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The editor of the 2013 *Journal of the Speech and Theatre Association of Missouri* is presently accepting manuscripts. Scholarly articles, book and resource reviews, and teaching resources are all encouraged. Scholarship from a diversity of areas from the discipline encompassing communication, speech, and theatre will be considered. These areas include, but are not limited to: Speech, Debate, Theatre Instruction and Performance, Communication Theory, Interpersonal Communication, Intercultural Communication, Health Communication, Rhetoric, Persuasion, Organizational Communication, Political Communication, Family Communications, Listening, Communication Ethics, Mediation, Public Relations, Film, Mass Media Theory, Mediated Communication, and New Communication Technologies.

All submissions should be in Microsoft Word, and emailed to the editor. References should follow the latest edition of the American Psychological Association style manual. A separate page with abstract, author affiliation and bio(s) should be included. All submissions should be received by February 18, 2013, to ensure full consideration for publication.

Updated submission information for volume 43 will be available in October of 2012 at the website for the Speech and Theatre Association of Missouri – <http://speechandtheatremo.org/>

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**Presidents as Speech Professors:
United States Presidents' Public Statements about Public Speaking**
Josh Compton & Brian Kaylor

Abstract

Presidents do public speaking, of course, but how do presidents view public speaking? This essay examines public presidential remarks about public speaking to offer a view of presidential rhetoric about rhetoric. This analysis reveals that presidents have offered evaluations (implicit and explicit) of public speaking, as well as specific advice about giving and writing speeches. Excerpts from speeches and other remarks are included, with representation from Presidents Truman, Eisenhower, Johnson, Carter, Reagan, H. W. Bush, Clinton, W. Bush, and Obama. Considering presidential remarks about public speaking provides unique material to further inform how we teach, view, study, and do public speaking.

Presidential public addresses matter. Presidential speeches are “more than rhetoric, more than a string of sound bites or applause lines. It is where policy, and politics, and presidential personality come together” (Waldman, 2000, p. 15). Utterances during debates can shift and strengthen attitudes, affect vote choice, and inform campaign agendas (Hellweg, Pfau, & Brydon, 1992). Even when empirical effects research fails to uncover significant impacts of presidential utterances, the mere fact that a president utters something is, more often than not, newsworthy (see Jamieson & Campbell, 2006). So we know that presidents *do* public speaking, and that what they do when doing public speaking matters. But how do presidents *view* public speaking?

In this analysis of presidential rhetoric, we turn our attention to a special kind of presidential address: presidents speaking publicly about public speaking. This exploration uncovers how presidents characterize public speaking, and specific speeches, and it also reveals moments when presidents offered specific public speaking advice. The investigation stems from a simple thought: presidents regularly do public speaking, but how do they *view* it? The answers offer a nuanced look into presidential

rhetoric about presidential rhetoric—and in the process, we are offered new ways of thinking about the way we view, do, and teach speech.

Rhetorical Presidents

As a rhetorical institution, the modern presidency empowers the inhabitant of the Oval Office: “A president cannot escape rhetoric—as much as some would like to do so. For good or ill, all presidents are rhetorical presidents” (Medhurst, 2006, p. ix). This unique, powerful rhetorical position brings heightened attention to what presidents say. This “privileged voice in our public or civic conversation” gives the president the power to “help people interpret the social and political realities” (McKinney & Pepper, 1999, p. 79). With “the symbolic supremacy of the presidency” (Denton & Hahn, 1986, p.125), presidents use this privileged voice to interpret reality for a nation. Thus, the president leads the nation as “interpreter-in-chief” (Stuckey, 1991, p. 1). Stuckey explained that as the “nation’s chief story-teller,” presidents tell “us stories about ourselves and in so doing ... tell us what sort of people we are” (p. 1). Presidents can use this rhetorical position to continue what Campbell and Jamieson (2008) called “creating the presidency.” Campbell and Jameison add that a president’s power is “enhanced in the modern presidency by the ability of presidents to speak when, where, and on whatever topic they choose and to reach a national audience through coverage by the electronic media” (p. 6). Clearly, presidential rhetoric warrants attention.

Empowered by the rhetorical presidency, presidents make “choices about what to say, how to say it, where and to whom to say it” (Medhurst, 2006, p. ix). Considerations of what presidents talk about—or do not talk about—can offer insights into presidents’ priorities and values (see Medhurst, 2006). To understand and analyze presidents’ priorities and agendas, including how presidents view their roles as speakers, one should turn a careful ear to presidential rhetoric. As Shogan (2006) concluded, “The modern rhetorical presidency is not limited to policy concerns. Instead, the rhetorical purview for modern rhetorical presidents is all-encompassing; every aspect of democratic life becomes worthy of a moral pronouncement” (p. 174). With this understanding of presidential rhetoric in mind, we examine instances when presidents talked about public speaking to garner insights into how

they view this important presidential function—and to gain insights about the art of public speaking from the nation’s chief rhetorical actors. We note three ways in which presidents talk about public speaking: to devalue public speaking, to bolster public speaking (their own and that of others), and to offer public speaking instruction.

Devaluing Public Speaking

Although it may seem strange to criticize public speaking while engaging in public speaking, some presidential statements do—or seem to do—just that. The rebukes are usually mild, often characterizing public speaking as less important or reliable than other forms of communication. For example, during a news conference on March 30, 1950, President Harry Truman was notified of a potential inconsistency between what General Dwight Eisenhower said before a Senate committee and what Eisenhower said during a speech at Columbia University. Truman replied: “Oh, well, you know in making speeches you must remember that everybody has his ideas on public speaking, but the record before the Senate committee is what you have to go on” (Truman, 1950, para. 23). In this explanation, Truman identifies public speaking as something less accountable than other forms of political discourse. We may note, at minimum, a mild dismissal of public speaking, particularly with his preface to his response: “Oh, well...everybody has his ideas on public speaking.” In another example, during a news conference on April 16, 1958, Marvin Arrowsmith of the *Associated Press* asked President Dwight Eisenhower if military officers should leave if they do not believe they can offer support “in public speeches or before congressional committees” (para. 2) for his reorganization of the Department of Defense. Eisenhower responded: ...[Y]ou group together, Mr. Arrowsmith, public speaking or, in other words, apparently propagandizing, and giving testimony to Congress, and that is an entirely different thing. (Eisenhower, 1958, para. 5)

Again, we see an argument that public speaking is not held to the same standards of veracity as other forms of discourse. Going even further in his critique than Truman, Eisenhower even argued that public speaking could be synonymous with propagandizing. Certainly, some of this sentiment is to be expected—sworn testimony is, indeed, held to

different standards than other public speaking forums. Yet an implicit message about the standards of speech connects these two observations by two different presidents: Public speaking is not held to the standards of accuracy and veracity as in other contexts.

We also find public speaking contrasted with other presidential responsibilities. Declining an invitation to serve as guest speaker on National President's Day, President Jimmy Carter offered: "This first year I've tried to hold down as much as possible any public speaking on my part. I really need to learn more about this job" (Carter, 1977, para. 629). While this statement is not a strong rebuke of public speaking, the implicit argument is that public speaking is not part of "this job"—even though scholars contend that rhetoric is a key part of the job of modern presidents. Similarly, President George W. Bush spoke of public speaking's poor image, and particularly, presidential public speaking's poor image. At an Independence Day celebration in 2008, he offered this light-hearted assessment:

... You just can't help but marvel at Thomas Jefferson's many accomplishments... As a statesman, Thomas Jefferson held all three top posts in the executive branch. He served as the first Secretary of State, the second Vice President, and the third President. Not bad for a man who hated public speaking. [Laughter] It seems Jefferson got away with only delivering two public speeches during his Presidency. I'm sure a lot of Americans wish that were the case today. [Laughter] (Bush, 2008, para. 12-13)

By listing a series of Jefferson's accomplishments and then mentioning Jefferson's dislike of public speaking, Bush jokes that an affinity toward public speaking is not a requisite for presidential success or esteem. Bush takes his assertion one step further by voicing peoples' lack of interest in presidential speechmaking.

President Barack Obama also voiced peoples' lack of interest in speeches—or, at least, long speeches—using a repeated introductory phrase. Speaking at a Democratic National Committee dinner, he began: "Now, I am not going to spoil a good dinner with a long speech" (Obama, 2009d, para. 1), a line he would also use to open his speech the next day—"I'm not here to give a long speech" (Obama, 2009e, para. 1), and three days later—"I didn't want to give a long speech" (Obama, 2009f, para. 10). We also find this strategy in some earlier speeches,

including a speech at a dinner for Congressional Committee Chairs—“Do not fear, no long speeches here” (Obama, 2009, para. 1), and at a speech at the congressional luau—“I am not going to make a long speech” (Obama, 2009c, para. 1). In an example of using a strategy while promoting a public speaking strategy, Obama shared this story in his speech to the National Academy of Science:

And I'd like to begin today with a story of a previous visitor who also addressed this august body. In April of 1921, Albert Einstein visited the United States for the first time. And his international credibility was growing as scientists around the world began to understand and accept the vast implications of his theories of special and general relativity. And he attended this annual meeting, and after sitting through a series of long speeches by others, he reportedly said, “I have just got a new theory of eternity.” [Laughter] So I will do my best to heed this cautionary tale. [Laughter] (Obama, 2009b, para. 4)

In these exchanges, Obama promises brevity as a strategy—one that meets a potential objection of audiences in listening to speeches. Of note, this strategy also makes an implicit argument that public speaking is unpopular—or, more specifically, that long public speeches are unpopular.

In presidential remarks that span presidencies, we find some evidence of a mildly dismissive view of public speaking. Public speaking is characterized as less accountable, less trustworthy, and less important than other types of communication. Furthermore, presidential public speaking is characterized as unpopular. For a more favorable view of public speaking, we next survey some of the identified positive attributes of public speaking mentioned in presidential rhetoric.

Bolstering Public Speaking

While most of the comments that downplayed public speaking were mild and usually implicit, praise of public speaking is often more effusive and explicit. Those who were implicit with their praise were often the same presidents who had, during other occasions, devalued public speaking (Carter, 1979; Bush, 2002).

Bolstering One's Own Speeches

In contrast to sentiments of Presidents Truman and Eisenhower who seemed to suggest that speechmaking was a secondary record, then-Governor Ronald Reagan pointed to his speeches as a way to establish consistencies in his positions:

For anyone to suggest, as some have, that I'm now switching or changing—no one could do what I have done for the last quarter of a century, the amount of public speaking, the lecture circuit I have been on, for years now a five-day-a-week radio commentary, twice-a-week news columns—and to believe that I'm changing my positions. (Reagan, 1980, para. 77)

In this description, public speaking is bolstered—moving beyond “propagandizing”—and held up as a record of consistency—as a matter of record. Perhaps not surprisingly, Reagan appeared much more comfortable assuming the “bully pulpit” of the presidency than Truman or Eisenhower. Another president comfortable with public speaking, President Obama, similarly referenced his State of the Union speech as an accurate record of his beliefs (Obama, 2010c) and priorities (Obama, 2010b). In several speeches, Obama even referenced some of his own speeches, including his well-received convention speech at the Democratic National Convention (Obama, 2009g). This self-referencing subtly places speeches as an important source of ideas that should be looked back upon as a reliable record.

Bolstering Others' Speeches

In other instances, presidents praised specific speeches and speakers instead of public speaking in general. Some presidents mentioned famous speakers. President Obama referenced Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.'s speech during the “Let Freedom Ring” concert (Obama, 2010a). In other speeches, Obama made mention of speeches by President Hamid Karzai (Obama, 2009h), Senator Ted Kennedy (Obama, 2009i), and President Franklin Roosevelt (Obama, 2009a), and others. Other presidents turned attention to lesser-known speakers as they spoke of the importance of public speaking. President George H. W. Bush praised a speaker during a fundraiser appearance in 1989:

Mercer Miller, who was principal back when Tom was at Gulfport, likes to tell how Tom hid behind the hedges when it was his time for lessons with Mrs. Baxley, the speech teacher. [Laughter] Well, you heard him—she must have done something right. Well, Tom, there's nothing shy anymore about your public speaking. And Mrs. Baxley, if you're out there somewhere: Tom has learned his lesson. (Bush, 1989, para. 20)

Praise of speeches that preceded them during events is also common. President Obama, for example, praised the speaker who introduced him at the awards ceremony for his Nobel Peace Prize (Obama, 2009j). But no president did this more than President Bill Clinton. One of the earliest examples is from 1997, when Clinton praised a speaker who preceded him during a national Boy Scout Jamboree:

...I want to begin by thanking John Kates for that introduction... I didn't notice whether John had a public speaking merit badge on his sash, but I'd say he earned one tonight standing up in front of all of you to introduce me... (Clinton, 1997a, para. 2)

A few months later, he praised another speaker during remarks at San Jacinto Community College: "Well, Esmerelda may be getting a degree in mathematics, but today she got an A in public speaking [Laughter]" (Clinton, 1997b, para. 1). During another occasion, Clinton remarked: "When I was listening to Arthur speak, I didn't know whether to offer him a job as a White House speechwriter—[laughter]—or just wait for the opportunity to vote for him someday" (Clinton, 1999b, para. 2). At a Democratic Leadership Council gala, he said: "But I want to say something about Sam Fried, the gentleman who introduced me. First of all, he gave a good speech, didn't he? I mean, he's got a great gift in capturing our vision" (Clinton, 1999a, para. 2). At the Democratic Leadership Council, Clinton said: "Well, first of all, I think we ought to acknowledge that public speaking is not something Jessica does every day, and I think she did a terrific job. I thank her for coming here" (Clinton, 2000a, para. 1). Later, Clinton remarked: "Well, first of all, I think Sharon was a little apprehensive coming out here because she doesn't do public speaking for a living. But I thought she was magnificent, and I thank her for it" (Clinton, 2000b, para. 1). Then once again, at an announcement about new initiatives, he said: "Thank you

very much, Michael. We all know you don't do this public speaking for a living, and you did a terrific job. You may have a few more job interviews after the day is over [Laughter]" (Clinton, 2000c, para. 1). These excerpts reflect President Clinton's praise for specific public speeches, and more specifically, specific public speakers. In many of these examples, Clinton uses the mere act of doing a speech as the basis for commendation: to have the courage to speak in public is worth mentioning. Clinton's praises—and those offered by other presidents—affirm public speaking as important and portray it as a form of communication that remains worthy of attention and praise.

Presidents as Speech Professors

To this point in the survey, we have explored comments about public speaking that were, for the most part, implicit arguments about the value of public speaking. But on some occasions, presidents take on the role of a speech teacher, passing along specific advice on public speaking. For example, on May 14, 1965, President Lyndon Johnson noted, after making an argument:

They told me when I started teaching public speaking to always wait, from the time I'd say something, for a second until it communicates out. It takes time for sound to travel to a given distance. It also takes some time for it to soak in.

(Johnson, 1965, para. 16)

With this statement, Johnson gives advice that would later fit within one of the most commonly cited models in contemporary communication scholarship, Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) Elaboration Likelihood Model. A pause enhances one's ability to process a message, or for it to, in the words of Johnson, "soak in."

President Ronald Reagan also offered public speaking advice—repeatedly. Speaking at a dinner in 1981, he began his remarks with:

I learned in public speaking you're never supposed to open with an apology, but my schedule has kind of gotten jammed up with two things happening almost simultaneously, so I only have a few minutes. (Reagan, 1981, para. 1)

This would become a common introductory strategy for President Reagan in numerous speeches to follow. Reagan would note that he should not start with an apology, and then offer an apology. He did this

speaking at a White House reception (“I learned in public speaking you should never open with an apology, but I have to apologize. I know I’m late,” 1982a, para. 1), at a White House luncheon (“One of the first things I learned in public speaking class was that you should never open with an apology,” 1982b, para. 2), at a convention (“I learned once in a public speaking class that you never should open your remarks with an apology, but since I am the one that changed your schedule...,” 1982c, para. 1), and at a signing of an amendment (“I learned in public speaking once that you were never supposed to open any remarks with an apology, but I also found out in this job, 9 times out of 10 you have to apologize for being late. So, I apologize for keeping you all waiting,” 1983, para. 1). The strategy was clear: To avoid the appearance of an apology, frame it as knowingly violating a public speaking “rule.” The strategy might also help move focus from Reagan being late to Reagan being a sincere, transparent public speaker who admittedly ignores “rules” to acknowledge those who have been waiting for him.

At an event in Tokyo, President Clinton was specifically asked for public speaking advice. He responded with the following:

My only advice is to imagine, no matter how many people are in your audience, that you're speaking to a few of your friends—because, look at the camera, the camera will take us to millions of people. I have been in crowds—the largest crowd I’ve been in was in Ghana in West Africa. We had maybe 400,000 or 500,000 people. But on the television, there are millions. And if you’re in a big crowd, well, the microphone is your friend. You can speak normally because the sound will carry. (Clinton, 1998, para. 16)

Clinton begins his response with a theoretical treatment of good speech—to approach public speaking as more collaborative than as a linear performance. He then turns immediately to implications of technology in public speaking, first noting how television increases the size of an audience, and then offering a suggestion for speaking with a microphone. He continued:

And I think many people have trouble speaking in public because they think they have to change. And you don’t have to change. You just have to be yourself. Imagine you are at home, entertaining some friends, sharing something with your family, and speaking the way you would when your heart was

engaged and your mind was engaged about something you cared about in your own life. That's my only advice. (Clinton, 1998, para. 17)

In his closing remarks, he turns back to a theoretical approach to speech, offering a call for authenticity and engaging speech. In a way, the teaching moments by Clinton and other presidents work to affirm the importance of public speaking and learning to effectively communicate with one's audience. Additionally, these fascinating moments are quite instructive as the presidents pull back the curtain to show a little of how they view their rhetorical task as the nation's leader.

Implications

It is notable enough that presidents have spoken about public speaking. What presidents talk about matters (see Jamieson & Campbell, 2006). Yet, we can also glean specific insight from this survey of presidential mentions. One important implication from this analysis is the insight it sheds on how modern presidents view public speaking. Although scholarly examinations frequently explore how presidents do public speaking, this study considered how presidents view public speaking. For presidents, rhetoric remains an essential function of the office of the presidency. Campbell and Jamieson (2008) noted: "The office entails a public rhetorical role. Public communication is the medium through which the national fabric is woven" (p. 9). Thus, it is both interesting and insightful to understand how presidents view this critical role of their office. As Michael Gerson (2012), former speechwriter for President George W. Bush, argued when he chided Rick Santorum for attacking President Obama's use of teleprompters: "The craft of rhetoric involves the humility of repeated revision... But a prospective president should care about rhetoric for deeper reasons: Because language and leadership are inseparable. Because history is not shaped or moved by mediocre words" (p. A15). The texts examined in this study suggest presidents are thinking about this rhetorical job—even out loud in speeches—and therefore scholars should pay attention.

It is also important to consider how presidents have described how they expect their audience likely views public speaking. Campbell and Jamieson (2008) explained the critical need for scholars to heed how

presidents rhetorically shape their audiences and the expectations of presidents:

Presidents address many audiences, but “the people” are always listening. Skillful presidents not only adapt to their audiences, but also engage in transforming those who hear them into the audiences they desire. Presidents have envisioned the public in many different ways, and they have shaped addresses in order to give the people a particular identity. (p. 7)

As presidents such as Dwight Eisenhower downplay public speaking or presidents such as George W. Bush joke about people not wishing to hear presidential speeches or presidents such as Barack Obama joke about trying to keep presidential speeches short, the presidents shape the public expectations for presidential public speaking. The texts examined in this study suggest that if presidents are concerned that the public is not sufficiently interested in presidential addresses, it might be in part because of presidential comments about public speaking. Although presidents have also offered positive remarks about public speaking—as this analysis demonstrated—most of those comments were affirmations of speeches by others. Comments by presidents downplaying the importance of presidential public speaking could transform the public into an audience that views presidential public speaking as less than interesting or important.

A final implication of this study is that speech professors have a valuable resource for generating discussions about public speaking—particularly political public speaking. The mentions of public speaking in public speeches offer unique variables in our considerations of speech, political rhetoric, democracy, argumentation, and other dimensions of rhetoric. Much of the specific advice about public speaking offered by presidents in public addresses is helpful, and in some instances, the advice is theoretically consistent. President Johnson’s suggestion to maintain deliberate, strategic pacing—and not to fear the pause (Johnson, 1965)—offers an example of promoting the ability of an audience to process information, something consistent with Petty and Cacioppo’s (1986) Elaboration Likelihood Model. President Clinton’s advice to focus on the relational dimensions between a speaker and an audience (Clinton, 1998) demonstrates more relational public speaking. Even advice that is suspect offers an opportunity to discuss why the advice

may need further scrutiny before employing it in speeches. Additionally, public speaking professors could trace changes in what presidents say about public speaking during different time periods—such as how comments about public speaking by Harry Truman and Dwight Eisenhower differ from more recent presidents' comments. Similarly, students can consider how a changing media landscape (see Meyrowitz, 1985) may make some rhetorical strategies less effective (e.g., repeating the same joke or opener).

A survey of some of the presidential mentions of speechmaking provides a unique look at presidential rhetoric about presidential rhetoric. By considering how the nation's chief public speakers talk about public speaking, we can draw important implications concerning presidential rhetoric and discover interesting examples and adages to spark further pedagogical discussions of public speaking. From assessment of public speaking in general to specific remarks about speakers and speeches, we get a glimpse of how presidents view and do public speaking.

