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SPECIAL FOCUS ON GIFTS INC (GREAT IDEAS FOR TEACHING STUDENTS IN THE CAROLINAS)

Editorial Policy (2020)

The *Carolinas Communication Annual*, the peer-reviewed, state/regional journal published by the Carolinas Communication Association (representing both North Carolina and South Carolina), accepts the submission of scholarly articles on an ongoing basis. While articles by authors in the Carolinas and about topics relevant to the Carolinas and the surrounding region are particularly relevant for this journal, the call for submissions is open to authors from around the country and open to a wide range of topics from multiple methodologies and perspectives within the larger Communication Studies discipline. The journal is especially interested in submissions of pedagogical ideas and activities for our GIFTS INC (Great Ideas for Teaching Students in the Carolinas) area, which should be modeled after activity essays published in the journal *Communication Teacher*; submissions of multi-author forums of short thematically or methodologically related position papers or critical arguments; and submissions of "Debut" essays, which are papers written by first-time authors publishing their research in a peer-reviewed communication journal.

Critical essays and "debut" essays should generally be no longer than 6000–7000 words in length (including citations) and should follow the latest editions of MLA, APA, or the Chicago Manual of Style, depending on the author's preference. GIFTS INC essays and activities should generally be no longer than 2000–2500 words and should follow the latest editions of MLA, APA, or the Chicago Manual of Style, depending on the author's preference.

The call for submissions for the 2021 *Carolinas Communication Annual* will be announced in early spring 2021 and authors should submit their essays electronically (in a Microsoft Word file) to the editor. Submissions should include an author name and institution, author contact information, and an abstract in a separate cover letter to ensure blind review. In the cover letter, authors should also note the history of the submission and indicate, as needed, that the submission meets ethical standards of research (for example, IRB approval if relevant). The editor reserves the right to reject any submission that does not meet the basic standards above or seems to indicate a lack of ethical work. Authors should only submit one work per year to the *Annual* and the submission should not be under review with any other journal.

Editor's Introduction

Dear Members and Readers,

Our world has changed since submissions to this year's *Annual* came due. While I know that the 2021 journal will reflect the hardship, pain, and death—as well as the hope and desire for social renewal many of our membership long for—I felt an overwhelming sense of being "unfinished" as this journal went to print. As such, I invited a piece by Roy Schwartzman, who created the "Pandemic Pedagogy" Facebook page so many of us joined after our schools shut down in March, 2020, to highlight some of what we endured this year. I also felt an overwhelming sense of inadequacy to address another of our nation' s ongoing illnesses. I would like to thank Lionnell Smith, one of our organization's members, for putting together the words for this introduction that I felt I could not. I hope his introduction means as much to you all, as it does to me. Thank you, Badu.

Jenni M. Simon

Jenni M. Simon
University of North Carolina, Greensboro
Greensboro, North Carolina
September 2020

Introduction by Lionnell Smith

When Jenni and I discussed what this introduction would look like, we agreed on a word count of no more than 2,000 words. After some thought and reflection, I decided to limit the count to 846 words. Eight minutes and forty-six seconds (8:46) has become a disturbingly powerful symbol of protest to police brutality in the aftermath of George Floyd's murder as it is the initially reported duration of time that Derek Chauvin forced his knee upon George Floyd's neck leading to his untimely death. If George Floyd wasn't granted more time, why should I be granted more space?

"Please, I can't breathe. Please man. I can't breathe."

The year 2020 has brought about a global health pandemic, an unprecedented and catastrophic event in our history that has resulted in the deaths of many people around the world. In the United States, the total number of deaths is close to 200,000 while the total number of cases is reported to be more than 6 million.[1] These numbers are frightening and unnerving in light of how they increase with every passing week. I know people who have battled with COVID-19 and recovered, and I have friends who have experienced the tragic loss of loved ones who did not survive the coronavirus. This pandemic has changed the way we teach and learn, practice religions, celebrate birthdays and anniversaries, and a host of other traditions. Human communication has changed drastically for all of us. For four months, I had no face-to-face interactions in fear that I might be/come infected. Like many

of you, I stayed home resorting to phone calls, text messages, and video calls to interact with my loved ones.

This global health pandemic has reaffirmed systemic disparities in healthcare in the United States. Geographic locations that have reported data by race/ethnicity have indicated that African American and Latinx folx have experienced a disproportionate burden of COVID-19-related outcomes.[2] These disparities are the result of social and structural determinants of health, racism and discrimination, economic and educational disadvantages, healthcare access and quality among other factors. These factors support the understanding that there are clear racial disparities in the quality of healthcare delivered to whites as opposed to nonwhites.[3] These data are particularly disconcerting in light of the fact that African Americans/Blacks only comprise 27.0 percent (Latinx, 5.7 percent) of South Carolina's population[4] and 22.2 percent (Latinx, 9.8 percent) of North Carolina's population.[5]

"I'm about to die. I can't breathe. I can't breathe."

The year 2020 has proven to be a temporal host to another pandemic that I must address. This pandemic is what Stuart Hall describes as an endless discourse which makes politics and identity possible.[6] This pandemic is racism—the brutal politics of racial identity, power, and privilege. If you turn on the news or scroll through your social media, you will undoubtedly see ongoing conversations either protesting the murders of Black people like George Floyd and Breonna Taylor (yes, we must say their names!) or hateful discussions disparaging Black women like Kamala Harris. As Sandra Shullman has said, "We are living in a racism pandemic."[7]

This summer we witnessed as hundreds of people marched the streets of American cities protesting police brutality and the systemic racism that physically and discursively harms Black folx and other people of color. At the time of my writing this introduction, the officers that murdered 26-year-old Breonna Taylor have not been charged despite the Taylor family's pleas for justice, pushing for criminal charges against the officers. Black folx are mentally, physically, and spiritually exhausted as we continue to fight for racial justice in America and systemic changes at every institutional level. While the world desperately waits for a vaccine to resolve its coronavirus pandemic, Black folx and other people of color continue to hope for actions that will resolve this racism pandemic.

"Everything hurts…some water or something please. I can't breathe."

Can you hear my brother, George Floyd, crying for "something please" to ease his pain? I join Floyd's cry in these final words to you. With all of the unrest that surrounds us, we cannot afford to be idle and do nothing. So, this is my call to action—do "something please!" We all can do something to address this racism pandemic. I think about the students who participated in sit-ins in Greensboro, North Carolina, and I think about the young people in South Carolina whose protests led to the Orangeburg Massacre. The Carolinas have a rich history of people who have stood for justice and equality, motivated by what others before them had done. Perhaps your something is to revise your course syllabi in order to expose your students "to Black/African American communication

scholarship as a way of resisting institutional racism."[8] Maybe your something is to reimagine how your research and scholarship can be used to advocate for racial justice. Maybe your something is to actively and empathetically listen to Black folx and other people of color as we share our stories of existing in a world where racism abounds. Whatever your something is, I encourage you to do "something please!"

Lionnell Smith
The University of Memphis
Memphis, TN
October 2020

Lionnell "Badu" Smith is a doctoral student at the University of Memphis. His research focuses on critical theory, pedagogy, and cultural studies at the intersections of language, race, and gender.

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The (Post-)Pandemic Academic: Re-Forming Communication Studies

Roy Schwartzman

The COVID-19 pandemic forced rapid transformation of educational practices on an unprecedented scale. Most notably, online course delivery became the default and persists as a key component of education throughout the course of the pandemic. This reflective analysis provides insights regarding effective design and implementation of online courses. Beyond the courses themselves, communication scholars and practitioners must consider systemic barriers to fully realizing the potential of online education. These concerns generate potential research and activist agendas that can encompass all the manifold dimensions of communication studies.

Keywords: COVID-19, Pandemic, Online Education, Distance Learning, Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

This volume of *Carolinas Communication Annual* reaches fruition amidst pandemic purgatory. Beginning in March 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic drove educational institutions at all levels throughout the United States to pivot quickly toward emergency remote teaching (and other operations) via online delivery. The prolonged course of the pandemic has generated an ongoing evolution from emergency remote mode to more deliberately designed online instruction. The prospect of long-term integration of robust online presence throughout academic life carries monumental implications for the communication studies field. The following reflections on how the pandemic disrupts customary academic practices may initiate productive debates, reconceptualizations, and practical reforms in teaching, learning, researching, and serving throughout the communication discipline.

Background

On 11 March 2020, the day after my university first announced its conversion to fully online teaching during the early stages of the pandemic, I established a Facebook group so teachers at various levels (K-12 through higher education) and various disciplines, course designers, technology specialists, and students could learn from each other and perhaps gather to boost morale. To my amazement, the group christened as *Pandemic Pedagogy* quickly went viral. Pandemic Pedagogy now serves as a worldwide hub for online education during the pandemic, with 32,500 members from 99 countries who have contributed well over one million content items. Administering this group provides a bird's eye view of key concerns, priorities, needs, and innovations associated with online

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education during the pandemic—and how the educational landscape may change afterwards.

Pandemic Pedagogical Practices

I have been designing and teaching fully online college-level courses since 2001, including fully online fundamentals of communication courses that include public speaking, group problem-solving, interviewing, and interpersonal dynamics. My early entry into online education also stimulated a robust line of research, given the demand for scholarship on this relatively novel mode of course delivery. Two decades of course design, teaching, and researching online education thoroughly grounded me technologically and in the principles of effective practice. Given that so many educators confronted a conversion to online teaching on such a short timetable (one week at my university), I distilled some of my key findings from extensive trials, frequent errors, and long-term familiarity with some of the key research. If we think of an online course as a communication ecosystem, the following practical recommendations can prove useful for educators. These apothegms, addressed to teachers, have been modified from versions I originally posted on *Pandemic Pedagogy*.

Online Apothegm 1: Embrace Redundancy

- Provide students with multiple ways to access important content (e.g., post as an announcement *and* link to the content in multiple locations).
- Post an important message as an announcement *and* email the content of the announcement to all students via the learning management system.

Online Apothegm 2: Love Your Librarians

Most university libraries already have wonderful online guides and tutorials on research- and citation-related matters. My department's liaison librarian created a wide array of useful video tutorials on how to locate and evaluate communication research, for example. Often, they are delighted to do "spec work" for individual courses, especially with large enrollments. It helps health and safety by reducing the crowded in-person workshops, and students can keep referring to these resources by revisiting them online, thereby building their skills.

Online Apothegm 3: Outsource

You may not need to create as much content from scratch as you thought. Hyperlinks can be your best friends. Link out to helpful sites, videos, images, etc. Not only does this quickly enable you to build a lot of content, but it also:
- capitalizes on student familiarity with investigating hyperlinked content (instead of reading screen after screen)
- (*very* important) avoids copyright and other potential legal problems associated with posting content directly within your course. Your university's legal office will thank you.

Online Apothegm 4: Multimodal Matters

Remember that screen content is visually scanned more than it is read word for word. Also, consider visual/aural/kinesthetic learning modes. Cover content with a brief video + some text (outlines, bulleted points, etc. facilitate screen-centered processing) + graphics offer a more inclusive—and immersive—learning environment. You don't have to (and shouldn't) write a textbook chapter for each unit. Recent research confirms that a more fully embodied, multisensory version of content provides students with a more immersive experience so they relate more closely to the content (Gallagher, Renner, & Glover-Rijkse, 2020).

Online Apothegm 5: Mind Your Ecosystem

An important aspect of online course (re)design relates to the online ecosystem. Try to minimize the number of different systems students have to learn and navigate. As much as possible, keep key content within the learning management system students already know, or at least use it as the central portal for accessing other resources. Each new login and password, each unfamiliar tool and system students must learn can increase their anxiety and reduce time they spend learning the course content. Think "time on task" here.

Online Apothegm 6: Go Retro

Some unglamorous, presumably stale technologies such as text chats can prove very useful for directly connecting with students (Schwartzman, 2013). There is basically no learning curve, and their familiarity and ease of use can build some confidence amid intimidating new technological interfaces. The cobweb-encrusted text-based chat still survives as an oft-forgotten feature dwelling in the bowels of almost every learning management system. Although it may be old AOL-era technology clad in a leisure suit, chat mimics the frequent texting that students already do. Text chats also circumvent bandwidth problems students may encounter with high-tech gadgetry. Text chats furnish a minimally invasive way to have one-on-one or group interactions with students. Plain text chats can work well for some virtual office hours, too.

Online Apothegm 7: Enable Learning

The rapid timetable for online conversions has an ominous implication. It remains likely that much course content may not be universally accessible to people with disabilities—at least not in time to meet the immediate instructional need. Build in whatever accessibility you can on the front end. Try not to rely too heavily on only one sensory medium (e.g., videos), as students with limitations in that sensory realm will experience chronic challenges. To save time, use video tools that can automatically generate close-captioning (for example, YouTube can do this quickly), and then correct the errors. Include subtitles/callouts on videos. A forthcoming study finds that 90 percent of students who self-disclosed medically certified disabilities had not registered with their campus accessibility office (Schwartzman & Ferraro, 2020). A lot of students probably

need various ways to access content, and you may not even know it. Accessible content needs to become the default by design rather than the afterthought.

Online Apothegm 8: Students as Online Course Mechanics

Worried the links to wonderful external content in your new online course might suddenly go dead? Yes, "link rot" is real—and really inconvenient. I like to enlist students in "Link Patrol" duty. The first student to notify me of a dead link—and recommend a working alternative that covers similar content—earns a little extra credit. Suddenly students carefully start monitoring course content and investigate every link, day in and day out. Implement this system and you now have links that are always functional, content regularly gets refreshed, your students celebrate their added points, and it reduces your labor. I also give positive reinforcement by posting lists congratulating students who apprehended a "missing link" in their Link Patrol duties.

Students love this sort of quest, and it can seriously improve the quality of an online course. Consider another option. Enlist students as "Exemplars": they post additional examples of key concepts so your examples/illustrations are always fresh and relevant. This kind of activity enacts healthy gamification: everyone works together to build a better course (Barata, Gama, Jorge, & Gonçalves, 2013).

Online Apothegm 9: Mission = Satisfice

A basic information technology principle should govern online course construction efforts, particularly in a crisis situation and within a short time frame: Use the simplest technology that will get the job done.

Lots of academics hold themselves to high standards, and many may qualify as perfectionists (looking in the mirror as I write this). But now is the time to distinguish between what you want (that Oscar-winning Pixar-level pinnacle of pedagogical infotainment) from what you—and your students—need: practical ways to share content (build knowledge) and connect with each other (build relationships). Find a few tools you use best and focus on those. Just because the techno-buffet has tons of tempting treats does not mean you must gorge on all of them.

This recommendation offers no excuse for sloppy pedagogy, but rather a call for doing what you as an instructor does best in ways that you and your students can manage. Satisficing refers to satisfaction with what suffices to accomplish a task without tormenting one's self that it might be done better (Schwartz, 2004). "It's good enough" allows for meeting high standards without the agony of constantly striving for perfection. After constructing your course, you can work your magic later and convert your online course to a more polished version that you keep improving.

Online Apothegm 10: Peer Review, Cyber Version

Peer review is a familiar staple of scholarly life, and it can help with online course development. If you are relatively new to online teaching, temporarily "enroll" a colleague who's an experienced online instructor as a student or observer in your course. Your colleague can offer feedback on your course's flow, structure, etc. as you build it. You

catch many potential setbacks before they happen, plus your colleague can offer tips and answer questions specific to your course. Bonus dividend: After constructing your course, you could enlist your colleague to complete a peer observation of your online teaching (also documenting the labor you invested) that you could include in your annual review. To test the user-friendliness of a course, enroll a student as a beta tester who can navigate through the course and sample the content. The student can give you feedback about how well the course works for its intended audience.

The collegial peer review system lies at the heart of the Quality Matters system (https://www.qualitymatters.org) of online course assessment works, complete with extensively tested evaluation rubrics. Formal external review such as Quality Matters or simply getting input from an experienced online instructor (not necessarily even in the same field) can yield usable feedback that will reduce missteps after the course launches.

Online Apothegm 11: Engaging with Grief and Loss

Teachers along with students likely are experiencing feelings of loss akin to grief at the sudden, indefinitely ongoing separation from personal contact in this crisis. A few communicative practices can help.

1. Acknowledge these feelings in ourselves and our students. This separation from personal contact and dearly valued shared spaces induces ongoing trauma, so mourning the loss and sharing the pain feels natural. We should provide outlets to express those feelings. However…

2. Students take emotional/attitudinal cues from their teachers, even online. If educators only adopt a loss frame, then we set ourselves and our students up for this cyber-exodus to be a predominantly negative experience foregrounding absence, failure, and restrictions. Treating an online course mainly as an inferior substitute for the physical classroom might taint student perception of all online education. These attitudes could negatively impact student retention.

3. While recognizing the loss, it may be productive to approach this experience through a change/opportunity frame. This reframing constitutes more than a glib "Don't worry, be happy" approach. Rather, it focuses on communicating positively about what students and teachers *can* do together. Amid all the uncertainty, we definitely know things will be different. So, we can embrace this pedagogical experience in ways that invite students to do what their instructors do: experiment, create. Consider ways to build the courage to embrace change, to provide support and encouragement to persist.

Online Apothegm 12: Promote Time and Uncertainty Management

To help our students plan their workloads, add estimated or exact time on task for as many course components as possible. Some examples illustrate this technique.

- List the time each video lasts. Simply adding it to the title or description can work, e.g.: "Roy Accepts Nobel Peace Prize (3:35)."
- Estimate the amount of time you expect students to spend on tasks, e.g.: "You probably will spend about 30 minutes in this week's mandatory cat grooming session."

Posting expected time on tasks also gives you a quick indication of how you as an instructor are distributing workload throughout the term.

Many web sites now use this technique, listing the estimated time to read a blog entry or news item. Naturally individual adjustments would be made for students needing accommodations.

These seemingly small details can improve performance by enabling students to schedule their time wisely and fit the course content into their multiple other commitments. This is especially helpful for students with additional family care responsibilities due to school and daycare closures. As a bonus, considerations like this just might help students stick with the course and thereby aid retention—one of the most valued metrics throughout the pandemic.

Conquering Digital Divides and Pedagogies of Privilege

The pandemic-prompted shift toward greater reliance on online education laid bare the presumptions of privilege built into many pedagogical practices. Educational technologies never operate as passive, neutral delivery mechanisms for content, detached from the material conditions that they operate within (Dowd, 2016). For more than a decade, I had contended that the limitations of online courses can be mitigated with sufficiently imaginative course design and execution (Schwartzman, 2007). The pandemic forced me to reconsider. My position fell prey to what I call the *ceteris paribus* fallacy: focusing on the online course itself as a resource independent of surrounding systemic conditions that affect usage of educational resources. The confidence I expressed in online course construction failed to account sufficiently for the structural factors that skew how and whether students can take full advantage of whatever online wizardry the instructor conjures.

Much has been written already regarding digital divides that limit access to hardware, adequate Internet service, or sufficient bandwidth for robust online learning. The quantity and quality of equipment could play a role in determining the grade the student receives. As long as these resources remain classified as profit-making opportunities instead of basic public resources, these divisions between haves and have-nots will persist. Although Generation Z (today's traditional college-age population) also bears the moniker iGen as the first generation of digital natives from childhood (Twenge, 2017), such skills mean little without sufficient tools to exercise them.

Probing the Pandemic

Education amid and beyond the pandemic calls forth all the traditions of theory that collectively constitute communication studies (Craig, 1999). Each tradition can shed light on some of the issues enumerated here, but more importantly, the investigations and actions that each tradition stimulates can inform and inspire the other traditions. The following suggestions should offer some preliminary ideas for engagement.

Critical communication scholars incur the obligation to interrogate and remediate the mechanics of power embedded in both online instruction and in how educational institutions communicate their priorities and relationships with stakeholders. Who becomes

more prioritized or marginalized in the ways that online education gets implemented? What structures enable some students to succeed while leaving others behind?

Phenomenologists can highlight the need to acknowledge and listen to the firsthand experiences of those undergoing educational disruptions wrought by the pandemic—including recognizing how they are attempting to process or cope with drastic instructional alterations. Phenomenological approaches can reveal the nuances of various perspectives, getting beyond simplistic dichotomies of faculty versus administrators or face-to-face versus online instruction. Crucially, phenomenology offers a way to reach beneath the spreadsheets of cost-benefit calculations and mine the lived experiences of the stakeholders—especially those who shoulder a disproportionate burden during the pandemic, such as low-income families, single parents, caregivers, and BIPOC. For example, what do students actually confront when they return home from school, especially when they have been rejected or scorned by their families?

Rhetoricians can lead in examining the public discourse of educational institutions and government officials in their justifications of school policies regarding levels of public safety measures, conditions for closures, and disclosure of cases and casualties. Rhetorical analyses of preventive health messages can assist in crafting convincing rationales for avoiding risky behaviors. How are risks framed for various audiences? How do metaphors and figures of speech shape discussions of the virus and reactions to it?

Semiotically, what symbolic significance attaches to the physical dimensions of the COVID-19 pandemic: protective face coverings (reminiscent of the religiously-grounded self-concealment criticized by Islamophobes?), physical distancing, participant backgrounds visible in teleconferences? How does the invisibility and mystery of the virus affect the available symbolic resources that can be brought to bear in discussing or combatting it?

Even venerable cybernetics can reanimate from the dustbins of Bell Labs. The centrality of media technologies revives focus on message fidelity. What measures, beyond simple amplification, can reduce message distortion while wearing protective equipment? How can videoconference platforms better accommodate nonverbal nuances or conversational dynamics (e.g., turn-taking)? The answers to such questions call for more than gadgetry, since how communicators experience feedback and verify understanding change significantly with alterations in the communication medium.

Socio-cultural work can complement the critical focus by highlighting the differential impact of the virus on various demographics. These explorations can also bring to light innovative ways that under-served communities provide mutual care during the pandemic, such as tending to the needs of quarantined or isolated community members.

Socio-psychological efforts can provide insights on the personal traumas and coping mechanisms induced by the pandemic. Such investigation may furnish vital empirical data that can inform strategies of crisis management. Findings gleaned from socio-psychological studies can form the basis for recovery programs that rebuild the human capacity for resilience, enabling trauma to provide greater self-awareness and strength to individuals and communities.

Conclusion

The pandemic-instigated push toward prioritizing online education enlists the kinds of knowledge and skills that communication studies can provide. At the micro-level of developing and refining online courses, implementing effective communication techniques in course design can generate deeper engagement and promote a more positive online course experience. At the meta-level, all seven major traditions that inform the focus areas of the field can contribute to understanding, coping with, and emerging successfully from fundamental disruptions to conventional educational practices and assumptions. The horizons of opportunities to teach, learn, think, and act innovatively extend invitingly before us, awaiting exploration.

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Emerging Themes in Physician-Patient Communication from the Physician's Perspective

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Constructive healthcare involves both physicians and patients as actively engaged communicators. A body of research has focused on the patient perspective with physician-patient consultations. The present qualitative study considered communication between physicians and patients. Information gathered from physicians presented a spectrum of patient communication behaviors that physicians find problematic, as well as physicians' concerns about physician communication competency and needed training.
The seven emerging themes included: patient preparedness and integrity, patient compliance/unrealistic goals and comprehension, language barriers and interpretation resources, internet consultation influences, communication skills training, cultural barriers and competency, and listening, empathy and time. The themes identified invite further examination of patient advocacy, intercultural interactions, online resources, empathy and listening in physician-patient relations. Results indicate that physicians recognize gaps in communication competency within their patient interactions which further supports the need for training.

Keywords: *Physician-Patient Communication, Medical Education, Cultural Competency, Listening*

Positive healthcare outcomes require both physicians and patients to be actively engaged as communicators (Lundeby et al., 2017). While past research has focused on the patient perspective with physician-patient consultations, both sides of the interaction must be considered to gain a comprehensive understanding of the relationship and improve future medical encounters (Arnold et al., 2012). The goals of patient-centered theory remain a good starting point when discussing how to meet the needs of physicians and the expectations of patients in the medical field. Patient-centered consultations reflect recognition of patients' needs and preferences, characterized by behaviors such as encouraging the patient to voice ideas, listening, reflecting and offering collaboration (Mead & Bower, 2000, p. 1090). In other words, the patient becomes the central figure in the direction of the medical interview, and the physician allows a more interpersonal collaboration regarding the patient's medical condition and history.

The patient-centered model, an example of a more care-oriented system, has evolved out of a broader treatment model that includes biological, psychological, social

and cultural factors, thereby redefining the physician-patient relationship. Physician-patient communicative practices are formed by the perceptions, expectations and attitudes that each brings to the medical encounter (Perloff et al., 2006). Medical schools are approaching training with a focus on communication and "bedside manner," using interpersonal interventions to improve medical care (Fuertes et al., 2007; Lundeby et al., 2017).

The majority of physician-patient articles have focused on either the patient's perspective of medical encounters (Heritage & Maynard, 2006; Ngo-Metzger et al., 2006; Zandbelt et al., 2006) or a dyadic perspective emphasizing both the physician and patient (Eggly, 2002; Mast et al., 2007; Coran et al., 2010). The physicians' perspective, a third component of this relationship is rarely discussed as to the perception of their own communication skills regarding patients (Paternotte et al., 2015; Street et al., 2007; Talen et al., 2008). This study sought the physicians' perspective. While physicians' competence in clinical techniques and skills in medicine are without question central to quality care, we wanted to know what physicians view as the fundamental factors in the physician-patient relationship that are important to overall patient care. In this qualitative exploratory study, we analyzed answers from a pool of Florida physicians about what aspects of physician-patient communication physician's view as frustrating and/or problematic and how their concerns can be addressed through future medical education.

