaking assignment.
29. When I make a mistake while giving a speech, I find it hard to concentrate on the parts that follow.
30. During an important speech I experience a feeling of helplessness building up inside me.
31. I have trouble falling asleep the night before a speech.
32. My heart beats very fast while I present a speech.
33. I feel anxious while waiting to give my speech.
34. While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.
Communication competence Scale (McCroskey, 1988)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree 1</th>
<th>Disagree 2</th>
<th>Neutral 3</th>
<th>Agree 4</th>
<th>Strongly Agree 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. Present a talk to a group of strangers.
2. Talk with an acquaintance.
3. Talk in a large meeting of friends.
4. Talk in a small group of strangers.
5. Talk with a friend.
6. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.
7. Talk with a stranger.
8. Present a talk to a group of friends.
9. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.
10. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.
11. Talk in a small group of friends.
12. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.
APPENDIX B: SURVEY

Dear Participant,
The Communications Department at the University of the Pacific would like to thank you for taking part in this survey; we understand your time is very important. With your help, the data being collected will be used in research pertaining to personal reports of public speaking anxiety, communication competence, social support through social media, online video viewing, and student to student confirmation within the classroom. This survey will take no longer than 18 minutes to complete. You must be at least 18 years or older, a student to participate in this study. Completion of this survey will indicate your consent in participation. Your involvement in this study will be kept as confidential as legally possible. Please do not write any individual identifications (e.g. name, etc.) on the survey document. Please answer all questions as fully and honestly as you can, as failure to do so can alter our results. You may skip any question you do not wish to answer, and you may discontinue at any time. There are no known risks associated with participation in this study. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of the Pacific Institutional Review Board (IRB) at (209) 946-3903. University of the Pacific's Institutional Review Board acknowledgment of this project is on file. If you have any further questions about this study, please contact the Primary Investigator Griffin Cheek at, g_cheek@u.pacific.edu, (209) 602-4090, or the faculty project advisor Qingwen Dong at, qdong@pacific.edu. Again, we thank you for your time and contribution to our research.
Sincerely,
University of the Pacific
Department of Communications

Participant Signature ___________________________           Date ____________

Person Obtaining Consent ___________________________ Date ____________
Section 1 of 7, Directions: Consider the class you are in and answer the following questions with that class in mind. Use the numbers below each statement to decide if the scenario was something you felt happened more often or less often in that class. The number 1 being the least frequent answer and 5 being the most frequent answer. **Circle one answer for each.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Infrequent (1)</th>
<th>Infrequent (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Frequent (4)</th>
<th>Very frequent (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. During class discussion, classmates furthered the conversation based on a comment I made.
2. Others involved in a group project were accepting of my ideas.
3. A classmate let me know what I had to say was not important.
4. I told a classmate after class that I enjoyed hearing their input during class.
5. A classmate came up to me and thanked me for my contribution in class.
6. I have been told by a classmate that I have a deep understanding of the material.
7. A classmate said that I was important to the group and that made me feel valuable to the group.
8. A classmate said my skills would be helpful for a class project.
9. A classmate helped me with notes.
10. I was absent on a day and there was an important handout distributed. A classmate took an extra handout and gave it to me the next day.
11. A classmate warned me of an upcoming exam.
12. I reminded others about a deadline for an assignment.
13. I chose not to help a classmate with a tough question.
14. I helped a classmate out when they didn’t understand something.
15. When I had a classmate who needed help studying for a test, I helped them.
16. A classmate asked me to help them study to do better for the next test.
17. A classmate told me my help kept them from failing the class.
18. I was nervous about presenting in class and other students encouraged me.
19. After a presentation, classmates near me failed to support or encourage me.
20. During my presentation, classmates made eye contact, focused, and really seemed to listen to me.
21. A classmate didn’t know me, but they were nice to me anyway.
22. I saw one of my classmates out of class and went over and talked to them about class.
23. I asked another student how their weekend plans went.
24. A classmate included me in conversation.

Please continue on the next page
Section 2 of 7. Directions: Read the text in the box and answer the following questions with that in mind. Use the numbers below to decide if the scenario was something you felt happened less often or more often. The number 1 being the least frequent answer and 5 being the most frequent answer. Enter a single answer for each item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often have your friends supported you through social media in the following ways over the last 30 days?</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Once or twice</th>
<th>About once a week</th>
<th>A few times a week</th>
<th>About every day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Expressed esteem or respect for a competency or personal quality of yours.
2. Suggested some actions/ideas that can be helpful for you.
3. Agreed that what you wanted to do was right.
4. Let you know that she/he will always be around if you need assistance.
5. Expressed interest and concern in your well-being.
6. Let you know what to expect in a situation that was about to happen.
7. Joked and kidded to try to cheer you up
8. Gave you some information on how to do something
9. Gave you some information to help you understand a situation you were in
10. Let you know what she/he did in a situation that was similar to yours
11. Let you know that you are OK just the way you are

Please continue on the next page
Section 3 of 7, Directions: Rate the items using the following scale:

1 = strongly agree  2 = agree  3 = disagree  4 = strongly disagree

_____ 1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.
_____ 2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
_____ 3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
_____ 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
_____ 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
_____ 6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
_____ 7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
_____ 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
_____ 9. I certainly feel useless at times.
_____ 10. At times I think I am no good at all.

