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Spring 2013

Spirit Injury and Feminism: Expanding the Discussion

Nick J. Sciullo

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Proceedings
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The Official Journal of the
Georgia Communication Association, Inc.
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Proceedings of the
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Editor: Paula Dixon, Emmanuel College

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Great Ideas for Teaching Speech — GIFTS
Teaching Vocal Delivery Skills with News Stories
Katherine N. Kinnick, Ph.D., Kennesaw State University
Conference Schedule
Proceedings, the official publication of the Georgia Communication Association, Inc., is an academic journal concerned with the study and improvement of teaching effectiveness in the fields of communication in secondary and post-secondary education. All subdisciplines of the general discipline of communication are welcome. The documents in this issue of Proceedings were presented at the 2013 GCA, Inc., Convention on the campus of Dalton State University on February 22 and 23 of 2013.

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The mass migration of the Irish to America resulting from the Great Potato Famine of the mid-19th century is a familiar story. But much less is generally known about another, earlier wave of immigration from Ireland that also had a profound influence on what it means to be American.

For a 100-year period beginning in 1717, more than a half-million people left Ireland’s northern province of Ulster in quest of a better life in America. They were largely the Protestant descendants of Scottish settlers who had colonized the north of Ireland for the British Crown in the 1600’s. The people commonly referred to in America as the “Scotch-Irish” or “Scots-Irish” became one of the dominant European groups populating the American colonies, and they are among the ancestors of probably most white and many nonwhite Americans in the South and West today.

(The terms “Scotch-Irish” and “Scots-Irish” are both correct. “Scots-Irish” is a recent term preferred by some. I use “Scotch-Irish,” as do many historians. It has historical currency and is the term still preferred by most people who claim this ancestry, and I believe in calling people what they wish to be called.)

The Scotch-Irish were America’s first least wanted, and their harsh welcome in some instances foreshadowed conflict between nativists and immigrants in this country ever since. Still, they and their progeny bravely populated colonial frontiers, carving free but perilous lives out of harsh wilderness from New Hampshire to Georgia – just as their ancestors had done in Scotland and in Ireland’s northern province of Ulster with the same grim resolve. They brought the Presbyterian Church and a strong belief in education to America. They were crucial in winning the French and Indian War and the Revolutionary War. They fostered Irish Americanism years before the coming of the Famine Irish. They fought fiercely on both sides in the Civil War and in all wars in U.S. history. Spreading across early America, they produced explorers, farmers and ranchers, small business people, tycoons, inventors, and presidents. They melted into middle-class American society and culture, in some regions dominating it. And they embodied American ideals of individualism, expansionism, and rough-and-tumble democracy.

For many years I have been working toward a public television documentary film telling their story. The idea crystallized in the summer of 1994 when, as a public television producer, I took part with about a dozen American scholars on a “Scots-Irish Historians’ Tour of Northern Ireland,” sponsored by the British Council.

I am a Kirkpatrick on my mother’s side, and my family had researched our genealogy back to the 800’s in southwestern Scotland. As a child I often looked with awe and wonder at decades-old photographs of our family castle keep and cemetery near Dumfries. Later I learned that our own family history closely typified the Scotch-Irish Diaspora from Lowland Scotland through Ulster and down the Philadelphia Wagon Road and Wilderness Road to the hill country of Appalachia.

All my adult life I have been an amateur and semi-professional folk music performer. In the early 1980s I became keenly interested in performing and promoting what is commonly called “Celtic” folk – the traditional music of mainly Ireland, Scotland and Wales. My enthusiasm for this music further heightened interest in my ancestral heritage.

On the British Council’s tour I became enchanted with Northern Ireland in all its majestic beauty and colorful history, and I gained affection for its people. It saddened me that the North, due to its troubled recent history, was not sharing in the prosperity enjoyed at the time by the Republic to the south. I resolved to try to use my skills and talents to help in the small way that I could. My idea was to produce
a public television program or programs that might help encourage American tourism and, perhaps as a result, investment in Northern Ireland. The program should be more than just a travelogue. My sense was that most Americans who claim Scotch-Irish heritage have only a vague idea what it means. I wanted to create media that would inform them about their history and stimulate a desire to visit their ancestral homelands and meet their Northern Irish cousins.

On the tour I cemented a friendship with a man I had met a year earlier in Atlanta. Tony McCauley was a renowned and beloved veteran television and radio producer/personality working for BBC Ulster. He specialized in cultural program production, especially in traditional music. A folk balladeer himself, he hosted a weekly radio program of Irish music and regularly showcased it in television documentaries, features, and performance programs. Tony was a Catholic and a Republican, but he was universally respected and venerated by Catholics and Protestants alike. He believed deeply in the peace and reconciliation movement and the ability of musicians and other artists to help break down barriers in service to that movement.