Method

Participants

Participants were 124 Florida physicians, 89 males (72%) and 35 females or (28%) who completed the survey. The respondents were skewed toward males and toward older ages: 29 participants were 65 or older (23%), 36 were 55–64 years (29%), 46 were 45–54 years (37%) and 13 were 44 years or younger (10%). The sample was racially mixed: 81 physicians were White (65%), 18 were Hispanic (14%), 13 participants were Asian (10%), and 12 or (9.4%) constituted Black or Others race. The physicians participating in this sample were experienced medical providers with 84 citing 21 years or more of medical practice (68%), while 31 reported 11–20 or more years practicing medicine (25%). One third of the respondents were from primary care specialties such as internal and family medicine (33%), with the next highest response from pediatrics (14%). Other specialties included the following: Surgery (10.8%) Emergency Medicine (5.6%) Obstetrics and Gynecology (5%), Psychiatry (4%), Neurology (4.8%), and the remaining 28.6% of the physician sample were from the specialties of Anesthesiology, Cardiology, Oncology, and Dermatology. With institutional review board approval, we conducted a mail-based survey with a sample of currently practicing licensed Florida physicians. Our sample started with a data base of registered and licensed Florida physicians obtained from the Florida Department of Health (over 56,000 people listed, of whom about 43,000 were actively practicing and had contact information available). Using a random number generator, a sample of 1,500 physicians were chosen. Physicians with no address were removed from the sample. Also deleted from the general sample was physicians in specialties that were likely to have little contact with patients (e.g., pathology, radiology). No financial incentives were offered for survey completion.

Procedures

     The first section of the survey contained demographic and quantitative Likert scale questions. The second half of the survey included qualitative open-ended questions which is the focus of this exploratory analysis. Two specific questions were posed to the physicians: First, "are there any scenarios or patient behaviors that you have found problematic or frustrating when communicating with patients in your practice?" Second, "current research is focused on identifying communication concerns that might be addressed through future educational and training programs. Do you have any suggestions or concerns?" Physicians were encouraged to respond at length to these questions. They were made aware through a letter of informed consent that the goal of this research was to aid in the development of future medical communication education training programs for physicians and patients. There were no financial or gift incentives to participate and their responses were contributed on a voluntary basis, thus, physicians' responses varied in length and detail.

Coding and analysis

     The qualitative approach to analysis of their answers is based on Strauss and Corbin's (1990) open coding method. This coding process consists of collecting all the responses to the questions to get an overview of the data; coding the data into meaningful categories; reducing the meaningful categories and then subjecting them to systematic comparison and reconceptualization; and evaluating the categories for overarching themes. Before starting coding, both coders familiarized themselves with the process prescribed by Creswell (2009) for validating the accuracy of information during data analysis during qualitative research. This process consists of the following stages: raw data (qualitative/open-ended survey responses), organizing and preparing data for analysis, reading through all data, coding the data (by hand and utilizing Microsoft Excel software), deriving themes and descriptions respectively, interrelating themes and descriptions (using grounded theory approaches), and interpreting the meaning of the themes and descriptions pertinent to the study's purpose and questions (Creswell, 2009). Grounded coding is described as, "the process of working through a text, unit by unit, and attaching interpretations as to the topic, significance, rhetorical force, cultural location, and the like of each unit," (Anderson, 2012).

     Two coders worked collaboratively to achieve this process, comprising a concise list of categories to start and adding, altering, and refining these categories after both initially reading and later reviewing/recoding through the entire series of responses overall. Coding was also reviewed and recoded (as needed) once the responses (raw data) were placed into their respective categories. Upon review of the raw data file of survey responses, each coder presented and discussed several potential coding categories based upon the raw data emerging from the physician's responses. For example, in response to our survey question asking about suggestions or concerns pertaining to communication medical education training programs, the coders identified a series of qualifying examples within the raw data set. These examples helped to derive the theme of "communication skills training" and included items such as: continuing education, verbal and nonverbal skills training, listening, interview and inquiry methods, and allotting time

for communication skills training during medical school and residency. Another example includes the inquiry about scenarios and patient behaviors found to be problematic and/or frustrating when communicating with patients in physicians' practices. In deriving the theme of "patient preparedness and integrity" after review of the raw data the researchers qualified this theme using the following set of examples: omitting/censoring medical information, presenting conflicting and/or unrelated medical information, drug-seeking behaviors, omission of drug and alcohol use, lying, and diagnoses shopping.

The first coder developed a coding document based on the derived themes and assigned the individual responses within the mutually developed categories. Responses from the physicians varied in length from a few words to detailed paragraphs pertaining to their responses to our open-ended questions. The second coder then reviewed coder one's initial categorization with the raw data and concurred with greater than 80% of the analysis, which establishes a sound level of intercoder reliability in qualitative research coding and within this study (Creswell, 2009; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Coding in qualitative studies enables the exploration of "bits of information in the data and looking for similarities and differences within these bits to categorize and label data" (Walker & Myrick, 2006, p. 549). From the examples above, a bit of information based on a response which states: "many patients arriving not knowing why they [are] referred to me and not bringing any documentation" demonstrates how coders arrived at the overarching theme of "patient preparedness and integrity" and categorizing this data item and like data items accordingly. In the case of this study, the researchers were able to break down the responses of the physician respondents into a total of seven themes in order to better understand problematic areas of communication for physicians and seek out suggestions for training and educational development surrounding improving physician-patient communication. The seven emerging themes included: patient preparedness and integrity, patient compliance/unrealistic goals and comprehension, language barriers and interpretation resources, internet consultation influences, communication skills training, cultural barriers and competency, and listening, empathy and time which will be further discussed in the results.

Results

The first question elicited four themes, and the second question elicited three themes. Some sample physician responses are presented to support each theme.

Question 1: "Are there any scenarios or patient behaviors that you have found problematic or frustrating when communicating with patients in your practice?"

Theme 1: Patient preparedness and integrity
- "Patients who don't have necessary information about their problem; no list of medication, no dates or descriptions of prescriptions"
- "Many patients not knowing why they were referred to me and not bringing any medical documentation"
- "Patients are not honest at times."
- "Drug seekers, hidden agenda, alcohol use"

- "Some patients repeatedly see physician mainly for sympathy and attention rather than to be cured."
- "Patients never remember what meds they take and never remember to bring the medicine list or the medicine with them."
- "Complex patients with no medical record of medical history, not carrying important records or unable to recall information in the past"

Physicians in our sample expressed that patients are not always forthcoming when asked direct questions during medical history taking. Patients do not always tell physicians what is significant to them, and many times provide nonverbal hints when they have something important to say (Arnold, et al., 2016). Patient preparedness is a theme that arose in this study but has been an issue for other physicians as well (Arnold et al., 2012; Coran et al., 2010). In a similar study, physicians requested that patients provide more details about their current and past medication usage, previous treatments by other physicians, degree of compliance with past treatments, and the story of a symptom (Arnold et al., 2012). Physicians in our study reported that patients who communicate dishonestly by seeking drugs or narcotics complicate the communication issue.

Theme 2: Patient compliance, unrealistic goals and comprehension
- "Unrealistic expectations of managing >5 chronic conditions and 2–3 new problems"
- "Some patients need to hear same message 3–5 x's before feeling satisfied."
- "Obvious avoidance to listening to what I am saying because it does not match what they think is important at the moment."
- "Many uninsured patients do not seem to understand that finances affect many aspects of their care."
- "Occasionally impatient; answering cell phone during interview"
- "Expectations and goals don't match patient's realistic plan."

Patients' recall, comprehension, and complete understanding of what the physician tells them during consultations is variable. Our respondents noted frustration with all phases of the medical interview, including patients' having unrealistic expectations of outcomes, management of illnesses and financial arrangements. Consistent with previous research, physicians reported that patients are reluctant to ask questions when they do not understand information about their medical condition, treatment plan or the cost of care (Arnold et al., 2012; Farberg et al., 2013). Respondents commented that patient-centered communication may be inhibited if patients and physicians lack specific communication skills such as negotiation and listening. This is important because patient adherence and compliance may be negatively influenced by poor communication with the physician.

Theme 3: Language barriers and interpretation resources
- "Pts having poor or no command of English"
- "Lack of interpreters—including patients with hearing impairments"
- "Another big challenge is failure to speak or understand English; also, the patient who has family member or friend who also does not speak English well"
- "Pts with different ethnicities not accompanied by interpreters"

- "Need command of English language"
- "Patients cannot speak English."
- "Foreign language and lack of live interpreter presence"
- "Some foreign language barriers"
- Difficulty obtaining medical history from Haitian patients even with good Creole interpreter"

Physicians often serve culturally diverse patient populations. Such diversity may affect the way patients and physicians communicate (Ahmed & Bates, 2017). For example, it was found that Spanish-speaking Latino patients' cultural expectations influence their primary care interactions (Zamudio et al., 2017). Schinkel et al., (2016) found that ethnic minority patients participate less in medical consultations compared to ethnic majority patients.

Theme 4: Internet consultation influences
- "Patients overwhelmed and confused by internet information. They tend to believe what they read without question."
- "Some patients go to the internet for information and made their own conclusions without any understanding of the illness."
- "I saw on the internet…don't understand scientific/statistical significance versus internet crap."
- "Seeing more patients who request medication changes based on TV ads or internet"
- "Internet knowledge/advertising, not simplistic solutions (I deal with pancreatic cancer)"

These physician frustrations are curious because much existing literature reveals that internet research enhances or complements the medical visit and physician-patient relationship. Xiao et al., (2014) found that patients increasingly access health information via the internet, that patients' search behaviors are influenced by trust in online health information, and that this information impacts their healthcare. Interestingly, neither a patient's health status nor the quality of communication with the physician affects preferences for or frequency of health information searches online. It appears that patients perceive the internet as a supplemental resource to help them better understand medical advice. Thus, the internet can potentially influence the dynamic of the traditional doctor-patient relationship and their communication practices (Tan & Goonawardene, 2017). Patients with chronic health problems could benefit from online health information but understanding of how to maximize consumer health information using online tools is still lacking (Lee et al., 2015).

Magnezi et al., (2015) described four reasons for online social health network use: (1) acquiring information and support, (2) communicating, (3) networking and (4) browsing. Reasons for seeking internet information differed by patient population and by health condition are uniquely shaped by patient, relational and visit factors. In addition to these motivations, it appears the majority of patients seek out health information online after a medical visit with their physician, for reasons including curiosity and patient dissatisfaction (Li et al., 2014).

Question 2: The current research is focused on identifying communication concerns that might be addressed through future educational and training programs. Do you have any suggestions or concerns?

> *Theme 1: Physician communication skills training*
> - "Physicians need to have more training in communication skills. They don't listen to their patients."
> - "Formal education through didactic sessions observing experienced physicians' communicating with patients"
> - "With good communication one can have better patient satisfaction. Teaching should focus on SPECIFIC SKILLS to increase patient satisfaction."
> - "Informal training in verbal and nonverbal communication and listening in medical school and residency"
> - "Medical students and residents would greatly benefit from formal communication training."
> - "Good communication is crucial between patients/parents and medical doctors, to avoid medical errors and to build trust."
> - "More observational opportunities for medical students and residents to witness experienced physicians"
> - "It would be very helpful to introduce formal courses in medical school, residency, CME programs on communication skill building."
> - "Communication should be started in medical school and carried thru to training programs."
> - "Informal training in verbal and nonverbal communication and listening in medical school and residency"

The communication skills approach for healthcare providers has gained momentum but changing professionals' communication behavior permanently is a difficult undertaking (Lundeby et al., 2017). Medical students' direct expressions of empathy decrease as they progress through medical school (Hojat et al., 2004). Further, as training progresses, medical students and residents talk more in their interactions with patients, suggesting that the socialization of physicians implies learning and using dominating communication strategies (Roter et al., 1997). Reasons why physicians may not demonstrate advanced communication skills include decreasing consultation time, the escalating amount of medical information, variability in treatment regimens, and diversity of populations (Osborn, 2000). Also, some doctors may not be aware of how their own emotions impact their communication with patients. Groopman (2007) reported, most medical errors are mistakes in thinking and these cognitive errors are impacted by emotions.

This interrelationship between emotion and cognition is further supported as Damisio (2005) stated, "feelings" have immense influence on cognition. This hidden triggering "activity from neurotransmitter nuclei…can bias cognitive processes in a covert manner and thus influence the reasoning and decision-making mode" (Damisio, 2005, pp. 159–160). Groopman (2007) sees the root of the flaw as the doctors' lack of self-awareness. Physicians do not realize that attribution errors happen when a doctor's diagnostic cogitations are shaped by a stereotype (White, 2011).

Many communication models may be too comprehensive for clinicians to implement in daily practice or may be perceived as too distant from their innate and natural way of communicating. Moreover, misconceptions about what communication skills training can benefit physicians might be an important barrier to training effectiveness (Lundeby et al., 2017). Integrating communication training into the existing medical curriculum is important. Wright et al., (2008) note that medical students often feel that communication training courses are common sense and that they already have proficient communication and listening skills for practicing medicine.

Theme 2: Cultural barriers and competency

- "Address ethnic, cultural, language issues. Body language and tone of interview, style of interview, how to approach a language barrier"
- "The federal mandate to offer interpreters of foreign language while not covering the expense"
- "Cultural competency issues will clearly become even more important in the future as America becomes increasingly more diverse"
- "How do you communicate with non-English speaking patients. How do you tell a patient they are not compliant with the language barrier? Cultural difference/understanding."
- "For excellent communication skills, the resolution of the impediment of the language barrier"
- "People who live in the US must have English competency and speak English!"

Misunderstandings reported by physicians involved patients acknowledging comprehension of a medical conversation when in fact they did not fully comprehend and patients not asking follow-up questions. Schneider (2004) presents examples of how stereotyping and personal bias are present in physician patient interactions such as decisions about who should get joint replacement surgery (men rather than women, the fit rather than the obese), and also emergency room care (the youthful rather than the elderly) One aspect that can be important in understanding how individuals will react in an intercultural communication context pertains to the social relationship that develops within a particular context (Couch, 1984). Individuals in a particular setting need to develop a social relationship, a shared past, and a projected future. However, unless interactants share a similar social past, they may not correctly interpret the culturally derived symbols and may ascribe incorrect meanings to the actions of others, which could lead to inappropriate responses (Atkinson & Housley, 2003; Schwandt, 2007). This lack of a shared past impedes the communication between physicians and their culturally diverse patients.

Another reason that intercultural communication can prove so difficult is the lack of shared interpretations for the symbols interactants employ (Atkinson & Housley, 2003; Schwandt, 2007). In order to understand human actions, the common setting must be established so that individuals can express their particular definition of the situation, what they have taken into account, and how they have interpreted the symbols they received (Atkinson & Housley, 2003; Schwandt, 2007). When patients do not assign the same interpretation to the language used by the physician, this barrier impedes problem resolution.

Fundamental health literacy deficits among patients may contribute to these behaviors. Patient trepidation is reduced when a physician adjusts to cultural differences regarding proxemics or touch during the physical exam or chronemics such as the progression of the disease. The physician who does not accommodate the patient may make the medical encounter even more alien (Ahmed & Bates, 2017). In addition, language plays an essential role "when non-Hispanic doctors treat Spanish speaking patients with limited English, they find themselves in an alien space disabled from communication effectively and as unfamiliar with the patient's norms and expectations as the patients are with their physician's" (White, 2011, p. 249).

Theme 3: Listening, empathy, and time

- "I had a neurology instructor tell us the medical students "if you listen to the patient, they will tell you what is wrong with them."
- "Formal course in the practice of compassion and empathy"
- "Spend time 'needed' with patients; do not evaluate, examine, diagnose, treat based on time allowed per patient."
- "How to not overwhelm patients with data. Too much info they don't know what is important anymore."
- "Focus on sensitivity as well-empathy."
- "Allow the patient enough time to describe the symptoms."
- "I am terribly concerned that with all the push for TMR and CPOE, that hands on/empathetic care is going to be a thing of the past for patients."
- "Involve the patient more in their care. A partnership with their physician. Assist patient with their health information."

Physicians in our study were concerned with the need for empathy and the need for more empathy/sensitivity training for physicians. Empathy and its associated skills have been correlated with patient satisfaction and adherence to the treatment plan (Giuliana & Baum, 2011). The absence of empathy has been demonstrated to increase patient dissatisfaction and the risk of medical malpractice claims (Davis et al., 2008). When healthcare professionals communicate with patients, a common observation is that they interrupt, dominate the conversation and limit patients' opportunity to express concerns or other emotional or challenging topics (Hojat et al., 2004). Given that verbal and nonverbal communication is inherently part of listening research, and that our sample of physicians cited listening skills as important, it seems logical that listening skill building be a required component of medical communication training.

Discussion

In this qualitative exploratory study, we analyzed answers from a pool of Florida physicians about what aspects of physician-patient communication physician's view as frustrating and/or problematic and how their concerns can be addressed through future medical education. Based on the physicians' responses to two questions we were able to glean seven communication themes concerning physician-patient consultations. These themes concerning patient behaviors included preparedness and integrity, compliance and comprehension, language barriers, and internet influence. The themes identified herein invite further examination of patient advocacy, intercultural interactions, online resource and the influence of technology on physician-patient interactions, empathy and listening

in physician-patient relations. A central takeaway from this study is that physicians recognize gaps in communication competency within their patient interactions which further supports the need for training and educational development.

The first question asked if physicians found any problematic or frustrating patient behaviors when communicating during medical encounters. The first theme, patient preparedness and integrity, described situations in which patients are not always forthcoming with their disclosure of information, medical histories, or agendas for the medical encounter. Additionally, physicians felt that patients are not always honest, are sometimes narcotic seeking, and enact excuses and denial behaviors. Negotiation becomes difficult when the physician is suspicious of a hidden agenda on the part of the patient. The patient and the physician should be interacting in a mutualistic or co-constructed relationship (Coran et al., 2010). Co-construction requires constant verbal and nonverbal negotiation between the physician and patient and depends on patients' honesty and full disclosure even on sensitive or personal information (Ahmed & Bates, 2017). Agenda setting should occur during the introduction phase of the medical interview, at which point patients should share a written checklist or verbally state their top three concerns or issues for the current medical visit (Arnold et al., 2012; Farberg, et al., 2013). Clear goal setting could help both physicians and patients negotiate and communicate a prioritization of needs for the designated medical visit.

A second frustration with patient communication, unrealistic goals and comprehension, was reported during all phases of the medical interview. Patients demonstrated unrealistic expectations and compliance for managing their illnesses, outcomes of the visit, and even financial arrangements. To alleviate lack of comprehension and unrealistic goals, patients need to actively participate by asking questions of their doctor to focus the interaction and adjust the amount of information provided (Kaplan, Greenfield, Gandek, Rogers, & Ware, 1996). Farberg et al. (2013) introduced Dear Doctor notes, a bedside notepad designed to prompt patient questions, with the goal of facilitating patient communication with their physicians (p. 553). This simple, low cost patient-centered tool can be an effective reminder for patients to ask their physician important questions related to their care.

The third theme identified language barriers and interpretation issues during the medical consultation. Physician comments revealed frustrations when communicating when English is not the patient's first language. Schinkel et al., (2016) concluded that physicians should be trained in how to tailor their communication styles to patients' preferences for participation. Paternotte et al. (2015) also identified challenges to intercultural physician-patient communication and emphasized the need for training on core communication skills in order to enhance the intercultural communication competency among physicians and their patients. They identified educational objectives focused on language differences, recognition of misunderstanding, perceptual differences of illness and disease, awareness of their own culture and cultural expectations and of cultural differences with patients, patient-centered communication, and awareness of the patients' family and social dynamics. The reality that we live in a global society increases the likelihood of intercultural interaction occurring within medical encounters.

Internet consultation influences describes the fourth theme developed from the data. This sample of physicians did not have a positive outlook on patients using internet-derived information and including it in their consultations. These findings are curious

because the existing literature suggests that internet research enhances or complements the medical visit and the physician-patient relationship. The work of Magnezi et al. (2015) supports the notion that by learning the unique contexts of patients who seek our online health information, physicians might encourage patients accordingly, which may lead to improved health management and medical advice compliance. Physicians building an online presence and sharing important information about topics relevant to patients may be a means of improving physician-patient relations.

The second question posed to physicians asked for suggestions or concerns about patient communication concerns that might be addressed through educational programs. The first common theme among the physicians surveyed was to implement more communication skills training, including communication observational opportunities, specific skills to increase patient satisfaction and formal courses in medical school and continuing medical education (CME) programs. However, there are no clear systematic definitions or strategies for teaching basic or advanced communication skills or listening skills within medical education. Newcomb et al. (2017) designed and implemented a patient-centered communication curriculum by developing communication and medical scenarios using former patients as standardized patients (SP) and techniques by which to assess the scenarios. By using SP's to replicate the medical consultation for medical student communication training, the experience combines the specific skills, formal learning and observational opportunities need cited by the physicians in this study.

Cultural barriers and cultural competency issues emerged as the second education and training concern for physicians. Culturally competent communication skill development has received relatively light emphasis given the packed medical education curriculum and difficulty of assessing performance (Frank et al., 2010). More recently, given the prevalence of health disparities, there has been increasing focus on training physicians and medical students in culturally competent healthcare (Ahmed & Bates, 2017). Part of the communication breakdown for minority patients is their fear of the physician, stemming in part from cultural differences. One proposal to counter these challenges is to require culturally competent communication in medical education as a skill set that is essential for healthcare providers to meet the needs of the diverse populations they serve (Betancourt, 2006).

The third suggestion and concern from the physicians was that of building stronger listening skills, and empathy, which are inextricably linked to time issues in consultations. Listening has been reported by patients as the number one expectation of physicians and a lack of consultation time need not limit effective listening (Arnold et al., 2016). Patient satisfaction has long been tied to the effective listening of physicians and other healthcare practitioners; when healthcare providers listen to patients, it can result in better compliance (Wright et al., 2008), enhanced patient satisfaction (Zachariae et al., 2003), circumventing of potential communication barriers (Arnold et al., 2016), and less vulnerability to malpractice lawsuits (Davis et al., 2008). Empathic listening consists of eliciting feelings, paraphrasing and reflecting, using silence, listening to what the patient is saying but also to what s/he is unable to say, encouragement and non-verbal behavior (Arnold et al., 2016; Wright, et al., 2008). Therapeutic listening training could include reading nonverbal and verbal cues, attending to micro-expressions, reflecting patients' emotions, and demonstrating supportive attending behaviors. Teaching clinicians effective listening skills as an alternative to interruption and dominance is therefore of

great importance. Researchers are interested in how empathy can be taught in medical programs and how best to create healthcare cultures that value empathy in treatment (Lundeby et al., 2017). Arnold et al., (2016) mention an additional gap in current medical training which includes applied listening skills and when to use different types of listening in the medical encounter (e.g., discriminative, comprehensive, therapeutic, critical, and empathic listening).

While offering some interesting perspectives into how physicians perceive their communication with patients, this study has some limitations. The sample size was only 124 Florida physicians that responded to this study. The participants were skewed toward older practicing physicians who have been out of medical school longer than younger physicians. Therefore, whether the findings can be generalized to all physicians is uncertain. Future research should evaluate a larger sample size and survey physicians across the United States and not in one state. A longitudinal study examining graduating medical students, residents, and experienced physicians would add some insight into the role of experience versus education when interacting with patients.

Conclusion

Communication between physicians and patients continues to attract attention within healthcare and communication studies. Perspectives and opinions from practicing physicians shed additional light on possible miscommunications and discordant moments during medical consultations. The information gained from this study will help guide development and implementation of training opportunities in medical education. The themes identified herein invite further examination of patient advocacy, intercultural interactions, online resources, empathy and listening in physician-patient relations. This study captures a broad overview of patient communication behaviors that physicians find problematic, as well as physicians' concerns about physician communication competency and needed training.

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Cartoons and Polarizing Political Rhetoric: A History of the Party Switch of 1964 as Told Through the Strom Thurmond Collection Cartoons Series

John A. McArthur

Cartoons have chronicled the history of polarizing political rhetoric throughout major shifts in US politics. When US Senator Strom Thurmond of South Carolina and other noteworthy Democrats shifted their allegiances to the Republican party in the early 1960s, cartoonists captured the swing of the political pendulum. Using Strom Thurmond's personal papers in the Strom Thurmond Collection (part of Clemson University's Special Collections & Archive), this study examines 16 political cartoons depicting Thurmond's party switch from his own archive. A content analysis of these cartoons illustrates a focus on setting and character affect as polarizing political rhetoric, plot cues indicating Thurmond's role as a catalyst in the party switch, and narrator depictions of Southern-ness as central to the time period. In addition, special attention is given to several cartoons which are signed originals provided to the senator by the cartoonists.

Keywords: Political Cartoons, Strom Thurmond, Textual Analysis, Archive

Polarizing political rhetoric has been a source of both ire and esteem for varying factions of the United States populace over the history of the nation. And such rhetoric has a rich history in the political cartoons published by US newspapers. The Library of Congress and other libraries across America have archived political cartoons and staged exhibits surrounding the power of the pen and the cartoonists that wield them. In a recent exhibit featuring the work of prolific cartoonist Herbert Block, the curator quoted the cartoonist saying, "A cartoon does not tell everything about a subject. It's not supposed to. No written piece tells everything either. As far as words are concerned, there is no safety in numbers. The test of a written or drawn commentary is whether it gets at an essential truth" (Billington, 2010). Such exhibitions speak to the national significance of political cartoons as a voice of both reason and satire, regardless of the individual cartoonist's political leanings.

Contemporary political cartoonists "translate political abstractions into tangible visual representations" (Hess & Northrup, 1996, p. 14). These representations make accessible the political battles and theoretical ideas of the daily news. Thus, American political figures across the nation have been inspirations for and satirical foci of editorial cartoons. Presidents, senators, congressmen, high ranking national officials, and state and local officials have been represented in comic form by news providers nationwide. Like his

congressional colleagues, for South Carolina politician Strom Thurmond, these political cartoons trace a history of service to state and nation.