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Connecting Dialogic Theories in Rhetoric

Laurie J. Morocco

Abstract

This essay examines the dialogical connections of the metaphor “between” in the dialogic theories of Martin Buber and Mikhail Bakhtin. The first section of the essay will provide a comprehensive view of dialogic theory as explained by scholars in the field of communication. The next sections examine the dialogic theories of Buber and Bakhtin, exploring the use of the metaphor of the “between” in each, and the importance of the “third alternative”.

Dialogic theories by Martin Buber and Mikhail Bakhtin have crossed many disciplines in the human sciences and may seem to be an unconventional combination to some academics. Unarguably, these philosophers have grown the field of communication through their dialogic thought. But more important than their individual discussions of dialogic theories is their mutual belief in meaning as occurring between the Self and the Other, rather than in the actual meeting itself.

Richard Johannesen, (1990) hails Martin Buber as the primary contemporary existentialist philosopher who “places the concept of dialogue at the heart of his view of human communication and existence” (p.58). He says that the writings of Buber have served as a stimulus for other scholars. Among those are Russian philosopher Mikhail Bakhtin who was somewhat influenced by the work of Martin Buber while still a student and “became fascinated with the conditions of otherness by reading Buber and other philosophers” (Cissna and Anderson, 1998, p.90). Bakhtin considered Buber the “greatest philosopher of the twentieth century” and the “sole philosopher on the scene” (Kepnes, 1992, p. 62). Cissna and Anderson note that like Buber, Bakhtin agreed that the I and Thou were not separate but rather the “I emerged from an ever-ambiguous social encounter with otherness” (1998, p.91).

This essay asks the question, what are the dialogical distinctions and connections of the metaphor “between” in the dialogic theories of Martin Buber and Mikhail Bakhtin? The first section of the essay will provide a comprehensive view of dialogic theory as explained by scholars in the field of communication. The next sections examine the dialogic theories of Buber and Bakhtin, and finally explore the use of the metaphor of the “between” in each, as well as the importance of the “third alternative”.

Dialogic Theory Defined

“A lot of people are coming to the dialogical as a way of knowing, as an approach to life” with the greatest interest in the academic fields of education, psychotherapy, and communication, although the list continues to grow (Czubaroff and Friedman, 2000, p.243). While explanations of dialogical relationships are abundant, this paper is concerned with the ideas of two scholars, Martin Buber and Mikhail Bakhtin. However, it is important to first broaden our knowledge base on the idea of dialogic from other scholars’ perspectives in order to better understand the historical stance from which these prominent theorists participate.

Simply stated, “a relation between persons that is characterized in more or less degree by the element of inclusion may be termed a dialogical relation” (Buber, 1965, p.97). The dialogue that occurs derives its genuineness from the element of inclusion, or the acknowledging of the other person and experiencing a common event from the Other’s standpoint. Buber also says that a dialogical relation can exist not only in genuine conversation, but also in a shared silence between persons. And their dialogic life can be just as meaningful and effective “even when they are separated in space, as the continual potential presence of the one to the other, as an unexpressed intercourse” (p.97).

In their article, *Theorizing About Dialogic Moments*, Cissna and Anderson describe dialogue as being “a quality of relationships that arises, however briefly, between two or more people and a way of thinking about human affairs that highlight their dialogic qualities” (p.64). Hence, they say that dialogue can mean attitudes, ways of talking and acting, consequences of their meeting, and meeting contexts. Furthermore, they describe a “dialogic perspective on communication”

with a focus on meaning that is often unexpected and “emerges from the encounter between self and other”. In addition, the self is simultaneously engaged in the encounter with the other rather than the focus being solely on the self. A presupposition of an on-going participation in a conversation is also necessary. A dialogic moment is “the experience of inventive surprise shared by the dialogic partners as each “turns toward” the other and both mutually perceive the impact of each other’s turning” (Cissna and Anderson, 1998, p.74). It is in this “turning toward” they say, where awareness and acceptance of otherness transcend the perception of difference itself.

Dialogical perspectives used for evaluating communication ethics, according to Johannesen, tend to focus on the “attitudes toward each other” by the participants in a communicative situation whereas the attitudes of the participants “are viewed as an index of the ethical level of that communication (Johannesen, 1990, p.38). He considers dialogic attitudes to be more fully human than those of monologue. “Dialogical attitudes are held to best nurture and actualize each individual’s capacities and potentials whatever they are” (Johannesen, 1990, p.58).

Stewart has found four common characteristics in the work of those who adopt dialogic perspectives. First, scholars insist their foci is not on the message but on the “between” or the relationship. Second, experientialism is necessary in dialogic research because it allows the researcher to find answers to their question through experience of “transactional participants”. Third, there seems to be an emphasis on self and subjectivity in dialogic study and the last common characteristic of a dialogic approach is holism, which suggests that “a point of view which embraces a multitude of interdependent cognitive, affective, behavioral, and contextual variable” should replace a unidimensional perspective for research and teaching (Stewart, 1978, p.184).

Friedman describes the dialogical as synonymous with uniqueness and otherness as a way of relating to others, rather than simply experiences. He says that for Buber, dialogue is “opening oneself to otherness of the other” whereas monologue relates to the other as “a content of one’s experience” (2001, p.6). Dialogue, which is a key concept in Buber’s famous book *I and Thou*, “is a conversation or relationship that involves the concrete circumstances of the participants and assumes their interchange has the presence of God as its fundamental relation” (Bertman,2000, p.7).

Three distinct dialogic communication approaches are identified in Arnett's article "What is Dialogic Communication?" as Jung's psychologized dialogue, Roger's individualistic dialogue, and Buber's narrow ridge. In order to recognize the dialogical differences in each of these approaches, it is first necessary to understand Friedman's generic notion of dialogue. Generic dialogue means, "meeting" the others as a person, not an object while still affirming the notion of mutuality. "In essence, it is appropriate and defensible to use the generic term dialogue simply defined as humanistic communication that is person-centered and grounded in the concrete moment of authentic human meeting" (1989, p.47).

Jung's psychologized dialogue places importance on the mutual relation or meeting of the other with psyche, rather than the "between", placed at the center of his "psychotherapeutic" theory. Arnett defines psyche as the inner mental world of the unconscious that motivates the actions of a person (1989, p.48).

The second approach described by Arnett is Roger's individualized dialogue. "The dialogic relationship pointed to by Rogers, whether by therapist, friend, or parent, is a vehicle for propelling the other toward more autonomy and self-reliance" (1989, p.49). Friedman sees Rogers dialogue as emphasizing the person and the importance of human relationships and in conjunction with his "healing through meeting" dialogic metaphor. Arnett notes that Rogers' work is considered more closely tied to that of Buber than Jung making the task of identifying the similarities and differences more challenging but necessary in order to appreciate the differences of Rogers and Buber.

Lastly, Buber's narrow ridge dialogue also described as I-Thou dialogue consists of four significant metaphors: narrow ridge, between, common center, and community. Arnett says that "Buber's narrow ridge understanding of dialogue does not ensure commonality of thought; rather, it is a narrative of keeping the conversation going and responding with one's whole person to another" (1989, p.56). The narrow ridge is actually the narrative story where one listens with one's "whole being" and participants agree that "keeping the lines of communication open" are necessary. "For dialogic communication to be invited and "successful," the partners in conversation must take up the "common core" or narrative of the importance of "keeping the conversation going" –the attitude of dialogue" (Arnett, 1989, p.56).

The second view of dialogic theory, as defined by Bakhtin “is a way of recognizing (a) the speaker’s or writer’s (rhetorical) intention to move the audience to action and (b) the audience’s active role in interpreting utterances in order to reply or react, a role that the speaker or writer is well aware of: [T]he [literary or technical] work, like the rejoinder in dialogue, is oriented toward the response of the other” (Bizzell and Herzberg, 1990,p.927).

Dialogic theory draws on the elements of self and other in many of Bakhtin’s writings. “The simple yet all-important fact should be stressed again that they always enact a drama containing more than one actor” (Holquist,1990, p.18). For Bakhtin, the self is dialogue or a relation. Because of this relation, dialogue can help us understand how other relationships work. The dialogue that takes place between the self and the other is the key to understanding contradictions in dialogue. The self is viewed as a “multiple phenomenon of three elements – a center, a not center, and the relations between them” (Holquist, 1990, p.19). The relation between the two is always in a state of flux, always changing and never static.

Both Martin Buber and Mikhail Bakhtin are significant contributors to dialogic theory, while possessing shared views as well as differentiations in their thinking about dialogue. Friedman says that they are both fairly dialogical, both concerned about the voice, the other or what Bakhtin calls the “polyphonic”. But in retrospect, he sees Bakhtin as less poetic than Buber and unable to “speak to you in the same way Buber does” (Czubaroff and Friedman, 2000, p.244). Bakhtin, he says, extends dialogue into “all sorts of things” without having a central social philosophy. And lastly, Bakhtin is interested in carnival while Buber is not.

Bakhtin’s Dialogic Theory

Before digesting Bakhtin’s theory of dialogism, it is important to differentiate between two terms that are used extensively, though often incorrectly, in his writings. “Dialogue is a metaphor for the welter of communication that exists in the social world generally” with an exchange of selves rather than meanings since it is language that permits individuals to receive their place in the world (Bernard-Donals, 1994, p.34). In sum, dialogue is not necessarily just discourse between people,

it is an exchange or a “bridge” between “I-for-myself and I-as-other.” Hence, dialogism is the means by which people “encounter” each other and enter into a “consummating” relationship “while dialogue is the cognitive-ethical event that results from this consummation” (Bernard-Donals, 1994, p.35).

In dialogism, otherness is the relation between “a center and all that is not a center” (Holquist,1990, p.18). Center, for Bakhtin, is a relative term, not an absolute.

Dialogism is dialogic in that “dialogue always implies the simultaneous existence of manifold possibilities, a smaller number of values, and the need for choice. At all the possible levels of stasis and change, there is always a situated subject whose specific place is defined precisely by its in-between-ness” (Holquist,1990, p.181).

Dialogue can be reduced to at least three elements similar to that of a “triadic construction of a linguistic sign”: an utterance, a reply, and a relation between them. It is this relation between that is thought to be the most significant because without it, there would be no meaning for the other two, they would be isolated and “nothing is anything in itself” (Holquist,1990, p.38).

Because of this triadic nature of dialogue, one can assume that “I” is dialogic and in gestalt terms, is greater than the sum of its parts. “The thirdness of dialogue frees my existence from the very circumscribed meaning it has in the limited configuration of self/other relations available in the immediate time and particular place in my life, this degree of thirdness...insures the possibility of whatever transgression I can achieve toward myself” (p.38).

In a dialogic world, the “Self” is constantly involved in interactions with the Self and others; “I can never have my own way completely” (p.39). Holquist says that dialogism is a “stern philosophy” given its foundations in revolution, civil war, the terror of purges, and exile and is based on the dominance of the social and that all meaning is achieved by struggle (p.39). The “Self” in Bakhtinian thought is dialogic, described as the relation that can help us to understand how other relationships work. The Self is made of three elements and should be thought of as triad, not a dyad, consisting of a center, a not-center, and the relation between them with dialogue uniting the self and the other in a relationship. The self cannot exist alone for it needs the third alternative of triadic communication. The self is nothing more than a sign

with no absolute meaning in itself. The other person is crucial to the existence of the relationship for meaning could not occur without it. “ [T]he [Literary or technical] work, like the rejoinder in dialogue, is oriented toward the response of the other’ ” (Bizzell and Herzberg, 1990, p.927).

Bakhtin relies heavily on the use of language in dialogism and in “a universe conceived as endless semiosis.” Dialogism always consists of more than one meaning and is considered a philosophy of language with its whole emphasis on the “syntagmatic features of language”. However, language in a linguistical sense “would embrace grammar, lexicon, syntax, and phonetics; discussions of word combinations wouldn’t include a unit more comprehensive than the sentence” (Morson, 1991, p.63). These units are important to Bakhtin not in a metalinguistic capacity but as dynamic elements that are part of a larger area of study. These elements “are in constant dialogue with other features that come into play only in particular acts of communication” such as utterance, which is considered a fundamental unit of study in Bakhtin’s dialogism and speech genres, “the conventions by which utterances are organized” (Morson, 1991, p.63).

Dialogism is important to language and is “unthinkable outside its relation to language” (Holquist, 1990, p.40). In Dialogism: Bakhtin and His World, Holquist states that this aforementioned relation is complex and that Bakhtin is not the first theorist to contemplate the idea of dialogue and human interaction. Nonetheless, Holquist considers Bakhtin’s idea of dialogue to be a constant creation and exchange of ideas. He maintains that this is the reason why Bakhtin relies so heavily on dialogue as a major component of his work. For dialogue is always present at multiple levels with or without words. “In everyday usage, dialogue is a synonym for conversation; the word suggests two people talking to each other” (p.40). The interpretation of the message, what we bring to the conversation, and the desire to be understood is in part what Bakhtin referred to as his dialogic theory.

Baxter and Montgomery introduce their theory known as “relational dialectics” which deals with Bakhtin’s idea of dialogue and, “the notion of dialogue between self and other and his move to rethink what self is all about and how self gets constructed through conversation with the other” (p.232) They state that the social self is where Bakhtin’s notion of dialogue comes into play. A dialogue cannot exist without at

least two distinct (multivocal) voices that come together “and the dialogue is the site of difference where contradiction takes place – Bakhtin’s notion of the interplay between the centripetal and centrifugal” (p.233).

“Bakhtin’s dialogism views the social realm as constituted within centripetal and centrifugal forces, creating a cacophony of voices that “pull” continually.” According to Bakhtin, “every concrete utterance of a speaking subject serves a point where centrifugal, as well as centripetal forces are brought to bear.” (Bakhtin, 1986, p.272). When Bakhtin refers to the centripetal, he means that all language is being drawn back to a central focus, which is the opposite of centrifugal in which language tends to move away from a center (Vice, 1997, p.71).

Ancient views of dialectics are viewed as epistemological where one searches for understanding through opposing arguments. “Bakhtin’s theory or philosophy is pragmatically oriented theory of knowledge; more particularly, it is one of several modern epistemologies that seek to grasp human behavior through the use humans make of language” (Holquist, 1990, p.15). Bakhtin is situated in epistemology by his fundamental concept of dialogic language. When all participants enter into a world of dialogism, the triad is in constant interaction with each other and with himself. Both dialogism and relational dialectics are based on the primacy of the social. “Social life is an unfinished, ongoing dialogue in which a polyphony of dialectical voices struggle against one another to be heard which sets the stage for future struggles (Baxter and Montgomery, 1996, p.4). Both theories assume that all meaning is achieved by struggle.

Therefore, “dialogism is ultimately an epistemology founded on a loophole” because for Bakhtin, dialogue is never ending. It is continuous with neither a start nor a finish (Holquist, 1990, p.39). “For nothing is absolutely dead: every meaning will someday have its homecoming festival.”

However, Baxter and Montgomery invite us to consider an ontological approach to dialectics as a means of understanding communication of personal relationships in which reality is viewed as dynamic interplay with opposing forces (p.19). Bakhtin’s approach to dialectics has been labeled “dialogic” and both words are so clearly related that Baxter and Montgomery refer to these terms interchangeably in their text since dialogism was conveniently created to refer to

Bakhtin's interconnected set of concerns regarding human behavior and humans' use of language.

Buber's Dialogic Theory

Using the words of Richard Johannesen, Martin Buber places dialogue at "the heart of human communication and existence" through two types of human relations, I-Thou and I-It. When humans interact with each other through dialogue, the development of self, personality and knowledge occurs. In Buberian terms, meaning and a sense of "self" can only occur in the "between" of dialogic relationships. Hence, the I-Thou is the dialogical relationship while I-It is monological, with focus on the self. When one is engaged in the I-It, Johannesen says, the human is objectified and not encountered as a whole person. In this realm, the communication is not impersonal and characterized by self-centeredness.

Like Buber, Bakhtin also maintains that there is a significant difference between dialogue and monologue and sees it as secondary to dialogue and as having a "different ontological status". "Dialogue is real, monologue is not; at worst, monologue is an illusion...or at best, [it] is a logical construct necessary to understand the working of dialogue" (Holquist, 1991, p.59). A monologic world "gravitates toward itself", does not recognize the Other's thoughts or ideas and "objectifies and quantifies human subjectivity and robs individual creativity of any real significance" (Gardiner, 1992, p.29). Like the I-Thou, Bakhtin refers to the dialogic as "double-voiced" because it always addresses someone and anticipates another's response and is united in a relationship "with the word of another" (p.28).

"The dialogical philosophy of Martin Buber poses a relational view of the person" in which he stressed "the relational potential of persons" in his I-Thou relationship. I-Thou is articulated in conjunction with the I-It relation in which ego and self-interest are predominant (Fishbane, 1998, p.41). The relations in Buber's dialogic theory have been described where the I-It is focused solely on the Self and "entails seeing the other through the lens of one's own needs or distortions" such as in business deals or even in sinister examples of abusive relationships where the other is used for selfish desires without considering the harm done (Fishbane, 1998, p.42). It is important to note that the I-It mode is not always harmful, and is sometimes appropriate depending on the

historical moment, for every relationship cannot always be lived in the I-Thou. Fishbane claims it would be inappropriate and inefficient if every human transaction were loaded with the demands of the I-Thou and having to relate to others in fullness of their own selves. In fact, Buber says that these relations are sometimes unavoidable in “routine, perfunctory, interactions”. But Buber cautions that because the I-It is focused on the Self, seeing people only in this fashion can be dangerous to the Other as it can reduce the humanity of Otherness and when they predominate our life and increasingly shut out dialogue (Johannesen, 1990).

When people are engaged in the dynamic I-Thou aspect of communicating, “the individual is aware of full, irreducible otherness of the partner in dialogue” (Fishbane, 1998, p.42). The focus of attention is no longer on the self, but on the other. When people are relating in the I-Thou, Buber says that a “dialogical space” opens where meaning occurs, not in either one or both of the people but in the interhuman meeting space or the “between”.

The I-Thou “formulated the preoccupation of [Buber’s] mature years, the principle of dialogue between man and man. In addition, it should be noted that “Man” is used in a generic sense encompassing all humankind. “From the I-Thou relationship between individuals arises the hope of dialogue between groups, communities, nations” (Fuller, 1984).

Maurice Friedman explains Buber’s dialogic theory I-It and I-Thou in The Life of Dialogue where the I-Thou is characterized as the relations accompanied by such things as mutuality, directness, presentness, intensity, and ineffability and the Thou may include but it not limited to animals, objects of nature and God and man. So if I-Thou is the relation, the I-It, he says, is the experiencing and using that takes place within a man and not between him and the world. Therefore, this relationship is subjective and lacking in mutuality. “The It of I-It may equally well be a he, a she, an animal, a thing, a spirit, or even a God, without a change in the primary word” (p.57).

The “I-Thou” relationship is “direct, mutual, present, and open” whereas the “I-It” is a subject-object relation where there is an indirect relating that is “nonmutually, knowing and using the other” (Friedman, 1976, p.25). Friedman contends that Buber later regards the I-Thou as a genuine dialogue where the psychological is only the accompaniment of the dialogue between persons and the significance is in what happens

between them rather than what goes on within the minds of the participants.

Friedman (1998) has focused on the source of the moral ought. He says that for Buber, the source is “found in the unmediated response to what addresses us” and Buber’s “ontology of the between” is what he calls the touchstone of reality where “all real living is meeting”. The source of the moral ought then, for Buber was the meeting between persons. He considers distancing and relating as “two primal movements” that underlie Buber’s I-Thou relationship.

Providing a metaphorical definition of Buber’s I-Thou dialogue, Arnett offers four major ideas in “What is Dialogic Communication?” in order to differentiate the dialogic from an “individualized dialogue”. These include “narrow ridge,” “between” which is a central theme of this essay and will be discussed in detail at a later point, “common center,” and “community.” The “narrow ridge” is explained as a way of “walking between extremes in order to find a third alternative” (p.54). It is here, between these unity of contraries-- such as good and evil, individual and group-- where an individual can find a “home between extremes.”

The “narrow ridge” is considered as “the foundation of community” for Buber, because it recognizes the strain between individual and group demands,” says Arnett (p.54). When the individual and group are focused on a “common core” or what is also called a mission, one can begin to recognize Buber’s perception of community. The “common center” allows for dialogue between persons to occur. Arnett argues that the “common center” can be recognized not only in community, but also in an interpersonal relationship because it is “the rhetorical vision or collectively accepted mission or task that rings people together in conversation” (p.55). For it is the tension between persons who are contributing to the “common center”, he says, that continues the conversation. It is not a total agreement among participants, as one would expect.

When a person is a participant in the “common center”, rather than the actual center, the notion of Buber’s “between” emerges. The “between” or “interhuman” is “a story in which partners in conversation participate as they simultaneously engage in the writing of the narrative (Arnett, 1989, p.55). Arnett argues that even in the midst of disagreement, the participants must keep the conversation going by

adding to the narrative, also known as the narrow ridge dialogue. The narrow ridge does not advocate “commonality of thought” but rather a “story of listening with one’s whole being, confirming the other in the midst of disagreement, and agreeing that keeping the lines of communication open” are essential for dialogic communication (p.56).

In short, Arnett summarizes Buber’s I-Thou communication in three ways:

First, Buber does not consider self-actualization the goal of life. At best, it is a by-product of human interaction. Second, Buber places more trust in tensions played out between persons than in any one individual. Third, Buber affirms the importance of a “common center” to be as significant as the participants themselves. It is the “common center,” not self-actualization, that is at the heart of Buber’s dialogue” (p.56).