Tony and I decided to collaborate on a documentary film on the history of the American Scotch-Irish, with strong attention to the history of their forebears the Ulster-Scots to provide context. The program would be intended for airing on public service television in North America, the U.K., and Ireland.

That was summer 1994. In the years that followed, Tony and I worked on the project in fits and starts. With the W.B. Yeats Foundation of Emory University now in the partnership, we obtained research and scripting grants, and we hired and consulted with the leading scholars in Ulster-Scots and Scotch-Irish history and culture. But we both had other full-time professional demands, and progress was slow. Funding for actual production persistently eluded us. And eventually Tony was diagnosed with advanced colon cancer. He struggled with it for several years until his death in 2003. I resolved that since I could not produce the film with Tony, I would do it for him and dedicate it to his memory.

By this time The Georgia Southern University Center for Irish Studies had joined the partnership. But in 2008 came the Great Recession, which spread from the U.S. to Europe and hit Ireland particularly hard. Potential funding sources here and in both the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland suddenly dried up.

Contributing to the difficulties in fundraising was an underlying content problem. I wanted to present a broad, panoramic history spanning two continents and several centuries. But when it comes to historical documentaries, television programmers and grantors prefer limited, specific stories with characters, conflicts, and resolutions that can be extensively fleshed out, as is typified by PBS’s American Experience. If I could not conform to this expectation, I needed another way to enhance the entertainment value of my film. I returned to an idea that Tony and I had briefly considered years earlier but rejected out of concerns that the resulting content would be thinner in substance than we had in mind. I have now developed a treatment and fundraising materials for a version that sacrifices some historical detail in favor of music performance.

Hard Times: A History of the Scotch-Irish Told Through their Music will explore the story of the American Scotch-Irish and their Ulster cousins in broad strokes, using their music to illustrate some of the historical points made in the film. The presenter’s running commentary and sound bytes from interviewees will unfold a narrative interwoven with traditional ballads, tunes, and liturgical music reinforcing it. Scotch-Irish American composer Stephen Foster’s Hard Times Come Again No More will serve as theme music.

John McCutcheon, an internationally acclaimed American folk singer of Scotch-Irish heritage, will serve as presenter, providing a charismatic character to whom the audience can relate. Some musical selections will be archival, but most will be produced for the program, performed by McCutcheon and several outstanding Ulster-Scots and American traditional musicians.
An important focus of the narrative will be to support peace and reconciliation in Northern Ireland. We will emphasize the common bonds of Northern Ireland’s Catholics and Protestants and assert that the historical friction between them, while certainly real, has been exaggerated in more recent times by both sides for partisan purposes. The program will close with an anthem jointly composed and performed by McCutcheon and Irish folk singer Tommy Sands reinforcing that theme. The film will thus honor Tony McAuley’s ideals and be one that he would have been proud to help make.

What follows is an outline of the film’s historical content and explanations of how music performances will be used to illustrate it.

We will start with an overview of this ethnic group who became one of the dominant European groups populating the American colonies. The Scotch-Irish produced presidents, military leaders, ministers, and builders of America north and south, including frontiersmen Kit Carson, David Crockett, and Sam Houston; inventor Cyrus McCormick; and tycoon Thomas Mellon among many others. And their rebellious, rough-and-tumble spirit of democracy --deeply rooted in generational memory from Scotland and Ulster -- has profoundly influenced this country’s history from its founding to the present day.

Then we will explain who the colonists were who would become the American Scotch-Irish. “These people were overwhelmingly Presbyterian, dissenting Protestants opposed to the established Church of Ireland,” linguist Michael Montgomery notes. “The great majority of them were of Scottish ancestry and tradition (whose forebears had migrated from Scotland one to four generations earlier following establishment of the Plantation of Ulster under King James I in 1610) and settled in a crescent along the northeastern coast of Ireland.” Ulster was the northernmost of Ireland’s four provinces. After England finally conquered Ireland after centuries of trying, Ulster was the most rebellious. James sought to pacify it by flooding it with Protestant English and Scottish settlers to overwhelm the Catholic native Gaelic population.

More than a thousand years earlier, Irish followers of St. Patrick had Christianized Scotland. We will show footage of a Medieval Scottish Catholic liturgical chant to reflect the religious life of Scots before John Knox brought the Protestant Reformation to Scotland in the form of the Kirk, which became the Presbyterian Church.