This study focuses on cartoons surrounding a history of this intersection of polarizing political rhetoric and cartooning, and specifically those cartoons surrounding Thurmond's switch from the Democratic Party to the Republican Party in 1964.

Political Cartoons & the Strom Thurmond Archive

"Today is the day of the picture…" writes Isabel Simeral Johnson in the first volume of *Public Opinion Quarterly* (1937), "Cartoonists have long been important and useful to society. The future promises them an even more decisive role, and an even greater responsibility" (p. 44). In her article, she chronicled the history of the rise of (editorial) cartooning in newspapers across Europe and the US, citing Benjamin Franklin's now historic "Join or Die" cartoon (May 9, 1754) in his *Pennsylvania Gazette* as the first example of American cartooning. Originating long before America during the time of Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation, cartoons were originally used to appeal to the illiterate, who then made up a large portion of society (Hess & Northrup, 1996).

Not until Medhurst and DeSousa's (1981) exploration of political cartoons did researchers establish a prevailing method for the study of the rhetoric of political cartoons. In their seminal work, Medhurst and DeSousa devised a taxonomy for the study of political cartoons, using neo-classical canons of rhetoric combined with the visual study of graphic techniques. In concert, this unified approach laid a foundation for the study of political cartoons as a persuasive medium in the context of their contemporary political environments. Their study reminds students of media that "the effectiveness of any given caricature is dependent to a much greater degree on audience ability and participation than on artistic creativity and talent" (p. 205). The medium relies heavily on the audience to be able to decipher and construct meanings from the cues in the cartoon itself. In addition to Medhurst and DeSousa's method, other methods of study have influenced and been influenced by their work, including the empirical models (Bormann, Koester, & Bennett, 1978) and structuralist approaches (Morris, 1993).

Medhurst and DeSousa's study gave rise to a variety of studies of cartoons as markers of political rhetoric and narrative at crucial junctures in recent history. The study of political cartoons has provided context for prevailing sentiments and concerns. Edwards (1997) explores the 1988 US Presidential campaign. Diamond (2002) assessed political cartoons to contextualize the Muslim and Arab experience of the days following September 11. DeHart & Pombo (2004) explore Brazilian cartoons surrounding the 2004 US Presidential election.

Perhaps one of the most well-known American cartoonists, Thomas Nast, composed famous cartoons in the late 1800s concerning Boss Tweed and Tammany Hall and solidified political cartoons as agents of satire and change in American society: "The mythic poser of cartoons has continued to grow since Thomas Nast took on William Tweed, placing the cartoonists' role in an exalted position as a standard-bearer for integrity and truth in journalism, as the voice of the common sense—the boy revealing that the emperor has no clothes" (Hess & Northrup, 1996, p. 10). Of special importance to this study are the origins of the donkey and elephant as symbols of the Democrat and Republican parties, which were born in political cartoons. Whereas the Democrats'

donkey is thought to have first appeared around the time of President Andrew Jackson, the GOP elephant first made the papers in Thomas Nast's November 7, 1874 cartoon in *Harper's Weekly* (Hess & Northrup, 1996).

Katz's (2004) history of political cartoons reminds us that cartooning since Franklin has fluctuated as a medium, gravitating at polarizing times toward partisan ideologies and iterating across two Golden Ages: once during the days of Nast and his crusade against New York City's "Boss" Tweed in the 1870s, and then again in the 1970's, culminating with Herbert Block winning his fourth Pulitzer Prize for his cartoons surrounding the Watergate scandal and then-President Nixon. In fact, one of Block's cartoons from 1964 is a focal point of the current study. The political cartoonists' value is in their ability to speak truth to power and to clarify complex geo-political issues into approachable visuals. "The future of editorial cartooning in America is uncertain," Katz writes, "but the past holds lessons for all of us" (p. 44). As Lawrence (2014) suggests, the political cartoons of the past can draw connections for readers in the present by illustrating connections that were once overlooked or unrecognized as broader historical patterns.

But, this past and its lessons are often difficult to uncover. Shaw (2007) laments the relative scarcity of studies of political cartoons compared to other forms of political expression. He notes several reasons for this "neglect": (1) cartoons are contemporary art published in daily life and perhaps seen as less valuable, important, or collectible, (2) the process of printing in newspapers and magazines contributes to short shelf-life giving each cartoon many copies but few long-term archival options, (3) microfilm records preserved newsprint well but their high-contrast nature didn't function well for cartoons, and (4) few indices exist for searching cartoons in full copies of newspapers (pp. 749–750). These challenges require that researchers turn to a variety of alternative sources for curating thematic studies of political cartoons.

Over his lifetime, Strom Thurmond served as governor of South Carolina and US Senator. He was a presidential candidate in one century and served as US Senate President Pro-Tempore in the next. Clemson University Special Collections and Archive contains the Strom Thurmond Collection, documents maintained in Thurmond's personal, donated papers and other items retrieved from national news providers. These papers depict historical moments in his career from his run for President as a Dixiecrat in the 1948 presidential election; to his stances against civil rights; to his record-setting filibuster on the Senate floor in 1957; and to his tenure of service in the Senate: some 48 years from 1954 until 2003. Among these documents exists a collection of cartoons relating to Strom Thurmond's service.

One of the major issues for political cartoons is their impermanence: "Once they were tacked on tavern walls; today they are hung on refrigerator doors, Xeroxed, faxed, and eventually forgotten" (Hess & Northrup, 1996, p. 20). Judging by the number of files on display in the political cartoon section of his personal archive, observers might assume that Senator Thurmond wanted to chronicle this impermanent medium. The collection houses volumes of political cartoons donated by Thurmond to the university. Some are original pen-and-ink drawings—gifts from the cartoonist to the Senator. Some were clippings of national newspapers mailed to the senator with notes from friends. Others could have been clipped from newsprint by the Senator himself or members of his staff. The cartoons included in this archive were collected, saved, and donated in an open collection as part of his personal papers. Thus, the cartoons are not an exhaustive

collection of cartoons referencing Thurmond. Rather, they are cartoons that bore special importance to Thurmond and were kept (for any number of reasons) among his papers.

As previously noted, this study focuses on cartoons surrounding Thurmond's switch from the Democratic Party to the Republican Party in 1964. Party switching, like the switch committed by Thurmond in 1964, was not new for the senator from South Carolina. He won as a Democrat in the South Carolina gubernatorial race, ran for president as a Dixiecrat in 1948, was elected to the U.S. Senate as a write-in candidate in 1954, affiliated with the Democratic party, and switched to the Republican party in 1964. His repeated partisan malleability was the primary subject of one of the cartoons in this archive, Parker's (1964) "Well, He's A Man Of Strong Convictions…".

This study aims to identify major themes through a textual analysis of the political cartoons featuring Strom Thurmond at the polarizing time of his party switch in 1964. For this study, cartoons were gathered from the Strom Thurmond Collection. Cartoons were selected if they were (1) present in the archive's files from 1960 – 1967 and (2) related to Thurmond's party switch in 1964. A textual analysis of these cartoons was performed to (1) identify common themes by noting historically significant inclusions in the cartoons, and (2) chronicle personal notes to Thurmond by the artists.

Analysis

This study highlights major themes present among 16 cartoons existing in Strom Thurmond's personal archive. Among the cartoons, three major themes were identified: (1) setting and character as polarizing rhetoric, (2) plot illustrating Strom Thurmond as catalyst and (3) narrator offerings of connotations of Southern-ness from multiple perspectives. In addition, six of the cartoons analyzed were autographed originals given to Thurmond by the cartoonists.

Setting & Character as Polarizing Rhetoric

The timing of this party switch depicted in these cartoons is important historically. In the 1964 presidential election, Lyndon Johnson and the Democrats won a sweeping majority only losing South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, and Louisiana to Republican contender Barry Goldwater, along with Goldwater's home state of Arizona. The former "Dixie-crats," with Strom Thurmond as their most noteworthy face, left the Democratic party and aligned with Goldwater's Republican party. Ten cartoons reveal depictions of Goldwater's Republicans and Johnson's Democrats as they relate to the party switch.

The first group of cartoons uses setting to portray negative sentiment about Goldwater and his Republican party, now joined by Thurmond. Tom Engelhardt's (1964) "Requesting Permission to Come Aboard, Suh'" depicts a ragged Goldwater aboard a shaky log raft. The *Milwaukee Journal*'s (1964) "Nice Cozy Cave You've Got There" depicts Goldwater hiding in a dark cave. Herbert Block's (1964) depicts Goldwater's party with members of radical extremist groups on stage, omitting the presence of an audience. Each image illustrates a faltering or precarious setting to indicate a party in distress, lacking strength.

The second group of cartoons uses character design employing emotional affect to depict the positive response of Democrats to the switch. Gene Basset's (1964) "Barry, I've Decided to Change Sides" depicts a line in the sand with a gleeful Thurmond flying toward an unemotional Goldwater. Democrat Lyndon Johnson smirks in the background. Jim Morgan's (1964) "Changing Partners" depicts a donkey frustrated but relieved by Thurmond's decision. The donkey—clad in a cocktail dress as Thurmond's previous dance partner—sighs, "He kept stepping on my toes anyway" as Thurmond dances the night away with a voluptuous elephant. Mauldin (1964) and Grant (1964) also use the donkey to symbolize the Democrats response. Bill Mauldin's (1964) "Some Weep Because They Part…" depicts a donkey watching Thurmond leave. The caption goes on to read, "and others… (weep) because they never parted." This sullen image depicts uncertainty about whether Thurmond's switch is a good thing for the party. Lou Grant (1964) portrays a laughing donkey wearing a black arm band to mourn the loss of Thurmond. The caption, "Oh It's a Terrible Loss," reveals the donkey's sarcasm.

Gene Basset (1964). "Barry, I've Decided to Change Sides." Original pen and ink with inscription: "To Sen. Strom Thurmond with best wishes." Clemson University Special Collections.

L.D. Warren (1964). "All the Way with LBJ – HMPF!" Original pen and ink with inscription: "To Sen. Strom Thurmond – One good turn deserves another!" Clemson University Special Collections.

Additionally, another set of cartoons uses character and emotional affect to underline negatives for Lyndon Johnson's (LBJ) party associated with the party switch. L.D. Warren's (1964) "All the Way with LBJ—HMPF!" portrays a blind LBJ leading a blind donkey off a cliff while Thurmond's about-face saves he and the elephant from a similar fate. Paul Conrad (1964) portrays a bruised and battered Johnson saying, "I knew Strom Thurmond might fight—but I never thought he'd leave."

One additional interesting play on this historical context of party preference is found in Don Hesse's (1964) cartoon "An Ear Doesn't Make a Whole Donkey." Hesse depicts Barry Goldwater as a Matador character who has cut off the ear of a donkey (to which the name Strom Thurmond is attached). This cutting could be symbolic of a coup for

Goldwater and a whittling of the Democratic party through the switch led by Thurmond. But, it could also be read as a reminder to Democrats that just because an influential person leaves the party, the party remains.

Plot illustrating Thurmond as Catalyst

Five cartoons use plot cues to suggest that Thurmond was a leader and influential participant in the Senate only 10 years into his 48-year service. Richard Yardley's (1964) "The First Shot at Fort Sumter" depicted the beginning of the Civil War on the coast of South Carolina. He uses imagery of Charleston's battery, the island fort, and the South Carolina flag's emblematic palmetto tree and crescent moon to add to the context. The shots fired on Fort Sumter were the first of the Civil War. Yardley's depiction of Fort Sumter as the Democrats' Southern stronghold reflects Thurmond's instigation of the party switch. He labeled Strom Thurmond's decision an explosive "bolt"—the first shots fired at what Yardley calls "the 'solid' Democratic South.

In "Nice Cozy Cave You've Got Here," the *Milwaukee Journal* (1964) depicted Thurmond as a brontosaurus. The drawing of Thurmond as a larger than life dinosaur creates that idea that the party switch was a monstrous change (and the dinosaur offers an interesting foreshadowing of what would later become Thurmond's record tenure of service). In the cartoon, Goldwater is an unknown beast in the cave, being visited by what we must assume is a much larger, more commanding presence in Thurmond.

Charles Brooks' (1964) "Coming George?" and Jim Morris' (1964) "Changing Partners" depict Thurmond as a leader in this switch. In "Coming George?" Thurmond is the first to jump ship and he calls back to George Wallace—a representative for others with "conservative beliefs"—asking them if they are coming. In "Changing Partners," Thurmond is the suited, male leader of the dance and changes partners with the passive, female parties. The dance partners appear interchangeable while Thurmond is given agency and movement while leading the dance. In both cartoons, Thurmond's actions are represented by motion lines (jumping and twirling) while others pictured in the images are depicted as followers.
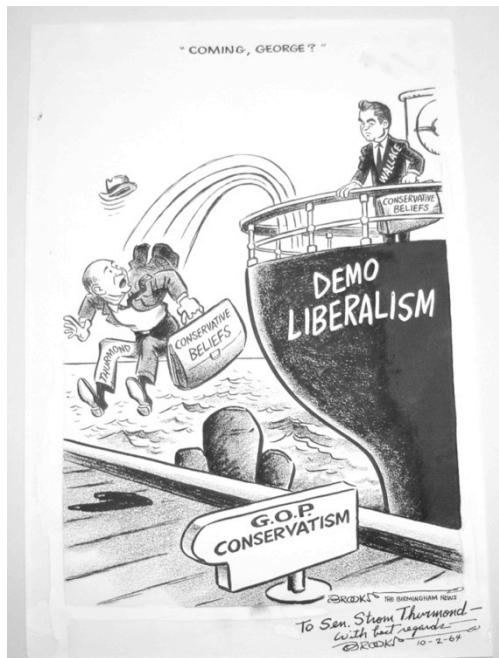
Charles Brooks (1964). "Coming George?" Original pen and ink with inscription: "To Sen. Strom Thurmond – with best regards." Clemson University Special Collections.
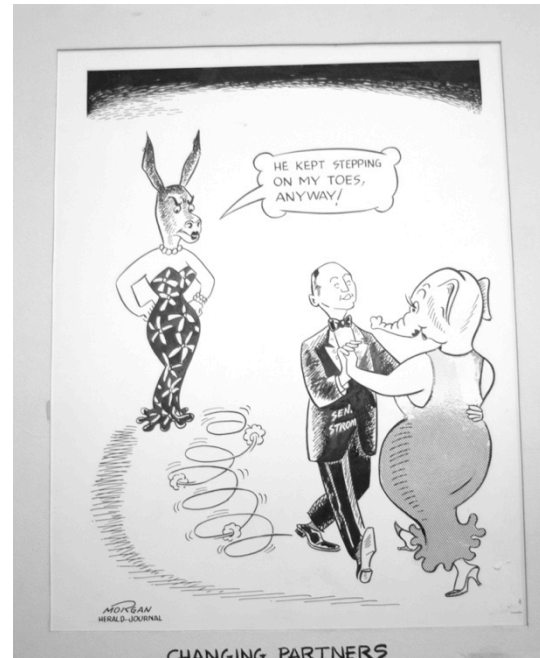
Jim Morgan (1964). "Changing Partners." Original pen and ink. Clemson University Special Collections.

This theme of the use of plot elements to depict Thurmond as catalyst could be indicative of the political arena's feelings about Thurmond as already discussed in the cartoons of Hesse, Conrad, and Warren, suggesting that editorial cartoonists saw Thurmond as a leader in the transition and the face of the party switch.

Narrator depictions of Thurmond's Southern-ness

The notable transition of the parties in the 1960s was the shift in both parties as those against Civil Rights moved to the Republican party and those with a more liberal social agenda remained with the Democrats. This signified a major shift in the politics of the Southern states. Six cartoonists in this collection utilized carefully-selected, race-oriented Southern imagery to bring this issue into their comics.

As previously noted in the discussion of "The First Shot at Fort Sumter" (1964), Yardley used images of a confederate general and union troops, the cannons on Charleston's battery, Fort Sumter, and the emblems of the South Carolina flag to create a distinctly Southern cartoon later published in the *Baltimore Sun*.
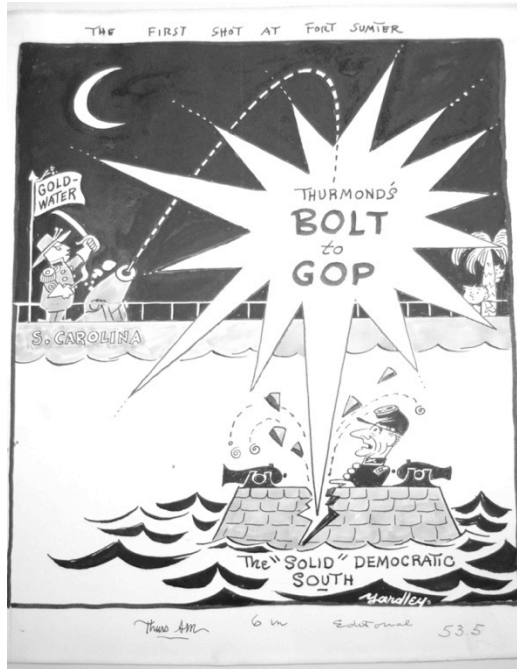
Richard Yardley (1964). "The First Shot at Fort Sumter." Original pen and ink. Clemson University Special Collections.
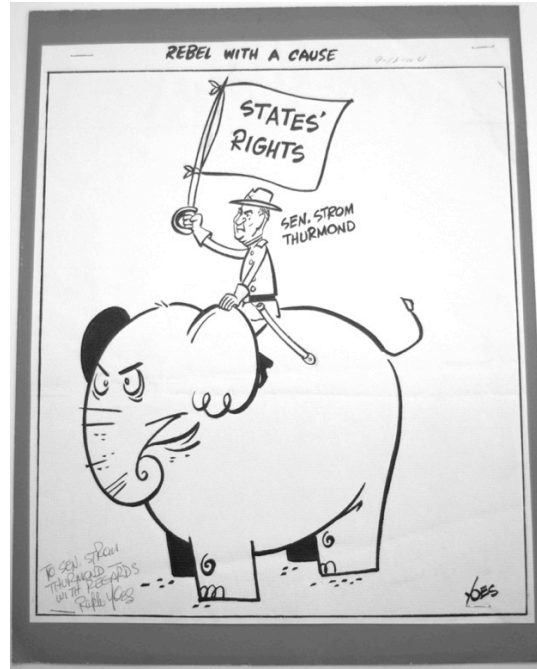
Ralph Yoes (1964). "Rebel with a Cause." Original pen and ink with inscription: "To Sen. Strom Thurmond – with regards." Clemson University Special Collections.

Likewise, in "Rebel with a Cause," Ralph Yoes (1964) also uses confederate garb to depict Thurmond as a war general riding a Republican elephant under the banner of states' rights (also a remnant of the Dixiecrat party). This narration allows the cartoonist the artistic license to give broad historical depictions of the American South, and Strom Thurmond's deep ties to South Carolina and that state's history as the first-to-secede in the years leading up to the US Civil War are compelling fodder for such narration.

In both Guernsey LePelley's (1964) "Now Dixie Goes Like This…" and T.S.'s (1964 "Not the Best Way to Improve an Image," Thurmond is depicted teaching the GOP elephant how to play the song "Dixie"—a song traditionally associated with blackface minstrelsy, and commonly referred to as the anthem of the Confederacy. LePelley drew the elephant and Thurmond sitting in a visually Southern posture: side-by-side in the woods playing banjoes. T.S. illustrates this same elephant in front of a microphone discarding the score of "Battle Hymn of the Republic" to sing from the score of "Dixie." Strom Thurmond, the teacher, is sitting on the elephant's back wearing a straw hat.

In "Requesting Permission to Come Aboard Suh'," Tom Englehardt (1964) reminds the viewer of the Dixiecrats floating along on a life preserver, rescued by the raft of Barry Goldwater and the Republican Party. The image of Goldwater, published in the *St. Louis Post Dispatch*, reminds viewers of images surrounding Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* in which the white Tom and the Black slave, Jim, captained a similarly ragged log raft down the Mississippi. The language used in the caption is also reminiscent of the dialect used by Jim throughout the book.

Narrator explications of Southern-ness are perhaps the most controversial in "This Latest Recruit." Herbert Block (1964) depicts Barry Goldwater welcoming Strom Thurmond to the party while three figures sit side-by-side in the background, labeled the

"Republicans," the "KKK," and the "Birchers," an anti-communist religious faction named the John Birch Society. His association with the South is, in this cartoon, narrated as a benefit for Thurmond's political agenda; a negative for the Republican party; and an explicit connection to radical extremist groups.

Autographed Copies

Interestingly, six of the 16 cartoons in this collection were signed pen and ink originals procured by Thurmond, presumably as gifts. Those six are all included as photographed images in this study with permissions of Clemson University Special Collections and Archive. Four of them bear inscriptions of affirmation from the artist to Thurmond. All are addressed to Senator Strom Thurmond, and many offer "best regards." These inscriptions demonstrate the informal relationship between Thurmond and the artists who penned this history. The four artists who added inscriptions to their originals were Ralph Yoes, Gene Bassett, L.D. Warren, and George Brooks. Notably, each of these cartoons depicted Thurmond in a relatively positive light compared to the other cartoons in the collection. Perhaps the relationships that Thurmond cultivated with these artists resulted in respectful cartoons depicting Thurmond as a productive and pleasant senator. Or, perhaps, the artists who depicted Thurmond in a positive light were more likely to send their work to Thurmond. Several of these pieces were encased in matboard, suggesting that Thurmond had them framed for display. One other possible inference is that the cartoons in this collection reveal more about Thurmond's vision of himself and less about the nature of the rhetorical strategies of the cartoonists.

In addition, one of the cartoons, *Milwaukee Journal* (1964), was sent to Thurmond, presumably by someone who read the *Milwaukee Journal*. The sender jotted a note to Thurmond on the cartoon: "We always knew you were a Rep." followed by an indecipherable signature. This inclusion demonstrates that Thurmond's collection was bolstered by friends who clipped cartoons from their local papers and sent them to the politician, and further indicates that Thurmond saved all sorts of papers. Considering these mailings as sources for the collection of documents could add another dimension to the collection and its analysis.

Concluding Remarks

This analysis of the 16 cartoons in this collection is a brief precursor to the analysis that could be generated about the greater body of materials present in the Strom Thurmond archive. In identifying the themes of leadership and Southern-ness, this study suggests that Thurmond's party switch was an influential moment in American politics worthy of drawing into the editorial pages of national papers. In addition, by identifying relationships between Thurmond and cartoon artists, this study has shown that Thurmond took special notice of these cartoons and their relationship to his work. By saving them among his papers, he maintained an archive of these cartoons and included them in his history.

One of the foundational claims of this study is that political cartoons are difficult to chronicle and search. Explorations of archives offer new compilations and narratives that retell the stories they housed. The physical space of the archive creates a fundamental

retelling, in this case, of journalism and political cartoons surrounding Thurmond's party switch. How much moreso might archives tell stories of key moments in each of our lives? Exploration of the Strom Thurmond archive continues to raise questions about whose archives are preserved, how archives are accessed, and what voices can emerge from such study. Political cartoons in this archive are a fascinating story because they were collected by Thurmond, preserved at a university, and, in some cases, bear original, unpublished notes shared between artists and subjects of their art.

The researcher notes that this analysis is a narrowly-focused assessment of a specific collection of information. Therefore, further study is warranted into the historical significance of this collection (as well as alternative, hidden, and undiscovered collections of similar texts) alongside the greater body of papers and artifacts donated by Thurmond, both those related to this point in time and those that place these artifacts in a broad historical context. In addition, the exclusion of cartoons not included in the archive offers an entry point into an interesting discussion on whose history is being told, and who gets to do the telling.

Furthermore, this study has laid the groundwork for assessment of the relationships between politicians and cartoonists, suggesting that both impact each other in political discourse. Political cartoons reflect the tension between political discourse, political correctness, and political satire. Critical analyses of these pieces of visual rhetoric could continue provide a valuable window into American history through the relationships between those who make the news and those who draw it.

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A Total Eclipse of the Heartland: A Content Analysis of Print News Risk Communication Prior to and After the 2017 Solar Eclipse

Meredith L. Morgoch

This paper determines how print news framed the 2017 US total solar eclipse. The assessing of emotional and logical frames, and political, economic, safety, human-interest, and unethical frames in two regions (inside and outside the path of totality), this study reviewed a national sample of articles before and after the eclipse via a content analysis. The majority of articles reviewed applied the logical frame and the human-interest frame. Statistical tests determined regional differences and a significant interaction among the framing analyses. Implications of research include using strategic frames to educate individuals on and encourage publics to interact with science-related and risk information.

Keywords: *Crisis Communication, Risk Communication, Science Communication, Content Analysis, Newspaper Research*

A total eclipse of the sun was visible in the continental United States of America on August 21, 2017. This eclipse was the first to span from the West to the East Coast in almost 99 years. Prior to the event, it was estimated that between 1.85 and 7.4 million people would travel to the path of totality on eclipse day (Zeiler, 2017), which affected 14 of the 48 continental states. Local and national governments prepared for traffic, lodging, and health-related issues/problems. In one path of totality state, one month prior to the event, a news story reported the deployment of the National Guard charged to assist with the expected "influx of tourists" during the eclipse (Guevarra, 2017, para. 4).