Please continue on the next page
Section 4 of 7, Directions: Below are thirty-four statements that people sometimes make about themselves. Consider the class you are in and answer the following questions with that class in mind. Please indicate whether or not you believe each statement applies to you by marking whether you:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. While preparing for giving a speech, I feel tense and nervous.
2. I feel tense when I see the words “speech” and “public speech” on a course outline when studying.
3. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
4. Right after giving a speech I feel that I have had a pleasant experience.
5. I get anxious when I think about a speech coming up.
6. I have no fear of giving a speech.
7. Although I am nervous just before starting a speech, I soon settle down after starting and feel calm and comfortable.
8. I look forward to giving a speech.
9. When the instructor announces a speaking assignment in class, I can feel myself getting tense.
10. My hands tremble when I am giving a speech.
11. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
12. I enjoy preparing for a speech.
13. I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to say.
14. I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic that I don’t know.
15. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
16. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself while giving a speech.
17. My mind is clear when giving a speech.
18. I do not dread giving a speech.
19. I perspire just before starting a speech.
20. My heart beats very fast just as I start a speech.

Please continue on the next page
Strongly Disagree 1  Disagree 2  Neutral 3  Agree 4  Strongly Agree 5

_____21. I experience considerable anxiety while sitting in the room just before my speech starts.
_____22. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
_____23. Realizing that only a little time remains in a speech makes me very tense and anxious.
_____24. While giving a speech, I know I can control my feelings of tension and stress.
_____25. I breathe faster just before starting a speech.
_____26. I feel comfortable and relaxed in the hour or so just before giving a speech.
_____27. I do poorer on speeches because I am anxious.
_____28. I feel anxious when the teacher announces the date of a speaking assignment.
_____29. When I make a mistake while giving a speech, I find it hard to concentrate on the parts that follow.
_____30. During an important speech I experience a feeling of helplessness building up inside me.
_____31. I have trouble falling asleep the night before a speech.
_____32. My heart beats very fast while I present a speech.
_____33. I feel anxious while waiting to give my speech.
_____34. While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.

Please continue on the next page
**Section 5 of 7, Directions:** Below are twelve situations in which you might need to communicate. People's abilities to communicate effectively vary a lot, and sometimes the same person is more competent to communicate in one situation than in another. Please indicate how competent you believe you are to communicate in each of the situations described below. Indicate in the space provided at the left of each item your estimate of your competence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Completely Incompetent</th>
<th>Incompetent</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Competent</th>
<th>Completely Competent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_____1. Present a talk to a group of strangers.
_____2. Talk with an acquaintance.
_____3. Talk in a large meeting of friends.
_____4. Talk in a small group of strangers.
_____5. Talk with a friend.
_____6. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.
_____7. Talk with a stranger.
_____8. Present a talk to a group of friends.
_____9. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.
_____10. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.
_____11. Talk in a small group of friends.
_____12. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

Please continue on the next page
Section 6 of 7, Directions: Please indicate the frequency that you engage in the following behaviors online.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Infrequent</th>
<th>Infrequent</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Frequent</th>
<th>Very frequent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

___ 1. I watch online videos to understand classroom information.
___ 2. I watch videos online that are recommended by friends.
___ 3. I watch online videos instead of doing classwork.
___ 4. I watch TED talks and other informative seminars online.
___ 5. I use YouTube videos to get answers to questions.
___ 6. I watch videos for more than two hours a day.
___ 7. I watch online videos to help understand content for class.
___ 8. I watch videos online for language acquisition.
___ 9. I watch online videos to get innovative ideas.
___ 10. I watch videos online for entertainment.

Section 7 of 7, You are almost done! Please answer a few questions about yourself.

1. I am a (check only one): Male____ Female____ I don't identify as either____

2. My year in school (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Graduate):____________

3. What is your age? _____ (Years)

4. I would describe myself as (check only one)?
   
   African American ______  Latinx ______
   
   Caucasian/Non-Hispanic ______  Native American ______
   
   Asian American ______  Other ______

5. What is your major (e.g. biology, psychology, communication)? ____________________

Thank you for your participation!