In another metaphorical explanation, Johannesen describes Buber’s “four major attitudinal dimensions of dialogue” that are present in his writings: authenticity, inclusion, confirmation, and presentness. He says, “authenticity means that we are direct, honest, and straightforward in communicating all information and feelings that are relevant and legitimate for the subject at hand.” (Johannesen, 2000, p.153) One considers the needs of ourselves and of the participants while striking a balance between direct and honest communication and appropriateness or disclosure level.

Inclusion is described as attempting to see or experience the other’s side or viewpoint without sacrificing our own convictions. “We attempt to understand factually and emotionally the other’s experience” (Johannesen, 2000, p.154). Inclusiveness is realization of the Other through being and “the extension of one’s own concreteness, the fulfillment of the actual situation of life, the complete presence of the reality in which one participates” (Buber, 1965, p.97). Buber’s three elements for inclusion are 1) a relation of any kind between two people, 2) a common experienced event where at least one participates, and 3) this active participant experiences the event through the eyes or standpoint of the Other. (Buber, 1965, p.97).

In confirmation “we express nonpossessive concern for the other” and value their worth as a human being. When we are engaged in dialogue with someone, we view him or her as a whole person rather

than simply tolerating them even in opposition. Even if we do not wholeheartedly approve of our partners views or see eye to eye with them on corresponding issues, we can still appreciate their uniqueness.

Lastly, Johannesen defines presentness as being available and mindful to the participants in dialogue with which we are engaged. This includes “taking time, avoiding distraction, being communicatively accessible, and risking attachment” (Johannesen, 2000, p.154).

The “Between”

In “Foundations of Dialogic Communication”, Stewart discusses the characteristic or “basic dialogic phenomena” known to communication scholars as “the dynamic, complex, context-dependent communicative “ ‘transaction,’ ” “ ‘reciprocal bond,’ ” “ ‘between,’ ” or “ ‘relationship’ ” which is prominent in both Buber and Bakhtin’s dialogic theories (184). He quotes Poulakis by saying that the “between” or “relationship” involves much more than “ the mere sum of two individual entities.” It is “ the interhuman force which sustains dialogue” (Poulakis, 1974, p.208-09).

Stewart argues that it is essential to have a clear understanding of what the “relationship” or “between” actually is before one can understand relationship development concepts such as self-disclosure, self-assertion, and empathic listening. However, scholars of dialogic communication face a challenge in defining the “between”, a definition that goes beyond “a casually-based discussion of the participants, the meeters” (Stewart, 1978, p.199). Although scholars recognize that human understandings and identities are co-created, a vocabulary is lacking to describe this “collaborative, negotiated, transactional, relational set of realities” (Stewart, 1994, p.xiii). Stewart credits Buber as one of the first thinkers to recognize the need for a construct that showed the significance of human life and so he created “the between.”

Maurice Friedman describes Martin Buber’s notion of the “between” as “the reciprocal relationship of whole and active beings” where both personality and knowledge come into being between the I and the Thou in dialogue. It is here, in the between, where the knowing of the I-Thou relations becomes apparent which can be considered neither subjective nor objective, emotional or rational as it is in the subject-object knowledge of the I-It relation.

Others consider the “between” as “the space that intermingles the boundaries of Self and an Other, which are themselves clearly not demarcated” (Misfud and Johnson, 2000, p.96). It is here, in this space where communicative action takes place in an “environment of genuine concern for the ‘Between’” that is always being formed or always becoming and never being through the Self and the Other (Misfud and Johnson, 2000, p.97).

The relation between Self and Other is a third entity which requires both, but is greater than the two. The third entity has been called a “spiritual child” produced by the Self and the Other. Zephyr says that this child, like a human child, is dependent upon its parents, but is separate from them and their controlling behaviors (Cissna and Anderson, 1998, p.23).

For meaning to occur between two people, they must be engaged in an I-Thou relationship which suggests a mutuality. The meeting place where meaning takes place is what Buber calls the interhuman, the “between”. Buber says “the meaning is to be found neither in one of the two partners nor in both together, but only in their dialogue itself, in this “between” which they live together” (Buber, 1965, p.75).

This meeting place, as it is most often described, is what Buber referred to as the sphere of genuine community or “the place and bearer of what happens between men.”

In the most powerful moments of dialogue, where “deep calls unto deep,” the narrow ridge, on the far side of the subjective “inner” impression and on this side of objective “outer” event, is the place where I and Thou meet, the realm of “between.” Only from this knowledge of the eternal meeting of the one with the other can we recover the genuine person again and establish genuine community.” (Friedman, 1991, p.247).

In this sphere of communicating, there is a commonality for each of the participants but it goes beyond any individual spheres that might exist. This sphere of the “between” is “established with the existence of man as man but is conceptually still uncomprehended” (Buber, 1965, p.203). The “between” is the actual phenomena, the “real place and bearer” of what happens between persons and is in a state of constant change due to the continuous encounters of persons. Buber claims that even if we take the same path day after day, our encounter of another

man can never be repeated and is unique though we can meet the same man many times over. Therefore, the “between” can never be the same thing twice just as our experiences can never be the same.

Although Bakhtin does not use the literal metaphor “between” in his writings, the nonverbal elements used in his dialogic theory constitute the realm of interhuman thirdness where meaning occurs. The utterance and speech genre work simultaneously to create an opening in dialogue between participants.

Utterance

The utterance is considered central to Bakhtinian ideology and “provide building blocks for the logosphere just as atoms do for the material world”. Utterance is synonymous with duality in that people interact simultaneously when speaking and listening instead of performing one function at a time, as previously thought. Discourse is an action where “the speaker listens and the listener speaks” and the utterance is a link in a “very complexly organized chain of communication” (Morson, 1991, p.63).

Utterances are aware of the otherness of language and the dialogic partners involved and presuppose the potential response of the other. This social aspect of the utterance assumes that the utterance is always addressed to someone (at least the speaker and receiver) and that the speaker is always a social being. “Discourse is oriented toward the person addressed, oriented towards what that person is” (Todorov, 1984) According to Bakhtin, utterance is made to be of a specific social, historic, concrete and dialogized manner. In “Marxism and the Philosophy of Language”, it states, “in the verbal medium, in each utterance, however trivial it may be, [a] living dialectical synthesis is constantly taking place between the psyche and ideology, between the inner and outer” (Voloshinov, 1973, p.40). From this statement, one can see the importance of the utterance in dialogue and its fundamental presence in relationships, either with the self or between participants. The utterance is distinct from a unit of language -- words and sentences-- because utterance is always produced in a social context, and between two socially organized persons, whereas the sentence does not require this. It is social in that the utterance is addressed to someone, making it a relationship at the basic level of speaker and receiver and secondly, the

person initiating the utterance is human and thus already social (Todorov,1984, p.43).

Utterance entails the verbal and nonverbal elements in communication or a simultaneous exchange between what is said and what is simply assumed but not spoken. Written or spoken words are merely symbols that have no meaning in and of themselves. The words, or language, we use are arbitrary letter combinations that stand for referents about which we speak. They are neutral and situated in emotion according to Bakhtin. It is the speaker's attitude toward the subject that determines the expressive act. "Unlike sentences which are the fundamental units of language, utterances, as the fundamental units of conversation, can be as brief as a barely audible vocalization, silent as a pause, and as fleeting as a glance, or as sustained as a novel or life (Hawes,1999, p.240).

Speech Genre

In The Problem of Speech Genre, Bakhtin says that in each utterance, regardless of the complexity of the material (a spoken word or an elaborate literary work), "we embrace, understand, and sense the speaker's speech plan or speech will, which determines the entire utterance, its length and boundaries. We imagine to ourselves what the speaker wishes to say" (p.77). Furthermore, Bakhtin contends that it is this speech will that is situated in a particular speech genre.

Morson says that the will of a speaker can be comprehended in his choosing of speech genre in any given circumstance. As we learn to speak, we come to appreciate and know the forms of utterances in which we participate but it does not end with infancy, it continues throughout our lives. In fact, when we learn how to speak, we learn how to construct utterances in generic forms, but when we hear the speech of others, we deduce its genre and anticipate the length of the speech act. In essence, we can anticipate the entire speech act even before it has begun. The depth of the content is not important to the genre as everyday oral conversation is cast in a definite generic form (genre). A genre is thought to be learned in the same manner as our native language; we master the tasks long before we begin to study the grammatical make up of language.

The Third Alternative

Martin Buber on the third alternative:
[Human existence]...is rooted in one being turning to another as another...in order to communicate with it in a sphere which is common to them but which reaches out beyond the special sphere of each. I call this sphere, which is established with the existence of man as man but which is conceptually still uncomprehended, the sphere of the "between"... it is a primal category of human reality. This is where the genuine third alternative must begin (Buber,1965, p.203).

Concern for oneself and the Other instead of simply redistributing power is the foundation for the "narrow ridge" metaphor. The third alternative that Buber describes is walking a fine line between two extreme positions (Arnett, find date, p.36).

Friedman considers a third alternative to the common dialectical either/or thinking "that gives rise to polarized communication." "Buber's narrow ridge is no "happy middle" which ignores the reality of paradox and contradiction in order to escape from the suffering they produce. It is rather a paradoxical unity of what one usually understands only as alternatives—I and Thou, love and justice, dependence and freedom" (Arnett, 1986, p.36).

The "narrow ridge" can best be thought of as a "metaphor for human existence" (Friedman,1991, p.43). It is an existence where one must carefully and methodically walk a tightrope without falling to either the left side or the right side though "threatened at every moment by the danger of falling into the abysses" (p.44).

The equivalent of Buber's third alternative or "narrow ridge" is Bakhtin's superaddressee. The participants involved in dialogue must have a common knowledge of what is or has been discussed. If the enthymeme is the "password" for a commonality, then the utterance is the figurative "key" for the third participant to join the social conversation. The hero is never named, but Bakhtin notes that the hero is essential to the already existing dyad of speaker and listener.

The utterance and speech genre create an opening in a social conversation for a third party (not necessarily human) to enter. "The "hero" of this verbal production--has not yet assumed full and definitive

shape... his semantic equivalent has not been supplied and he remains nameless” (Davis and Schleifer, p. 478). Like Buber, Bakhtin believes that this created space is necessary for dialogic communication. This interhuman sphere “assumes various ideological expressions (God, absolute truth, the court of dispassionate human consciousness, the people, the court of history, and so forth)” (1986, p. 127). Holquist makes the assumption that if there were a God complex in Bakhtin’s writing, it would surely be that of the superaddressee. For without a faith in some supreme unconditional idea of being understood, one would be fearful of ever uttering a single word.

When the dialogic element of understanding enters the dialogic system, the utterance as a whole is changed. Bakhtin maintains that the person who understands becomes the third party in the dialogue. He notes that this thirdness is not quantitative or literal, as there can be many parties in a dialogue and understanding can still occur. However, it is the “dialogic position” of this third party that is “quite a special one.” In summary, the utterance is considered to be a dialogic event that involves the speaker or listener and the implied or actual listener.

Baxter and Montgomery interpret Bakhtin’s superaddressee in relation to the distal past, or not-yet-spoken. In essence, “every utterance is positioned at the boundary between the already-spoken of the distal past and the proximal past and its verbal and nonverbal expression in the present” (Baxter and Montgomery, 1996, p.28). A speaker anticipates the possible response of the listener and superaddressee when he or she constructs an utterance.

Furthermore, an utterance cannot be considered to be an individual act or a dyad between the sender and receiver. It is best thought of as a triad between the sender, the receiver, and the inner dialogues of the speaker and the superaddressee. It is this inner dialogue that “provide us with general set of expectations of relating that affect our predictions of how the other party will respond and how one’s actions would be assessed by a generalized other “superaddressee” (Baxter and Montgomery, 1996, p.118).

“For Buber, the meaning is in the narrative, the “common center” between persons. The narrative is co-constructed, created by the partners in a dialogue” (Arnett, 1986, p.580). For Bakhtin, speech is a paradigm for all human communication. The meanings in communication between participants are not in the words themselves, but

in the extraverbal components of utterance, speech genre, and intonation. And the “between” is Bakhtin’s superaddressee and Buber’s “common center”.

Conclusion

In summary, the dialogic theories of Martin Buber and Mikhail Bakhtin parallel each other. In Buber’s dialogic theory, dialogue is essential to human existence. Participants (Self and Other) either communicate in a monological fashion where the focus is on the Self or participants engage in a dialogic relationship of mutuality where meaning occurs not in their physical meeting, but in the space between them—the interhuman, the “between”. Walking the narrow ridge between a unity of contraries and not falling into either side of the “abyss” is the third alternative that allows for the meeting in the interhuman sphere of dialogue.

If we compare Mikhail Bakhtin’s dialogic theory to Martin Buber’s theory, we can see the striking similarities. First, Bakhtin also argues that dialogue is necessary for a relationship because it joins the Self and the Other in conversation. The self is nothing more than a sign with no absolute meaning in itself and the other person is crucial to the existence of the relationship. The self cannot exist alone for it needs the third alternative—the superaddressee. For meaning to take place, the dialogic relationship needs more than just language, it needs the triadic dimension of communication, the space where meaning occurs, the superaddressee.

Although the original intent of this essay was to compare the dialogic theories of two philosophers and discover any dissimilarities that exist, I have found more commonalities between them than not. Bakhtin extends the dialogic relationship of I-Thou communication and keeps the conversation going. An obvious difference is that language is a necessary ingredient for Bakhtin’s dialogic theory as dialogism is the “philosophy of language”, although not in a purely linguistic sense. Buber places little emphasis on language and more on dialogue. Both share the notion that there is a “between” or an “in-between-ness” in dialogic communication where meaning takes place between the Self and the Other. In both cases, monologue is thought to objectify the Self whereas dialogue appreciates the Other.

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Academic Advisor Effectiveness and Student Satisfaction as a Function of Perceived Advisor Communicator Style

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Abstract

This study examined the extent to which perceived academic advisors' use of communicator style attributes predicted advisees' perceptions of advisors' effectiveness, advisees' communication satisfaction with their advisors, and advisees' satisfaction with their contact with advisors. Participants were 182 undergraduate college students. It was found that (a) advisor effectiveness was predicted by the friendly, attentive, precise, and open attributes; (b) advisee communication satisfaction was predicted by the friendly, attentive, impression leaving, relaxed, and contentious attributes; and (c) advisee satisfaction with contact was predicted by the friendly, attentive, impression leaving, and the contentious attributes.

Academic advising occurs when an institutional representative provides students with advice, insight, or direction about academic, social, or personal matters (Kuhn & Padak, 2008). For many college students, the institutional representative regarded as the most essential and influential in providing academic advising is the academic advisor. Often the academic advisor acts as an information provider, a campus and community resource, a student advocate, a counselor, and a mentor (Petress, 1996; Propp & Rhodes, 2006). As such, it is not surprising that students view their academic advisors positively (Bitz, 2010; Davis & Cooper, 2001), perceive them advisors as personable (Smith, 2002), and respond favorably when they embody communicative traits that are relational in nature (Mottarella, Fritzsche, & Cerabino, 2004; Nadler & Nadler, 1999).

Because the academic advisor-advisee relationship is communicative in nature (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005), it is likely that how advisors communicate with their advisees influences how advisees evaluate their participation in this relationship. One way to assess how advisors communicate with their advisees is through communicator style.

Communicator style is conceptualized as the way an individual “verbally, nonverbally, and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, filtered, or understood” (Norton, 1978, p. 99) and is considered to be a pervasive form of self-presentation (Norton, 1986). Not only does an individual’s communicator style establish boundaries for how message content should and should not be interpreted (Norton, 1986), but also it creates expectations for how an individual will communicate with an audience in a given relational context and provides a guide for how audience member should respond or react to the individual (Norton, 1983; Nussbaum, 1982, 1992).

An individual’s communicator style can be comprised of any combination of 10 communicative attributes, which are dominant, dramatic, contentious, animated, impression leaving, relaxed, attentive, open, friendly, and precise (Norton, 1978, 1983). Based on Norton’s conceptualizations of each attribute, Myers and Rocca (2007) offered that a *dominant* communicator possesses a “take charge” attitude by talking louder, longer, and more frequently than others; a *dramatic* communicator acts as an effective storyteller and often relies on linguistic and literary devices to underscore content; a *contentious* communicator likes to engage in debate and may get somewhat hostile, quarrelsome, or argumentative; an *animated* communicator is physically active and relies heavily on nonverbal behaviors such as eye contact, facial expression, and gesture to underscore content; and an *impression leaving* communicator is deemed memorable by the impact made on the relational partner. They further offered that a *relaxed* communicator appears to be calm, anxiety-free, and at ease; an *attentive* communicator is alert and focused on listening to a relational partner; an *open* communicator is unreserved, straightforward, and does not appear to have any problems communicating thoughts and emotions; a *friendly* communicator recognize the relational partner in a kind and caring manner; and a *precise* communicator is accurate and uses well-defined arguments to clarify or support a position.

In the higher educational environment, the study of communicator style has focused largely on the instructor-student relationship, particularly in terms of perceived instructor teaching effectiveness. Norton (1977) found that students consider effective instructors to use the impression leaving, attentive, friendly, relaxed, and precise attributes; Norton and Nussbaum (1980) found that students

consider effective instructors to use the dramatic attribute; and Comadena, Semlak, and Escott (1992) found that students consider effective instructors to use the impression leaving, friendly, and attentive attributes. College students rate “better” instructors as being more impression leaving, friendly, relaxed, dramatic, and open than “worse” instructors (Andersen, Norton, & Nussbaum, 1981; Schroeder & Leber, 1993); they also rate “above average” instructors as being more attentive, more precise, and less contentious than “below average” instructors (Bednar & Brandenburg, 1984). Furthermore, perceived instructors’ use of the friendly, attentive, relaxed, and dramatic attributes are the best predictors of students’ satisfaction with classroom communication (Prisbell, 1994).

Similar findings may exist in the academic advisor-advisee relationship. Extant research has revealed that advisees’ perceptions of whether they consider their advisors to be effective are linked somewhat to how their advisors communicate with them. For instance, Nadler and Nadler (1999) found that when their advisors communicate in an empathic manner, students not only are likely and willing to discuss both personal and academic matters with them, but also they are likely to meet with their advisors. Barnett, Roach, and Smith (2006) discovered that when advisors are trained to listen effectively to their advisees, advisees perceive that their advisors are interested in them, understand their issues and concerns, and are able to make them feel comfortable. Nadler and Simerly (2006) reported that advisees trust their advisors when they perceive that their advisors are listening to them. To examine which communicator style attributes contribute to advisees’ perceptions of their advisors’ effectiveness, the following research question is posed:

RQ1: Among advisees, to what extent does perceived advisor communicator style attributes predict perceived advisor effectiveness?

At the same time, advisees who are satisfied with their advisors generally report that their advisors take a personal interest in them, recognize them by name, are accessible and generous with their time, provide practical help, and communicate with them in a friendly manner (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986). Their satisfaction with their advisors increases when advisors establish a warm and supportive relationship--rather than a business-like and efficient relationship (Mottarella et al., 2004)--and

when advisors provide them with accurate information about degree requirements; help them with course selection that meets their academic, career, and life goals; and counsel them about how to select an academic major (Smith & Allen, 2006). Moreover, when advisees are satisfied with their academic advisors, they increase the frequency with which they interact with their advisors (Hester, 2008; Lowe & Toney, 2000-2001). To explore which communicator style attributes contribute to advisees' perceptions of their communication satisfaction with their advisors and their satisfaction with the amount of contact with their advisors, the following research questions are posed:

RQ2: Among advisees, to what extent does perceived advisor communicator style attributes predict their communication satisfaction?

RQ3: Among advisees, to what extent does perceived advisor communicator style attributes predict their satisfaction with advisor contact?

Method

Participants

Participants were 182 undergraduate students (97 male, 85 female) enrolled in several introductory communication courses at a large Mid-Atlantic university. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 40 years ($M = 20.95$, $SD = 2.20$). The majority of participants reported their ethnicity as Caucasian ($n = 152$, or 84%); the remaining participants reported their ethnicity as Asian or Asian American ($n = 3$), Hispanic or Latino ($n = 1$), Black or African American ($n = 9$), American Indian ($n = 3$), multi-ethnic ($n = 3$), or other ($n = 6$). Twenty five ($n = 25$) participants were first-year students, 33 participants were sophomores, 63 participants were juniors, and 61 participants were seniors. The majority of participants ($n = 168$, or 92%) reported that they were in good academic standing. No other demographic data about the participants were collected.

Together, the participants referenced 61 male academic advisors and 114 female academic advisors (seven participants failed to identify the sex of their advisor) who were located in an advising center ($n = 34$), an academic department ($n = 136$), or another department on campus (n

= 11). Of these advisors, participants reported that 73 were professional advisors and 106 were faculty advisors, with six participants failing to identify the status of their advisor. Participants' primary method for remaining in contact with their academic advisors primarily either was through e-mail ($n = 97$, or 53%; average number of e-mail messages sent was 3.34, $SD = 3.93$) or through face-to-face contact ($n = 77$, or 42%; average number of face-to-face meetings was 2.73, $SD = 1.43$). No other demographic data about their advisors were collected.