Since ancient times, a total solar eclipse of the sun has been interpreted as an omen of war and the manifestation of cosmic chaos and, thus, has caused a sense of uncertainty (Becker, 2017; Voracek, Fisher, & Sonneck, 2002). In China, for example, people banged on pots and pans at the eclipse to scare away the "dragon" overriding the sun (Becker, 2017). In 2017, Christian numerologist David Meade predicted the eclipse was a sign of the apocalypse, saying the world would end 33 days after the event (Phillips, 2017). His prediction was featured in a story distributed by a major U.S. newspaper and received international coverage.

Individuals not worried about apocalyptic possibilities may have been concerned when it was discovered that fraudulent solar eclipse glasses were being sold and a recall was announced. To protect the eyes from viewing the eclipse and the harsh sun rays, special glasses had to be purchased. These glasses were sold at local stores, libraries, and online. For the eclipse-viewing community, the recall caused a public outcry because the story

broke only days prior to the event. Individuals had to purchase new glasses. In most states, these glasses were sold out. This meant if you did not have the proper eye protection you were not able to view the eclipse safely.

These stories are but a few of many that highlight the uncertainty circulating prior to the solar eclipse. Taking a broader view, this project assessed how print news framed a solar phenomenon. More specifically, this study examines print news risk communication by observing patterns of emotional and logical frames (Chio & Lin, 2008), and the five types of crisis-related news frames proposed by Houston, Pfefferbaum, and Rosenholtz, (2012) to identify how the U.S. solar eclipse was framed prior to and after the event and whether the frames differed by region.

Literature Review

Science Communication

Scientists rely on media to deliver complex scientific information in a simple style, and non-experts rely on the media to learn about the latest discoveries or phenomena. Today, people frequently consume science-related information in the media. Similarly, nearly every adult has experience reading about scientific research in newspapers, magazines, and websites (Horrigan, 2006). The science community understands media are a necessity when communicating information to the public (Tewksbury, 2003).

Studies have found the use of framing useful to present certain issues. For example, metaphoric frames have been used to present disease prevention (i.e., a war on cancer; Rademaekers & Johnson-Sheehan, 2014) and episodic and thematic frames used for environmental issues (Hart, 2011). Metaphoric frames use metaphors to create specific perspectives. If it is assumed there is a war on cancer, then the frame encourages the belief that fighting cancer is an attack, battle, or a winning vs. losing situation. This metaphor may change the way we, as a society, talk about cancer and how a patient responds to a cancer diagnosis (Rademaekers & Johnson-Sheehan, 2014). In terms of framing science and environmental issues, one study found significance in a different pattern of episodic and thematic frames (Hart, 2011). Episodic frames focus on a specific issue or individual while thematic frames present the issue in a general or impersonal context (Iyergar & Simon, 1993). The research found episodic frames are used more often than thematic frames in presenting environmental issues (Hart, 2011).

Just as science communication often relies on media to transmit information and facts, risk communication relies on the media for similar reasons. Scientific information is needed to inform the public of certain risks or hazards because risk assessment often contains science-related information. Therefore, these areas of research often overlap (Anderson & Iltis, 2008).

Risk Communication

In its simplest form, risk communication is two activities: alerting and reassuring people (Sandman, 1988). To manage risk in a systematic fashion, an organization must communicate the factual material to appropriate stakeholders (Lundgren & McMakin, 2004). Essentially, these stakeholders need to be familiar with the facts so they can better

understand the issue and act upon the information. Creating awareness and an understanding of the risk, shaping public perception, and seeking cooperative mitigation are risk communication goals that can be accomplished with effective communication to the targeted audience (Cole & Fellows, 2008). Such goals can be met with the help of the media and press coverage.

The media is a good resource to transmit simple information on risks and hazards to the general public. Communication scholars have noted certain patterns in news media coverage during times of uncertainty (An & Gower, 2008; Chio & Lin, 2008; Houston, Pfefferbaum, & Rosenholtz, 2012). Research suggests emotional (affective) and logical (cognitive) framing patterns are used in communicating natural disasters (Chio & Lin, 2008) and health information (Major, 2009). Emotional frames are defined as image-evoking and are used to arouse an emotional response, while logical frames are defined as being specific and, usually, contain data and statistics. Chio and Lin (2008) found mostly logical frames used in print news coverage of hurricanes. These findings contradict an emerging body of scholarship that posits emotional frames are most often used when delivering disaster and health communication (Chio & Lin, 2008; Major, 2009). Because of this discrepancy, a call has been made to empirically examine the role of emotional and logical frames in risk messaging (Chio & Lin, 2008). Given this call, the following question is posited:

RQ1: What are the relevant frequencies of emotional and logical frames in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage?

Crisis Communication Framing Schemes

Crisis communication scholars also found patterns in news frames. One study examined the first 24 hours of television news coverage of the September 11, 2001 crisis, and the media news frames throughout the time period (Li, 2007). This study found a high frequency of safety and political news frames and revealed eight prominent news frames relevant to scholars. Disaster communication scholars employed Li's (2007) framing analysis and examined 10 years of natural disaster coverage (Houston, Pfefferbaum, & Rosenholtz, 2012). They found five of the eight news frames were used most often by the press for disaster coverage. These five frames are political, economic, safety, human interest, and criminal. This study will use a modification of these five frames proposed by Houston, Pfefferbaum, and Rosenholtz (2012) to analyze how print news risk communication framed the solar eclipse. The category of criminal fits some aspects of this study, but not all. Instead of criminal activity, this study will use unethical behavior as a frame. Unethical behavior may be seen in stories on fraudulent glasses sales or lodging price-gouging.

A political news frame contains information about national security, government policy, or international relations. An example of a political news frame would be the story on the deployment of the National Guard to assist with the expected influx of tourists (see Guevarra, 2017). Economic frames report an event, problem, or issue in the context of the benefits or consequences it will have economically on an individual, group, institution, region, or country. This study analyzed the economic frames as either an economic benefit (gain) or consequence (cost or loss). The safety category included frames on environment

and safety information. For safety frames, these include information about hazards, threats to public health, or information of public and personal safety. Human interest frames include information on human well-being, family, or love. These frames are used to capture an audience's attention and, typically, employ a human face or emotional angle to present information on an event, issue, or problem. Unethical frames include information directly related to a report on an immoral or illegal act and investigation.

Given this research, and the framing analysis posited by Li (2007) and then further modified by Houston, Pfefferbaum, and Rosenholtz (2012), this study asks:

RQ2: How frequently were the political, economic, safety, human-interest, and unethical news frames represented in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage?

In terms of crisis communication, a study found the political and safety news frames were some of the most frequent (see Li, 2007), whereas in disaster communication a study found the safety and human-interest frames were some of the most frequent (see Houston, Pfefferbaum, & Rosenholtz, 2012). Because both disciplines found the safety news frame to be dominant, this study poses the following hypothesis:

H1: The safety news frame is the most frequently used news frame in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage.

Regional Differences

No matter where an individual resides, natural events are commonly known and anticipated. For individuals who live along the Gulf Coast, it may be argued that natural phenomena (i.e., hurricanes) are expected and accepted as a norm of living there (Cole & Fellows, 2008). Similarly, individuals living near the 2017 solar eclipse path of totality were presented information prior to the event to prepare for the influx of tourists, traffic concerns, and eye safety. This presentation of information was different from those living away from the path of totality because of the lack of tourists and traffic concerns.

The path of totality affected 14 of the 48 continental states, Oregon spanning through Missouri and ending in South Carolina. The main regions directly affected by the totality include the Northwest, Midwest, and Southeast. Thus, the Southwest and Northeast were not directly impacted by the path of totality. Because the eclipse affected some regions and not others, this study aims to investigate whether there were regional differences in print news risk communication. Thus, the following research question was developed:

RQ3: Did the frequency in news frames represented in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage vary by region?

Method

This study examined news articles from a selection of major cities along the path of totality and a selection of major cities far away from the path of totality to investigate patterns in print news frames on solar eclipse coverage. The unit of measurement is defined

as an article that addressed the 2017 total solar eclipse. To be included in the sample, items had to be hard-news stories, opinion columns, or editorials; brief articles were excluded. Duplicate articles in the same region (e.g., Associated Press reports) were not counted beyond the first appearance. Duplicate articles appearing in different regions were coded per region.

Story Selection. Articles were gathered from the LexisNexis database. More specifically, articles were found by using the "total eclipse" and "eclipse" as keywords in the LexisNexis word search. The time period was two months prior to the eclipse (June 20, 2017—August 20, 2017), and two months after the eclipse (August 22, 2017 – October 22, 2017). Since this study is designed to examine print news coverage prior to and after the eclipse, the actual eclipse day (August 21, 2017) was not included.

City and Newspaper Selection. According to NASA, the path of totality went through 11 main cities: Salem, Oregon; Idaho Falls, Idaho; Casper, Wyoming; Lincoln, Nebraska; St Joseph, Missouri; Kansas City, Kansas; St Louis, Missouri; Bowling Green, Kentucky; Nashville, Tennessee; Greenville, South Carolina, and Columbia, South Carolina. This study selected five of the 11 cities with the biggest populations because a newspaper serving a larger community will have greater resources dedicated to story production (Lacy, 1987). The five cities selected are Salem, Oregon (164,419); Lincoln, Nebraska (280,364); St. Louis, Missouri (315,685); Nashville, Tennessee (684,410); and Columbia, South Carolina (134,309). Kansas City, Kansas (151, 709) had a slightly higher population than Columbia, South Carolina. Kansas City was replaced with Columbia to gain insight into a larger geographic area (i.e., from Oregon to South Carolina). The newspaper selected for the path of totality cities are the Statesman Journal (Salem; n=274); Lincoln Journal Star (Lincoln; n=223); St. Louis Post-Dispatch (St. Louis; n=149); the Tennessean (Nashville; n=205); and the State (Columbia; n=335).

For the cities not in the path of totality, the researcher selected five cities comparable by population size to the path of totality cities/towns: Fort Lauderdale, Florida (164,207); Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (303,625); Bakersfield, California (376,380); Oklahoma City, Oklahoma (638,367); and Fargo, North Dakota (120,762). The newspapers selected for the non-totality cities are the Sun Sentinel (Fort Lauderdale; n=29); Pittsburgh Post-Gazette (Pittsburgh; n=37); the Bakersfield Californian (Bakersfield; n=15); the Oklahoman (Oklahoma City; n=14); and the Forum of Fargo-Moorhead (Fargo; n=22).

The article total for path of totality cities was 1,166 and the total for non-totality articles was 116. Because of the difference in article amounts, this study used systematic sampling for the prior-to-the-event path of totality articles. Here, the researcher coded every tenth totality article. Similarly, the frequency in articles prior to the event was higher than after the event. Lincoln Journal Star, for example, published 194 eclipse articles prior to the event and only 29 articles after the event. Because of this difference, the researcher employed systematic sampling again and examined every fifth after-the-event path of totality article. Therefore, the two samples, totality (n=117) and non-totality (n=116) articles are balanced.

Coding Strategy

For each unit of the content analysis, articles were identified by date (i.e., month, day, year), media outlet, type of article, and type of news frame dominantly represented in the article. Each article had two types of codes or news frames recorded; one for each framing analysis used in this study (see Chio & Lin, 2008; Houston, Pfefferbaum, & Rosenholtz, 2012). Each article was read through and coded for mutually exclusive variables.

Coding Categories. Two framing analyses were used to investigate news frames in print news coverage prior to the eclipse. These analyses were selected as coding categories because they are based on previous research that found a pattern in crisis-related news frames used by media. The first set of news frame options identify five types of crisis-related news: political, economic, safety, human interest, and unethical (Houston, Pfefferbaum, & Rosenholtz, 2012). If an article is classified as economic, it was further coded for either economic costs or economic benefits.

An example of a political story reads "Treasury Secretary Steve Mnuchin was caught watching the 2017 eclipse in a photo the Treasury Department took" (Harwell & Reinhard, 2017). An economic news frame includes information on the economic benefits or consequences produced from the eclipse event. For example, an economic benefit article reads "The city has gotten into the act as well, selling eclipse glasses, posters and blue and yellow T-shirts decorated with a drawing of the city's skyline…Sales have been amazing phenomenal" (Sainz, 2017) while an economic cost story states "Between NASA and the National Science Foundation, the federal government is spending about $7.7 million on next Monday's eclipse" (Borenstien, 2017). An example of a story coded with a safety frame is "The state's emergency coordination center will gear up, and first responders will prepare to respond to any trouble as they would for an earthquake or other natural disasters" (Flaccus, 2017). An example of an article coded as human interest is one that implies seeing the solar phenomenon is a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity, or it reports on community excitement generated by eclipse public discussion (Anderson, 2017). For an article to be coded as unethical, it must include information on unethical behavior taken by an individual, organization, or government entity. For instance, one article states "Hotels in Casper, Wyoming, are charging five times their usual rates" (Harpax, 2017). An article that did not fit in any of the coding categories was coded as "other."

The second set of news frames examined emotional and logical responses (Chio & Lin, 2008). An example of an emotional frame is "For David Rick, who was traveling from San Diego, this was his third eclipse in his life. He sees the eclipse as a moment of reflection" (Anderson, 2017) whereas a logical frame reads "About 50,000 glasses can roll off the assembly line per hour. Paper glasses cost about 20 to 25 cents to make, and they are sold to distributors for about 45 cents, but prices vary depending on order size" (Saniz, 2017). If an article is neither emotional nor logical then it was coded as "other."

Intercoder reliability. For intercoder training, a total of 10 articles were reviewed by two coders, and agreements were made to start reliability tests. In order to test intercoder reliability, an additional 35 articles (i.e., 15% of sample size) were randomly selected, and acceptable levels were found for each category by using percentage agreements and Krippendorff's alpha. Hayes and Krippendorff (2007) argue that the Krippendorff's alpha value should be the standard reliability measure for media content analysis, especially

between two coders. The overall reliability was .89 with the percentage of agreement at 92.9%. Percent of agreement was 100% for location of newspaper and type of article (i.e., hard-news, op-ed, or editorial), 91.4% (α=.86) for the framing analysis proposed by Houston, Pfefferbaum, and Rosenholtz, (2012; e.g., political, economic, safety, human interest, or unethical) and 80% (α=.59) for the framing analysis modeled after Chio and Lin, (2008; e.g., emotional or logical).

Findings

A total of 236 articles from path of totality newspapers (n=117) and non-path of totality newspapers (n=116) were coded and statistical tests were completed. Of the 236 articles, 80.5% (n=190) appeared before the eclipse, and the remaining 19.5% (n=46) of the sample appeared after the event. Nearly evenly distributed, there were 96 path of totality articles and 95 non-path articles before the event, and, as for after the event, there were 22 path articles and 24 non-path articles. The reduction in after event print news articles points to the uniqueness of the solar eclipse event. Once the eclipse was over, the novelty of the event was eclipsed as the subject was no longer considered newsworthy. Therefore, the number of articles recapping the event was extremely low.

RQ1: What are the relevant frequencies of emotional and logical frames in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage?

The most frequent news frame applied was logical, followed by "other" and emotional (see Table 1). The total number of logical news frames was 55 articles (43.3%). Prior to the event, the logical frame was used in 90 articles (38.1%), and after the event, it was applied to 13 articles (5.5%). As a reminder, the logical frame is defined as being specific and they usually employ data, numbers, or statistics whereas emotional frames use image-evoking terminology that usually provokes some sort of emotional response. The number of emotional frames applied was 34 (26.8%) and the amount of the other frame applied was 38 (29.9%). Prior to the event, the number of emotional frames applied to articles was 51 (21.6%), and after the event, this frame was applied to 18 articles (7.6%). Lastly, there were 49 (76.6%) "other" articles that appeared before the eclipse and 15 (23.4%) "other" articles after the event.

Table 1- Emotional, Logical Frame Frequencies

	Before Eclipse		After Eclipse	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Emotional	51	21.6%	18	7.6%
Logical	90	38.1%	13	5.5%
Other	49	20.8%	15	6.4%

Referring back to Chio and Lin's (2008) call for research to explore how the emotional and logical frames interact with risk-and crisis-related frames, this study found both framing analyses interacted notably with each other. A Pearson chi-square test was calculated comparing the frequency of emotional and logical news frames, and the

frequency of political, economic, safety, human-interest, and unethical news frames of eclipse coverage. A significant interaction was found (x^2 (12) = 128.221, p <.001). This significant interaction means that for the current study safety and unethical articles can be confidently described as logical in nature, and human-interest articles have a significant interaction with emotionally framed articles.

RQ2: How frequently were the political, economic, safety, human-interest, and unethical news frames represented in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage?

The human-interest frame was used in 111 stories (47%) in total (see Table 2). Prior to the event, the human-interest frame was applied to 87 stories (36.9%) and 24 articles (10.2%) articles after the event. The unethical news frame was applied to 12 articles (5.1%) in total (10 before the event and 2 after the event). The economic frame was used in 28 news stories (10.9%). For the economic frame, the economic beneficial and consequential aspects of the stories were recorded. Of the 28 economic news stories, a total of 25 stories (10.6) were economic benefit articles while only 3 articles were economic cost (1.3%). Prior to the eclipse event, 20 articles (8.5%) used the economic benefit frames whereas after the events 5 articles (2.1%) used this same frame. For the economic cost frame, it was applied to 2 articles (0.8%) prior to the event and one article after the event. The safety frame was applied to 62 news stories (26.3%) in total. Prior to the event, the safety frame was applied more with 53 articles (22.5%) and after the event, only 9 articles used the safety frame. In terms of the political news frame, this frame was used in two articles (0.8%). Both of these cases were found in coverage after the eclipse event. The remaining 8.9% of articles were those in the "other" category (21 other articles). For the most part, the "other" category was filled with weather stories (12 articles). Considering this information, most of the articles marked "other" appeared in coverage before the event (18 of 21).

Table 2- Political, Economic, Safety, Human-Interest, Unethical Frame Frequencies

	Before Eclipse		After Eclipse		
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**	
Political	0	0.0%	2	0.8%	
Economic Benefit	20	8.5%	5	2.1%	
Economic Cost	2	0.8%	1	0.4%	
Safety	53	22.5%	9	3.8%	
Human-Interest	87	36.9%	24	10.2%	
Unethical	10	4.2%	2	0.8%	
Other	18	7.6%	3	1.3%	
Total	*190*	*80.5%*	*46*	*19.5%*	*100%*

RQ3: Did the frequency in news frames represented in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage vary by region?

This study found regional differences in eclipse coverage. A Pearson chi-square test was calculated comparing the frequency of news frames and the region of news articles. A significant interaction was found (x^2 (6) = 18.026, p = .006). Regional differences included those among the path of totality newspapers compared to the non-path of totality newspapers. For path articles, the economic benefit, unethical, and "other" frame was applied more compared to non-path articles that focused on political and human-interest news frames. Articles with the economic cost (path articles: 1; non-path articles: 2) and safety frames (path articles: 33; non-path articles: 29) were nearly evenly distributed between news frames and regions (see Table 3).

Table 3- Eclipse Regional Differences

	Path Frequencies	Path Percentage	Non-Path Frequencies	Non-Path Percentage
Political	0	0.0%	2	0.8%
Economic Benefit	20	8.5%	5	2.1%
Economic Cost	1	0.4%	2	0.8%
Safety	33	14%	29	12.3%
Human Interest	45	19.1%	66	28%
Unethical	8	3.4%	4	1.7%
Other	13	5.5%	8	3.4%
Total	*120*	*50.8%*	*116*	*49.2%*

H1: The safety news frame is the most frequently used news frame in 2017 solar eclipse news coverage.

For H1, the most frequent news frame applied to the 2017 solar eclipse news coverage was the human-interest frame. This finding runs parallel to previous research that also found the human-interest frame to be the most frequent of crisis and disaster news articles (see Houston, Pfefferbaum, & Rosenholtz, 2012). Because human-interest, not safety, was the most frequent news frame used in coverage, the hypothesis is not supported (see Table 2).

Discussion and Conclusion

The 2017 total solar eclipse was a spectacular human-interest event in the US. The results exhibit this notion. The majority of articles surrounding the eclipse were those meant to get communities excited about the solar phenomena as a total of 111 of eclipse articles used the human-interest frame. Of these articles, 61 applied the emotional frame while 23 used the logical frame and the remaining 27 articles fell into the "other" category. Emotional human-interest articles told stories of eclipse voyeurism and astronomical family adventures, while the logical human-interest articles informed citizens on eclipse facts and event happenings. For this event, eclipse coverage could package safety

information (i.e., glasses protection) with a human-interest frame. This meant one article could function as both informative and lighthearted.

Altogether, the logical frame was applied more frequently among the political, economic, safety, human-interest, and unethical news frames throughout the 2017 eclipse coverage. These findings are not consistent with previous research that found the emotional frame to appear most frequent in crisis-related news stories (see Chio & Lin, 2008). For the 2017 eclipse, news coverage had multiple goals: creating eclipse excitement, relaying eclipse safety information, and informing communities on the influx of tourists to eclipse viewing areas. Due to these reasons, the logical frame seems most applicable in communicating public and personal eclipse safety information, and the possibility of tourist traffic.

As for articles that applied the safety frame, these stories were nearly evenly distributed among the two different regions (14% of path articles and 12.3% of non-path articles). On the surface, this is a surprising result. After further examination, it can be logically understood. The communities among the path-of-totality region viewed a total solar eclipse, whereas most of the communities among the non-path region viewed a partial eclipse. Considering both regions had some sort of solar eclipse, safety information was needed for both audiences. For the path region, the unethical frame was applied to more articles because this frame was used to describe price-gouging hotel practices, as well as the controversy surrounding retailing fraudulent eclipse glasses.

Lastly, in terms of regional differences, the economic benefit and articles considered "other" was more frequently used in the path region while the political frame was applied more in the non-path region. As previously mentioned, the other category contained a majority of weather information framed as "threats." Of the other category, a total of 57% of articles were those of weather-related news. Cloudy and rainy weather could have prevented communities to view the eclipse. Weather stories highlighted this threat with articles that appealed to the fear of missing out on eclipse viewing fun, especially in the path regions. In addition to weather stories, the other category also contained stories on eclipse viewing parties. A total of 19% of "other" article informed communities on when and where to watch the eclipse in their community. Here, the "other" frame was used to inform constitutes on the possibility of threatening weather, as well as local eclipse-viewing fellowship.

The newspaper is still an important medium to inform publics on local and national events, such as a solar phenomenon. Newspaper articles were educational and lighthearted. Furthermore, the results from this research show that science information can be consumed easily by audiences if presented with a logical and human-interest frame. These frames have shown a way to convey contents and behaviors for scientific risk mitigation to a large audience. From a broad perspective, human interest frames should be included in structured educational projects involving different methods and approaches aimed at communicating science and risk information.

Moving forward, this research tells us that natural phenomenon events are a great time to excite a community or nation while notifying everyone on the science- and safety-related information. Although this study does not conclude robust implementations for risk and crisis communication scholars, however, it does suggest how to comingle important information with human-interest themes all in an effort to provide the necessary community education for potential hazards or crises. The solar eclipse print news coverage

was, for the most part, a non-threatening example of risk and crisis mitigation communication. Thus, we should look at the 2017 solar eclipse event as a guide to get citizens prepared for potential and expected regional weather or smaller-scaled disasters.

Limitations

This project has limitations. First, the sample included 10 newspapers to get a larger geographic span of eclipse coverage. However, a larger sample size of articles could help scholars gain a deeper impression of eclipse coverage and use of selected news frames. Additionally, per the framing analyses, in order to provide further implementations for risk and crisis communication scholars, future research should apply a more applicable crisis-related and risk management framing analysis. Lastly, this study yielded mostly descriptive statistics. To gain richer results future research should employ interval-level scales and framing analyses that lend to more sophisticated statistical testing.

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Conflict Perceptions: Exploring Face and Communication Satisfaction

Brian Perna and Greg Armfield

This study examined the effects of face concerns and communication satisfaction in a workplace conflict between organizational members utilizing face-negotiation theory. Participants (N=448) completed survey items measuring face concerns and communication satisfaction. Results indicate when an individual is not engaged in saving other-face, their communication satisfaction is higher. Intrinsically, communication satisfaction is affected when a person is engaged in saving other-face as their own self-face was not being communicated. This finding extends the theoretical and pragmatic pedagogical link between communication satisfaction and workplace conflict between organizational members

Keywords: Conflict, Communication Satisfaction, Face-negotiation Theory, Self-face, Other-face.

The importance of being able to work together with constructive conflict is vital for organizations and ultimately imperative for an employee's own personal gratification at the end of the work day. It would be a long eight-hour shift if organizational members fought destructively to hurt others' feelings. Working together requires supportive communication skills. Furthermore, organizational members like to be heard and it is rewarding to express one's thoughts and opinions and see those ideas utilized. Whether it is two people or a group of people in an organizational environment, it is essential to effectively deal with conflict to have exceptional working relationships; even though organizational members' personalities may not match, they need to work through conflict constructively.

However, not all workplace situations and relationships turn out the way we desire them to and many have an element of workplace conflict. Aula and Siira (2010) argue conflict cannot be avoided at home or the office. This assertion is evidenced by Harter & Adkins (2015) findings that over half of adults, "left their job to get away from their manager or improve their overall life at some point in their career" (para. 3). Furthermore, when workplace conflict does occur the financial cost can be crippling. In 2008, it was estimated that over $359 billion was lost in productivity and 25% of employees reported workplace conflict, which caused them to miss work (Lawler, 2010). Likewise, Oetzel, Meares, Myers, and Lara (2003a) argued that the "effective management of conflict is essential for the successful operation of organizations" (p.

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106). By managing workplace conflict in regards to face and communication satisfaction, organizational members may feel better about working with each other.

The purpose of the current study is to extend the workplace conflict approach by exploring how face and communication satisfaction affects organizational members. In doing so, this study will further face-negotiation theory to understand conflict in organizational communication by examining how face-saving and communication satisfaction are related when organizational members are engaged in workplace conflict. The following sections highlight these concepts.

Workplace Conflict

Conflict is ubiquitous in nature in and exists within voluntary and nonvoluntary organizational relationships (Aula & Siira, 2010; Hess, 2000; Nicotera & Dorsey, 2006). Regardless of where conflict exists, conflict cannot be avoided and often is seen as an inevitable part of daily life inside and outside of an organization (Putnam & Poole, 1987). Organizational conflict may be a constant tug-of-war between organizational members who have different ideas and ways to communicate those ideas. Organizational conflict should not be viewed as negative as constructive conflict is imperative to organizational members and to the organization (De Dreu, 1997; Shin, 2008). However, conflict between organizational members may lead to varying perceptions and compatibilities when it comes to how their values, expectations, processes, and outcomes are conveyed during a workplace conflict in regards to substantive or relational issues (Ting-Toomey, 2015). Likewise, what may continue this tug-of-war between organizational members is the fact that people operate from different worldviews (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998).

Conflict can range from organizational members, between superiors and subordinates, where there is a problem, a decision that needs to be made, or a resolution (Cahn & Abigail, 2007). Creating, maintaining, and developing workplace relationships are important to an organization at all levels (Sias, 2009). Workplace relationships may consist of subordinates working together as well as superiors and subordinates (Sias, 2009). Understanding workplace conflict through face-negotiation and communication satisfaction must be utilized effectively for organizational growth. It is imperative for organizational members to reach a mutual understanding of workplace conflict rather than just individual understanding. By working toward some mutual understanding organizational members and the organization may be able to reach greater heights of achievement (Postrel, 2002). Face-negotiation theory will be conveyed next in relation to workplace conflict between organizational members, followed by communication satisfaction.

Face-Negotiation Theory

Face-negotiation theory as defined from Oetzel, and Ting-Toomey (2003a) constructs an explanatory framework for conflict use that explores face and facework similarities and differences. Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) defined face as "a claimed sense of favorable social self-worth that a person wants others to have of her or him" (p. 187). Face is how you are viewed from another person as well as how you view yourself. To understand how face is communicated in a workplace conflict, face-negotiation theory

contends that self-face, a personal image, other-face, a concern for someone else's portrayal, and mutual-face, a concern for both sender and receiver, are present in the interaction (Oetzel et al., 2001; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). In the context of workplace conflict, conflict may be a factor that influences face-negotiation theory (Kirschbaum, 2012). Whenever there will be an exchange of ideas, face may be threatened in a workplace conflict. These threats or attacks to an organizational member in a workplace conflict may elicit a face-saving strategy to either defend the self or save that of the mutual or other face (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998).

Conceptually, face-negotiation theory relates to conflict because maintaining the concept of face may become problematic when face is being negotiated in conflict situations (Oetzel, & Ting-Toomey, 2003a). Succinctly, the face of the communicators' character may be called into question (Neuliep & Johnson, 2016). Thus, workplace conflict may foster face-threatening circumstances (Cupach & Canary, 1997). For example, your own self-face (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998) may be threatened if an argument is not won or a promise was broken, or on the other side of the coin, an organizational member may threaten another's face, other-face (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998) by ridiculing, blaming, or conveying that a person is incompetent (Cupach & Canary, 1997). Thus, face-negotiation theory, while primarily an intercultural communication theory, is gaining prominence in other contexts, such as the health communication context (Kirschbaum, 2012; Lam, Mak, Lindsay, & Russell, 2004; Perloff, Bonder, Ray, Ray, & Siminoff, 2006). Research utilizing face-negotiation theory has obtained valuable findings between anesthesiologists and surgeons (Kirschbaum, 2012). These variables, which encompass face-negotiation theory, are: conflict management style, face concern, and self-construal (Kirschbaum, 2012). Since face-negotiation theory was applied to a health communication context and found important and dynamic findings, so to can face-negotiation theory be applied to an organizational context in which a workplace conflict may take place (Kirschbaum, 2012).

In a workplace, facework is essentially conveyed through a set of social dignity to either support or challenge the other person in aspects of social dignity (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Fundamentally, in a workplace conflict, facework may be utilized to resolve, intensify, threaten, or protect a person's image (Oetzel et al., 2001). Furthermore, facework emphasizes issues that may constitute a relational or substantive standpoint (Oetzel et al., 2001), that is communicated between organizational members in a workplace conflict. Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) also highlighted the fact that "the concept of face is especially problematic in vulnerable interpersonal situations (such as request, embarrassment, or conflict situations), which...influences members' selection of self-oriented facework behaviors" (p.190). Findings suggest the importance of facework and the complexity that encompasses facework for individuals, whether at the relational or systemic level (McBride & Toller, 2011). The complexities of facework may be applied to a workplace conflict as well.

Face-negotiation theory goes further into understanding the I-identity or we-identity orientations, and how face influences everyday communication (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Using either an I statement or a we statement may have an impact in workplace conflict situations in organizational settings (Oetzel, et al., 2003a). These two types of statements are grounded in two different value tendencies conveyed from an individualist or collectivist stance (Kim, et al., 2009; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2013).

Individualism is the broad based approach that emphasizes the individual identity, which utilizes I statements, whereas collectivism is more grounded in communicating we statements and identifies to more of a team than just a one man or woman team (Oetzel, et al., 2003a; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). The individualist or collectivist statements may have a big impact in workplace conflict situations as Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) argued, "situations such as conflict management, business negotiation, and diplomatic negotiation entail active facework management" (p. 187). Organizational settings may provide ample opportunity to build on the understanding of facework through a workplace conflict experience (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Oetzel, et al., 2003a). Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) contend further that "face influences conflict behavior, because in any conflict situation, conflict parties have to consider protecting self-interest conflict goals and honoring or attacking another person" (p. 188). In that regard, face and communication satisfaction are important to look at through a workplace conflict between organizational members (Neuliep & Johnson, 2016; Oetzel, et al., 2003a; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998).

In organizations, deadlines may create a time constraint that has the potential to create tension. Workplace conflict may occur more frequently in high-pressure situations (Knapp, 1985), where Ting-Toomey (2015) articulated "conflict is viewed as an expressed struggle to air out major differences and problems" (p. 359). In workplace conflict situations, organizational members may express emotions more openly due to pressure or stress (Zhang, Ting-Tomey, & Oetzel, 2014). Face-negotiation theory highlights that organizational members need to be proactive in communicating face and communication satisfaction in a workplace conflict in order to build productive relationships. Thus, an organizational member may benefit from the strengths of face-negotiation theory, such as the organizing and explaining framework that encompasses this theory in understanding workplace conflict behaviors (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003a). Face-negotiation researchers assert that successful organizations effectively handle conflict (Oetzel, et al., 2003a). This study will further workplace conflict awareness about the importance of how face management and communication satisfaction play such important roles in how workplace conflict is handled. The next section will review communication satisfaction in relation to organizational conflict.

Communication Satisfaction

Engin and Akgoz (2013) explain communication satisfaction is a broad term that covers organizational members, superior/subordinate communication, and a natural part of organizational cultures. Communication satisfaction "is the affective response to the fulfillment of expectation-type standards, processes, and symbolizes an enjoyable, fulfilling experience" (Hecht, 1978a, p. 350). Conceptually, communication satisfaction stems from the social interaction with individuals who influence and are dependent upon the desire to engage in a positive conversation (Goodboy & Myers, 2007; Rucker & Davis-Showell, 2007; Rucker & Davis-Showell, 2010). In a workplace conflict, there may be a cost/reward principle (Hecht, 1978b) in which the organizational member weighs the interactional intentions and needs to see if there will be a cost (negative interaction and unsatisfied feelings) or a reward (a successful and satisfying emotional

reaction) Grant, King, & Behnke, 1994; Hecht, 1984; Onyekwere, Rubin, & Infante, 1991; Schroeder, 2002).

Moreover, the workplace context encompasses varying levels of need-fulfillment that resonate with the quality and perception of communication. For example, affective salient reactions in workplace conflicts foster communication satisfaction as an outcome variable which evaluates communication performances (Chen, 2002; Duran & Zakahi, 1987; Park & Raile, 2010; Rubin, 1993; Rubin, Perse, & Barbato, 1988). Therefore, communication satisfaction attributes serve as desires and motivations in acting out a communication performance in a workplace conflict (Rubin, 1993; Rucker & Davis-Showell, 2010).

Communication satisfaction also positively influences student confidence (Goodboy & Myers, 2007) and communication apprehension (Rubin, et al., 1988). Other-face perspective taking is also positively correlated to communication satisfaction (Park & Raile, 2010), however, communication satisfaction is negatively affected by employee excuse making (Goodboy, Martin, & Bolkan, 2009). Finally, synchrony and common ground are positively correlated to communication satisfaction during intercultural interactions (Chen, 2002) and to management impressions dimensions as explored by Duran and Zakahi (1987).

Given an organizational member's self-construal, concept and esteem are interdependently shaped by communication satisfaction in a workplace conflict and organizational effectiveness may be negatively effected if communication satisfaction is not conveyed in a satisfying manner (Rucker & Davis-Showell, 2007; Gray & Laidlaw, 2004) the following research question is proposed:

RQ1: How is communication satisfaction related to face concerns in a workplace conflict situation?

Methodology

Participants

Participants (*N*=448) were recruited from a network sample through Twitter and Facebook in addition to undergraduate and graduate courses at a medium-sized university in the southwestern part of the United States. Student participants received extra credit in the courses they were enrolled in. All procedures were approved by the IRB of the above referenced institution. There were 240 females, 193 males, and 15 unidentified (mean age = 21.22, *SD* = 10.18). The ethnic backgrounds included 40% Caucasian, 46.1% Hispanic, 3% African American, 2.7% Asian, 2.5% Native American, and 3.7% reported as other or a mixture of two or more ethnicities, and 2% failed to respond to the question. Participants reported being sophomores (40.4%), juniors (21.9%), freshman (20.3%), seniors (9.7%), graduate students (2.5%), high school graduates (1.6%), college graduates (1.2%), and less than one percent reported: not graduating from high school, holding a doctorate degree, or being currently enrolled in a doctorate program respectfully. Participants had an average of over eight and a half years of work experience as two-thirds of the participants were currently employed (56.1% part-time, 10.4% full-time) and 33.5% were retired or not currently employed.

Instrument

The independent or mediating variables self-face and other-face that have been associated with conflict in the past (Neuliep, 2009) were selected from Oetzel et al., (2001). The measure contained 34-items to assess face concerns. Some self-face items include: "I was concerned with protecting my personal pride," "I was concerned with protecting my self-image," and "I was concerned with not appearing weak in front of the other person." Three other-face items included: "Helping to maintain the other person's pride was important to me," "I was concerned with helping the other person to maintain her/his credibility," "I was concerned with maintaining the poise of the other person," and "My relationship with the other person is more important than winning the conflict." A Factor analysis (principle components, verimax rotation) was conducted and verified the existence of two distinct factors of self-face ($\alpha = .74$) and other-face ($\alpha = .80$; see Table 1).

Table 1

Factor Loadings for Face Concerns

Item	Other-face	Self-face
1. Helping to maintain the other person's pride was important to me	**.846**	.112
2. I was concerned with helping the other person to maintain her/his credibility	**.841**	.048
3. I was concerned with maintaining the poise of the other person	**.772**	.128
4. My relationship with the other person is more important than winning the conflict	**.690**	.002
5. I was concerned with protecting my personal pride	.056	**.875**
6. I was concerned with protecting my self-image	.135	**.832**
7. I was concerned with not appearing weak in front of the other person	.028	**.718**
Cronbach's Alpha	.80	.74

The dependent variable of communication satisfaction were measured with the communication satisfaction scale (CSQ) developed by Downs and Hazen (1977). The

scale examines communication climate and horizontal and informal communication, for instance. This scale produced a Cronbach's alpha of .90.

Procedures

An online questionnaire was utilized to investigate communication satisfaction followed by self- and other-face concerns, along with relevant demographics (age, sex, ethnicity, education, current employment status, tenure in current position, and total work experience). The CSQ along with self- and other-face concern items were all 7-point Likert-type items ranging from very satisfied (1) to very dissatisfied (7).

Results

To answer the research question, how communication satisfaction is related to face concerns, a correlation explored the relationships between the independent variables of self- and other-face concerns and the dependent variable of communication satisfaction (see Table 2). Self- and other-face concerns were highly correlated $r(436) = .566, p<.01$. Self-face was negatively correlated $r(436) = -.160, p< .01$ to communication satisfaction as was other-face $r(436) = -.267, p< .01$ to communication satisfaction.

Table 2
Correlation Matrix for Self- and Other-Face concerns and Communication Satisfaction

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	1.00									
2. Sex	.062	1.00								
3. Ethnicity	.087	-.042	1.00							
4. Education	.474**	-.018	-.006	1.00						
5. Currently employed	.038	.044	.060	-.138**	1.00					
6. Time in current position	.056	-.044	-.011	.072	.015	1.00				
7. Months of work experience	-.010	.059	-.019	.023	.065	.516**	1.00			
8. Other-Face	-.013	-.035	.017	-.020	-.019	-.008	.017	1.00		
9. Self-Face	.013	0.13	.031	-.053	.024	-.005	.018	.566**	1.00	
10. Comm. Satisfaction	-.038	.043	.000	-.054	-.059	-.010	.024	-.267**	-.160**	1.00
M	21.2	1.45	2.13	4.43	1.78	16.51	34.14	3.51	3.11	4.65
SD	10.2	.50	1.45	1.39	.92	21.21	40.83	1.24	1.07	1.27

Note: N = 438. Items marked with (*) are significant at $p< .05$. Items marked with (**) are significant at $p< .01$.

To further explore the possible influence of self- and other-face concerns on communication satisfaction, a regression model predicted that self- and other-face concerns would predict communication satisfaction. This model was found to be significant, F=3.03, $p<$ .01. Other-face significantly reduced communication satisfaction (β= -.285, t = -4.37, $p<$ .001), however, self-face was not a significant (β= .054, t = .84, $p>$ .05) influence on communication satisfaction (see Figure 1).
Insert Figure 1 about here

Discussion

This study explored the dynamics of face concerns and how those concerns effect communication satisfaction. In a relational instance, "self-face is one's interpretation of my person whereas, other-face is the interpretation of your person as both connected but separate" (Arundale, 2006). Self- and other-face emerged to have a significant relationship in how workplace relationships are performed and how self- and other-face influences communication satisfaction when organizational members are involved in conflict. However, only other-face concerns were found to significantly drive communication satisfaction. That said, "initiating communication" with another in terms of portraying self- and other-face concerns does foster certain outcomes when a participant is either not trying to save other-face or self-face (Arundale, 2006). Furthermore, this study found that when an individual is not saving other-face, their communication satisfaction is higher than when they were saving other-face.

The results from this study highlight the importance of self- and other-face with respect to communication satisfaction when involved in workplace conflict. The interdependence of face and communication satisfaction is two-fold. Specifically, in regards to self-face, there is more independence for personal goals and expression of needs in an assertive fashion (Oetzel, et al., 2003b). Conversely, other-face is conveyed from an interdependent standpoint because in a workplace conflict preserving relational harmony was more important (Oetzel et al., 2003b). Relational harmony, thus, influences communication satisfaction in that organizational members were concerned with saving other-face when their own self-face was not being communicated negatively effecting communication satisfaction.

Communication satisfaction was found to be dependent upon how organizational members negotiated face, specifically self- and other-face (Oetzel et al., 2003b). Individuals bring expectations of maintaining and negotiating face into workplace conflict situations with either a self-oriented or other-face-saving perception and affects communication satisfaction through either individual-level variables, or situational variables (Oetzel et al., 2003b). Face-negotiation theory, with regards to a workplace context, is imperative to understand in today's globalized organizational communication environment where conflict frequency is increasing (Oetzel et al., 2001). Likewise, identifying and appreciating face concerns in a workplace conflict is a major step in fostering a more harmonious organizational context (Oetzel et al., 2001). In addition, the results of this study communicate just how facework is managed through self-face and other-face concerns during a workplace conflict, and how facework affects communication satisfaction in a workplace conflict by exacerbating, avoiding,

challenging, or protecting either the self-face image or the other-face image (Oetzel et al., 2003b).

These findings may lead to several intriguing explanations. During conflict, facework competence, facework emotions, and conflict goals could be at play between organizational members engaged in a workplace conflict (Ting-Toomey, 2007). Facework competence entails knowledge (an accurate interpretation of another's cultural standpoint) (Ting-Toomey, 2007). The current research revealed facework competence elements in workplace conflict because organizational members were more concerned about the other organizational members, than their own communication satisfaction. For example, in a medical context, if a medical student was right in a patient diagnosis while the attending physician was wrong, the medical student may use facework to save the face of the attending physician. In the culture of medicine, it may be better for the medical student to save the face of the attending physician because of the power differential as the attending physician out ranks the medical student.

Another possible explanation to other-face being negatively related to communication satisfaction could be mindfulness. Being mindful is being aware of individual and other's behavior and listening without judgment (Ting-Toomey, 2007). Research has concluded that mindfulness is a component of facework competence in which situations, such as workplace conflict, create mindful attentiveness that could be construed as being comfortable with ambiguity or uncertainty (Ting-Toomey, 2007). For example, an organizational member who communicates in the second stage or semi-mindfulness stage where the member makes incompetent cultural mistakes or an organizational member could be operating in the mindlessly-mindfulness stage where the member is communicating effortlessly and competently (Ting-Toomey, 2007). In a workplace conflict an organizational member might make an incompetent cultural mistake when being more concerned about other-face, or be communicating mindlessly and mindfully knowing that other-face is more important to save (Ting-Toomey, 2007).

On an emotional level, facework emotions and emotional management may be involved in organizational members being concerned with other-face. If organizational members are in conflict in which they respect, honor, and trust each other, they could be more concerned about their other-face than their self-face (Ting-Toomey, 2007). After all, at the core of face-negotiation theory is the assumption that all cultures maintain and negotiate cultural orientations and individuals' attributes and behaviors, which are shaped by communicating self- and other-face in conflict. With that core assumption in mind, emotions are constantly embedded in facework (Ting-Toomey, 2007; Zhang, et al., 2014). Perhaps self- and other-face were negatively related to communication satisfaction in workplace conflicts because of a range of emotions. These findings may be related to the conclusions of emotion researchers, who found that self-face was positively related to anger, while other-face and compassion were positively related (Zhang, et al., 2014).

Limitations and Future Research

The primary limitation of this research is that the survey was partially based on an undergraduate student sample. College students can lack organizational experience and in turn dealing with conflict in a professional environment. Future research should focus on a sample with at least five years of full-time work experience. Secondly, the survey

questions could have covered more facework strategies in addition to other- and self-face. Facework is an essential tool for understanding that focuses not only on self-face and other-face but also on the relational, identity, and substantive conflict issues (Oetzel et al., 2003b). That said, there are some fruitful avenues of research that may further face concerns and communication satisfaction. One such avenue would be to conduct semi-structured interviews on the perceptions of why and how individuals either strongly value protecting the positive self-image face of others and the reasons why they do or do not and how these perceptions may influence conflict perceptions (Park & Guan, 2006).

Another potential study could be conducting both a quantitative and qualitative study on the various conflict types and how they influence conflict outcomes. A study could, also, be conducted on the impact of emotions and how they may influence face concerns and communication satisfaction. Lastly, self- and other-face maintenance strategies may be studied from looking at both the positive- and negative-face maintenance strategies viewpoints (Siira, Rogan, & Hall, 2004).

Conclusion

Organizational members will always need to communicate as well as negotiate ideas and perceptions about how projects and plans will be completed. That said, the findings of this exploratory study highlight the importance and interdependence of self-face and other-face to communication satisfaction in reflecting upon various workplace conflicts. Since face and communication satisfaction help individuals feel validated, a great proactive approach to organizations and people is to be mindful of face concerns and communication satisfaction.

Furthermore, this study adds to understanding both conflict and organizational communication because when a workplace conflict does take place between organizational members, there may be multiple implications if the conflict interaction is conveyed unfavorably. In terms of utilizing face concerns and communication satisfaction in a workplace conflict study, these dynamics have been utilized in fostering a more proficient understanding when it comes to the conflict problems organizations and organizational members face. These results support and provide a valuable theoretical compass towards understanding face concerns and communication satisfaction in workplace conflicts. However, with this theoretical compass and pragmatic application on meta-conflict perspectives, personality and behavioral issues, competitive conflict escalation cycles, harmful or nurturing conflict climates may be better understood with the application of face concerns and communication satisfaction (Cahn & Abigail, 2007). Thus, face concerns and communication satisfaction extends a link through workplace conflicts between organizational members and provides a proactive approach to conflict resolution.

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A Secondary-Level Basic Communication Course Curriculum for North Carolina Public Schools: Advocacy and Proposed Student Learning Outcomes

Alex J. Patti

In North Carolina, public high school curriculum is dictated and standardized by the Common Core. Considering the presence of communication-related outcomes within the Common Core English Language Arts Standards, I argue that communication educators should have a central role in communication curriculum design. In the effort to best argue for secondary-level basic communication course curriculum in North Carolina public high schools, this applied research study examines historical literature, public policy, and trends of the basic course in the discipline to trace the history of communication education in the United States and in North Carolina. Using Common Core standards and the discipline's recommended curriculum, learning outcomes for secondary-level basic course curriculum are proposed as a first step for use in a backward curriculum design process (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005).

Keywords: Communication Education, Basic Communication Course Curriculum, Communication Education Policy.

In 2009, the Common Core Standards Initiative launched the Common Core State Standards with the mission "to ensure all students, regardless of where they live, are graduating high school prepared for college, career, and life" (CCSSI, 2018a, para. 1). Designed by educators and policymakers across the United States, the Common Core was crafted with the goal of clarifying educational outcomes, increasing uniformity, and enhancing the rigor of public education (Taft, 2015). The creation of these standards has put communication skills—specifically speaking and listening—at the center of what public school students should know and be able to do upon graduation, thus opening the door for the communication discipline's involvement in North Carolina public education.

While the Common Core does not include standards related to *all* of the features of the communication discipline, there are four strands in the English Language Arts (ELA) College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards that mirror knowledge and skills found in the discipline's recommended curriculum. These ELA strands are (1) Speaking and Listening, (2) Writing, (3) Reading, and (4) Language. Outside of these mandated educational standards, colleges and employers increasingly seek students and employees, respectively, with the communication skills necessary for personal and professional

success (Morreale, Valenzano, & Bauer, 2017; NACE, 2017). Therefore, given the presence of communication-related standards in the Common Core, and the centrality of the basic communication course (BCC) to the discipline (Morreale, Myers, Backlund, & Simonds, 2015), BCC curriculum should also be central to North Carolina's secondary public education. To clarify, a BCC is an introductory communication course that typically teaches either public speaking or a hybrid of interpersonal, group, and public speaking topics (Morreale et al., 2015).

The purpose of this applied research project is twofold: first, to advocate for secondary-level BCC curriculum and, second, to design learning outcomes (LOs)—what students should know and be able to do upon completion of a program or course—for said curriculum. I turn now to a review of historical literature in order to trace the development of secondary communication education in the U.S. and North Carolina in order to build a case for secondary-level BCC curriculum. Using prior knowledge of communication education activity will also ground the design of LOs appropriately.

Building the Case For Basic Communication Course Curriculum

A History of Secondary Communication Education

Across time, communication education—primarily speech and rhetoric—has been ubiquitous in educational institutions. In one of the most documented examples the ancient Greeks positioned persuasion and public speaking as integral components of democracy; the subsequent teaching of speech and rhetoric lasted throughout antiquity. According to Gray (1949), "[t]here have been times when speech education stood at the pinnacle of the [U.S.] educational system; there have been others when it has suffered almost total eclipse" (p. 156). In the U.S. in the early 20th century, speech training primarily consisted of recitation and declamation. Gulley and Seabury (1954) point out that secondary speech training gained popularity during this time period with extra or co-curricular debate societies and drama programs. Curricular speech classes, however, met resistance from some school leadership who posited speech skills to be a "frill" of curricular education and adequately acquired through extracurricular activities. Interestingly enough, this sentiment ran contrary to colonial America speech education; for example, in the mid-1700s, Benjamin Franklin argued that speech skills should be a "demand" of education (Bohman, 1954). By 1932, speech courses were offered in some high schools in 33 of the 48 states and by 1938 speech education "was at least a small part of almost every school in almost every state" (Gulley & Seabury, 1954, p. 471). Gulley and Seabury (1954) also recount that speech education began to adapt some regularity in the 1930s with consistent teacher training and certification programs. Professional organizations in speech, forensics, debate, and drama blossomed during this time. One such organization, the 1944 Committee on the History of Speech Education, for example, focused their efforts on a robust development of speech education (Gray, 1947).

If this progression seems scattered, the state level finds no greater consistency. According to Natalle's (2017) research, in the 1970s and 1980s, the North Carolina Speech and Drama Association (NCSDA; later the Carolinas Communication Association), pushed for expanding speech education and teacher training in North

Carolina public schools. The NCSDA also pushed the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (NCDPI) to incorporate teacher training in speech, secure speech consultants for public schools, and establish teacher development for teaching debate, oral reading, small group, and public speaking. In 1975, the NCSDA requested speech be a requisite for high school graduation. Alas, two decades of work by the Carolinas Communication Association failed to cement the discipline's footing with the NCDPI. In fact, a perusal of the NCDPI's website nowadays yields few results on speech or communication education.

During this same time period, the National Communication Association (NCA) began to experience a decline in K12 membership. As NCA divisions and sections underwent significant changes, K12 teachers found themselves outnumbered by and disconnected from their post-secondary counterparts (Gehrke & Keith, 2015). Even today, declining participation puts the Elementary and Secondary Education section in constant jeopardy of losing official recognition.