Procedures and Instrumentation

Data collection occurred during Weeks 14 and 15 of a 16-week Spring semester, ensuring that participants were familiar with their academic advisors. Following approval from the university's Institutional Review Board, participants attended one of several data gathering sessions held outside of regularly scheduled class time. Upon arrival at the data gathering session, participants were given a survey that asked them to (a) identify their advisor (by initials), (b) provide a host of demographic data about their advisor and (c) complete four instruments in reference to their advisor: the Communicator Style Measure (Norton, 1978), the Student Communication Satisfaction Scale (Goodboy, Martin, & Bolkan, 2009), the Advisor Effectiveness subscale of the Advising Survey (Lynch, 2004), and the Advisor Contact subscale (Bitz, 2010). Responses to all items on each instrument were solicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). These instruments were completed in one of two sequences to control for order effects.

The *Communicator Style Measure* is a 51-item instrument that asks participants to assess the extent to which they use each of the 10 attributes (i.e., friendly, impression leaving, relaxed, contentious, attentive, precise, dramatic, animated, open, and dominant). In this study, the instrument was modified by (a) changing the wording to target the academic advisor and (b) asking participants to assess the extent to which they considered their academic advisor to use each of the 10 attributes. Previous Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .50 to .87 have been reported for the 10 attributes (Comadena et al., 1992; Myers, Mottet, & Martin, 2000; Rovai, 2003). In this study, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .47 to .85 were

reported for the 10 attributes: friendly, $\alpha = .85$ ($M = 3.65$, $SD = .90$); impression leaving, $\alpha = .74$ ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .79$); relaxed, $\alpha = .75$ ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .74$); contentious, $\alpha = .75$ ($M = 2.38$, $SD = .79$); attentive, $\alpha = .75$ ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .83$); precise, $\alpha = .54$ ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .65$); dramatic, $\alpha = .47$ ($M = 2.70$, $SD = .68$); animated, $\alpha = .65$ ($M = 3.17$, $SD = .72$); open, $\alpha = .70$ ($M = 3.03$, $SD = .81$); and dominant, $\alpha = .63$ ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .83$).

The *Student Communication Scale* is an eight item instrument that asks participants to rate the extent to which they are satisfied with their communication with their instructors. In this study, the instrument was modified by changing the wording to target the academic advisor and reflect the academic advising setting. Previous Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .93 to .98 have been obtained for the instrument (Goodboy et al., 2009). In this study, a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .95 ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .96$) was obtained for the instrument.

Both the Advisor Effectiveness subscale and the Advisor Contact subscale instruments are part of larger instruments developed to assess students' attitudes toward their academic advisors at a specific university, but unlike the other two instrument, they have not been used widely beyond their respective institutions. The *Advisor Effectiveness subscale* is an eight item instrument that asks participants to evaluate the performance of their academic advisor. Because one item measures satisfaction, this item was removed from the instrument, resulting in the use of a seven item instrument. In his study of students' perceptions of academic advising, Lynch (2004) did not provide a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the instrument. The *Advisor Contact subscale* is a four item instrument that asks participants to indicate the extent to which they agree that they are satisfied with their contact with their academic advisor. In her study of students' perceptions of academic advising, Binz (2010) obtained a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .89 for the instrument. In this study, a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .89 ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .87$) was obtained for the effectiveness subscale and a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .90 ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.02$) was obtained for the contact subscale.

Results

Prior to analyzing the data, a series of *t*-tests was conducted to examine whether any significant differences exist between professional advisors and faculty advisors on each of the 10 communicator style attributes, perceived advisor effectiveness, advisee communication satisfaction, and advisee contact satisfaction. No significant differences were obtained between professional advisors and faculty advisors on any of the variables; thus, the data was analyzed using the entire sample.

To analyze each of the three research questions, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed with the communicator style attributes (i.e., friendly, impression leaving, relaxed, contentious, attentive, precise, animated, and open) serving simultaneously as the independent variables and effectiveness, communication satisfaction, and contact satisfaction serving alternately as the dependent variable. Prior to conducting the regression analyses, however, a series of Pearson Product-Moment correlations was computed among the 10 communicator style attributes and effectiveness, communication satisfaction, and contact satisfaction (see Table 1). Due to the lack of a significant correlation between both the dramatic and the dominant attributes and each of the three dependent variables, the dramatic and the dominant attributes were not included in each regression analysis. The remaining eight communicator style attributes were entered simultaneously as one block in each regression analysis. For each regression analysis, multicollinearity was assessed using Mertler and Vannatta's (2002) criteria for examining the tolerance statistic (i.e., .10 or less) and the variance inflation factor (VIF; i.e., greater than 10). In this study, the lowest tolerance statistic was .25 and the highest VIF statistic was 3.89; thus, it was determined that multicollinearity was not an issue.

The first research question inquired about the extent to which perceived advisor communicator style attributes predict advisor effectiveness. For perceived effectiveness, a significant model was obtained, $R^2 = .77$, $F(8, 173) = 32.15$, $p < .001$, with the friendly attribute ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$), the attentive attribute ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$), the precise attribute ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$), and the open attribute ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$) emerging as significant predictors. The impression leaving attribute ($\beta = .07$, $p = .37$), the relaxed attribute ($\beta = .07$, $p = .19$), the contentious

attribute ($\beta = -.07, p = .27$), and the animated attribute ($\beta = -.07, p = .31$) failed to emerge as significant predictors of perceived advisor effectiveness.

The second research question inquired about the extent to which perceived advisor communicator style attributes predict advisee communication satisfaction. For communication satisfaction, a significant model was obtained, $R^2 = .84, F(8, 173) = 51.86, p < .001$, with the friendly attribute ($\beta = .36, p < .001$), the attentive attribute ($\beta = .20, p < .05$), the impression leaving attribute ($\beta = .16, p < .05$), the relaxed attribute ($\beta = .15, p < .01$), and the contentious attribute ($\beta = -.19, p < .001$) emerging as significant predictors. The precise attribute ($\beta = .06, p = .35$), the animated attribute ($\beta = -.72, p = .47$), and the open attribute ($\beta = .05, p = .34$) failed to emerge as significant predictors of advisee communication satisfaction with advisors.

The third research question inquired about the extent to which perceived advisor communicator style attributes predict advisee satisfaction with advisor contact. For satisfaction with contact, a significant model was obtained, $R^2 = .75, F(8, 173) = 26.95, p < .001$, with the friendly attribute ($\beta = .33, p < .001$), the attentive attribute ($\beta = .23, p < .05$), the impression leaving attribute ($\beta = .19, p < .05$), and the contentious attribute ($\beta = -.13, p < .05$) emerging as significant predictors. The relaxed attribute ($\beta = .10, p = .08$), the precise attribute ($\beta = .09, p = .22$), the animated attribute ($\beta = -.06, p = .39$), and the open attribute ($\beta = -.07, p = .29$) failed to emerge as significant predictors of advisee satisfaction with their advisor contact.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which perceived academic advisor communicator style attributes predict advisor effectiveness, advisee communication satisfaction, and advisee satisfaction with advisor contact. In examining the collective findings of this study, it appears that when it comes to advisees' perceptions of their advisors' communicator style attributes, whether advisors are considered to use the friendly attribute and the attentive attribute is central to advisees' positive perceptions of the advisor-advisee relationship. Additionally, several other style attributes (i.e., precise, open, impression

leaving, relaxed, and contentious) play a role in advisee perceptions of this relationship.

Of the 10 communicator style attributes, two attributes--the friendly attribute and the attentive attribute--emerged as the primary predictors across perceived advisor effectiveness, advisee communication satisfaction, and advisee satisfaction with advisor contact. What this finding suggests is that advisees respond positively to advisors whom they consider to engage in communicative behaviors that affirm their presence and their involvement in the advisor-advisee relationship. According to Norton (1983), both the friendly attribute and the attentive attribute are "highly listener oriented" (p. 85). When individuals use these two attributes, they not only listen to the other person, but also they respond in such a way that informs the other person that they are reacting and responding to the person's actions, thoughts, and statements (Norton, 1983). Additionally, individuals who use the friendly attribute find pleasure in communicating with others (Villaume & Bodie, 2007) whereas individuals who use the attentive attribute signal their interest in their relational partner (Norton & Pettegrew, 1979). Interestingly, both attributes, along with the relaxed attribute, are viewed as attractive by relational partners (Norton & Pettegrew, 1977).

In the instructional environment, instructors who use the friendly attribute are considered to encourage their students, acknowledge their contributions, and express admiration for them (Andersen et al., 1981) and instructors who use the attentive attribute are considered to be receptive to students' needs, problems, and concerns (Myers et al., 2000). For advisees, having an advisor who embodies the friendly and the attentive attributes may be important because these attributes indicate that the advisor is interested in establishing a personal yet professional relationship with them. Beasley-Fielstein (1986) found that while students want their advisors to be involved in their academic lives, they do not necessarily want their advisors involved in their social or personal lives. "Personal mean[s] being personally acquainted, not intimately involved" (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986, p. 114) and for many students, having their advisors know them by name, being on a first name basis, and being recognized by their advisors outside of the advisor's office is the relationship they prefer to have with their advisors (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986). Advisors who use the friendly and the attentive attributes undoubtedly reinforce this preferred relationship because while this

relationship is welcoming and confirming, it also is neither threatening nor intrusive.

Two communicator style attributes--precise and open--also emerged as predictors of perceived advisor effectiveness, although the precise attribute emerged as a positive predictor and the open attribute emerged as a negative predictor. Because advisors are responsible for providing their advisees with information about university, general education, and degree requirements and advisees value foremost receiving accurate information from their advisors (Davis & Cooper, 2001; Smith & Allen, 2006), advisees may consider advisors who use the precise attribute to be effective because "preciseness . . . communicate[s] a concern for accuracy, documentation, and proof in informative and argumentative discourse" (Montgomery & Norton, 1981, p. 124). Conversely, the open attribute suggests that an individual communicates in a manner that is considered to be simultaneously personal, private, explanatory, and unambiguous (Norton, 1983), which may be a behavior that is not desired by advisees given that the communicative focus of the advisor-advisee relationship is on the advisee, not the advisor. Because some advisees prefer that their advisors play the role of information-giver rather than the role of caretaker (Fielstein, 1987), advisors who deviate from this preference may detract from advisee perceptions of advisor effectiveness.

Likewise, three communicator style attributes--impression leaving, relaxed, and contentious--emerged as predictors of advisee communication satisfaction and two communicator style attributes--impression leaving and contentious--emerged as predictors of advisee satisfaction with advisor contact, although the impression leaving attribute and the relaxed attribute emerged as positive predictors and the contentious attribute emerged as a negative predictor. There are two ways to interpret these findings. The first way is to consider that when individuals communicate using the friendly, attentive, and relaxed attributes, they are perceived to communicate in an affirming manner (Infante & Gorden, 1989). [Recall that an individual who uses the relaxed attribute is perceived as calm and collected or confident and comfortable (Norton, 1983).] Infante and Gorden (1991) posited that within the organizational setting, subordinates prefer to interact with superiors who communicate with them using an affirming style because this style reinforces positively the subordinates' self-concept. Because

dissatisfied students consider their advisors to be indifferent, impersonal, intimidating, and inaccessible (Beasley-Fielstein, 1986), it is plausible that these three attributes would act as predictors of communication satisfaction because communication satisfaction occurs when an individual's positive expectations are fulfilled during an interaction (Hecht, 1978b) and reflects the experience of an enjoyable and fulfilling encounter (Hecht, 1978a). Indeed, Infante and Gorden (1991) found that superiors who are perceived to be high in affirming style have subordinates who report greater levels of organizational satisfaction, satisfaction with their superior, and satisfaction with their work than superiors who are perceived to be low in affirming style. Similar findings might exist among advisees and should be considered in future research endeavors.

The second way is to consider that advisees' satisfaction with either their communication with their academic advisors or the amount of time they spend with their academic advisors may be influenced by the parameters that govern the advisor-advisee relationship. Unlike the relationships college students develop with other individuals at the collegiate level (e.g., instructors, residential hall staff), for some students, the advisor-advisee relationship usually is limited in terms of the frequency with which they visit their advisors as well as the amount of time spent during each visit. For instance, Nadler and Nadler (1999) found advisees, on average, visit their advisors less than two times, with the average visit lasting no longer than 24 minutes whereas Hester (2008) reported that the majority of advisees visit their advisors no more than four times during an academic year. When it comes to satisfaction with the amount of contact with their advisors, then, the amount of contact may be offset by the communicator style attributes exemplified by advisors during their contact time with advisees. According to Norton (1983), individuals who use the impression leaving attribute make a distinct impression on others. These individuals engage in affiliative expressiveness, are likable, and actively seek information about their relational partners (Norton, 1978). Individuals who use the contentious attribute are considered to be argumentative and quick to challenge a relational partner (Norton, 1978). In this case, advisees may report greater feelings of satisfaction when they perceive that their advisors adopt communicative behaviors that suggest their advisors are interested

in communicating with them (i.e., impression leaving), but at the same time, are not interested in challenging them (i.e., contentious).

One limitation of this study is that the topics discussed by advisees with their academic advisors during their advising appointments were not solicited. Because advising covers an extensive array of topics that range from discussing financial aid to selecting a major to course scheduling, it is possible that how advisors address these topics influences the extent to which they are considered to be effective. Nonetheless, the results obtained in this study suggest that perceived advisor communicator style attributes predicts advisee perceptions of advisor effectiveness, advisee communication satisfaction, and advisee satisfaction with advisor contact. Considering the ramifications of their communicator style may be one way in which advisors can enhance their perceived effectiveness, increase the communication satisfaction experience by their advisees, and boost the satisfaction advisees associate with spending time with them.

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**“Dark Areas of Ignorance” Revisited Again:
Has the Obama Election Effected the Knowledge Gap Between
American and European College Students?**

E. Sam Cox & Anya Luscombe

Abstract

This research is a focused continuation of a longitudinal comparison of knowledge of the news across the Atlantic. In 1949 Kriesberg published “Public Opinion: Dark Areas of Ignorance,” an analysis of American knowledge about key foreign policy. A follow-up by Smith was published in 1970 titled, “‘Dark Areas of Ignorance’ Revisited,” and another by Lyengar, Hahn, Bonfadelli and Marr in 2009—a comparison of knowledge in Switzerland and American. This paper is a partial replication of the Swiss-American comparison. We used the same questions when possible, updating questions about the Iraq war to the Afghanistan war in 2010. As exchange faculty at each other’s institutions, we assessed the knowledge of hard and soft news by our classes (n=85). While the expectation is that college students across the Atlantic will produce similar results to the general population, we hypothesize that the renewed interest in politics (verified by Pryor, Hurtado, DeAngelo, Blake and Tran in the HERI survey by UCLA The American Freshman: National Norms Fall 2009) generated during the election of President Obama will reduce the gap. Furthermore, we go beyond the 2009 “Dark Areas of Ignorance” study and determine the media used and the frequency by college students to learn the news. Therefore, this study continues the tracking of one bilateral comparison and investigates the specific theme of knowledge of international affairs by comparing students in two universities.

Introduction

The election of Barak Obama as President of the United States in 2008 was highly monitored by international news. For example, shortly after arriving in The Netherlands in January 2009, one of the authors and 15 American students were interviewed by a Dutch TV station as they

watched the live Inauguration Ceremonies. The American students were excited about this new ‘cool’ President and foreign nations were eager to work with a President who promised to listen to all the countries of the world. As Budd & Longanai (2010) have confirmed, university student involvement in politics was at a record high in 2008. In the run-up to his election and beyond, reports of a so-called “Obama effect” surfaced in many fields, from politics, economics and marketing to education. Obama had been the first candidate to make extensive use of multi-media platforms; he had managed to raise millions of dollars for his campaign fund by using social networking (Wheaton 2008), media particularly used by the younger generation. Samuels, Aarons and Manzo (2008) reported in *Education Week* that Obama’s victory ‘offered lessons in civics’ as the newly elected President performed an inspirational role. Research by Marx, Ko and Friedman (2009) suggested that the achievement gap in test-taking between African-American and white students lessened significantly during key moments of the presidential campaign. A study by Aronson et al (2009), however, found no evidence for such an effect.

During the spring semester of 2010 while we were Visiting Exchange Faculty Fellows at Roosevelt Academy and the University of Central Missouri, we decided to test the impact of the Obama election on knowledge of world events on American university students. One natural way to do this was to continue the longitudinal study begun in 1949 commonly known as “Dark Areas of Ignorance”, revisited by Smith in 1970 and by Lyengar, Hahn, Bonfadelli and Marr in 2009 who added a cross-cultural transatlantic comparison of knowledge component. Kriesberg’s 1949 paper “Public Opinion: Dark Areas of Ignorance,” examined to what extent the 148 million American citizens were informed about foreign policy, in particular the state of public information on the British Loan Proposal, the Greek-Turkish Aid Proposal and the Marshall Plan. Public Opinion polls by Gallup at the time indicated less than a quarter of the electorate was ‘informed’ on foreign affairs and approximately one-third had sufficient knowledge about domestic issues. (52-53). The voters were mainly reached by radio and newspaper, not surprisingly as television was still in its infancy, with 80 percent stating that they regularly read a daily or weekly newspaper. Smith (1970) considered the implications of a 1966 multiple choice test of a national cross-section of adult Americans, in which participants

scored an average of just 46 on a 100 point scale on ten questions about Vietnam. Smith concluded that ‘interest in, and knowledge about, foreign affairs,[since Kriesberg] have seemingly made little inroad into the psychological field of the [...] bulk of the population.’ (673).

Lyengar et al (2009) compared knowledge of international affairs in Switzerland and the United States. Their results indicated that on issues of hard news the Swiss were considerably more informed than their Americans counterparts (a 30 point gap in overall knowledge) and the authors argued that this difference was due to higher levels of news exposure (greater demand) and the greater availability of international news in Switzerland. The research also suggested the US respondents performed better on “soft news” than on “hard”, but that they were nevertheless still slightly less informed on soft news than the Swiss. Not part of the “Dark Areas” series of articles, but an indicator of areas of ignorance nonetheless, are studies showing the amount of – or lack of - geographical knowledge by American people. The National Geographic-Roper report of 2006 suggests that despite years of constant news coverage of thousands of US troops in Iraq fighting bloody battles with insurgents, 63% of those surveyed could not locate Iraq on a map of the Middle East. Even fewer people could identify Indonesia, despite images of the devastating tsunami which had been prominent news material for many months in 2005.

This research is a focused continuation of a longitudinal comparison of knowledge of the news across the Atlantic; in particular, it is a partial replication of the Swiss-American comparison carried out by Iyengar et al. We used the same questions when possible, updating questions about the Iraq war to the Afghanistan war in 2010. As exchange faculty at each other’s institutions, we assessed the knowledge of hard and soft news by our classes (n=85). While the expectation is that college students across the Atlantic will produce similar results to the general population, we hypothesize that the renewed interest in politics generated during the election of President Obama will reduce the gap. Just as Iyengar et al, we postulate that news coverage in the United States is more oriented towards domestic stories than European news and we go beyond the 2009 “Dark Areas of Ignorance” study and determine the actual media used and the frequency by college students to learn the news. Therefore, this study continues the tracking of one bilateral

comparison and investigates the specific theme of knowledge of international affairs by comparing students in two universities.

Hypothesis -- The renewed interest in politics generated during the election of President Obama will reduce the news knowledge gap between American and Dutch students.

Research Question -- Where do students get their news?

Methodology

This study was a partial replication of the Swiss-American comparison by Lyengar, Hahn, Bonfadelli and Marr conducted in 2005 (published 2009). The questions asked were a combination of news/current affairs questions and (general) knowledge. We used the same questions when possible, but updated questions (e.g. question about the Iraq war to the Afghanistan war in 2010 or Kyoto protocol to Danish Earth summit of December 2009) or changed questions that we deemed to be no longer newsworthy. We also inserted some questions with particular reference to Obama himself to see to what extent the reported renewed interest in politics and this new internationally oriented President would translate into knowledge about him. As exchange faculty at each other's institutions, we assessed the knowledge of hard and soft news by our classes (n=85). This study would be a pilot study, given that no published works were available that documented an increase in the knowledge of world affairs by American youth due to the Obama election. Pryor et al (2009) only confirmed an increase in interest in politics during 2008. Thus, the authors hypothesized that the reported renewed interest in politics generated during the election of President Obama would reduce the gap between American and mainly Dutch university students. Furthermore, given the massive reliance on social media by the Obama campaign, we wanted to know where do students get their news. It is important to note that Roosevelt Academy is an international honors college based in the Netherlands, where approximately two-thirds of the students have the Dutch nationality and the other third represent some 50 different countries. All classes are taught in English and the faculty have many different nationalities, so it could be argued that the (Dutch) students who have chosen to study at

Roosevelt Academy are more internationally oriented and perhaps more aware of international affairs than counterparts at regular Dutch universities. Similarly, just less than one-half of the American students were “Honors Students” at the University of Central Missouri. Thus, in spite of differences in student populations, each collective still provided a useful pilot study of each country’s knowledge. Table 1 provides the questions asked by Inyengar et al and the questions asked in this study.

After asking the students their perceptions of the top news story in 2009 and forced choice questions about their news sources (Questionnaire Part I) we asked open-ended and multiple answer questions about the attempted airline bombing and the discovery of Susan Boyle’s talent (Part II). Finally, the eleven fact-based questions based on the Swiss study were asked (Part III).

Eighty-five students from 4 classes at 2 universities were given a questionnaire during the first class of the semester (mid-January 2010 at UCM and first week of February at RA). See Appendix A for the questionnaire. Each researcher began by asking:

In order for me to be the best teacher I can be I need to collect some data from you. Since I believe we as a class will generate knowledge, I need to better understand what you know so I can best facilitate our class. So please carefully and honestly answer every question. Do not put your names on the sheet since I only want to understand where we are as a class, not which of you knows what. Take as much time as you need. When you have completed your answers, I will collect them and I ask that you sit quietly until everyone has finished.