Presently, secondary theater arts and debate programs are popular curricular/extracurricular/co-curricular activities, and their impacts are seen across the country. For example, Broward County Public Schools in Florida—the location of the 2018 Marjory Stoneman Douglas school shooting—has one of America's largest middle- and secondary-grades debate programs which has prepared and positioned students to use public speaking and civic engagement skills on a national platform (Gurney, 2018). In North Carolina, select private schools, such as the O'Neal School in Pinehurst and Charlotte Country Day School in Charlotte, advertise public speaking electives. At the post-secondary level, the Comprehensive Articulation Agreement between community colleges and the UNC System guarantees eligible Associates acceptance into a UNC System institution with fulfillment of all lower division general education requirements, which includes credits earned in public speaking. For community college transfer students, public speaking credits are considered a Universal General Education Transfer Component, eligible for transfer to any UNC System institution. Finally, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U, n.d.) now includes communication knowledge and skills in their essential learning outcomes for 21st century college students. Altogether, these trends in K12 and higher education demonstrate the growing emphasis on speech and communication education.

Recent Federal and State Education Policy

It is also important to consider the ways in which contemporary education policy has impacted communication education in public schools. In 2002, the federal government reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act by passing the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). NCLB is best known for authorizing programs that required individual states to establish academic standards and testing assessment systems. Speech teacher training was combined with English certification under NCLB in order to diversify teacher qualifications (Jennings, 2010). Scholars in the communication discipline find this certification combination problematic because it holds teachers who possess little to no communication training responsible for communication curriculum design and instruction (Beebe, 2015; Bodary, 2015; Dannels & Housley-Gaffney, 2009), going so far to assert: "[t]hose trained and knowledgeable in any skill or domain should

conduct instruction in their areas of study, and communication should be no different" (Morreale, Valenzano, & Bauer, 2017, p. 417).

Following the swift implementation of the Common Core standards at the turn of the decade, Rothman (2013) notes that teachers were unequipped and untrained to properly teach and assess speaking and listening skills. What makes this teacher certification combination problematic is that NCDPI does not currently recognize a communication teaching license or credits/degrees in communication as progress toward certification in any subject, nor is there a National Board Certification—a prestigious, nationally valid teaching certification—in the subject of communication or speech. Therefore, it is within the realm of possibility that those who currently teach speaking and listening skills in public school may have never actually earned credits in the subject area, making the lack of certification and oversight highly troubling.

While the Common Core is not federal policy, it has been adopted by 42 states, including North Carolina. It covers a variety of subject areas, but this project is only interested in the ELA College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards. While some ELA standards address subjects irrelevant to this proposal, the four strands relevant to this proposal are further divided by grade level: (1) Speaking and Listening, grades 9–10 and 11–12; (2) Writing, grades 9–10 and 11–12; (3) Reading: Informational Texts, grades 9–10 and 11–12; and (4) Language, grades 9–10 and 11–12. The Common Core Standards Initiative (2018b) defines *standards* as, "learning goals for what students should know and be able to do at each grade level" (para. 2). The above four strands provide a tremendous opportunity for the communication discipline's presence in curriculum design. It is worth noting: counting grades 9–10 and grades 11–12 standards together, the above four strands total 96 individual standards (not including substandards), 92 of which can be addressed in BCC curriculum. This number alone suggests a clear home for a BCC in current secondary curriculum pursuant to the Common Core ELA Anchor standards.

The Common Core is intentionally structured with many design limitations. In the most current *Standard Course of Study for English Language Arts*, NCDPI (2010) states: While the Standards focus on what is most essential, they do not describe all that can or should be taught. A great deal is left to the discretion of teachers and curriculum developers. (p. 4)

In other words, tremendous flexibility is, in theory, afforded to teachers and curriculum planners, which is taken to task in this proposal. Alongside colleges' and employers' growing desire for communication skills, recent federal policy and the Common Core have once again implicated the communication discipline as a key participant in developing college and career readiness.

Student Achievement: National and State Level

National. In order to strengthen the argument for secondary-level BCC curriculum, it is important to note how the curriculum can respond to gaps in student performance and perceived learning. One of the National Assessment of Educational Progress' most recent studies (NAEP, 2015) reveal that nearly one-third of 12th grade students nationally measure below *proficient* in reading scores and nearly three-quarters are below *proficient* in writing scores, meaning the majority of 12th grade students

perform reading and writing at a *basic* level, the lowest of three measurable achievement levels on the NAEP's metrics. Furthermore, assessment scores on the NAEP combined math and reading scale estimate that fewer than two out of every five public school graduates are college or career ready in these two subjects (NCES, 2013). Additionally, a 2017 survey discovered that only half of secondary students surveyed report feeling prepared with the skills and knowledge necessary for college-level courses (Youth Truth, 2017). Most recent data from 2014 shows that four out of five NC high school students intended on enrolling in a 2- or 4-year institution (NCDPI, 2016b), raising concerns about gaps in assessed and perceived college readiness.

As for the state of teaching speaking and listening, Kahl (2014) spotlights a gap in oral communication learning as high school students reported a lack of effective instruction in speech development and delivery as well as a lack of assessment in speech delivery. Johnson's (2012) research adds to this gap: just over one quarter of high school students receive instruction in oral communication. Furthermore, surveys conducted by Hart Research Associates (2014) found that nearly half of recent high school graduates report a gap in their oral communication skills. One study of a required grade 10 communication class at a Midwestern laboratory high school found that fewer than half of the Common Core grades 9–10 Speaking and Listening Standards were taught and assessed whereas half were neither taught nor assessed. Just under half of the grades 11–12 Speaking and Listening Standards were taught and assessed, whereas over one third were neither taught nor assessed (Wright, Rohman, Horn, Meyer, & Simonds, 2018). Wright et al. (2018) also raise concerns about Common Core Speaking and Listening standards implementation, teacher training and certification, a consistent outcomes-centered model of instruction, and uniform assessment tools. Finally, because the Common Core standards are scaffolded—meaning each grade level's standards build upon the previous grades' standards—Wright et al. (2018) express further concern over the preparedness of early- and middle-grades students who are now advancing into high school.

State. Examining the state of North Carolina provides clarity as to the specific educational and professional factors faced by North Carolina graduates. It is difficult to identify grade-specific gaps in student learning at the secondary level because North Carolina ceases grade-level testing in English Language Arts after grade 8. The only state-mandated secondary-level English Language Arts end-of-course exam is held at the conclusion of English II. During the 2016–2017 school year, 61% of students scored either a Level 3 (*sufficient command*), Level 4 (*solid command*), or Level 5 (*superior command*) on the English II end-of-course exam. This leaves 39% of students demonstrating a *partial* or *limited* command of grade 10 English Language Arts skills (NCDPI, 2017). While SAT and Advanced Placement (AP) scores are some of the most popular standardized secondary-level exams, they are not directly aligned with the Common Core. These exams are created and maintained by the College Board and draw upon numerous national influences and considerations. Therefore, achievement gaps in scores on these exams are difficult to justify as evidence in the argument for a BCC curriculum aligned strategically with the Common Core. This is not to say, however, that BCC curriculum cannot help provide the skills necessary for success on such exams. As for educational factors in the state, North Carolina is home to 115 colleges and universities, comprised of the third largest community college system in the country and

world-renowned public and private universities. Many of these institutions maintain national recognition for student enrollment, degree programs, and rigor of education. Most recent data from 2014 reveals that incoming college freshman averaged a 1006 on the SAT (out of 1600). Nearly half of 2014 incoming freshmen ranked in the top fifth of their high school graduating class. Almost 60% of in-state applicants were accepted to a UNC System institution and private colleges and universities accepted just over half of in-state applicants (UNC, 2015). These factors are important to note because eight out of ten high school students *intend* on enrolling in some post-secondary program (NCDPI, 2016b), meaning, BCC curriculum should make an effort to respond to student desires and goals for post-secondary enrollment.

As it pertains to professional factors, it should come as no surprise that employers—from small businesses to international corporations like Google (Duhigg, 2016; Strauss, 2017)—rank soft skills and communication skills at or near the top of desirable career skills and abilities (Robles, 2012). Annual surveys by the National Association of College and Employers have regularly identified written and oral communication skills, interpersonal skills, and the ability to work in a team, among others, as top qualities sought by employers (NACE, 2017). A *Wall Street Journal* survey found that of nearly 900 executives, 92% reported that soft skills were equally important or more important than technical skills (Davidson, 2016). North Carolina enjoys one of the best business climates in the country and boasts a nationally competitive manufacturing and industry sector, prosperous technology and research hubs, a variety of corporate headquarters (e.g., Lowe's Hardware and Bank of America), and a long-standing tradition for agricultural and industrial production (EDPNC, 2018). These and other career opportunities in North Carolina speak to the importance of strategic emphasis on communication skills and career readiness. Even with the possibilities presented by the Common Core, the gaps in outcome achievement and these national and state factors illuminate the need for intentional, strategic emphasis on communication education and training that ought to continue with secondary-level BCC curriculum.

Trends of the Basic Communication Course

As the communication discipline's "front porch" (Beebe, 2013), the BCC functions like many other introductory college courses in that it exposes students to foundational concepts and plays an essential role in a well-rounded liberal arts education. Heffron and Duffy (1951) argue that the purpose of speech education and, by extension, communication education, is the "total development of the entire person" for the benefit of self and society. Building upon this, Morreale and Pearson (2008) identify six themes that provide evidence of the importance of communication instruction in the 21st century: (1) the development of a whole person; (2) the improvement of the educational enterprise; (3) being a responsible participant in the world, socially and culturally; (4) succeeding as an individual in one's career and in business; (5) enhancing organizational processes and organizational life; and (6) addressing emerging concerns in the 21st century. This list further stresses the importance of the BCC in secondary education, particularly as the Common Core takes a liberal arts approach to education: to develop students professionally, academically, and personally (CCSSI, 2018a).

As it pertains to K12 education, Taft (2015) explains the development of the Common Core and the possibilities for communication education therein. Hess (2015) argues that Speaking and Listening Standards open up a space for the discipline in secondary curriculum design. Beebe (2015) argues that the implementation of the Common Core comes with the opportunity for trained communication educators to carve out, reinvigorate, and "reclaim" the discipline's place in K12 education, including developing and teaching communication curricula for the Common Core (Hess, Taft, Bodary, Beebe, & Valenzano, 2015). Bodary (2015) argues that communication skills, specifically speaking and listening skills, are a core competency in personal, educational, community, and professional contexts. Hess (2012, 2016) suggests that the basic course be tailored to fit particular needs and missions—in this context, the needs and missions of NCDPI, local educational agencies (LEAs), schools, and teachers. Then-president of the NCA, West (2012) called for re-envisioning the basic course, including an effort at national standardization. Still, seven years after West's call, what is considered "ideal" (Morreale & Backlund, 2002), "well-rounded" (Valenzano, 2015), or *standard* for the BCC is still up for debate. However, Morreale et al. (2015), the NCA (2015), and Engleberg, Ward, Disbrow, Katt, Myers, and O'Keefe (2017) provide considerations and trajectory for what ought to constitute BCC curriculum.

There are several features that constitute the BCC at the post-secondary level, and should, consequently, guide secondary-level BCCs. Sprauge's (1990) identifies four goals of communication education: to transmit cultural knowledge, to develop intellectual skills, to develop career skills, and to reshape the values of society. I suggest using Sprauge's (1990) goals to help organize secondary-level BCC curriculum. Pertaining to the first goal of *transmitting cultural knowledge*: in an ever-shrinking world, it is perhaps in everyone's best interest that a BCC teach students culturally competent responses to the growing diversity in our homes, communities, schools, and workplaces (Engleberg et al., 2017; Morreale et al., 2015; Strawser & McCormick, 2017). Pertaining to the second goal of *developing intellectual skills*: Hess (2016) asserts that students are faced with a number of education-related trends that ought to be touchstones of alignment in a BCC. In the 21st century, students and graduates attend school, work, and live in a dynamic media-saturated culture (Bodary, 2015; Cramer, 2015) with ever-changing uses and applications of communicative technologies. Pertaining to the third goal of *developing career skills*: high school and college graduates are entering dynamic career fields (Hess, 2016) requiring education that provides much more than strictly hard/technical skills. Pertaining to the fourth and final goal of *reshaping the values of society*: communication students learn how to influence public discourse with the use of persuasion and argumentation via free speech and expression as a cornerstone of the American democracy. Returning to the tradition of civic missions of public education, students of communication ought to be taught local-to-global civic education and democratic participation and the role of communication therein (Frey, 2017; Frey & Palmer, 2014).

The previous literature yields longstanding and robust research describing existing BCC content, and a review of Common Core standards provides guidance when designing secondary-level curriculum. In the next section, I use this literature as a foundation to propose learning outcomes for secondary-level BCC curriculum as a first step for use in a backward curriculum design process (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005).

Proposed Learning Outcomes

Wiggins and McTighe's (2005) concept of backward design provides a simple framework for the purposes of curriculum design for secondary-level BCC curriculum. Backward design begins with establishing goals and outcomes. The second step requires identifying assessment tools for measuring progress toward established outcomes. The final step requires determining learning experiences and instructional methods to scaffold knowledge for completion of assessment tools. Backward design is a sound fit for this project because the Common Core standards are results-oriented: "[they] address what students are expected to know and understand by the time they graduate from high school" (CCSSI, 2018a, para. 6).

Due to the scope of the project, I will address only the first step: establishing goals and outcomes. To develop these LOs, Common Core ELA College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards are compared with recommended curriculum from the communication discipline in order to develop LOs specific to secondary-level BCC curriculum. This is an essential first step because, as Wallace (2014) argues, LOs should be the primary drivers of the basic communication course.

Curriculum Learning Outcomes

The process of designing these LOs is guided by past and present trends in communication education, outcomes of existing BCCs, and the intersections of secondary-level BCC curriculum and Common Core standards. In relation to BCC curriculum, this proposal addresses the following Common Core ELA College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards strands: (1) Speaking and Listening; (2) Writing; (3) Reading; and (4) Language. These four broad strands best match BCC objectives and are well addressed by the two BCCs proposed here. The secondary-level ELA Standard strand of Reading: Literature, is the only strand not addressed within the scope of the BCC. The above four standard strands were compared with a broad understanding of the recommended curriculum from the communication discipline. First, Engleberg et al. (2017) identify seven core competencies of BCCs in higher education that they argue, "should constitute the basis for any and all introductory communication courses" (p. 7). Second, Morreale and Backlund (2002) present recommendations for core components of the communication discipline generally, many of which are foundational to the BCC (Morreale et al, 2015). Finally, with their Learning Outcomes in Communication (LOC), the NCA (2015) articulates what students should know and be able to do upon completion of a communication studies degree program. NCA provides a broad layout of LOs for students of the basic course and communication studies undergraduate majors. Because the LOCs are intended for completion of a higher education degree program, only relevant LOCs were considered. A process diagram showing the influences from the communication discipline and the Common Core standards is presented in Figure 1.

Sustainability is a special consideration for this proposal primarily because the communication studies discipline is not yet formally recognized as a subject area by NCDPI. When designing these LOs, I considered how the BCC curriculum can (a) contribute to NCDPI's and LEA's missions; (b) teach knowledge and skills identified by the Common Core; and (c) reflect the communication discipline's thinking, research, and

practice (Wallace, 2015). Additionally, by specifically addressing the above considerations, these LOs places emphasis on establishing and enhancing the importance, belonging, and lifespan of the course in the canon of K12 public education subjects.

This combination process, with strategic focus on the Career Readiness Anchor Standards yielded the following learning outcomes for BCC curriculum:

- **LO: A** – Create and present oral and written messages of informative and persuasive natures to diverse contexts and audiences by effectively using competent speaking/writing skills, cogent evidence-based arguments, logical reasoning, and/or credible evidence.
- **LO: B** – Understand, analyze, and evaluate relationships among key ideas; craft, structure, and purpose; and logical reasoning that contribute to the meaning and influence of messages (written, oral, and mediated) in various contexts prior to accepting or formulating an opinion or drawing a conclusion.
- **LO: C** – Identify and apply ethical and social responsibilities when promoting, initiating, propelling, and responding to communication in dyads, groups, and the public sphere.
- **LO: D** – Monitor and assess communication skills and develop goals for continuous improvement.
- **LO: E** – Identify principles and implement skills necessary to build and sustain relationships in various contexts.

Table 1 features these LOs and the 92 corresponding Common Core standards that they address. By meeting a breadth of LOs, the BCC curriculum can ensure students are meeting Common Core ELA College and Career Readiness Standards as well as the basic foundation of the communication discipline.

Discussion and Future Work

In designing BCC curriculum, the obvious barrier to implementation stands out: recognition from NCDPI and approval from the State Board of Education. This is an uphill climb, but not an impossible task. Several dozen career and technical education courses are now recognized by NCDPI. It has also recognized the explosive growth of the STEM field and responded accordingly with a comprehensive strategic plan and the STEM Education and Leadership program. Foreign language programs continue to expand—up to eight levels in 12 different languages. Dual-enroll and early college courses are gaining traction in high schools, along with the 38 steadily popular Advanced Placement courses. As other academic programs gain recognition from NCDPI and school districts, it is certainly within the realm of possibility that amplified calls for a strategic BCC curriculum can establish a legitimate place in public schools.

Finding a "home" for BCC curriculum in secondary public education is particularly difficult given NCDPI's current secondary curriculum organization. BCC curriculum does not specifically align with any Career and Technical Education Career Cluster (NCDPI, 2018). Therefore, by strategically designing these learning outcomes to address Common Core ELA standards, they are uniquely

Table 1. Curriculum LOs and corresponding Common Core standards

LOs	College and Career Readiness	Speaking and Listening	Writing	Reading: Informational Texts	Language
A	CCRA.SL.1, 2, 4, 5, 6 CCRA.W.1-4, 6, 7, 10 CCRA.L.1, 2, 5, 6 CCRA.R.1	SL.9-10.1, 2, 4-6 SL.11-12.1, 2, 4-6	W.9-10.1, 2, 4, 6, 7 W.11-12.1, 2, 4, 6, 7	RI.9-10.1 RI.11-12.1	L.9-10.1-3, 6 L.11-12.1-3
B	CCRA.SL.2, 3 CCRA.W.8, 9 CCRA.L.3, 4, 6 CCRA.R.1-10	SL.9-10.3 SL.11-12.3	W.9-10.7, 8, 9, 9b W.11-12.7, 8, 9, 9b	RI.9-10.2-8 RI.11-12.2-8	L.9-10.4, 5 L.11-12. 4, 5
C	CCRA.SL.1, 4, 6 CCRA.W.8	SL.9-10.1, 3, 4, 6 SL.11-12.1, 3, 4, 6	W.9-10.4, 10 W.11-12.4, 10	RI.9-10.8 RI.11-12.8	L.9-10.3 L.11-12.1a, 3
D	CCRA.W.5, 10	SL.9-10.3 SL.11-12.3	W.9-10.5 W.11-12.5		L.9-10.3 L.11-12.1a, 3
E	CCRA.SL.1	SL.9-10.1 SL.11-12.1			

positioned to serve within the English Language Arts Standard Course of Study (the grade-level requisites English I-IV). They are also designed to emphasize the cross-disciplinary nature of the communication field, helping to enhance communication skills in other classrooms and increase academic, professional, community, and personal outcomes in areas of reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

The conversation about implementation cannot exist without simultaneously addressing who would teach communication courses. Without official recognition as a certifiable teaching subject, there will be little to no supply of trained teachers in communication. Furthermore, lateral entry programs in North Carolina do not recognize communication-related degrees or credits (communication, journalism, public speaking, etc.) toward licensure in any content area. Therefore, potential teachers trained in communication are currently unable to use credits/degrees toward a teaching certification in any field. This presents an immense barrier for potential teachers with communication education and training from entering the teaching profession at the secondary level. Without expanded lateral entry licensure programs, secondary-level BCCs will either rely on English teachers for instruction or be forced to delay implementation until education departments at college and universities offer communication teaching certification programs and are able to graduate a substantial number of licensed teachers. In order to achieve the goal of communication teaching certification, partnerships between education and communication studies departments are of tremendous importance. Scholars and pedagogues of communication in higher education will play a key role through advocacy work in professional organizations as well as research on recommended BCC curriculum; secondary-level BCC curriculum; and evidence-based pedagogical strategies for instruction at the secondary level. Ultimately, long-term, sustainable success of the secondary-level BCC curriculum depends on a strategic and collaborative effort between the NCDPI; LEAs; college and university teacher training/certification programs,

including lateral entry programs; professional communication organizations at the state, regional, and national levels; communication scholars and pedagogues; and public school teachers and administrators.

Just as secondary-level subjects such as biology, chemistry, English, and so forth, allow for increased rigor and depth in corresponding courses at the post-secondary level, so too would a secondary-level BCC. The implementation of secondary-level BCCs in North Carolina should prompt higher education basic course directors and instructors to consider "[the] need to reconstruct the basic course so that it is more in line with what students have been trained to do in terms of communication through their Common Core experience" (Valenzano, 2015, p. 258). Secondary-level BCCs would not take away from their post-secondary counterparts, but allow for greater depth of content and rigor. This advancement of the discipline's "front porch" (Beebe, 2013) should inspire scholars to take up secondary-level BCC advocacy as it might direct more college students toward communication studies courses as well as provide more advanced and a greater depth of content in the BCC.

The final consideration to note is expanding this curriculum into middle and elementary grades. I focus my energy on the secondary level because of my professional experience there. Discussions about secondary communication curriculum are part and parcel of K–12 communication curriculum. Again, the Common Core standards are scaffolded: without learning at lower levels, then there is no foundation upon which to build. As advocacy for this work presses on into the future, scholars and educators must also advocate for strategic communication curriculum pursuant to the Common Core at all levels of K–12 public education.

I would, however, be remiss if I did not note, briefly, the complicated network of policy demands at federal to local levels. As previously referenced, No Child Left Behind places tremendous priority in high-stakes testing and strict accountability measures. I do not wish to give the impression that a few impressive arguments are enough to overcome decades of federal education policy that, in myriad ways outside the scope of this proposal, pose impressive barriers to the type of curriculum presented here. As the conversation around basic communication curriculum hopefully gains traction, researchers and educators ought to be vigilant of policy efforts that further distance educational goals from the purposes of our discipline.

In sum, the Common Core opens the door for the communication discipline's involvement (Beebe, 2015; Hess, 2015) in secondary public education in North Carolina. As the state public education system continues to grow and expand in the 21st century, a vital next step includes formally incorporating the communication discipline in secondary learning through BCC curriculum built around the LOs proposed here. Communication skills are not a "frill" of education, but, rather, they are at the heart of college and career success, effective participation in democracy, in understanding self, and meaningfully connecting with others. And we would do well to remember and teach it with purpose, pride, and passion.

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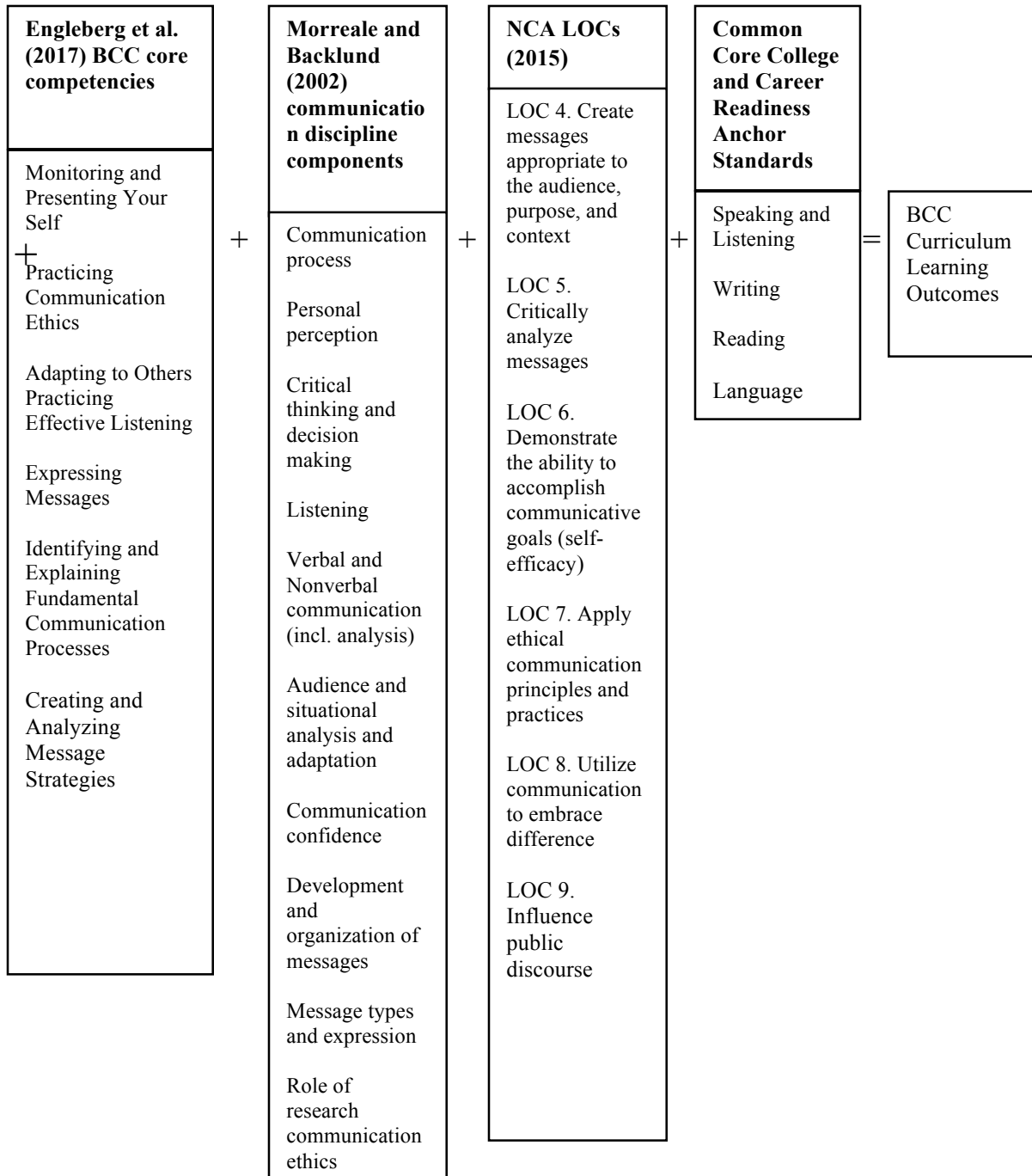
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Appendix

Figure 1. Influences from the communication discipline on the development of LOs

Engleberg et al. (2017) BCC core competencies		Morreale and Backlund (2002) communication discipline components		NCA LOCs (2015)		Common Core College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards		BCC Curriculum Learning Outcomes
Monitoring and Presenting Your Self	+	Communication process	+	LOC 4. Create messages appropriate to the audience, purpose, and context	+	Speaking and Listening	=	BCC Curriculum Learning Outcomes
Practicing Communication Ethics		Personal perception		LOC 5. Critically analyze messages		Writing		
Adapting to Others Practicing Effective Listening		Critical thinking and decision making		LOC 6. Demonstrate the ability to accomplish communicative goals (self-efficacy)		Reading		
Expressing Messages		Listening				Language		
Identifying and Explaining Fundamental Communication Processes		Verbal and Nonverbal communication (incl. analysis)		LOC 7. Apply ethical communication principles and practices				
Creating and Analyzing Message Strategies		Audience and situational analysis and adaptation		LOC 8. Utilize communication to embrace difference				
		Communication confidence		LOC 9. Influence public discourse				
		Development and organization of messages						
		Message types and expression						
		Role of research communication ethics						

Behind the Mask: A Creative Project to Introduce Dark Side of Communication Topics

Michelle Epstein Garland

Courses: Dark Side of Interpersonal Communication; Interpersonal Communication

Objectives: The primary purpose of this assignment is to introduce dark side communication concepts and mitigate anxiety surrounding these topics as they relate to personal experiences. By the end of the activity, students should be able to (1) identify the concepts and contexts of the course curriculum and (2) recognize that their own struggles are shared by others. Referencing the mask assignment throughout the semester as it relates to course concepts, students should be able to (3) demonstrate an understanding of impression management and identity and (4) demonstrate working knowledge of the interrelationship between communication and dark-side contexts. This activity is graded as complete/incomplete, providing students a creative, low-risk, safe approach to introducing the content and creating a sense of community with classmates and the professor.

Theoretical Rationale

The "dark side" of communication, is an area of study introduced by Cupach and Spitzberg in the early 1990s; it has since flourished. But what is the dark side? In their own words, it:

> is about the dysfunctional, distorted, distressing, and destructive aspects of human behavior…dallies with deviance, betrayal transgression, and violation, which includes the awkward, rude and disruptive aspects of human behavior…delves into the direct and indirect implications of human exploitation…seeks to shed light on the unfulfilled, unpotentiated, underestimated, and unappreciated domains of human endeavor…is attracted to the study of the unattractive, the unwanted, the distasteful, and the repulsive…seeks to understand the process of objectification—of symbolically and interactionally reducing humans to mere objects…[and] is drawn to the paradoxical, dialectical, and mystifying facets of life. (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2011, p. 5)

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In short, the dark side contradicts all of the prosocial, positive behaviors that dominate interpersonal communication teachings. While the Dark Side course has been very popular in inciting curiosity and excitement in students, some topics addressed in Dark Side of Interpersonal Communication can cause learner anxiety. Experience with past students suggests that student anxiety may be less about the nature of the concepts covered and more about fear that they may have to talk about things that are uncomfortable or threatening. Though it can help to adopt a "what is said in dark side stays in dark side" mentality, this may not be enough for many students who find dark side topics awkward, challenging, or upsetting to discuss.

Creating a safe, warm classroom environment for students to work through what, in some cases, can be trigger topics is critical to discussing these topics. Guided by the Teaching Through Interactions Framework (TTIF; Hafen, Hamre, Allen, Bell, Gitomer, & Pianta, 2015), this activity utilizes the environment and activity structures. Emotional support includes elements of positive climate, teacher sensitivity, and regard for perspectives. Instructional support addresses elements of instructional learning formats, content understanding, analysis and inquiry, quality of feedback, and instructional dialogue. Classroom Emotional Climate (CEC) closely aligns with TTIF. Classrooms with higher classroom emotional climate:

> have (a) teachers who are sensitive to students' needs; (b) teacher–student relationships that are warm, caring, nurturing, and congenial; (c) teachers who take their students' perspectives into account; and (d) teachers who refrain from using sarcasm and harsh disciplinary practices. (Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, & Salovey, 2012, p. 2)

With CEC and TTIF in mind, instructors are not only aware of the personal and academic needs of students, but also provide opportunities for students to express themselves and explore varied points of view. Because of the safe and open environment created through CEC and TTIF, students achieve more academically (Reyes et al., 2012).

The importance of support is prevalent in communication literature as well (e.g. Dirks & Metts, 2010). Specific to this assignment, the resulting class discussion provides an opportunity for the instructor to establish trust, closeness, and solidarity while also clarifying support provider characteristics, such as shared experiences and open-mindedness, as well as enacting efficacy and support. According to Dirks and Metts, "it is essential that scholars recognize how these variables influence not only the support exchange but also the dyad after the support exchange has occurred" (2010, p. 409).

Activity Description

On the first day of class, each student is given a blank mask and a paper bag. (I order these in bulk from Amazon and provide them to students, but you could certainly have students purchase their own.) The following instructions are given to students:

> *You are to create a mask that represents you. This can be accomplished with markers, paint, stickers, glued paper, or anything you want to use. On the front of the mask, you will create the identity that you show the world, which can include,*

but is not limited to, personality characteristics, roles you play, traits, interests, or anything that represents the "you" that you want others to see. On the back of the mask, you will create the identity that you hide from others. This could include, but is not limited to, traits, habits, personal experiences, struggles, or any events that have impacted who you are or how you see yourself but that most others would not know about you. You will not put your name or any other identifying information on the mask. You will bring it to the next class in the paper bag, which also does not identify you. As you enter class, you will place the paper bag, with the mask inside, in the box. Once everyone has arrived, the bags will be randomly distributed so that everyone has a bag with a mask, but no one has his or her own mask. The mask content will be used to guide the discussion to introduce dark side of communication topics, but at no point in time during the discussion will anyone have to identify anything about him/herself.

Students are informed that the context of the masks will be presented aloud and discussed but not in relation to a specific student. In past semesters, the assignment has been given on a Thursday with a due date of the following Tuesday. While the amount of time given is flexible, this time frame has worked well for student completion and alignment of discussion with the curriculum. This also allows time for students who add the class after the semester begins.

On the day the masks are brought to class, the instructor should ensure that the masks are randomly distributed and that students do not feel pressured to self-identify during the discussion. To start the discussion, ask five students to volunteer to share what is on the front of the mask they received from the random distribution. Because the front of the mask tends to identify positive attributes and experiences, students feel comfortable sharing and usually more than five volunteers are able and willing to share. Once several of the masks' content has been shared, ask the students to share what they notice about the content as a whole. While the discussion should emerge organically, you can expect the discussion to lead to a dialogue on identity performance and impression management strategies. Sample questions could include: why do we feel comfortable sharing or performing these aspects of our identity; in what ways is communication used to share or perform these aspects of our identity; and what, if any, relationships and/or contexts encourage the sharing or performance of these aspects of our identity? Throughout the discussion, students talk about communication as it occurs in these situations as well as how communication is impacted by such experiences. For example, students often discuss the pressure to perform behaviors that would lead to perceptions of "positive identities," such as friendliness, loyalty, and hard work, because of expectations placed on them from friends, family, teachers, etc. On the other hand, students feel the need to hide "negative identities," such as anxiety/depression, loneliness, substance use/abuse, for fear of judgment, and do so through, what they will later learn are, impression management strategies: ingratiation, supplication, exemplification, self-promotion, intimidation (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Ingratiation refers to a strategy of likeability, supplication refers to a strategy of weakness or helplessness, exemplification refers to a strategy of morality or self-sacrifice, self-promotion refers to a strategy of competence, and intimidation refers to a strategy of power or fear.

The next step is to ask students to flip to the mask's back and take a minute to review the content. Again, ask for five volunteers to share what is on the mask they received from the random distribution. Given the nature of the attributes and experiences often found on the back of the mask, five volunteers may not be forthcoming. While the anonymity of the content helps, it often takes one or two volunteers sharing to gain other volunteers and encourage discussion. Based on the masks that have been created for my classes, the most commonly identified dark side topics include anxiety/depression; bullying; emotional, physical, sexual, and substance abuse; divorce; infidelity/cheating; and suicide. Once the volunteers share, again ask students to share what they notice about the content as a whole. It is important to note that students are not asked to share their experiences with such topics, only why such aspects of identity are hidden. Sample questions could include: why do we feel the need to hide these aspects of our identity; in what ways is communication used to hide these aspects of our identity; and what, if any, relationships and/or contexts impact our willingness to share these aspects of our identity with some but not others? This will allow a continuation of the discussion of identity performance and impression management strategies. In addition, you should encourage students to speculate why people feel the need to hide these negative attributes and experiences, and how hiding such information impacts intrapersonal, if you teach this concept, and interpersonal communication.

Debriefing

There are numerous benefits to this assignment and discussion. First, students are introduced to many of the topics covered throughout the course curriculum and it can reduce uncertainty of what is to come. Second, students are able to see directly how important dark side of communication topics are to their everyday life. Third, students are able to discuss openly dark-side topics in a non-threatening environment and in face-saving ways. Fourth, students come to realize that they are not alone as many of the students share dark-side situations and experiences. Fifth, the assignment and discussion create a safe learning environment, one that promotes trust, open-mindedness, empathy, and support.
In case anyone adds the class late, I do two things. First, I post an announcement on Blackboard for the class to let any new students know about the assignment and that they can come by my office to pick up the mask and bag. Second, I bring extra masks from previous semesters (from previous students who have given consent for me to use their mask in class) in case any student shows up without the assignment completed. It is important that everyone can participate in the activity and discussion. While it is not required, I complete the mask assignment as well, and my mask is randomly distributed with the others, as I too take a mask to participate in the discussion. However, I do identify my mask near the conclusion of the discussion, and I do so for two main reasons. First, I want students to recognize that I have, or have had, many of the same struggles and experiences with which they identify. Second, I have found that students are much more willing to disclose to a greater degree when I do so as well, likely because doing so decreases the power distance between the students and me. By sharing such information at the start of the semester, students have been more willing and empowered to share openly throughout the semester. At the end of the class period, I collect all of the masks. After examining the masks and entering the complete/incomplete grade, I allow students to

collect their mask if they so choose. They come to my office and look through the bags to find theirs to maintain anonymity.

Appraisal

This assignment has been very well received by students. Some alter their mask over the course of the semester to move some of the things they have hidden in the past to the front of the mask. Some students ask to physically alter the mask, and others discuss ways they would change their mask. In fact, so many did this the first semester the assignment was given that I added the following question to the final exam essay question: In what ways have you, or would you, change your mask? What communication concepts have led to those changes? And how have your conceptions of identity changed over the course of the semester?

Many ask to keep their mask once the semester has ended. Students have often included comments about this assignment in their end-of-semester evaluations and through email. A sample of student feedback follows.

> I thought the mask assignment was extremely beneficial because it was a chance to talk about what people don't openly talk about. Everyone became vulnerable and really opened up about how they felt about themselves and how they felt about what other people thought. It was a safe way to encourage a discussion about how you never really know what people are hiding or going through.

> The mask assignment troubled me at first because I was having a hard time admitting to myself that I had certain insecurities. Once I wrote them out, I kept flipping from the front to the back of the mask and realized I really have some way of covering up every true way that I felt. In class, when we were discussing some of the things on everyone's mask anonymously, I realized that there is no reason to cover up these things because there is [sic] people who have the same struggles. After the mask assignment, I created new bonds with people and had others including my professor to lean on in working through some of the negative things I have gone through. Now, it is much easier for me to be my true self and rely on the people around me during hard times. I am a much more confident person!

Conclusion

As reflected in the sample student comments, two structures of the Teaching Through Interactions Framework (Hafen et al., 2015), emotional support and instruction learning formats, and elements of the classroom emotional climate (Reyes et al., 2012) are achieved, specifically in regard to positive climate, teacher sensitivity to students' needs, teacher regard for student perspectives, instructional dialogue and teacher-students relationships that are supportive and respectful.

This activity accomplishes the learning outcomes in the following ways. Through discussion of the mask content, students identify the concepts and context of the course curriculum and recognize that their own struggles are shared by others. When the mask

assignment is referenced throughout the semester as it relates to course concepts, students demonstrate an understanding of impression management and identity as well as demonstrate working knowledge of the interrelationship between communication and dark-side contexts, especially when the proposed questions are included on the final exam.

Taken together, the assignment and discussion set the stage for a semester of open, honest communication where students are willing to disclose to a greater degree than they do in the typical college class. This greater degree of disclosure enhances the experience of students individually and as a group, as they are able to see topics through a new lens of acceptance and empowerment.

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Learning from Deaf Co-Cultural Communities: Introducing Intercultural Communication through Online Activities

Brittany Hochstaetter

Intended Course: Interpersonal Communication

Other Courses: Intercultural Communication, Nonverbal Communication, Cultural Studies

Student Learning Outcomes: 1) Recognize the impact of co-cultural factors on effective interpersonal communication; 2) Apply specific co-cultural guidelines for intercultural communication to personal communication behaviors

Key Words: Intercultural Communication, Co-Culture, Deaf Community

Assignment Introduction

Communication between people with and without disabilities has been recognized as intercultural communication (Emery & Wiseman, 1987). Successful intercultural communication requires awareness and training. Designed for the online or hybrid classroom, this intercultural communication assignment introduces the concept of co-cultures by taking an interactive and engaging look into one of the more prevalent co-cultural communities in the United States. Deaf Culture in the United States is a vibrant, fascinating, and sometimes controversial culture in which specific sub-cultures or communities exist. Searching the hashtag, "#OurDeafCommunity," may further illuminate examples of these diverse sub-communities.

This assignment is broken into five brief parts: an introduction, a reading assignment, a short video, an exploration assignment (hearing loss simulator), and a written reflection. If teaching an online, hybrid, or blended course, instructors may find that implementing all of these pieces or parts of them online may be helpful to course objectives. The written reflection would work well as a short paper, group project paper, or discussion board. Specific word or sentence counts articulated beside each reflection

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question may result in more student success and parity between instructor expectations and student performance.

Assignment Rationale

360 million people worldwide have a disabling hearing loss. Although inequities in education for students in the deaf community are steadily being addressed, only 4% of deaf children attend college (Gates Communications). Research conducted by Myers and Bastian for the Journal of College of Student Development, while centered on visual disabilities specifically, underscores the need for multiple approaches to improving communication with students facing disabilities in the college classroom including assignments which may improve awareness. In their interviews with students they reported that, "All of the respondents echoed that disability awareness education is greatly needed in higher education and in society (2010)." Increased knowledge regarding Deaf Culture and improved communication techniques for all students may help to decrease disability stereotyping which may occur from negative attitudes stemming from a lack of knowledge about the particular disability (Burgstahler, 2003). Assignments that bring awareness of this particular co-culture and enhance student communication skills with its members, may bring the added benefits of retaining enrolled deaf students and spurring future scholars toward additional research and advocacy.

Assignment

Introduction: At the intersection of communication and culture lives "intercultural communication," which occurs when two or more cultures or co-cultures exchange messages (Adler, et al., 2018, p. 40). In short, co-cultures are cultures within other cultures. There are many co-cultures in North American society each with their own fascinating traditions, shared values, and activities. Have you considered what co-cultures to which you might belong? For some, it might be a rich, ethnic culture with commitment to certain holidays, foods, and traditions. For others, it might be a specific hobby that connects them or a religious belief. Perhaps you belong to a "group" on Facebook that you would consider a co-culture. Likely, you belong to more than one co-culture, which makes you uniquely you. In this assignment, we will consider one specific co-culture— the Deaf Community.

Read: "The Deaf Community: An Introduction" and "The Importance of Effective Communication between Deaf and Hearing Individuals" from the National Deaf Center which introduces you to this fascinating co-culture.

Introduction to Deaf Culture
https://www.nationaldeafcenter.org/resource/deaf-community-introduction

The Importance of Effective Communication between Deaf and Hearing Individuals
https://www.nationaldeafcenter.org/resource/importance-effective-communication-between-deaf-and-hearing-individuals

Watch: Watch this brief 4-minute video entitled, "Just Ask: Sensory Disability Awareness Film," created by the Basingstoke Disability Forum and 7 Stream Media. The film gives the viewers an introduction to two individuals with different sensory disabilities and reminds them not to be afraid to ask questions and increase awareness.

Just Ask: Sensory Disability Awareness Film
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LU0dQXJ-YQM

Explore: Visit this Hearing and Vision Loss Simulator created by the state of Minnesota which helps hearing and sighted individuals better understand the loss of these abilities. The setting for those with no hearing on the simulator would be "profound." This simulator was created for those working especially in the field of senior care.

Vision and Hearing Loss Simulator
https://mn.gov/deaf-hard-of-hearing/learning-center/trainings/?id=1121-408755

Reflect: Consider this activity and how it has changed your mindset and/or broadened your understanding of a co-culture that is active and vibrant within North America.
Answer the following questions in a .doc or .docx format after completing the steps above. Please follow proper APA citation and formatting guidelines and be sure to double-check your spelling and grammar prior to submission.

Individuals with disabilities sometimes use two different strategies to *adapt to different cultures*—accommodation and assimilation. Given your reading and exploration of this co-culture, why do you believe a member of the Deaf Community would need to change strategies at times? Give a specific example of why a person might need to change strategies given a certain situation.

After this exercise, what two pieces of <u>specific</u> advice would you give a hearing individual regarding <u>effective</u> communication with someone in the Deaf Community? (Include specific content from National Deaf Center, a textbook, or any other source listed in the provided materials.)

What have you specifically learned from this assignment? Has this assignment opened your eyes to new information or a new perspective regarding either co-cultures as a topic or the Deaf Community?

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Getting to Know You: Understanding Organizational Information-Seeking Through the Application of Uncertainty Management Theory

Andrea L. Meluch

This activity is designed for upper-level undergraduate organizational communication courses and can be adapted for other types of communication courses (e.g., communication theory). The activity invites students to use Miller and Jablin's (1991) information-seeking tactics in small groups to better understand socialization processes and uncertainty management in organizational contexts.

Keywords: *Information-seeking Tactics, Organizational Socialization, Uncertainty Management*

Learning Outcomes

This activity should encourage students to (a) apply uncertainty management theory by using organizational information-seeking tactics, (b) analyze the utility of different information-seeking strategies, and (c) reflect upon the nature of uncertainty in workplace settings and personal relationships.

Introduction and Rationale

Instructors of the organizational communication course often discuss socialization processes and challenge students to apply theoretical frameworks and research findings to understanding how organizations socialize their new members. As an area of study, organizational socialization processes are of interest to both students and researchers because these processes help to explain how organizational newcomers learn about their organization and manage uncertainties. Communication theorists have long recognized the importance of examining uncertainty as a construct (e.g., Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Brashers, 2001, 2007; Kramer, 2004). Brashers (2001) explains that "uncertainty exists when details of situations are ambiguous, complex, unpredictable, or probabilistic . . . [and] people feel insecure in their state of knowledge" (p. 478). Over the course of several decades, communication scholars have offered various theories to explore how individuals reduce (uncertainty reduction theory; Berger & Calabrese, 1975) and manage (uncertainty management theory; Brashers, 2001) uncertainty in their lives. Uncertainty management theory differs from uncertainty reduction theory, in that uncertainty

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management theory recognizes that uncertainty can be experienced both positively and negatively and influence information-seeking behaviors (Kramer, 2004).

Uncertainty management theory has a variety of applications across areas of study in communication. For example, uncertainty management theory has been applied to how organizational newcomers seek information and are socialized within organizational contexts (Kramer, 2004; Kramer & Bisel, 2017). Within the organizational communication literature, researchers have been particularly interested in the strategies used by newcomers to learn about their organization. Organizational information seeking strategies were explored in Miller and Jablin's (1991) seminal work which identified several information seeking strategies that newcomers use within organizational contexts. These strategies include: (a) overt questioning, (b) indirect questions, (c) disguising conversation, (d) third-party inquiry, (e) observation, (f) surveillance, (g) testing, and (h) consult documents. Thus, the study of organizational socialization centers on the concept of uncertainty and the organizational communication literature often explores how new members manage uncertainty within the workplace (Kramer, 2004; Kramer & Bisel, 2017).

Applying Theory through Classroom Interactions

Communication theory is foundational to the understanding of human interactions and communication outcomes. Developing a clear understanding of communication theory is central to the application of concepts in many communication courses. However, scholars have noted the challenges associated with connecting theory to application (Griffin et al., 2015). Griffin et al. (2015) note that "students will have a rough time understanding theory unless they apply its explanations and interpretations to concrete situations" (p. xi). Thus, instructors are often tasked with the daunting prospect of finding ways to apply theoretical explanations in the classroom. College instructors can help students overcome the challenges of connecting abstract theories and concepts to application by having students actively use the concept through classroom interaction. Creating opportunities to apply theory through actual interactions in the classroom can be useful to student learning. Specifically, students often report that participating in interactive classroom activities has a positive impact on their learning (e.g., Lumpkin et al., 2015). The following activity is based on the premise that students can better understand course concepts and theory through interactive classroom activities (i.e., active learning).

The Activity

The objective of this activity is to apply uncertainty management theory by having students perform organizational information-seeking tactics, analyze the utility of different information-seeking strategies, and reflect upon the nature of uncertainty in workplace settings and personal relationships. This activity can be adapted to be used in a variety of communication courses (e.g., interpersonal communication, communication theory). However, this description applies mainly to the organizational communication course and, particularly, to organizational socialization processes. The activity itself lasts approximately 30 minutes of class, however, additional class time prior to the activity is

necessary to explain uncertainty management theory, information-seeking strategies, and organizational socialization processes.

Instructors should commence the activity by asking for several student volunteers. Students who did not volunteer should be placed into groups of three to four with each group being assigned one of the student volunteers. Student volunteers are then asked to step outside the classroom for several minutes. After student volunteers have left the classroom, the instructor will explain activity directions to the student groups. Student groups are tasked with using Miller and Jablin's (1991) information-seeking strategies to find eight pieces of information about their classmate volunteers (see worksheet in Appendix). After student groups are provided with directions, they should be given an additional few minutes to strategize as a group by considering how they will use the information-seeking strategies to find this information. For example, student groups may discuss how they could disguise conversation to prompt their classmate to disclose a piece of information presented (e.g., "I'm thinking about working with the Career Services Office on developing a five-year plan") or use documents to retrieve information (e.g., "What if we look up Ryan's last name online on the course roster page?").

Once the groups have a plan of action, the student volunteers are then brought back into class and are individually assigned to each group. Student volunteers should not have prior knowledge of the eight pieces of information that each group is seeking or the purpose of the conversation. Instructors should simply tell the volunteers that they are going to participate in a small group discussion. After each group has obtained the information about their classmate, they should then explain to their classmate the purpose of the activity and discuss as a group which information-seeking strategies were effective and which strategies were ineffective. Once each group has completed the activity the instructor should then refocus the class for a debriefing period in which the activity is analyzed and applied to an organizational socialization context.

Debriefing

When the entire class comes back together to discuss the activity the instructor should ask each individual group to discuss how they applied the strategies to obtain information about their classmates. Students volunteers should also be asked to share whether it was clear that certain pieces of information were being sought (e.g., "I felt like I was being interviewed") or if they found the group discussion to progress naturally. Further, instructors should pose the following questions to the class:

(1) Which information-seeking strategies were the most effective?
(2) Which information-seeking strategies were the least effective?
(3) Which of these strategies would you use as a newcomer in an organization?
(4) Which would you steer clear of using in the workplace?
(5) How does obtaining information about a classmate help to reduce uncertainty?
(6) How does obtaining information about a classmate potentially create more uncertainty?
(7) When is uncertainty a negative experience in the workplace? When is uncertainty a negative experience when we are trying to learn more about another person?
(8) When is uncertainty useful in organizational settings? When is uncertainty useful when we are getting to know someone?

These questions encourage students to connect their experience to information-seeking processes, uncertainty management theory, and organizational socialization. During this discussion the instructor should clearly associate elements of uncertainty management theory (e.g., positive and negative appraisals of uncertainty, desired levels of uncertainty) to using information-seeking strategies within organizational contexts. Specifically, the instructor may discuss how we use information-seeking within organizational contexts, including in the classroom, to find out more about our peers, superiors, and organizational processes.

Appraisal

Generally, students found this activity to be engaging and even fun, while simultaneously using communication theory in an applied way. Specifically, during in-class discussion students noted how they had not considered how receiving information could beget additional uncertainty and how some information-seeking strategies might not be appropriate within organizational settings (e.g., testing). For example, one student said, "I would steer clear of indirect questions, as they are not very clear and uncertainty can cause problems in the workplace." Another student similarly explained that "disguising the conversation makes the communication so unclear and you won't get the answers you're looking for." Several students also agreed that testing strategies appeared to be "ineffective." These comments illustrate the ways students think about both information-seeking strategies in the workplace and how they relate to uncertainty management. Another interesting outcome of this activity is that it helps to create community in the classroom and socialize students, especially if used early in the semester. Although students in smaller programs may know each other quite well by the time they enter an upper-level organizational communication course, offering students the opportunity to better get to know their classmates can have important implications in terms of creating a comfortable learning environment and encouraging students to share their own perspectives at later points in the semester.