Independently, each researcher identified the correct answers and then collaborated until agreement was reached on “partial” or “unclear” answers. For example, if a student only said the PM of Great Britain was Cameron, it was tabulated as correct without his first name. Similarly, correct answers for the question about the Copenhagen Summit included both “climate change” and “global warming.” The percentage of correct answers within each class (all four classes) were tabulated and then combined and compared. See Table 2. Next the combined percentages for each institution were calculated and compared for a “gap” or difference percentage. Also, answers by both classes at each school to the open-ended questions were combined and percentages of responses

provided. See Table 3. Finally, percentages of answers to Part II were calculated for each source for where students learned their news. Hard news was separated from and where they learned their soft news. Calculated percentages were compared. See Tables 4 and 5.

Results

To assess our hypothesis, we compared the institutional averages of hard news knowledge (using 6 items: Afghanistan, PM Britain, Pres FR/MX, Sec Gen UN, Copenhagen, & the nationality of Obama's father) revealed an average gap of 31.6%, very much like the 30% found by the Swiss study but in the opposite direction of our hypothesis. See Table 2. Our hypothesis was wrong. There was no Obama effect on the knowledge gap of hard news even if interest in politics had increased in 2008. While there was only a 5.1% average difference between the two American classes, they were equally ignorant, compared with a 13.1% difference between primarily first year and third year Dutch students. However, when the knowledge was combined for the American and Dutch students on the six hard news items the results confirmed the historically ever-present 30% gap. It is noteworthy that the greatest gap in knowledge was regarding the name of the President of Mexico. Not a single American student knew Filipe Calderon was the Mexican President in 2009. That resulted in an 84.1% gap between the USA and Dutch students. Similarly, there was a 47.9% gap in knowledge of the Prime Minister of the UK. The most common American answer was Tony Blair. The absence of current information was undeniable. Similarly, there was a 40.2% gap in knowledge of the purpose of the Copenhagen Summit. Although only 2.6% of the Americans knew that Ban Ki-Moon was Secretary-General of the United Nations only 23.9% of the Dutch students knew the answer leaving a 21.3% gap. The one area where the reduced gap was most significant was regarding the nationality of Obama's father. There was only a 6.6% difference in knowledge. Yet, even here the Dutch students were more aware than the American students who had just been through the 2008 presidential election.

On the other hand, the average difference in Soft news (See Table 2 using 5 items: Tiger Wood's infidelity, the death of Michael Jackson, Madonna's adoption case, and the name of President Obama's

wife) demonstrated that the USA students had a 5.5% higher average than the Dutch students. Again, this tends to reflect the Iyengar et al study which give the USA a slight edge in the knowledge of soft news. Particularly striking was the 67% of the USA students who knew the answer to Soft News Question 1, i.e. Tiger Woods. As one student said: 'I'm not interested, but it's everywhere.' Obviously, that student felt bombarded by the coverage of the Woods affair in all mediums. The results were that 97.4% of the Americans answered correctly while only 65.2% of the Dutch knew the answer providing a 32.2% gap in favor of the American students. As would be expected, 89.7% of the Americans opposed to 58.7% of the Dutch knew that Michelle was the first name of Ms. Obama. Another 31% advantage for the American students on soft news. The final area where the USA students were more informed was the cause of Michael Jackson's death (USA = 76.9% versus Dutch = 67.4%) where the USA students scored a 9.5% advantage. But regarding two soft news items--the location of the summer Olympics in 2012 and What Madonna finally achieved with her adoption efforts the American students fell behind (19.8% and 25.6% advantages respectively to Dutch).

Another result was provided by the open-ended question: What do you think of the most significant news story in 2009. See Table 3. This question was immediately followed by a series of questions about the use of various mediums. The results were interesting. The 39 American students identified the Michael Jackson story as the most significant news story of 2009 (eight times out of 41 responses that generated 19 topics), followed by the Obama election (seven times), health care (six times), the economy (four times), H1N1 (twice) and then a single mention for 14 different topics. Thus, 19.5% of the USA students identified a soft news story as the most significant news story of 2009. The immediate message is the obvious preference for soft news by the Americans where eight times the main story was Michael Jackson. In contrast, the Dutch students identified 17 different topics in their 46 responses. The most significant news story mentioned by the Dutch was the economy. It was identified 16 times (34.8% of the topics). Thus, 34.8% of the Dutch students identified the economy as the most significant news story in 2009. Following that the Dutch identified the Obama election (five times), the Michael Jackson story (five times), the Queens Day attack (three times), the attempted airline bombing (twice),

and the Lisbon Treaty (twice), followed by eleven different topics. Obviously, topics like the Queens Day bombing was unique and powerful for the Dutch since it was a first ever attack on the Queen since WWII and struck at their national pride like an attack on the White House on the 4th of July attack might in the USA. Also, mentioning the Michael Jackson story the same number of times as the Obama election suggests a rise in soft news awareness for the Europeans. Although both the USA and Dutch students identified almost the same amount of topics (19 and 17 respectively), it was especially interesting that only six topics were common to both groups. Furthermore, those six topics accounted for 68.3% of all the story selections by the Americans and 61.5% of all those by the Europeans. Thus, in spite of a soft versus hard news preference for the top story for 2009, there was some strong commonality. Furthermore, five out of the six commonly identified significant stories were hard news stories. But when the most frequently mentioned topics for both groups are compared, they were the economy (20 times), Michael Jackson (13 times), the Obama election (12 times), health care (seven times) and both the airline bombing and the H1N1 virus (three times each). Although health care was identified seven times, it was only mentioned once by the 46 Dutch students. The fact that health care was only mentioned one time by the Dutch makes sense since their national health care system is well established and they were puzzled by the American fear of national health care. Following the Michael Jackson story (20%) in order of importance, the USA students identified the Obama election (17.5%), health care (15%), and H1N1 (5%) as significant stories. Those were followed by a single identification of the airline bombing attempt, Caster Semenya, Dugard, Guantanaomo, Iraq, North Korea, the Tea Party, a City Council shooting, Tiger Woods, and a new Crater in New Guinea as the top stories.

Next, we asked where they heard about two very recent news stories – one hard, one soft – the attempted bombing of a transatlantic airliner on route to the USA at Christmas 2009 and the discovery of singing talent Susan Boyle, a housewife from Scotland who became famous in Europe (particularly the UK) and the USA after appearing on the TV show *Britain's Got Talent* and being watched millions of times on YouTube. What was most amazing was that 71.8% of ALL students look to TV for their news! See Table 4. Therefore, the answer to the RQ: Where do students get their news is television.

Although both the USA and the European students strongly favor TV news, the Dutch even preferred TV over the American—73.9% versus 69.2%. The second most common news source for both groups was friends and family (37.7% of the time). This time the USA students relied on friends and family 44% of the time whereas the Dutch gathered news from friends and family 32.6% of the time, a difference of 11.4%. Regarding news websites, combined they sought their news there 25.9% of the time with the Dutch using the web sites 14.6% of the time more than the USA students. The next ranked source was radio, relied on 24.7% of the time (USA = 20.5% and Dutch = 28.3%), followed by the newspaper at 23.5% of the time, where the Dutch outdistanced the USA students by a huge 29.3%. Next was Facebook which was not a news source for the USA students (USA = 0 %) and rarely was the primary source for the Dutch students (4.3% of the time). Almost 6% of the time the source was unidentified (USA = 10.3% and Dutch = 2.2%). Finally, zero percent of the students reported using Twitter or blogs and another 4.7% did not know the stories, two students from each cohort. Noteworthy are the key source differences in newspapers (7.7% of the Americans versus 37% of the Dutch), websites (18% of the USA students versus 32.6% of the Dutch) and family and friends (USA = 44% versus Dutch = 32.6%). The primary source identified as discussion with friends and family suggests that hard news is discussed far more often by American families and friends than in The Netherlands. Or, it may suggest that peers are a primary resource for USA students whereas the Dutch students read newspapers, visit news websites, and listen to more news radio first and then discuss the issues with friends and family.

Turning our attention to soft news, the results were similar to those for hard news with some interesting differences. See Table 5. Television also was ranked as the primary source for soft news 63.5% of the time for all students. This provided additional support for TV as the answer to the Research Question. However, this time the USA students favored TV for soft news 20.9% of the time more often than the Dutch. The second largest combined percentage for source of soft news was Other at 29.4%. Furthermore, the Dutch identified an unnamed source for their soft news 16.% more often than did the USA students. Twenty-eight percent identified a news website as the source they had used and this time 7.9% more often the USA students found out via a news website. This is opposite the finding for hard news. Similarly, another

28.2% leaned the story from friends and family but this time the Dutch relied on this source 9.5% more often than did the USA students. Again, this is a reversal of the hard news finding where the USA students discovered more hard news from friends and family. Evidently, American students depend on personal interaction to learn their news more than do the Dutch. A strong 22.4% learned about Susan Boyle via newspapers with 3.6% more reliance on this source by the Dutch. Another 18.8% of the time radio was identified as the primary source of the story with a 3.2% greater reliance by the Dutch students. The next largest percentage went to those who did not know the story (15.3%) with 4.9% more often the USA students did not know the story. Facebook was identified by 7.1% of the students where the USA students relied on Facebook 8.1% more often than did the Dutch. Interestingly, 4.3% of the Dutch students had learned the story from a blog whereas still zero percent of the USA students learned the story from a blog. Twitter was not used by either group.

Discussion and Conclusion

The number of respondents in this survey is limited and caution should be taken to draw too many inferences from this small sample. Just as Iyengar et al concluded there is a major difference in knowledge between respondents in the USA and a European country, we found a similar difference. It can be argued that students in the Midwest of the United States have little opportunity to come into contact with stories about Mexico, nevertheless, it is surprising that not a single Missouri student could name the President of the USA's neighbor and major trading partner given the many (illegal) immigrants into the US. In the case of the Netherlands, we choose to adhere to the question of naming the President of France, even though France does not directly border the Low Countries. We believe that if the question had been to name the German Chancellor (the German President is a purely ceremonial, not political role), the knowledge of the RA students would have been similar to that for the French President. A question about the leader of the Netherlands' other neighbor, Belgium, might well have shown a very different result as the Prime Minister of Belgium frequently changes and is not a prominent political leader who receives much attention in the Dutch/European or international media.

In the case of knowledge on the additional questions, namely the nationality of Obama's father and the name of Obama's wife, we were not surprised that USA college students would score significantly higher on the name of Michelle Obama than students in Europe, particularly given the coverage of Michelle in both hard news (e.g. her speech on the campaign trail, her saying that she was finally proud to be an American) and soft news stories (her wardrobe, the Obama family). However, we had not expected that so few US college students would know the answer to the question about the nationality of Obama's father. Indeed, despite extensive (reported) assertions in the US media in 2008 and 2009 that Obama was not truly and American citizen.

This small-scale study is an interesting starting point to determine whether the renewed political interest among American college students in particular translated into more engagement with news and knowledge of current affairs and international issues. It would appear that the election of Obama and the increased engagement has done little to shed light on Dark Areas of Ignorance. The HERI survey by UCLA (The American Freshman: National Norms Fall 2009) under the heading of "Post-Election Changes in Political Orientation, Political Engagement, and Political Views," Noted that in a 30 year trend, engagement always drops after an election. This could partly be due to the tendency of the USA media to focus on soft news, such as the marital problems of sports star Tiger Woods, and pay little attention to international or major domestic issues. A looking at the top news stories suggested by the students lends support to this claim.

Kriesberg in 1949 had called for 'education on a broad scale and among all classes and the improvement of the economic and social position of the lower income groups' (63), in order to eradicate what he called 'ignorance and prejudice' (63) by Americans towards other nations. Iyengar et al assert that a better and greater supply of information by a public broadcast media not 'driven entirely by considerations of profit maximization' as is the case in the USA is needed to bridge the cross-national differences knowledge gap. They also point out that Swiss residents read more newspapers than residents of California. Our study also shows that students at a Dutch-based (international) university college are more likely to read a newspaper than those in America. See Table 4. A recent report (Moores, 2010) by the Media Standards Trust in the UK found that foreign news coverage in

the UK national press had decreased by nearly 40 percent in the past 30 years. Similarly, for almost 15 years in the USA there has been a trend to reduce foreign news reporters and bureaus. Therefore, both sides of the Atlantic have reduced international coverage yet the gap continues.

Future Research

While this pilot study corroborates the repeated findings of Dark Areas of Ignorance, unfortunately, the enthusiasm generated by the Obama election does not seem to have translated into more awareness of the news in the USA. What would be interesting would be to do a longitudinal study that compared USA students engaged in something like an American Democracy Project over four years with other American students as well as with European students to see if that type of education is adequate to reduce the gap. Other similar programs might be equally effective. What is obvious and in need of attention is the perpetuation of an almost 30% gap in knowledge.

Finally, it would be helpful to see this study done with more comparable student bodies. Perhaps students at intensive liberal arts schools rather than “job training” schools where most students plan to get an advanced graduate degree not a job upon completion of their bachelor’s degree. While that would not represent the general population very well, it might provide an insight into the current curriculum in most universities in the USA.

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Table 1 -- Questions Asked

	<i>Iyengar, Hahn, Bonfadelli & Marr 2005</i>	<i>Cox & Luscombe 2010</i>
Hard News Q1	Can you name two of the countries other than the United States with Troops in Iraq?	Please name two of the countries other than the US with troops in Afghanistan.
Hard News Q2	Can you identify the prime minister of Britain?	Same
Hard News Q3	Can you identify the president of Mexico (US) and France (Switzerland)?*	Same
Hard News Q4	Can you identify the secretary general of the United Nations?	Same
Hard News Q5	What issue was addressed in the Kyoto Protocol?	What issue was addressed at the Copenhagen Summit from December 6-18, 2009?
<i>Additional Question</i>		<i>What was the nationality of Barack Obama's father?</i>
Soft News Q1	Who was the winner of the Tour de France in 2005?*	Which sports star was caught having multiple extra-marital affairs in Fall 2009?
Soft News Q2	Which country will host the 2008 Olympic Summer Games?	Which country will host the 2012 Olympic Summer Games?
Soft News Q3	Pop Star Michael Jackson was accused of what crime?	From what did pop star Michael Jackson die?
Soft News Q4	The actor Tom Cruise is a member of a religious organization. Which one?	What did Madonna initially fail to do in April 2009, but succeeded 2 months later?***
<i>Additional Question</i>		<i>What is the first name of America's First Lady?</i>

*In 2005 the Tour de France was won by the American Lance Armstrong so this was a pertinent question to put to an American audience. We did not think it would be relevant or illuminating to ask who the winner of the 2009 Tour was as this was unlikely to have been given any significant coverage in the USA.

***Searching entertainment news stories of 2009 for stars who were covered extensively in media in both the USA and Europe was a difficult task. We chose Madonna as she was not just a superstar on both sides of the Atlantic and her quest to adopt a child from Malawi received substantial coverage for several months.

Table 2 -- Percentage of Correct Answers to News Questions

Question	UCM M-L	UCM Honors	RA Rhetoric	RA Journalism	UCM combined	RA Combined	Difference
Countries with troops in Afghanistan	13/21 = 62%	11/18 = 61.1%	20/22 = 90.9%	22/24 = 91.7%	61.5%	91.3%	29.8%
Name of PM of Great Britain	2/21 = 9.5%	1/18 = 5.6%	9/22 = 40.9%	19/24 = 79.2%	7.7%	82.6%	47.9%
President of Mexico or France	0/21 = 0%	0/18 = 0%	17/22 = 77.3%	*20/22 = 90.9%	0%	84.1%	84.1%
Head of the UN	1/21 = 4.8%	0/18 = 0%	6/22 = 27.3%	5/24 = 20.8%	2.6%	23.9%	21.3%
Purpose of Copenhagen Summit	6/21 = 28.6%	8/18 = 44.4%	16/22 = 72.7%	19/24 = 79.2%	35.9%	76.1%	40.2%
Nationality of Obama's Father	4/21 = 19.5%	7/18 = 38.9%	9/22 = 40.9%	7/24 = 29.2%	28.2%	34.8%	6.6%
SUMMARY		Dutch	Hard	News	Average	Advantage	31.6%
Sports Star with recent marital infidelity	20/21 = 95.2%	18/18 = 100%	14/22 = 63.6%	16/24 = 66.7%	97.4%	65.2%	-32.2%
Location of Summer Olympics in 2012	4/21 = 19.5%	1/18 = 5.6%	5/22 = 22.7%	10/24 = 41.7%	12.8%	32.6%	19.8%
Cause of death of MJ	16/21 = 76.2%	14/18 = 77.8%	16/22 = 72.7%	15/24 = 62.5%	76.9%	67.4%	-9.5%
What did Madonna finally achieve in 2009	3/21 = 14.3%	4/18 = 22.2%	12/22 = 54.5%	8/24 = 33.3%	17.9%	43.5%	25.6%
What is the first name of Ms. Obama	19/21 = 90.5%	16/18 = 88.9%	14/22 = 63.6%	13/24 = 54.2%	89.7%	58.7%	-31%
SUMMARY		USA	Soft	News	Average	Advantage	5.5%

*There were only 22 responses to this question in the RA Journalism class.

Table 3 -- Combined and Distinguished Identification of News Stories in 2009

Story	UCM Honors	UCM M-L	Total times UCM referenced	% of total by UCM	RA Rhetoric	RA Journalism	Total times RA referenced	% of total by RA	Total times referenced by BOTH	Exclusive UCM story	Exclusive RA Story
MJ	5	3	8	19.5%	1	4	5	10.8%	13		
Health Care	4	2	6	14.6%		1	1	2.2%	7		
H1N1	1	1	2	4.9%	1		1	2.2%	3		
Economy	1	3	4	9.8%	9	7	16	34.8%	20		
Airline bombing	1		1	2.4%		2	2	4.3%	3		
Caster Semenya	1		1	2.4%						XX	
Obama Election	1	6	7	17.1%	3	2	7	15.2%	12		
Dugard	1		1	2.4%						XX	
Guantanamo	1		1	2.4%						XX	
Iraq	1		1	2.4%						XX	
N. Korea	1		1	2.4%						XX	
Tea parties	1		1	2.4%						XX	
City council shooting	1		1	2.4%						XX	
Tiger Woods	1		1	2.4%						XX	
Crater in New Guinea		1	1	2.4%						XX	
Terrorist fair trial		1	1	2.4%						XX	
Balloon Boy		1	1	2.4%						XX	
Queens Day attack					1	2	3	6.5%			XX
GM closing in Ontario					1		1	2.2%			
Xmas Snow					1		1	2.2%			XX
Pro-family in Uganda					1		1	2.2%			XX
Iran election					1		1	2.2%			XX
CJ & War criminal					1		1	2.2%			XX
Ice save					1		1	2.2%			XX
Website closures					1		1	2.2%			XX
Lisbon treaty						2	2	4.3%			XX
Water on Mars						1	1	2.2%			XX
Near collapse Dutch Cabinet						1	1	2.2%			XX
Total # by school									17 by only UCM	18 by only RA	
Exclusive # & % by school									11 Exclusive UCM	11 Exclusive RA	
Common stories									6 for 15%	6 for 15%	
Total responses									39 for UCM	44 for RA	

Table 4 -- Where Students Learn Hard News

Q#1 – How did you learn about the attempted airline bombing at Christmas 2009? Please tick all

Source	UCM Honors N=18	UCM M-L N=21	Total times referenced by UCM N=39	% of total by UCM	RA Rhetoric N=22	RA Journalism N=24	Total times by RA N=46	% of total by RA	Total times referenced by ALL N=85	% by ALL	Difference between Dutch and American students
Television	12	15	27	69.2%	15	19	34	73.9%	61	71.8%	4.7% RA
Radio	2	6	8	20.5%	5	8	13	28.3%	21	24.7%	7.8% RA
Newspaper	2	1	3	7.7%	5	12	17	37%	20	23.5%	29.3% RA
News Website	4	3	7	18%	6	9	15	32.6%	22	25.9%	14.6% RA
Blog	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Facebook	0	0	0	0%	2	0	2	4.3%	2	2.4%	4.3% RA
Twitter	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Discussion with friends and/or family	5	12	17	44%	5	10	15	32.6%	32	37.7%	11.4% USA
Other	2	2	4	10.3%	1	0	1	2.2%	5	5.9%	8.1% USA
Don't know the story	2	0	2	5.1%	1	1	2	4.3%	4	4.7%	.8% USA

Table 5 -- Where Students Learn Soft News

Q#2 – How did you first hear about Susan Boyle's singing talent? Please tick all appropriate sources:

Source	UCM Honors N=18	UCM M-L N=21	Total times referenced by UCM N=39	% of total by UCM	RA Rhetoric N=22	RA Journalism N=24	Total times by RA N=46	% of total by RA	Total times referenced by ALL N=85	% by ALL	Difference between Dutch and American students
Television	8	12	20	51.3%	6	8	14	30.4%	54	63.5%	20.9% UCM
Radio	2	1	3	7.7%	2	3	5	10.9%	16	18.8%	3.2% RA
Newspaper	2	0	2	5.1%	1	3	4	8.7%	19	22.4%	3.6% RA
News Website	5	4	9	23.1%	3	4	7	15.2%	24	28.2%	7.9% UCM
Blog	0	0	0	0%	2	0	2	4.3%	0	0%	4.3% RA
Facebook	1	3	4	10.3%	1	0	1	2.2%	6	7.1%	8.1% UCM
Twitter	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0%
Discussion with friends and/or family	1	8	9	23.1%	8	7	15	32.6%	24	28.2%	9.5% RA
Other	3	5	8	20.5%	7	10	17	37%	25	29.4%	16.5% RA
Don't know the story	4	3	7	17.9%	2	4	6	13%	13	15.3%	4.9% UCM

Appendix A

SURVEY PART I

Spring Semester 2010 – (American student version)

What do you think was the most significant news story in 2009? Please recap the key elements of the story. Provide as much detail as you can.

How often do you read a newspaper? Please put an X through the most appropriate circle:

- Every day
- 2-3 times a week
- Once a week
- Less than once a week
- Rarely
- Never

Please tell us the name(s) of the newspaper(s):

How often do you consult news websites? Please put an X through the most appropriate circle:

- Every day
- 2-3 times a week
- Once a week
- Less than once a week
- Rarely
- Never

Please tell us the name(s) of the news website(s):

How often do you watch national TV news? Please put an X through the most appropriate circle:

- Every day
- 2-3 times a week
- Once a week
- Less than once a week
- Rarely
- Never

Please tell us the name(s) of the station(s) (e.g. ABC, NBC, CNN, FOX, CBS, other):

How often do you listen to radio news? Please put an X through the most appropriate circle:

- Every day
- 2-3 times a week
- Once a week
- Less than once a week
- Rarely
- Never

Please tell us the name(s)/call number(s) of the station(s):

SURVEY – PART II

How did you learn about the attempted airline bombing at Christmas 2009. Please tick all appropriate sources:

- TV News
- Radio
- Newspaper
- News website
- Blog
- Facebook
- Twitter
- Discussion with friends and/or family
- Other: _____ (please fill in)
- Don't know this story

How did you first hear about Susan Boyle's singing talent? Please tick all appropriate sources:

- TV News
- Radio
- Newspaper
- News website
- Blog
- Facebook
- Twitter
- Discussion with friends and/or family
- Other: _____ (please fill in)
- Don't know this story

SURVEY – PART III

(please complete both sides)

1. Please name two of the countries (other than the USA) with troops in Afghanistan.
2. Please name the Prime Minister of Britain.
3. Please name the President of Mexico/France.
4. Please name the secretary-general of the United Nations.
5. What issue was addressed at the Copenhagen Summit from December 6-18, 2009?
6. What was the nationality of Barack Obama's father?
7. Which sports star was caught having multiple extra-marital affairs in Fall 2009?
8. Which country will host the 2012 Olympic Summer Games?
9. From what did pop star Michael Jackson die?
10. What did Madonna initially fail to do in April 2009, but succeeded 2 months later?
11. What is the first name of America's First Lady?

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**Global Understanding through Theatre:
Enhancing Second Language Acquisition and Cultural
Competence with Interdisciplinary Research Bridging
Theatre Arts and Behavior Analysis**

Traci M. Cihon, Christopher J. Stephens, & Brittany L. Dean

Abstract

A series of three studies will be presented highlighting our current interdisciplinary research collaboration combining theatre, foreign language instruction and behavior analysis. We will feature the use of behavior analysis to understand and enhance the effects of a bilingual theatre production; the strengths and limitations of behavior analytic approaches to quantifying learning outcomes in learning community andragogy; and the use of theatre rehearsal techniques to enhance language acquisition. Findings will be discussed regarding instructional design that assists in closing the achievement gap, the scholarship of teaching and learning, global studies, and the development of lifelong learners.

Cihon and Stephens have conducted six studies with implications for the Communications and Theatre curricula (four focusing on Italian language acquisition and two documenting the effects of Learning Communities and/or the theatre performance process on student learning and behavior). A more detailed description of the specific collaboration and previous research can be found in Cihon and Stephens (2011).

The current article describes three studies that employ an interdisciplinary model of scholarship. This model combines a behavior analytic framework for research and understanding human behavior with theatre rehearsal techniques to improve second language acquisition and to enhance student learning outcomes. One study focused on Italian vocabulary acquisition using teaching techniques from theatre and communication arts and measurement strategies derived from behavior analysis. The second and third studies focused on the use of descriptive and exploratory logs to quantify the benefits of participation in interdisciplinary learning communities with short-term study abroad

components on student learning and behavior. This study used strategies consistent with learning community theory and the scholarship of teaching and learning combined with a behavior analytic interpretation of self-reflection and problem solving.

Second Language Acquisition

Few studies have been conducted within behavior analysis regarding second language acquisition (Cihon & Stephens, 2011; Dounavi, 2011; Duan & Cuvo, 1996; Gutierrez, 2006; Lloyd, Eberhardt, & Drake, 1996; Petursdottir, Olafsdottir, & Aradottir, 2008; Petursdottir & Haflidadóttir, 2009; Ramirez & Rehfeldt, 2009; Rosales, Rehfeldt, & Lovett, 2011; Shimamune & Smith, 1995; Washio & Hومانfar, 2007). Many of the studies that have been conducted have focused on using second language as a medium to explore other behavior analytic phenomena. Outside of behavior analysis, one can find many different theories of language instruction (cf., Hinkel, 2005). However, studies demonstrating the effectiveness of one theory of instruction over another or what combination of theories of instruction are most effective are rare.

One learning theory that often informs classroom instruction is the Grammar Translational Method (GTM). GTM organizes instruction around direct translations between the first (L1) and second (L2) languages with an emphasis on learning and applying rules of grammar in written communication in the L2. Another commonly supported learning theory is the Direct (or Natural) Method. The Direct (or Natural) Method organizes instruction around speaking the L2, emphasizing function with respect to communication. Grammar is taught but less directly than in GTM, generally through taking advantage of naturally occurring errors as opportunities for corrections. The primary goal is for students to communicate in a way that their audience will understand and to fine tune syntax and grammar as one becomes more comfortable with the L2. Nevertheless, it is likely that something in the middle is best for most learners or that some learners respond differentially to one method of instruction or another. In this regard, L2 instruction is consistent with an individualized learning perspective, which lends itself well to the use of single subject design research (cf., Cihon & Stephens, 2011, Sidman, 1961).

L2 instructors often incorporate a variety of teaching tools and materials in their class preparation regardless of their guiding theory of instruction. In introductory L2 courses, there is often a course text book with accompanying audio or video media. Texts frequently include scripted conversations, prompts for role playing conversations, and vocabulary banks (cf., Riga & Dal Martello, 2007). Again, however, there have been few empirical analyses to determine when or how to best use each of these tools, under what conditions to use these tools, or which types of students respond best to particular tools.

Cihon and Stephens (2011) noted that theatre students preparing for a bilingual performance would use L2 lines from the script to initiate and maintain conversations in the immersion setting (i.e., Italy). This observation influenced our decision to begin a systematic line of interdisciplinary research combining the disciplines of theatre performance, behavior analysis, and L2 acquisition to identify effective L2 teaching practices. Our research questions were: 1) Do vocabulary banks or scripts better aid the acquisition of a L2, 2) Do vocabulary banks or scripts better differentially affect L2 acquisition depending on history with the language, 3) Does L2 conversational fluency vary as a function of audience, and 4) Are students able to maintain and generalize the L2 using these tools?

Methods

Seven students at a midwestern community college between the ages of 20 and 46 participated in this study. Students were not excluded based on experience with the Italian language or race or ethnicity. Data were not included for those students who missed 33% or more of testing conditions. Sessions were conducted on a weekly basis during the spring semester in the Global Education (GLE) 101 classroom at a midwestern community college. Students were also members of the Italian Studies Learning Community (ISLC). The class traveled together to Italy mid-semester for 10 days and retention and generalization were assessed following the trip.

Students received an hour of group L2 instruction each week that included orientation to the course text book (Riga & Dal Martello, 2007); pronunciation rules; verb conjugation rules and practice; rules regarding parts of speech; basic sentence structure and formation; vocabulary

acquisition and reinforcement; active student responding to instructor provided prompts in Italian; practice worksheets, listening sessions that included Italian radio, film, etc.; and study sessions arranged by the instructor or classmates that included native Italian speakers.

In the first week, students were given a vocabulary bank¹. The subsequent week, students were tested on their L2 acquisition using a conversation prompt. In addition, students were given a new vocabulary bank and a scripted dialogue that related to the recently tested conversation prompt. In subsequent weeks, students were tested on two conversation prompts - one related to the memorized script and one related to the vocabulary bank. Students were also given new vocabulary banks and scripts at this time. In sum, students were first tested with a conversation prompt after receiving *only* a vocabulary bank. Then, a test was given, using the same prompt following receipt of the script (see Figure 1). This sequence continued for 5 weeks. Retention checks were conducted within student-student dyads approximately 2 months after the first tests were conducted. Generalization checks were conducted at the same time, using novel conversation prompts with and without a fluent Italian speaker.

Independent variables

The primary independent variables were the study materials given to participants (i.e., the vocabulary banks and scripts). Independent variables also included the vocal verbal prompts presented during each experimental testing session and the number of years of prior experience in the ISLC each participant had.

Dependent variable and data analysis

Several dependent variables were assessed in order to determine the utility of vocabulary banks and scripts. The primary dependent variables used for analysis included the number of Italian-Italian exchanges emitted in each conversation, the number of correct Italian words, the number of Italian words with grammatical error, the number of repeated Italian words, and the number of errors. The dependent variables and definitions are provided in Table 1.

¹Copies of vocabulary banks, scripts, and conversation prompts can be obtained by contacting the first author.

Experimental analysis

We used a modified alternating treatments design (Barlow & Hayes, 1979) to examine the differences in the number of Italian-Italian exchanges and Italian words after studying vocabulary banks and scripts. The alternating treatments design was modified due to the change of study materials within each condition. While the design alternated between vocabulary bank and script study tools, after the first week (vocabulary bank only) participants had a script and a new vocabulary bank each week. Rather than a rapid alternation of two experimental conditions, testing conditions alternated but participants had access to material corresponding to each independent variable simultaneously. In essence, the design allowed us to explicitly test the additive effects of scripted conversations over the use of vocabulary banks alone.

Results

Group data by prior ISLC membership

We first analyzed the data in terms of the total number of Italian-Italian exchanges and Italian words emitted in each pre-trip testing condition across all participants. We then divided participants into groups based on prior participation in the ISLC. There were three participants who had never participated in the ISLC (0 yr experience group), one participant who had participated once before, and three participants who had participated two or more times prior to the study (2 yr experience group). We omitted the participant who had participated once before to protect anonymity. Splitting the group of participants into subgroups based on prior experience showed more detailed information regarding individual differences in testing conditions. We, therefore, chose to present the group data by experience not by overall totals.

The participants with no prior ISLC membership engaged in more Italian-Italian exchanges (Figure 2, top panel) and emitted more Italian words (Figure 2; bottom panel) after studying scripts than after studying vocabulary banks. In contrast, the participants with two or more years of ISLC membership engaged in more Italian-Italian exchanges (Figure 2; top panel) and emitted more Italian words (Figure 2; bottom panel) after studying vocabulary banks than after studying scripts.

Representative individual participant data

We analyzed post trip retention and generalization data at the individual level to better show differences based on prior L2 experience. Data for one participant in each ISLC membership group whose data represent the general findings² are presented (BB and LP). We tabulated and graphed the total number of Italian-Italian exchanges and Italian words for each test conducted in each experimental condition and present these data by individual conversation quiz in the chronological order of testing. Data are displayed in two graphs for each participant: the top panels show the number of Italian-Italian exchanges across vocabulary bank and script tests and the bottom panels show the number (and type) of Italian words emitted across vocabulary bank and script tests. The test conditions are presented in chronological order along the x-axis, beginning with vocabulary bank (VB1, VB2, etc.) and script (S1, S2, etc.) tests conducted prior to the study-abroad trip. Post trip conditions include retention of scripts in student dyads (RS1, RS2, etc.), generalization of scripts with a fluent Italian speaker (GS1, GS2, etc.), and the novel generalization prompts, one with another student (GP1) and one with a fluent Italian speaker (GP2).

Each of the graphs have a series of diamonds (for script tests) indicating how many exchanges or words were in the original scripts for each unit and for the “role” the student played during that test condition. In the graphs in the bottom panels, Italian words are broken into three types: first instances (the first time a grammatically correct word was emitted in each conversation), grammatical errors (each instance of a grammatical error), and repeats (each word following the first instance within the conversation). Each vertical bar represents the total number of Italian words spoken, with the proportion of first instances, grammatical errors, and repeats displayed within each stacked bar.

BB (no ISLC experience) engaged in more Italian-Italian exchanges during script tests than vocabulary bank tests for all pretrip tests (Figure 3; top panel). Each script test showed more exchanges than during vocabulary bank tests from that same unit (e.g., the increase from

²The data presented in this manuscript are a subset of a data set collected for the third author’s thesis completed under the supervision of the first and second authors in partial fulfillment of the MS degree at the University of North Texas and will be presented in full in a second manuscript to be submitted for publication.

VB1 to S1, and then again from VB2 to S2). The number of exchanges BB emitted during the first four script tests matched the total possible exchanges programmed in the scripts. Post trip data showed that BB engaged in more Italian-Italian exchanges during the generalization tests with a fluent Italian speaker than during the retention tests with peers. Particularly, BB engaged in fewer Italian-Italian exchanges across retention scripts 3-5 than retention scripts 1-2, but engaged in a higher number of exchanges across these units when tested with a fluent Italian speaker (GS3-GS5). The number of exchanges during the first generalization probe with peers was comparable to most post trip tests, while the number of exchanges emitted in the second generalization probe with a fluent Italian speaker exceeded any previous test.

Overall, BB emitted more Italian words during script tests than vocabulary bank tests in pre-trip sessions (Figure 3; bottom panel). This pattern is evident across the first two units (see VB1 to S1 and VB2 to S2). However, responding dropped across the last three units and the reverse pattern is seen: BB emitted slightly more words in VB3 (as compared to S3) and in VB4 (as compared to S4). The number of grammatical errors and repeated words was low across pre-trip tests regardless of study tool format. BB emitted fewer words than were in the original script for all pre-trip script tests. In post trip tests, BB emitted a similar number of words across script retention checks with peers (RS1-RS5) and script generalization tests with a fluent Italian speaker (GS1-GS5). While the total number of words increased in post trip test conditions, the number of first instances in any one test condition did not notably increase. Rather, the number of repeated words increased. The number of words BB emitted during GP1 (student dyad) was consistent with previous testing conditions, but there were more grammatical errors. When generalization was tested with a fluent Italian speaker, BB emitted over twice as many words as in any previous conversation, yet many were repeated words.

LP (some ISLC experience) engaged in more Italian-Italian exchanges in vocabulary bank tests as compared to script tests before the trip (Figure 4; top panel). Across units 2 through 4, LP engaged in notably more exchanges in vocabulary bank tests as compared to script tests. This comparison cannot be made for unit 5, due to absences; however, the number of exchanges remained high for the vocabulary bank test conducted in that unit. LP met or exceeded the total possible

exchanges in three of four pre-trip script tests (S1, S2, and S3). Post trip data showed that LP engaged in slightly more Italian-Italian exchanges during the retention tests with peers than during the generalization tests with a fluent Italian speaker.

LP emitted more Italian words during vocabulary bank tests than script tests before the trip (Figure 4; bottom panel). The number of repeated words and grammatical errors varied across pre-trip tests, sometimes accounting for relatively few words in that test (e.g., S1 and S4), and sometimes accounting for nearly half of the words in that test (e.g., VB4 and VB5). In three of the four pre-trip script tests, LP exceeded the number of Italian words in the original script (with the exception of S4). During post trip tests, LP emitted a similar number of Italian words in script retention checks with peers (RS1-RS5) and script generalization tests with a fluent Italian speaker (GS1-GS5). The number of words decreased overall from pre-trip to post trip conditions. As in pre-trip tests, the number of grammatical errors and repeats varied in post trip conditions, from just a few (e.g., RS3) to over half of the words emitted (e.g., RS4 and GS1). LP was absent during generalization probes.

Discussion

Overall, these results suggest that participants respond differentially to vocabulary banks or scripts as study tools. These differences may be a function of experience with the language. However, and perhaps most importantly, the results indicate that each participant acquired some Italian using the two study tools based on the overall increases in Italian-Italian exchanges and Italian words emitted throughout the course of the study. These data suggest that instruction combined with vocabulary banks and scripted conversations is at least moderately effective in teaching basic Italian. Similar levels of performance during generalization tests with peers and notably higher levels of performance in generalization tests with the fluent Italian speaker suggest that the acquired Italian language repertoires were flexible and could be recombined under novel stimulus conditions (cf., Alessi, 1987).

The finding that different study tools were more or less useful for different participants, seemingly based on prior language experience,

has implications for those teaching or learning a foreign language. Participants who were early learners emitted more responses in script tests, suggesting that the scripts helped aid communication. Each script included important language-specific features, such as sentence structure (adjective-noun agreement or ordering), sentence frames (e.g., “I need” or “I want”), verb conjugations, and other components critical to organizing coherent sentences. In addition, the early learners frequently matched the number of exchanges or words they emitted to the numbers in the original scripts, suggesting that scripts were memorized in their entirety. On the other hand, those participants who had previous experience with the Italian language engaged in more exchanges and emitted more words during vocabulary bank tests. In fact, these participants often emitted fewer words or exchanges after receiving the script. It is possible that these participants had a basic understanding of Italian linguistic structure and were more easily able to recombine old and new repertoires into novel utterances. The scripts may have created a ceiling effect for these participants. Understanding when and how L2 learners begin to recombine features of the language can inform teaching practices suggesting when instructors should use specific teaching strategies or change teaching strategies based on student performance.

The variation in responding across learners by study tool type can also be interpreted from a theatre perspective. The script condition more closely resembles that of traditional performance methods in which actors are given a script, asked to memorize their lines, and then perform. The vocabulary bank condition resembles theatre training for improvisation in which actors are given a context but no script. In relation to foreign language acquisition, the types of repertoires we seek to develop more closely align with what occurs during improvisational performances. However, without particular prerequisite skills (i.e., the ability to combine words to form sentences and some vocabulary), it is difficult to create a successful improvisational L2 conversation. Likewise, the student actor without basic performance understanding gained through working with a script often finds improvised scenes difficult to sustain.

This study brought both theatre methods into a foreign language acquisition context and found differential effects based on previous repertoires. The scripts in this study provided these prerequisite skills for learners with less experience with the Italian language while

simultaneously testing improvisational conversations during vocabulary bank tests for all learners to determine when these begin to develop. As discussed earlier, however, the scripts in a L2 acquisition setting may have creating a ceiling effect. Due to typical classroom contingencies (e.g., memorizing study materials for a test), participants may have placed more importance on showing they could memorize the scripts word-for-word rather than the ability to improvise, which is the ultimate goal for second language acquisition. This reflects an outcome often seen in student actors who place sole performance emphasis on the memorization of lines. Performance effectiveness is diminished without the time dedicated in rehearsal to exploratory interaction.

Interdisciplinary Learning Communities and Study Abroad

Our studies in this category were a response to call to universities to globalize the curriculum (Farnsworth, 2007). Nationwide faculty members are developing curricula to create globally competent students and these curricula emphasize connections between various discipline areas and international issues (Cihon & Stephens, 2011; Stephens & Florini, 2010). Students are asked to examine their own cultural perspective and compare it and contrast it to others' cultural perspectives. Individual and group projects and assignments incorporate global issues and students share outcomes with fellow students, faculty, and staff. A major unifying theme is that students tackle a new cultural context with respect to societal norms and cultural practices. In addition to the students' achievement of global and intercultural awareness, a goal is for students participating in these experiences to bring global mindedness to the campus at large when they return.

Some scholars have incorporated learning community theory or building an "interconnected group of students and/or instructors [who are] collectively engaged in a thematic learning experience that they will complete as a cohort" (Stephens & Florini, 2010, p. 114) to enhance the student and faculty engagement in global awareness and cultural awareness (Cihon & Stephens, 2011). Learning communities create a context in which students and faculty can begin to learn from each other in classroom settings and will continue to learn from each other outside of structured coursework. Within such contexts, the dissemination of ideas and integration of knowledge occurs. Others have included study

abroad programs into their courses (Cihon & Stephens; Hadis, 2005; Ingraham & Peterson, 2004; Stephens & Florini; Tajés & Ortiz, 2010; Williams, 2005). Very little empirical research on learning community and/or study-abroad trip variations has been conducted. Most published articles present theoretical perspectives (Stephens & Florini) or anecdotal reports of student outcomes (Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Cihon & Stephens; Hadis; Ingraham & Peterson; Stephens & Florini; Tajés & Ortiz; Williams). The few empirical analyses of study-abroad programs do suggest positive impacts on participating students (Cihon & Stephens; Stephens & Florini; Tajés & Ortiz; Williams).

We were interested in identifying the sources of impact for undergraduate students participating in an interdisciplinary learning community with a short-term study abroad component. In the first study, (see also Cihon & Stephens, 2011) we conducted a descriptive analysis in an effort to determine if and how participating students were affected. The results suggested four broad categories of impact in: language, relationships, life-long learning, and performance skills. These data informed the development of a self-reflection and journal tool used as a measurement system for the next study.

In this study, we sought to extend our work (Cihon & Stephens, 2011) and the work of Tajés and Ortiz (2010). Taking an approach influenced by Goldiamond's (2002) constructional approach to social casework, we created a modified exploratory log. Exploratory logs are used to help teach individuals to identify the contingencies that regulate their behavior. The individual records his own behavior and the surrounding contingencies and expectations. Through filling out the log, the individual is asked to reflect upon his own behavior. The data can then be used to determine patterns in behavior, environmental variables of which that behavior is a function, and develop an individualized plan for behavior change. In this study, the exploratory log incorporated frames inspired the SLEPT framework (Tajés & Ortiz) and Cihon and Stephens' identified categories of impact. The purpose of this study was to further assess the impact of interdisciplinary learning communities with a short-term study abroad component on student learning and behavior.