Although this activity is designed for the organizational communication, it potentially could be adapted for other courses (e.g., interpersonal communication, communication theory) and/or by using it to apply other communication theories (e.g., communication privacy management theory, social exchange theory). Further, this activity can serve as an early class icebreaker whereby students are encouraged to apply communication theory and get to know their classmates using more creative tactics than the typical question-answer format.

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Appendix

Information-Seeking Strategies Worksheet

Directions: (1) Obtain the eight pieces of information about your classmate below using Miller and Jablin's (1991) information-seeking strategies: (a) overt questioning, (b) indirect questions, (c) disguising conversation, (d) third-party inquiry, (e) observation, (f) surveillance, (g) testing, and (h) consult documents. (2) After all information has been obtained, as a group evaluate the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of each information-seeking strategy.

Information	Information-Seeking Strategy Evaluation
Last name:	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
Major:	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
Relationship status:	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
Favorite color:	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
iPhone or Android person?	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
Morning person or night owl?	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
What is her/his goals over the next five years?	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:
What classes are they taking this semester?	Strategy used:
	Effectiveness:

Introductions Based on Social Media Introductions

Melanie R. Savelli

This activity utilizes students' tech savvy and detective skills to parcel out online personas of classmates to learn about public versus private images. It can be applied to almost any classroom and have the desired impact. This activity will result in a greater understanding of what content is available to employers, the importance of privacy settings on social media accounts, and the purpose of creating a positive digital footprint.

Keywords: *Social Media; Privacy; Employment Communication; Online Communication; Mediated Communication.*

Intended Course(s): Introduction to Computer Mediated Communication.

*This activity is applicable in all courses. It may even be repeated in the same class or used in other classes to reinforce the findings and to see if modifications were made based on the original outcome.

Learning Objectives: By the end of this activity, students will:

1. Be aware of the type of content available to employers through a simple internet search.
2. Learn if their privacy settings on their social media pages are too lax.
3. Discover potential impressions of themselves being given off through available social media content.
4. Be educated about the art of moderating social media for impression management.

Rationale

Many students underestimate the amount of their social media content that is available to future employers. This activity showcases that although public social media information can be used by employers to obtain negative impressions, social media can be managed in a way that enhances employers' perceptions.

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Materials:
- Notecards (enough for 1 per student)
- Pens/pencils
- Smartphones/laptops (students can use their own and share if someone does not have a smart phone)

Explanation of Activity

Give each student a notecard. Have each student write down his/her name as it would appear on a resume (some people include a middle initial) and the town/city in which he/she currently lives (since this would also be provided on a resume), on the blank side. Collect the notecards and redistribute them randomly.

Instructions. *"Use your phone or laptop to investigate the student named on your notecard. Explore all social media accounts and websites affiliated with this name. Write down your findings on the notecard. If you are actually "friends" or "follow" this student, you can only use information that can be seen while you are logged out of your accounts. You may not include any information that you acquired through knowing that student personally. You may only use information found during this internet search. Rather than taking notes on how many times a person has tweeted, look at the content of the tweets to make assumptions and generalizations about the person. These generalizations may be positive or negative, as long as they are honest assumptions. Keep your results to yourself."*

During this time, do your best to prevent students from checking in with the people that are searching them. You should also discourage students from trying to confirm that social media accounts belong to a certain individual. This should take about five minutes but may take more or less time, depending on how much information is available to students. When the time is up, have the students take turns introducing the person who they investigated, using the results of their investigation. After the introduction, the student being introduced has the opportunity to confirm or deny that he/she is the owner of the social media account(s) and can refute the findings.

Typical Results

During these presentations, it usually becomes clear who has good privacy settings and who does not. Frequently, there is a handful of students who have no clue that their information was public. Additionally, there is usually at least one student who has a professional social media account (Examples: youtube.com channel to showcase skills; podcast to showcase professional opinions; LinkedIn account to broadcast resume; etc.) and it becomes apparent how important they are for impression management.

Limitations

A limitation to this activity is that a student may not have a social media account. In these cases, school sports rosters and club membership may be found online. If nothing can be found, the discussion points from the debriefing may be extra relevant.

Another limitation is that information that students did not want becoming public has now been shared in front of their peers. This can be avoided by allowing students to "opt-out" at the beginning of the activity. In this case, it also becomes extremely important in the debriefing to point out that the classroom is a safe space and that it is better that a student learns about their perceived public image now versus at a job interview.

Debriefing

It is important to point out that it is not necessarily a good thing if nothing arises when future employers conduct their informal investigations. By providing pertinent information via professional social media accounts, students are able to engage in impression management and can even draw attention to different skills that are not as apparent on a resume. When used properly, professional social media accounts can even attract future employers. The bottom line is that social media accounts, both personal and professional, have their place. Students just need to be proactive in how and when they are used.

Outcome

Students often conclude the activity with a sense of urgency to make privacy settings stricter on personal social media accounts, along with a strong motivation to create/maintain professional social media accounts on websites like LinkedIn.

How Do Speeches Stack Up? Examining Arrangement through Jenga®

Amber L. Alvey and Joshua N. Westwick

This single-class activity provides an active and engaging opportunity to explore the use of arrangement when preparing for an oral presentation. To do so, we relied on the Hasbro game, Jenga®, to examine speech structure, support, and organization. After completing this activity, students will be able to (1) assemble an effective speech outline, and (2) explain critical elements of organization and speech structure.

Keywords: *Public Speaking, Basic Course, Arrangement, Organization*

Intended Courses: Basic Course/Public Speaking

Learning Objectives: After completing this activity, students will be able to (1) assemble an effective speech outline, and (2) explain critical elements of organization and speech structure.

Introduction and Rationale

The arrangement of thoughts and ideas is often a central tenant of public speaking instruction. Included as one of the classic canons of rhetoric (Cicero, 2001), arrangement focuses on the strategic organization of content (Charlesworth, 2010). This particular tenant of public speaking is significant as "the arrangement of information can positively and negatively affect the reception of a message" (Charlesworth, 2010, p. 125). Thus, to help our students strengthen their understanding of speech arrangement, we relied on the Hasbro game, Jenga®, which has also been used to teach system theory successfully (Docan, 2006). We selected this particular game because of the associated metaphors (i.e., building, structure, organization) that relate to the speech-making process.

We designed this single-class activity to provide an active and engaging opportunity to explore the use of arrangement when preparing for an oral presentation. By exploring structure, organization, and support, students will enhance their ability to use speech arrangement strategies appropriately and accurately. Moreover, the activity provides an opportunity for students to experiment with elements of arrangement and organization in a non-threatening environment.

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Description of Activity

This activity is designed to be completed within 25 minutes of a 50-minute class period and is most optimal for a class size of 24 students or less. This activity is best suited for a class day following the discussion of speech structure, but preferably before the first speech of the course is delivered. Before completing this activity, students should have an introduction to various aspects of speech organization such as preview, transitions, main points, introduction, and conclusion, as well as the different types of speech organizational patterns. Most introductory speech texts provide a comprehensive overview of these elements. This activity requires Jenga®, a game involving 54 stackable blocks. The goal of the game is to build the blocks into a tower, then remove the blocks individually until someone knocks the tower down, therefore "losing" the game. After purchasing or borrowing the game, the instructor will write or tape the speech arrangement concepts (Appendix A) on each block. Some elements will need to be used twice.

On the day of class activity, the instructor will assemble the Jenga® tower on a table or stand, easily visible to the students, according to the directions provided with the game. The instructor should begin class by referencing the Jenga® tower on the table, explaining how the tower is a symbol of speech structure, comprised of many pieces. Like speech structure, the individual wood pieces join together to provide strength and support for the tower.

Next, the instructor should explain to students that they will be coming up to the tower individually, one at a time, removing a block from the tower (not from the top row), and then providing a definition and example of the speech organization/arrangement element stated on the block. Some components of speech structure may be repeated on the blocks; however, students should provide different, unique examples each time to illustrate the diversity of arrangement. After giving instructions to the class, the instructor should proceed with the activity as follows.

Individually, each student will remove one block from the Jenga® tower. The student then provides a brief (no more than 30-seconds) definition and example of the speech component written on the block to the class before placing the block beside the tower, rather than on top of the tower. If a student does not know the definition of the component, the instructor can allow the student to look up the definition using their notes or textbook or receive assistance from classmates. As the blocks are removed, the instructor should reinforce how the Jenga® tower is changing at the same time, losing support and substance. After each student has had the opportunity to pull a block and present on the block's topic, they can return to their seats. At this point, the instructor should bring the attention back to the Jenga® tower, which will have many missing parts, leaving a less stable structure as a memorable metaphor and visualization of the missing components of speech arrangement. The visualization of the destabilized tower serves as an effective transition to the activity debriefing.

Debriefing

The purpose of this activity is to bring awareness to the significance of structure when creating a speech. Having students visualize the missing parts of the Jenga® tower,

as it relates to missing components of speech arrangement, will promote the use of structure when creating their future speeches. Following the activity, students should be asked to respond to the following questions:

1. How does the Jenga® tower symbolize the structure of a speech?
2. What structural changes occurred as Jenga® blocks were removed from the tower?
3. How can you utilize the elements of arrangement and organization to strengthen the speech structure?
4. What did you learn about the importance of speech arrangement following this activity?

By asking these questions, the instructor will be able to gauge if student learning outcomes were met and allow more discussion to occur if necessary. The instructor should spend time summarizing students' contributions to the discussion and reinforcing the significance of utilizing the components of speech arrangement discussed during the activity.

Appraisal

Students are challenged in this activity to understand the importance of structure and to provide definitions and examples of speech arrangement. Students have reacted positively to this activity, particularly about the symbolism of the structure presented through the Jenga® tower. The opportunity to experiment with speech elements in a non-graded environment allows students to enjoy the game while meeting the learning objectives presented. Students typically show high levels of support for their classmates as they approach the tower, often giving encouraging phrases such as, "You can do this!" Not only does this activity allow students to experience play in the classroom, but it promotes an environment that encourages relationship-building. Furthermore, students display a strong understanding of the importance of incorporating speech arrangement components to strengthen the structure of their speeches.

One limitation of this activity is the possibility of the Jenga® tower collapsing prematurely. As this is a challenging game, it is conceivable that a student may unintentionally knock the tower over early. Nonetheless, the tower can quickly be reassembled. The instructor can use this opportunity to illustrate how a speech presentation can become vulnerable when one or more elements of structure and arrangement are missing.

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Appendix A

List of Arrangement and Structure Terminology	
Introduction	Body
Conclusion	Attention-Getting Device
Transition	Main Point
Subordinate Point	Supporting Materials
Signpost	Invention
Arrangement	Style
Delivery	Credibility
Preview	Preview
Thesis Statement	Gestures
Explanation of points	Oral Citations
Topical Organization	Topic selection
Cause-Effect Organization	Chronological Organization
Spatial Organization	Problem-Solution Organization
Subordination	Audience Analysis
Coordination	Outline
Summary	Internal Summary

Outplay, Outwit, Outlast, Outlearn: Using *Survivor* to Experience and Understand Concepts from Group Communication

Sidi Becar Meyara, Kaitlin E. Phillips, Christian R. Seiter, and John S. Seiter

This multi-class activity, adapted from the popular reality television show Survivor, *provides a motivating, social, and active learning approach for teaching a wide array of concepts typically covered in group communication courses, including the importance and dynamics of emergent leaders, coalitions, decision making, trust, group roles, and competition vs. cooperation.*

Keywords: Group Characteristics, Communication Competence, Leadership, Problem Solving, Decision Making

Intended Courses: Group Communication, Leadership, Communication Theory

Objectives: Students engage in a variety of group-related tasks and, in so doing, come to understand, review, and apply concepts such as problem solving, decision making, leadership, and communication climate.

Rationale

Anyone who has watched the long-lasting reality television show *Survivor*, may be familiar with the motto "Outwit, outplay, outlast," but given the show's pedagogical credentials, we wonder if "outlearn" should be added to this list. Indeed, *Survivor* has been successfully adapted to motivate student learning in engineering (Newell, 2005), business (Campbell, 2017), pharmacy (Grady et al., 2013), music (Berry, 2008), mathematics (Burks, 2011), and librarianship (Rosen & Dixon, 2005) courses. That said, despite the inherently social nature of *Survivor*, we are unaware of published accounts that apply the game to communication classrooms. This is unfortunate considering the wide array of group communication concepts that can be illustrated in an adapted version of *Survivor*. Such concepts include more typical topics such as leadership, cooperation, and decision making, but also notions such as individual success and competition, which can sometimes be problematic in group interactions. Importantly, the essence of the activity is easy to understand: students compete in "tribes" (small groups) and as individuals while striving to be the sole survivor. As such, teachers and students are not required to have seen *Survivor* in order to enjoy facilitating and/or learning from it.

The Activity

Overview

Students participate in multiple exercises, competing as individuals and in tribes, attempting to become the "sole" survivor. Though many of the sub-exercises will be recognizable, our goal was not to present novel activities, but rather to provide an innovative experiential framework to engage students in learning.

Materials and preparation

To conduct this activity, you will need:
- Name tags: Students write their names in 1 of 3 colors, each representing a different tribe.
- Answer sheets for a "stranded survival game." Our favorite can be found at https://www.whiteman.af.mil/Portals/53/documents/AFD-130408-063.pdf.
- Post-it notes (to cast votes) and paper.
- "Mystery prize."
- Perception Game questions.
- For fun, consider downloading or Googling *Ancient Voices*, *Survivor's* theme song.
- Arrange desks into 3 separate circles, one per tribe.

Procedures

The overall activity includes a variety of smaller exercises that are described below with notes about concepts illustrated in each. Due to its robustness, we recommend using three class sessions, although fewer can be used by "eliminating" more students per activity.

Session One

Welcome and preview. As students arrive, assign each to one of three roughly equally-sized tribes, using different color nametags to distinguish tribes. Cue the music and introduce yourself. Feel free to be expressive as the host, as if you were performing for a television audience. Explain the general goal of the game (to win "The Mystery Prize" by eliminating all the other players), and briefly preview the activities, making sure to explain that the final survivor will be selected by a jury of eliminated players.

Picking names and leaders. Ask each tribe to appoint a leader and pick a tribe name. After leaders introduce their tribes to class, help students reflect on this brief activity by asking how and why they decided on their leaders. How and why did they choose their names? What do the names signify? Besides leaders, what other roles were noticeable in the group? Help students consider the difference between leadership as a process and a property (Keyton, 2006) and speculate about the ways in which group structure and identity might affect the game. In a group setting, norms and roles emerge (Keyton, 2006), and

these roles are either formal or informal. *(Concepts illustrated: leadership, identity, group structure, formal/informal roles).*

Stranded survival scenario. The next task involves a stranded survival task (see link above). To administer it, read the scenario to class, outline procedures, and play. Once a losing tribe is determined, explain that its members are now being sent to "Redemption Island," although they are still in the game. Indeed, if they pay close attention, there may be a chance to re-enter the game. This, we've discovered, is an important component of classroom *Survivor* because it keeps eliminated students involved while minimizing any potentially hurt feelings that may result from "losing."

After the survival task, ask students to reflect. What decision-making processes did they follow? What issues/factors were considered? Did their decisions seem better than the other groups? How so? Besides helping students reflect on decision-making processes, highlight that certain skills (e.g., task, relational, and procedural, see Keyton, 2006) can promote effective problem solving, although other factors might be important too. For instance, functional groups must also follow certain steps. Ask students which of these steps they followed or overlooked. *(Concepts illustrated: problem-solving, decision making, teamwork, leadership, group roles, task and relational communication, functional group theory).*

Session Two

Reassemble the original tribes, review what happened in Session One, and remind students that the "losing" tribe is now on "Redemption Island."

Planning and strategizing. Explain that although students on Redemption Island will have a chance to return to the game later, their current task is to create 10–15 trivia questions related to class concepts that can be used to test the surviving players. For example, one trivia question might ask, "What are the three styles of leadership?" Meanwhile, provide time for students in the two surviving tribes to talk and strategize one-on-one with members *in their own tribe*. Their instructions are to discuss what their "approach" to the game will be, or more specifically, to explore possible strategies for surviving to the end. To facilitate, allow students to mingle, rotating one-on-one conversations every minute or so.

Reflection questions: How did you strategize with others? Did some tribe members seem more trustworthy than others? How so and why? Did communication style affect your perception? How might trust affect the development of coalitions? *(Concepts illustrated: Trust, coalitions, formal/informal group roles, communication competence, communication apprehension).*

Trivia contest. Explain that previously eliminated players (i.e., the "Redemption Island" players) will take turns reading trivia questions. Whichever surviving player "buzzes" in first, and correctly answers a question earns one point for their tribe. The first tribe to earn a designated number of points wins. The losing tribe goes to tribal council, where several members will be voted out of the game. While the concepts illustrated will depend on the trivia questions, this contest helps students review concepts they have learned in class.

Tribal council. During this phase of the activity, each of the original three tribes is assigned a different task. First, ask the trivia-winning tribe to leave the room, encouraging

them to, once again, have strategic discussions (one-on-one or in coalitions) while away. Second, ask the eliminated group (those who created the trivia questions) to decide which ONE of them should be allowed to re-enter the game. Encourage them to develop criteria for their decision. Third, conduct a "tribal council" with the trivia-losing tribe. Ask questions to individuals (e.g., "How do you feel about your position in the game?" "What are your chances of winning?" "Who do you trust most in the game?"). Afterwards, ask them to anonymously cast votes, eliminating a predetermined number of their tribe members (we leave this number to the instructor's discretion based on number of students in the class; however, we suggest that the total remaining number of survivors be no more than 16 if possible). At the end of this segment, merge all of the survivors (plus the player voted back into the game) into one tribe. *(Concepts illustrated: Communicator style, trust, decision making procedures—e.g., brainstorming, voting, ranking, etc.)*

Session Three

Begin by assembling students into two groups, the surviving and non-surviving players. Remind the students what happened in previous sessions.

Penultimate contest, plus developing criteria. Explain that there are now two groups of individuals (i.e., surviving and non-surviving players), each with a specific task. First, the surviving players must decide on a contest or decision rule for eliminating all but eight of their tribemates (examples include voting, drawing certain colored rocks, seeking volunteers, flipping coins). Meanwhile, break the non-surviving players into two groups of "interrogators." Each group of interrogators is tasked with creating a set of five to ten questions that will be used to question the three finalists in order to determine a winner. Examples of interrogation questions might include: Why do you deserve to win? What was your best "move" in the game? Was there anything you regret about how you played? Once interrogation questions are written, determine which players the surviving group eliminated. Reflection questions: How did you decide on who to eliminate? What method did you rely on to vote them out? What are the advantages/disadvantages of this method? How did their communication style contribute to your decision? These types of questions help students think about the issue of majority/minority. It also helps them think about the decision-making procedures: voting, consensus, ranking, etc. *(Concepts: Majority/minority groups, power, communicator style).*

Final contest: "And the survey says…" perception game. The next stage of this activity involves a perception game that is similar to the popular "Match Game" TV show. Explain that, whoever wins will get a "special advantage" in the game. To play, divide the class into two groups. First, the non-surviving players (i.e., the recently eliminated players and the two groups of interrogators) form a panel, which will respond to several survey questions about the survivors in order to determine the most popular answer to each question. Examples of questions include: Which player is most likely to become famous? Which player is most likely to survive a zombie apocalypse? Which player has read the most books? (for additional questions, contact the first author or create your own, making sure to phrase them so the answer can apply to only one person on the panel, e.g., "who is the *most* likely to…"). Meanwhile, the surviving players attempt to guess what the most popular answer to the survey will be. By way of example, here is how one round of the game would work:

1. Ask the *survivors* to write down their answer to a question, e.g., "Which one of you will the panel say is most likely to buy tickets to a Taylor Swift concert?"
2. Survey the *panel* by asking its members to raise their hands when you point to the survivor who best matches their perception, e.g., "Who thinks Babbs is most likely to buy Swift tickets? Who thinks Biff is most likely? Who thinks…"
3. Once the most popular answer is determined, ask *survivors* to reveal their guesses. Guessing the most popular answer is worth one point and is awarded to any of the survivors who picked the most popular answer.

As the host, decide how many perception questions to ask based on the amount of class time available. Once a winner is determined, reveal the "special advantage." Specifically, the winner of the perception game now gets to select two of the remaining survivors to go to final tribal council with him/her. The five perception-game players who were not chosen form the *jury*. As such, there are now three groups of students: The jury, the interrogators (formerly known as the panelists), and the three final survivors. Before moving to the next phase of the activity, ask students about their perceptions of others (for instance, what gave you the impression that "Babbs" was mostly likely to….?"). Did relational communication contribute to these perceptions? Students reflect on the role perceptions play in how we conceive of/treat others. They also think about the role of difference/diversity and the role that it plays in our perceptions of others as either similar/different from us. *(Concepts: Perception, diversity, relational communication).*

Final tribal council and declaring a winner. At this stage, introduce the three finalists, and give each 30 seconds or more to state their case for why they should win the jurists' votes. Next, allow the two groups of "interrogators" to take turns asking their questions to a specific finalist. Afterwards, the jurists' votes are cast and tallied. The sole survivor is declared and the "Mystery Prize" awarded.

Debriefing

Possible debrief topics include networks, decision making, coalition building, leadership, communication climate, group identity, group roles, person perception, trust, competition, and individual success. Ask students what they observed in the activity. What parts of the game proved the most challenging? What might be learned from the exercise? How might this exercise apply to "real life"? Other questions might include:

- Early in the game, you were asked to choose a leader. Did that decision affect the tribe and/or the game? Did other group roles come into play?
- When you first met members of your tribe, what were your initial impressions?
- What led you to perceive them that way? Did your perceptions turn out to be accurate? Were they primarily positive? Negative? Did they change over the course of the activity? If so, how? How did your perceptions of others influence issues of trust?
- Did time alone with other players make a difference? If so, how? Did coalitions form? Were they important later in the game?
- How would you characterize the communication in your group? Did networks emerge from your group interactions? Was it (de)centralized? What were the (dis)advantages of this network?

- How task—or socially—oriented was your communication? How might that have affected your group?
- How does communication competence contribute/hinder people's chances in this game?
- At different stages, you were asked to make decisions. How were such decisions made? Did having criteria help? How so?

Typically, students do an excellent job connecting the activity to course concepts. In particular, our students have seemed particularly interested in analyzing the strategic elements of the game. It is fascinating, for example, to compare and contrast various strategic approaches, including those that are more social and cooperative versus those involving competition and concealment. Keyton (2006), for instance, noted that competition can lead to conflict in groups, which can often be seen in the *Survivor* activity. Indeed, there is an inherent tension in that players need to make alliances and cooperate, even though only one person will eventually be declared the "winner." Of course, examining the potential consequences of various approaches can prove to be an exciting topic for students and a jumping off point for further discussion. For example, if someone was particularly duplicitous, how did that affect team unity? Did jury members or others want to see that person succeed? Did loyalty or trust play a role in this game? Did students feel more loyal to their tribemates than other players? Why or why not? As the game unfolded, did their perspective on loyalty and trust change? If so, what caused these changes? Do certain approaches to the game have long-term consequences?

Conclusion and Appraisal

Our motivation for creating this activity was sparked, in part, by our belief that students benefit from active learning, and that an adapted version of *Survivor* could provide a socially engaging illustration of a vast array of group communication concepts. Based on our own observations alongside anonymous feedback from students, we believe that this exercise was beneficial in several ways. Overall, students reported enjoying this activity. In addition, students appreciated being able to identify concepts from the activity that they had learned in class. One student wrote, "This activity was super fun but not just for the sake of being fun! I learned lots about groups too!" Another noted, "I wish we could play this every day. So many concepts from class." Others referred back to the activity to highlight how group members assumed certain roles and displayed certain communicator styles.

Despite its strengths, one limitation is that its complexity makes it difficult to organize and run, especially if conducted in fewer class sessions. As noted earlier, from our perspective, it works better as a multi-class activity. Indeed, students especially liked the idea of having a multi-day activity so they could not only process the information, but also strategize and use coalition building strategies outside of the classroom as well. That said, we have tried this activity in both 50 and 75-minute classes (with a debrief the following session), and both worked well. For shorter class sessions, we encourage instructors to use a written appraisal assignment. We found that a short reflection paper worked well, as students were able to reflect on the activity and connect multiple course concepts to their experience. As another consideration, you might recruit one or two students to help assist you.

In addition, there are other elements of the television show that might be incorporated into the activity. For example, alongside selecting a leader and tribe name, students might create flags with colors or emblems that represent their tribe's identity. Moreover, on *Survivor*, teams are often selected using a "schoolyard pick," in which leaders take turns choosing members of their team. Admittedly, this can lead to hurt feelings, but it could also foster an interesting discussion on how initial perceptions shape relationships. In addition, on the television show, tribes are often decided based on characteristics such as generation, sex, and so forth. Although assigning tribes as students arrive to class is efficient, selection based on member characteristics can foster interesting conversations about ingroups and outgroups. Moreover, to highlight group roles, it can be interesting to assign students various task (e.g., information seeker, elaborator), social (gatekeeper, harmonizer), and dysfunctional (e.g., blocker, dominator) roles to enact throughout the activity. Finally, we suggest running this activity later in the semester as a way to review multiple concepts in relation to one another.

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