Methods

Participants

Eleven undergraduate students at a midwestern community college provided consent to participate in this study, nine of whom completed various aspects of the study. Participants ranged in age from 20 to 34 and were included regardless of race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status or gender. All participants were enrolled in a course that focused on Italian language and culture. The course met once per week for one hour to prepare the students for a cultural immersion experience.

Setting and materials

The CHE frames were: Cultural (which is subdivided into Aesthetic, Linguistic, Lifestyle and Social), Historical, and Environmental. The Cultural frame was designed to prompt each participant to observe the cultural practices within their present environment (e.g., lifestyle differences, belief systems, dining practices). There were four subcategories that served as contextual prompts to pinpoint the event students observed. For example, if the participant noticed a dialect difference between two individuals having a conversation, he could indicate that it was an interaction within the cultural frame, but more specifically that it was a linguistic interaction that caused him/her to take notice. As another example, perhaps while walking through a market, the participant noticed a sign indicating that the shop would be closed between the hours of noon and 4:00 PM. The participant would indicate that this observation was a cultural one; specifically, the participant was attending to the difference in lifestyle and/or social norms.

The Historical frame was designed to prompt the participant to observe how history within a specific region affects the current practices of the inhabitants. For example, each day, each participant had the opportunity to walk through historical sites, some of which may have been discussed prior to the trip or participants may have heard about in other classes throughout their academic histories. The participant would indicate the historical frame if while walking through a historical area, s/he noted the interplay between the area's historical significance and the current relevance of that specific history. As another example, perhaps while walking though Vatican City participants noted the significance of

the placement of specific artworks, the architectural differences between those structures found in Vatican City and other regions, or the difference in building materials used within one structure versus another. Then, s/he might indicate that the observation was a historical one.

The Environmental frame was designed to prompt participants to consider how various natural (e.g., geographic location) and artificial (e.g., governmental practices) contexts/locations impacted what they were seeing and experiencing. While filling out the log, the participant would indicate that the observation fell within the Environmental frame. For example, they might log an Environmental entry if they noticed that the geographic differences (e.g., very flat, dry, on the coast, or mountainous) impacted the community and or shaped its development.

The next three fields within the log were provided for the participants to more precisely describe the CHE frames that were most salient to them. The participants were asked to indicate if the experience was a positive, negative or neutral one by checking either the “+,” “-,” or “N” columns.

Experimental conditions

Participants filled out a prequestionnaire designed to assess each participant’s current and future personal goals as well as their perception of and their baseline levels of familiarity with Italian culture. During the first class session (prior to travel), the course instructor (second author) briefly described the CHE frameworks and the CHE log. During training, the course instructor defined each of the CHE conditions and participants had the opportunity to ask questions. A written discussion of the nature of each frame was also provided to the students. The course instructor provided examples and non-examples, instructions on how to fill in each field, instructions regarding when the CHE logs should be filled out (including the minimum number of submissions), and identified the dates and times when the CHE logs were to be collected.

Participants were asked to fill out a minimum of two CHE log entries each week before and after the study-abroad trip. Experimenters collected these logs weekly. During the study-abroad experience, participants were asked to fill out at least one CHE log entry each day. These logs were collected at the end of the study-abroad trip.

Participants filled out a postquestionnaire following the study-abroad experience that was designed to aid in the assessment of the actual changes in their learning and behavior as a result of taking the course and the cultural immersion experience, and to identify current and future goals as well as cultural awareness.

Response measurement

Experimenters scored CHE frame selections based on the frequency with which individuals reported events in each of the CHE frames (and cultural frame subcategories) and tracked each participant's CHE log entries per rating (+/-/N) over time. Next, the experimenters tracked and organized the data by pre-trip entries, during trip entries, and post-trip entries along the following dimensions: total entries, total entries by CHE frame, and total +/-/N entries. Lastly, experimenters reviewed the qualitative aspects of the CHE logs with a focus on the participants' reflections.

Results

Five participants turned in a prequestionnaire. Each prequestionnaire respondent indicated that s/he planned to transfer to complete their current degree plan and either transfer to a four-year university or a vocational training program. In addition, all participants expected to gain an understanding of Italian cultural practices, language, and lifestyles by taking part in the course associated with the study-abroad trip. Some expressed an interest in gaining a deeper understanding of religious, culinary and linguistic aspects of the Italian culture. In general, participants rated themselves as being moderately informed of the cultural practices of Italians.

Seven participants submitted logs before the study-abroad trip, nine participants submitted logs during the study-abroad trip, and one participant submitted a log following the study-abroad trip. One student selected the aesthetic frame during pre-trip logging and the most commonly selected frames were cultural and historical. Log entries during the study-abroad trip were evenly distributed across CHE Frames.

Figure 6 shows the aggregate data for pretrip (top left panel), during trip (top right panel), and post trip (bottom panel) logs collected³. These data suggest that before the study abroad trip, students reported positive and negative experiences for about one-third of the logs, respectively. The remaining responses were primarily neutral (25%) with a small percentage showing mixed evaluations of their experiences or no evaluation reported. During the trip, there was a general increase in the percentage of logs associated with positive experiences (68%) with an overall reduction in reports of negative experiences (6%). Students reported neutral evaluations slightly less frequently and there seemed to be an increase in students reporting mixed evaluations of experiences. Unfortunately, only one log (indicating a negative experience) was turned in following the trip.

Postquestionnaires

Three participants submitted postquestionnaires. They indicated that this experience provided new opportunities that facilitated a better understanding of the Italian culture. Participants also reported that they developed new friendships and experienced an overall shift in perception.

Discussion

These data suggest a positive impact of participation in short-term study abroad activities; however, without post-trip data our analysis is incomplete.

Implications

The collaboration is helping the researchers to quantify learning in areas that have not been documented heavily in the literature (i.e., theatre). The scholarship is very contemporary--incorporating global studies and learning community theory and their applications to the theatre curriculum from a behavior analytic lens. The collaboration is unique and interdisciplinary, bringing together researchers from

³The data presented in this manuscript are a subset of a data set collected that will be presented in combination with another data set (currently being collected) for a second manuscript to be submitted for publication.

traditionally distant areas. In addition, it may provide behavior analysts with another area of focus (e.g., second language acquisition and/or the scholarship of teaching and learning).

Furthermore, there are direct benefits to our student participants. Students are receiving more individualized instruction (via additional faculty and graduate students to support instructional design, implementation, and instruction). Community college students have contact with faculty from a four-year institution and graduate students that may serve to stimulate students' educational planning and future goals. This research allows us to demonstrate to the participating students how research informs teaching and how teaching informs research, emphasizing the importance of student success through empirically supported teaching procedures and data-based analysis of student success.

Future Research/Next Steps

We are currently extending both lines of research. Our current extension of the vocabulary acquisition research involves the assessment of two commonly employed study tools for teaching a second language - the direct translation method in which students are given the Italian word and the equivalent English word and a more naturalistic approach common to commercial programs such as the Rosetta Stone in which students are immersed in the second language with picture cues. Specifically, the students are given the Italian word with a picture that represents its meaning. We are exploring how these two strategies differentially affect students' ability to memorize vocabulary as well as use this vocabulary during short conversations in Italian pertaining to a particular prompt.

Our extension of the research line exploring the effectiveness of interdisciplinary learning communities with short-term study abroad components focuses on how to arrange the structure of the course to encourage more students to log more frequently and to continue filling out logs following the study abroad experience. While there seemed to be notable, positive impact on student learning and behavior as a function of participation in the ISLC, we are still unsure if the experience promotes quantifiable, lasting gains. In an effort to explore this hypothesis, we have arranged grade contingencies associated with the completion of the

logs. It is important to note that students who are not participating in the study also complete said logs as part of the GLE 101 experience; therefore, the requirements for the course are the same regardless of whether or not one chooses to participate in the research - the same is true of the current vocabulary study which is being conducted in an Italian 103 course.

We hope that we will be able to conclude that there are lasting benefits to students and faculty alike as a function of participating in the ISLC, GLE 101, and the associated research. Furthermore, we hope that the results of this study suggest teaching strategies that will further support innovations in instructional design to exacerbate these effects with future cohorts of students.

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Table 1

<i>Dependent Variables and Definitions</i>	
Dependent Variable	Definition
Italian-Italian Exchanges	Involves a speaker and a listener, always based on the first speaker. Includes the responses of both. It begins with the speaker's initial statement and the listener must provide a verbal response related to the speaker's question or statement for the dialogue to count as an exchange. An exchange must end with the listener's speaker behavior. A new exchange begins with a new comment/question made by the speaker. Both speaker and listener phrases in the exchange must consist of only Italian words. (e.g., S: "Io ho molto fame" L: "Anch'io").
Correct Italian Words	Includes all correct Italian words that are without grammatical error, regardless if they are in context or not (e.g., "buona notte" (good night) would count as 2 correct words; "buono vicino" (good nearby) does not contextually make sense but still counts as 2 correct words; "un sciarpa" would count as 1 correct word (sciarpa) and 1 "correct italian word with grammatical error" (un; see row below) because un is masculine and sciarpa is feminine.
Correct Italian Words With Grammatical Error	Words that exist that grammatically are out of place (e.g. " una zaino" because una is feminine and zaino is masculine) or "tu parla " is incorrect but a correct word (because it should be "tu parli" to represent correct conjugation).
Repeats	Italian words that have already been spoken within the current session by the same participant. Includes all parts of speech, including every instance of the word throughout the conversation after the first instance.

Figure 1

Chronological order of experimental conditions, retention checks, and generalization probes.

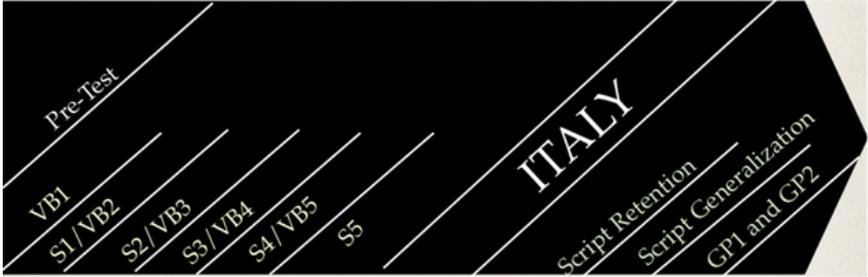


Figure 2

The total number of Italian-Italian exchanges (top panel) and Italian words (bottom panel) emitted by participants across pre-trip vocabulary bank and script tests. The groups are based on prior participation in the ISLC (0 yr or 2 yr). The dotted line represents the number of exchanges or words in the original scripts studied for each condition.

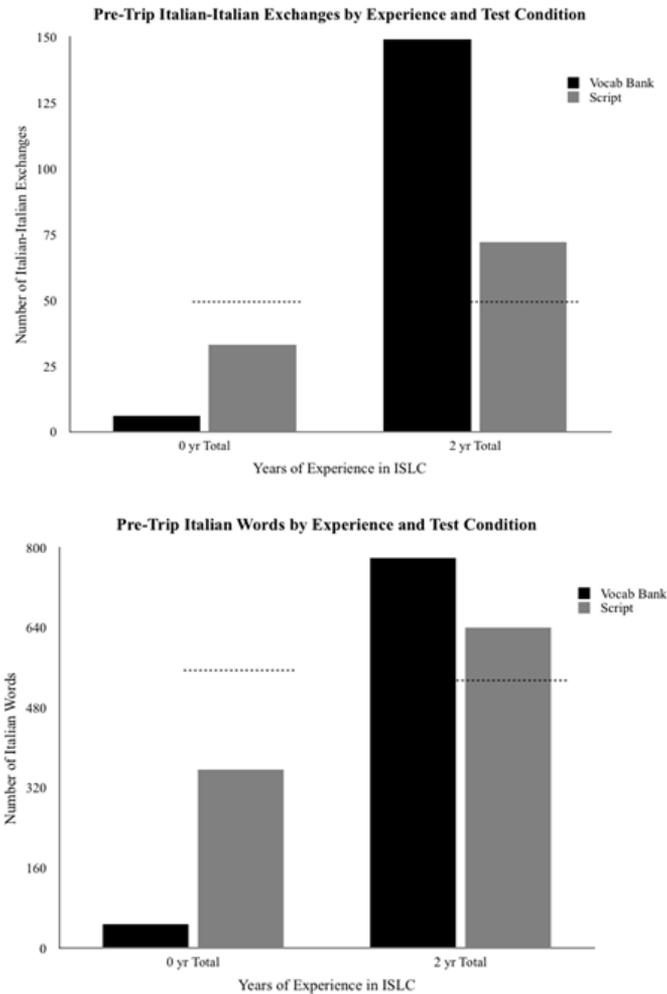


Figure 3

The total number of Italian-Italian exchanges (top panel) and Italian words (bottom panel) for BB (no ISLC experience) by test condition. Diamonds represent the number of exchanges or words in the original scripts studied for each condition.

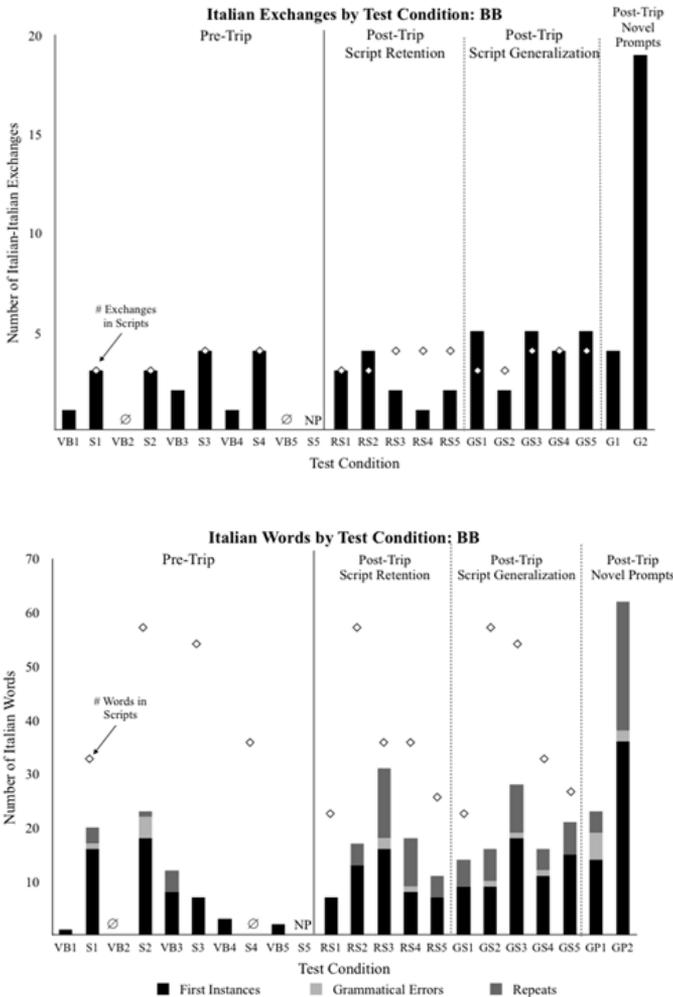


Figure 4

The total number of Italian-Italian exchanges (top panel) and Italian words (bottom panel) for LP (some ISLC experience) by test condition. Diamonds represent the number of exchanges or words in the original scripts studied for each condition.

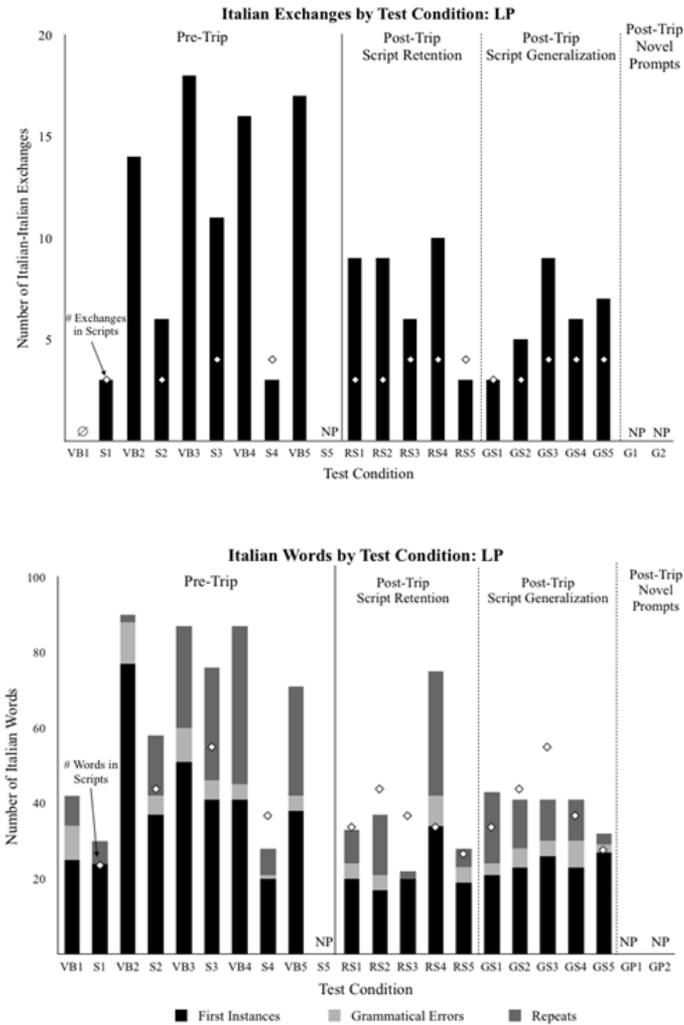


Figure 5

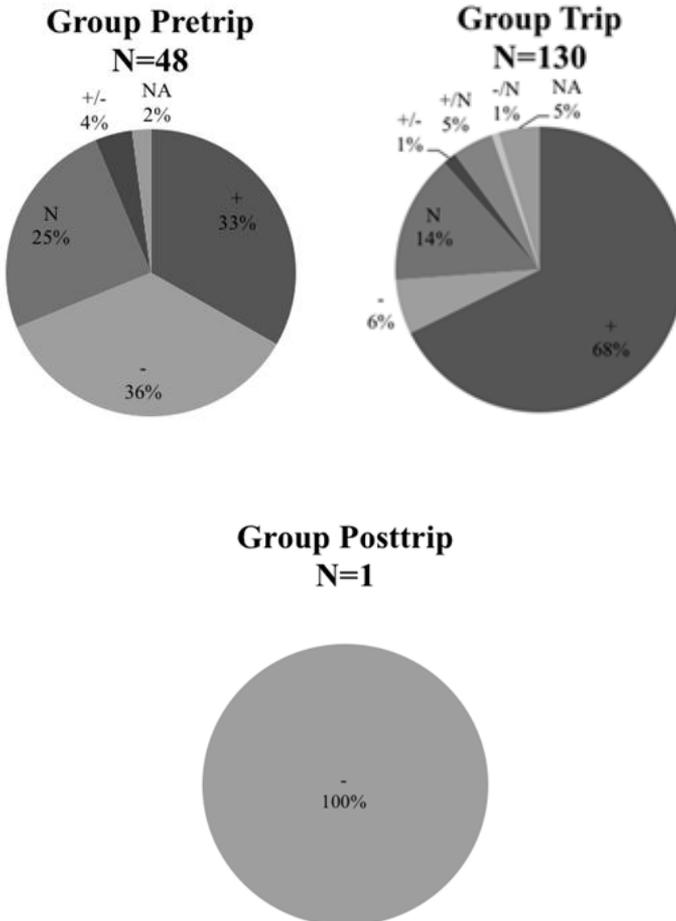
CHE framework log

CHE Framework Log					Recorded by:		
Date:	City/Location:						
Place/Time	CHE Conditions(s) (circle one)	What was my expectation?	What I saw	Reflection: "What does it mean? How did it impact me? How do I feel?"	+	-	N
	Cultural: Aesthetic Linguistic Lifestyle Social Historical Environmental Other (describe)						
	Cultural: Aesthetic Linguistic Lifestyle Social Historical Environmental Other (describe)						

Note: Final Column is intended for reflection. Relate new ideas to old ones; analyze your thoughts/feelings; interpret your understanding.

Figure 6

CHE framework log aggregate data indicating the total number of logs received and the percentage of logs related to positive (+), negative (-), neutral (N), mixed (+/-, +/N, -/N), and unlabeled participant evaluations.



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Reality Television...Real?
**Exploring the Integration of Reality Television as a Communication
and Performance Teaching Tool**
Scott Jensen & Gina Jensen

Abstract

Media portrayals of communication dynamics have been used as teaching tools for as long as most of us can remember. However, the genre of “reality television” has changed the way teachers are now able to integrate media narratives into their teaching and classroom experiences. This paper, and the original program, explores the impact and potential of reality television as a teaching tool. Suggestions for integrating reality television into communication and performance classroom experiences are shared. Also featured is a case-study of a particular reality television experience as told by the featured guest herself. Activities appropriate for all levels of teaching are shared.

Overview

Media in the classroom is not a new teaching tool. Films, television episodes, music, social media, and a host of other mediums are invaluable for illustrating concepts taught in nearly any academic subject area. In particular, communication and performance classrooms benefit immeasurably from the use of mediated messages. Within media are stories told by and about people. Within the interactions played out in these messages are the very concepts we address in our classes, in productions, and as part of forensic and debate competition. While most mediated messages can reinforce our communication and performance instruction, the genre of “reality television” is perhaps unique in how it is potentially integrated into the classroom. The term, seemingly, is an oxymoron. Reality television is dubbed “reality” because it uses real people playing themselves. The extent to which this autobiographical portrayal is realistic is open to argument. This question—does reality television reflect reality—is an essential starting point in determining the

potential for integrating reality television into the teaching of communication and performance.

The Nature of Narrative

Narratives are powerful teaching tools because they reflect how many of us come to know and experience realities. We understand concepts by seeing them applied in realistic situations. Narrative processing of ideas allows for flexibility in our understanding of how concepts are applied, as opposed to thinking of concepts and theories as concrete or purely logical. Communication and performance are dynamic because they deal with people. People are predictable only to a certain extent. Myriad factors contribute to how a common concept impacts one person in similar or different ways than another. Tom may have a healthy relationship with his siblings while Jessica may have chosen to have a strong disconnect with her siblings. Teaching that siblings experience an intimate bond does not capture the influence of other factors in determining how well one group of siblings communicate with one another as opposed to another. Narrative reasoning and understanding allows for more realistic teaching because it focuses on the characters and context that explain particular interactions.

- The teaching of narrative necessitates a number of assumptions upon which the approach must be based.
- Narratives include characters, scenes/contexts, and plots.
- Narratives, like any story, have beginnings, middles, and ends.
- Rational narratives have internal consistency.
- Rational narratives have external consistency.
- Narratives have the greatest utility when audiences can relate to the story being told.

The Uniqueness of Reality Television

As a narrative genre, reality television is unique as a source of media stories. This uniqueness centers around the idea that, to attract a following, featured stories and characters must be “good television.” The sad truth is “normal” does not attract an audience. Stories are told because they are atypical, meaning that at its core reality television fails tests of external consistency; reality shows are not necessarily realistic

narratives. That being said, they are still potentially useful as teaching tools. A number of considerations should be weighed when integrating reality television into the classroom.

- Reality television is designed to attract viewers, meaning it reflects highly dramatic, atypical stories and characters.
- Reality television features first-person narratives, creating a stronger immediacy with stories than might be the case when viewers know roles are being acted out, or interpreted.
- Unrealistic narratives, like any example of poor communication or performance, can provide insights as teaching tools.
- Reality television is popular for our students, making it an engaging teaching tool.

A Sampling of Reality Television for Classroom Use

The list of reality television shows is endless. With this seemingly limitless collection of narratives comes an equally expansive potential for classroom use. Consider a small sampling of communication and performance concepts central to narratives, along with reality television shows that utilize these same concepts in their typical storylines. With a lengthy list of possible reality television series to suggest, we have created our own list of shows that represent a variety among elements of narratives.

What Not to Wear

This show features an unsuspecting person (generally a woman, although the show once featured men as well) nominated by others in his/her life as needing a makeover in their wardrobe and appearance. The main character receives new clothes, a hair style and makeover, and lessons on adapting appearance to their lifestyle and social standards for attractiveness.

Biggest Loser

This show features a cast of characters all dealing with profound weight and fitness issues. The cast spends a season as a group with nearly no contact outside “The Biggest Loser Ranch.” They receive instruction on lifestyle, eating, and fitness habits that all contribute to enduring weight loss. As a competition show, each week individuals or pairs are voted off the ranch, with weight loss determining who is considered for elimination each week.

Clean House

This series features a person or family who live in extreme clutter or filth. There is generally a lifestyle or life experience that contributes to the living conditions. The Clean House staff purges the home and, on a shoestring budget, purchases furniture, accessories, and some construction materials to organize, clean, and redecorate the home.

Jerseylicious

This show is unique in that it strays from the self-help theme of the other shows listed herein. This show features a salon, its employees, and immediate family and friends of employees. The career aspirations, relationships, and often deficient communication skills of the characters contribute to weekly storylines.

Extreme Home Makeover

This show, somewhat similar to Clean House, focuses on living environments. It selects a home that is in needs of significant remodeling beyond the adornment or contents within the home. Often selected homes are based on unique family needs not provided by the current home. The staff remodels the home to better suit the culture of its residents.

Supernanny

This show features a British woman who brings her knowledge of child care and family dynamics to a selected family. She analyzes problems with child behavior, parental choice, and family communication. Ultimately Supernanny imposes rules for the home that, ideally, result in a more interdependent family, healthier parent/child relationships, and a less chaotic family life for the featured family.

Concepts for Potential Integration within Reality Television Narratives

While there are numerous concepts that can be identified and discussed as they are illustrated within reality television shows, we have identified ten that appear to be re-occurring within our selected shows.

Narratives

- *What Not to Wear, Biggest Loser, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Extreme Home Makeover, Supernanny*

Nonverbal Communication

- *What Not to Wear, Biggest Loser, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Extreme Home Makeover, Supernanny*

Social Comparison or Reflected Appraisal

- *What Not to Wear, Biggest Loser, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Extreme Home Makeover, Supernanny*

Self-Concept and Self Awareness

- *What Not to Wear, Biggest Loser, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Extreme Home Makeover, Supernanny*

Relational Development, Management, and Deterioration

- *What Not to Wear, Biggest Loser, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Extreme Home Makeover, Supernanny*

Listening Through Bias

- *What Not to Wear, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Supernanny*

Fear of Difficult Material as Listening Flaw

- *What Not to Wear, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Supernanny*

Group Dynamics and Role Development

- *Biggest Loser, Jerseylicious, Supernanny*

Cultural Competence, Transition, and Dynamics

- *What Not to Wear, Biggest Loser, Clean House, Jerseylicious, Extreme Home Makeover, Supernanny*

Systems Theory

- *Biggest Loser, Jerseylicious*

Most of these shows air stand-alone storylines which allows for the complete narrative to unfold within the hour-long episode. Also valuable are the shows that feature the same cast over the course of a season of several episodes. The value of multiple episodes is being able to assess the evolution of the characters and both their intrapersonal and interpersonal communication. These series, *Biggest Loser* and *Jerseylicious*, provide an opportunity for a more extensive case-study of dynamics. Particularly useful, for example, would be watching either of these two shows for evolution of group dynamics, conflict management, and cultural transition as the characters take on new identities or adapt to changes in life experience.

Activities for Integration

While the realism of many of these reality television shows is questionable, there are elements of narrative that are clearly developed within each of these series and episodes. A number of class activities are available for integrating concepts within course curriculum. These suggestions for graded and non-graded activities are each grounded in critical analysis and reflection.

Class Discussion

Simply discussing these episodes is a rich opportunity for class participation in a non-graded exercise. The nature of the episodes is such that students are likely to engage themselves fully in the discussion.

Critical Reflective Essays

Students can write essays that are open-ended or inclusive of assigned concepts to identify and analyze. These written exercises can also easily become speeches.

Television Critic

Students can write reviews of shows. This activity, while it can focus on communication concepts, can also be more evaluative reviews of performance or the representativeness of the series/show compared to typical narratives dealing with issues similar to those within the identified show.

Production of an Original Reality Show

While this is a more extensive activity, it is a valuable semester-long or extended group project. Students can produce their own reality series. The activity can culminate in an actual filmed episode, or a proposal with, perhaps, a script for a pilot episode. The activity should include a discussion of concepts from the curriculum central to their envisioned show.

Staff Writers for a Selected Series

Students—individually or in groups—can write a script for an assigned or selected reality series.

A Case-Study: *What Not to Wear*

Gina was actually selected for *What Not to Wear* in its seventh season. A small group of her students sent a nomination that was selected for consideration. After an initial, and unsuspecting, interview in which she thought she was being approached randomly and asked about clothing Gina was selected for three weeks of secret filming. After those three weeks it was determined she would be selected for the show and, after being “ambushed,” was sent to New York for a week. She sent her entire wardrobe and was given \$5,000.00 with which to buy a new wardrobe. She also received a new hair style and a make-over, as well as instruction on how to dress more “appropriately” for her life roles.

Looking at communication concepts, Gina identifies the narrative, social comparison and reflected appraisal, self-awareness, and cultural competence as central to her reality television experience. The hosts of the show made continual use of Gina’s story, including her role as mother and professional as well as the influence from her deceased mother as backdrop to why she does not dress in a more “acceptable” manner. The intrinsic message of the show speaks to the concepts of

social comparison; there is a particular norm for appropriate dress and appearance, and people who do not meet that norm are in need of a change. The received instruction and interviews throughout the episode and broader experience further the self-awareness of the guest. Additionally, the goal of the show is to achieve a level of deculturation from past influences, in hopes of creating a lifestyle characterized by appropriate dress that is enduring.

The *reality* of Gina's reality television experience is an important lesson in applying these types of messages in the classroom. Meaning in any communication situation is socially constructed. Gina's time on the *What Not to Wear* set highlighted the power of impression management to shape a message that was not congruent with the reality behind the construction of that message. A critical part of the narrative in Gina's episode is her struggling with selecting the appropriate wardrobe, and then having the epiphany that leads to an enduring change of perspective and, ultimately, a new and improved outlook on life. The reality is a secret shopper selected much of what Gina's bought, she was coached with suggestions on how she might have her epiphany, and she was fortunate to have several people dressing her and doing her hair and make-up, despite the appearance she was working hard to accomplish the on-camera transformation. Final cuts in taping heightened emotional displays when such emotions were not intended. Further, while the hosts were extremely kind, their on-camera demeanor was critical, and they were seldom present for the actual taping.

Overall, Gina's experience was extremely positive, and effective in shaping a different outlook on dress and appearance. Further, while the narrative that was aired for a general audience was not entirely a sincere reflection of the actual experience, the episode does provide a meaningful case-study into the power of nonverbal communication in shaping self-concept. It also provides for a great story Gina and our family never grow tired of telling. (Her episode can be found at www.youtube.com. To locate the episode type "Gina Jensen" and "What Not to Wear" as one phrase.)

Conclusions

Perhaps the most important point in this program is reality television is generally not reflective of a typical reality. That being said, reality television episodes do incorporate elements of narratives, making them potential resources for classroom use. The atypicality of these shows can become the focus for course integration, as can the actual content of selected episodes. Reality television, because of its use of “real” people, makes it a unique genre for classroom use, and one that is likely to be engaging for students.

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PUBLICITY!!

Or: How to get people to come and see your production!

Felicia Ellis

Drama 1 & 2---Publicity!!

HOOKS!

In order for a newspaper to put an article in about your upcoming production, there must be a reason to put an article in the paper! They may put in one article about you DOING a play—but to put in ANOTHER article (or 2 or 3 or more) about the same play—there has to be a reason to put the same information in the newspaper again!!

To have an audience—you have to get the word out! That means as much publicity as possible! The first line of your news release has to be a ‘hook’—an attention grabbing statement about the play that is relevant to the people reading the paper. The hook will help get your article in the paper, and ensure that the people who read the paper—read your article. There are five basic opportunities for publicity when producing a play:

1. Announcement of which play you are producing
2. Announcement of cast chosen
3. Something interesting about the rehearsals or set
4. Notice of when the play will be produced and where
5. Review of play after it is completed, with special thanks to helpers

Write at least one ‘hook’ for each of the publicity opportunities listed at the end of this resource. Your hook must be a complete sentence!

Some people will look at the pictures in the newspaper first to see if they are interested enough to read the article. Each news release you send should be accompanied by a picture. List at least one photo opportunity for each publicity release mentioned above.

Plot Summary!

Now that word has gotten out that we are doing a fall production, people will start asking you what play we are doing, and what the play is about! This condensed version of the play is called the plot summary. You will need to know this information to answer questions, and to include in all your news releases.

If you haven't read the play yet—read it! If you have already read the play—read it again! Take notes on all the main action/theme of the play. In the space below, write a one paragraph summary of the play. Be sure to include all the details of the plot—but keep it to ONE paragraph. Be sure to use complete sentences and correct spelling and grammar.

Plot summary #1

Write another plot summary, with the same details, but slightly different than the above summary. This will be for your SECOND news release!

Plot summary #2

The News Release!

Now that you have a great hook, an awesome picture and a plot summary to tell you what the play is about, it is time to write the news release! In addition to the hook, picture and summary, you must have an opening paragraph. This is called a lead paragraph. It follows the hook and gives the main details of the play: who, what, where, when, why of the article. Your next paragraph should give some details relating to your release, such as who is in the play, or what is special about this rehearsal or set. The final paragraph should be a plot summary, followed by an invitation to the reader to come and see the production. A variation of the plot summary should be in every article submitted!

Every article should include a picture. Put a caption with the picture. For example: if you have a picture of the fight scene from “Beauty and the Beast”. Caption: Stage fighting a real challenge for high school actors! Be sure and label all the people in the picture—with names spelled correctly!! Example: Mark Whitehead and Ken Jones practice stage fighting for the upcoming production of “Beauty and the Beast”.

On a separate piece of paper, write a news release for one of the following publicity opportunities: announcement of which play you are producing; announcement of cast chosen; something interesting about the rehearsals or set; notice of when the play will be produced and where; review of play after it is completed and special thank yous.

Your news release should include:

1. Tell me what picture you are sending with this news release (describe it)
2. Write a caption for the photo
3. Tell us who is in the photo and what they are doing (you can make up names)
4. A hook
5. A lead paragraph
6. A detail paragraph
7. A plot summary
8. An invitation to come and see the production

The Bulletin!

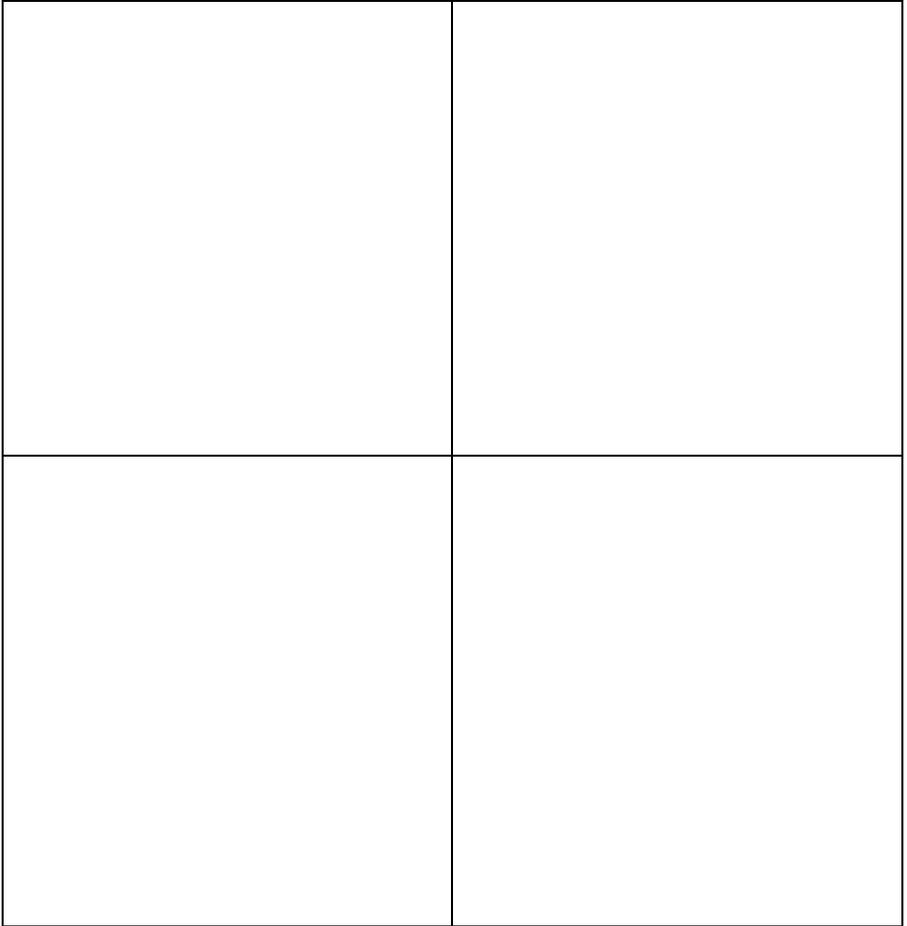
Now that you know how to write a hook—use it! To encourage people to come to the production, we put notes in the school bulletin the two weeks before the play is performed. If the same note is in the bulletin day after day—no one reads it! Write five DIFFERENT bulletin notices—with five different hooks!

Your bulletin notices must include: a hook, the name of the production, performance dates, time the play starts, where it will be performed, cost of advance and at-the-door tickets, where to get tickets. Notices can be 3 or 4 sentences at the most!

The Logo!

Before we can start promoting the show, we need to have a picture that represents our production. This is called a Logo. The logo will go on our t-shirts, our programs, our tickets, our flyers, our mailers—basically everything that has to do with our production.

The logo should be a picture that represents the show. It must be a black and white drawing, because all our publicity is done in black and white! In the space below draw four ideas for a logo to represent “The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe”. Draw your logo ideas in pencil.



Choose your best idea, and draw it LIGHTLY in pencil on a 9 x 12 white paper. Then take an ink pen and ink your drawing. Erase all lines.

Media Outlets!!

Before we can send out publicity, we need to know where to send it! Use the below survey to ask 10 students and three adults what radio stations they listen to and what newspapers they read.

Name of Person Surveyed	Age (approx.)	Radio Station Listened to the Most	Newspaper(s) read regularly
Modes (most frequent answers)			

Mailers!!

We can increase our audience size by sending out mailers. Mailers are individualized invitations to come and see the production. They can literally be sent in the mail, be tied with a ribbon and hand delivered, or be sent home with students.

Mailers should have the production logo on them, and should include the who, what, where, when, and why of the production. They must include production dates and times, where to get tickets, the cost of advance and at-the-door tickets, the location of the production, and an invitation to attend the performance.

In the below space, write a mailer for one of the following audiences: teachers, staff and administration at Licking schools; school board members; high school students; elementary students; preschool students; area high school drama clubs/departments; local theatre guilds; local clubs (Community Betterment Assn., Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis, Red Hat Society, etc.). Tell us which audience the mailer targets. Be sure to use complete sentences and correct spelling and grammar.

Publicity!!

Here is a list of publicity things we have done to promote our productions. We don't do EVERY one for EVERY show, but choose which ones fit our production.

- Read the story of the show to the elementary in costume
- Mail personal invitations to the school board members
- Hand deliver (in costume) invitations & 2 free tickets to all school staff members—be sure to include janitors, cooks, teacher's aides, secretaries---everyone!!
- Mail invitations to all the surrounding schools—with info on group rates (other drama groups can come free!!)
- Drama club members NOT involved with the production can come free if they wear their Drama club t-shirt to the production

- Create t-shirts promoting each production (only cast members and parents can get them)
- Wear our costumes OR make up to school one day
- Go to the Christmas parade/downtown celebration in costume and hand out flyers and candy
- Go to the local grocery store in costume and hand out flyers
- Put up banners across main street & around campus
- Put upcoming productions on the school's marquee
- Put info on the school's website & the Drama web site
- Have a local business sell tickets to a production
- Put up flyers in person (sometimes in costume) to all the local businesses
- Send invitations home with elementary students
- Have a ticket selling contest (first student to sell 10 gets \$10, student who sells the most gets \$10) This has GREATLY increased our advance ticket sales
- Send personalized invitations to local groups (Kiwanis, red-hat ladies, women's groups)
- Get the community involved in the production (have local businesses do hair for a show, create flower arrangements for the lobby, make a cake for intermission)
- Write invitations on the sidewalks on campus and downtown promoting the show
- Draw chalk drawings about the show in prominent places around town
- Put set models/costumes created in local art gallery before the show
- Paint windows promoting the show
- Put displays in windows of local shops promoting the show
- Put articles and pictures in the local paper and school paper
- Put community calendar announcements on all the local radio stations
- Promote the play in the school bulletin
- Have a class/particular club make posters and put them up around campus and town
- Create and distribute table tents to local restaurants and our school cafeterias

- Have parents involved (create set, supervise at performances, make costumes)
- Get more teachers/people at school involved in your production
- Promote the production yourself (positive word of mouth works wonders!)
- Do a snippet of the play at the local mall and hand out promotional flyers
- Do the play free for a local senior center/retirement facility (before the production)
- Do the play during the school day for the elementary students (provide info/lesson plans to the elementary teachers)
- Sell buttons/wrist bands with show promo for everyone to wear
- Hand out flyers or sell tickets at parent teacher conferences
- Have a contest regarding the show (for example: find the glass slipper for Cinderella)
- Have an art class illustrate the story of the show and put in on display in the lobby the day of the show
- Promote the theatre program **IN THE LOBBY OF YOUR SHOW!** Show parents samples of set models; costume mock-ups; lighting diagrams; logo ideas; make-up sketches; bios & pictures of **EACH** student involved in the production--in any way!
- When at all possible—buy supplies from **LOCAL** stores—and tell them it is for the show!
- Attend a school board meeting and tell them about your great drama program!
- Involve other classes in your productions (shop class helps with the set, art class makes props, music class provides music—for musicals or intermission, FACS cooking class made cookies & punch for opening night, PE class—demonstrate and let them try sword-fighting/dancing)
- Give extra credit in your classes to students who come to the production
- Give **FREE** tickets to anyone who helped you **AT ALL!!**

- Keep a scrapbook of current and prior productions and put in on display in the lobby
- Take cast pictures of each production and put them up in a designated hallway
- Put up a bulletin board about the show—with ticket details
- Put up flyers/posters about the show around campus
- Send invitations to local theatre groups (especially if you have seen a production there!)

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