While there was some hostility between the Scottish Lowlanders and the Native Irish of Ulster, that conflict would be exaggerated in later centuries for partisan purposes. The two groups were essentially one people who had maintained close ties across the Irish Sea for centuries. Ulster folk and Lowland Scots shared a culture more in common with each other than with other regions of their own countries. In music, for instance, Irish folk in Ulster learned reels and French jigs from the Scots. Our ensemble led by John McCutcheon will perform a set of centuries-old dance tunes.

We will cover the Williamite War, in which Dutch Protestant William of Orange won the English Crown by defeating Catholic James II in Ireland. “King Billy” is still the hero of Northern Ireland’s British Loyalists who call themselves “Orangemen” in his honor and celebrate his victory in marches throughout Northern Ireland every 12th of July.

“Orange songs” are typically incendiary. In the film we will a short archival excerpt of one. But we will feature full performance of The Old Orange Flute. It is believed to have been written as a parody of Orange songs, but the Orange Order adopted it as their own. At any rate, its humor has kept it popular with both sides.

According to popular history, the Ulster Plantation, the Williamite War and the presence in Ulster of militantly anti-Catholic Presbyterians called “Covenants” thoroughly poisoned relations between the Scots and native Irish. But some historians question that conventional wisdom. “We need to remember
how much of our history has been molded by propaganda needs during later struggles between Unionists and Nationalists,” observes scholar Patrick Fitzgerald. “That propaganda has overblown religious zeal as a cause of the Scots’ migration to Ulster and – for that matter – to America.”

Religious discrimination and poor economic conditions in Ireland led Ulster folk to seek their fortunes in America in the 1700s. Hundreds of thousands of Ulster folk (mostly of Scots heritage) crossed the Atlantic Ocean in five major waves between 1717 and 1776, arriving at American ports from Philadelphia to Charleston. The journey was often harrowing, and life in the colonies did not always live up to expectations. Ulster musicologist John Moulden will sing an Ulster immigration ballad such as Edward Conners, vividly underscoring the perils and hardships undergone by Ulster immigrants to North America.

Ulster immigrants first settled heavily in Pennsylvania, attracted by the colony’s plentiful land and religious toleration. From there they flooded Virginia’s Shenandoah Valley and pushed ever southward into the Carolinas and Georgia and westward into what became Kentucky and Tennessee. They would eventually dominate much of the South, Midwest, and Great Plains. They weren’t called “Scotch-Irish” then except occasionally as an ethnic slur. They called themselves “Irish.” We will include footage of a Presbyterian congregation singing a hymn dating back to early Ulster immigrants meeting houses in America’s colonial backcountry.

In the Revolutionary War Ulster immigrants and their progeny were largely (though not entirely) “Patriots” supporting the cause of American Independence. Ulster philosopher Francis Hutcheson influenced the Declaration of Independence. His countrymen fought in great numbers under General Washington. Throughout the colonies Presbyterian clergy channeled war strategy to congregants in their meeting houses. Scotch-Irish fighters defeated the British in the crucial battles of Kings Mountain and Cowpens in the Carolina campaign.

Our ensemble will perform An Irishman’s Epistle, a Revolutionary War song sung by Irish patriots in the Revolutionary War. One verse reads:

“How brave ye went out with your muskets all bright, And thought to be-frighten the folks with the sight;
But when you got there how they powder’d your pums, And all the way home how they pepper’d your bum,
And is it not, honeys, a comical crack, To be proud in the face, and be shot in the back.”

In Ireland the American and French revolutions inspired the United Irish Rising of 1798, in which Protestants and Catholics joined in a valiant but failed attempt to throw off the yoke of English rule. It is often said that the victors of war write the histories, and the losers write the songs. Many memorable songs were inspired by the United Irish Rising. Our ensemble will perform one such ballad -- perhaps the most famous, Rising of the Moon, written by rebel John Kegan Casey from his prison cell years later.

Refugees from the United Irish Rebellion of 1798 were among at least 100,000 Ulster immigrants to the United States between the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812. These Ulster Presbyterians created Irish-American identity decades before the arrival of the Famine Irish. And they married Irish-Americanism to the democratic principles of President Thomas Jefferson and, decades later, to the first Scotch-Irish U.S. President, Andrew Jackson.

We will recount how Ulster immigrants and their descendants in the early 1800s spread throughout U.S. states and territories, helping build the new country and expand its boundaries. From the hollows of Appalachia to the cities of the Eastern seaboard to the Great Plains and the West Coast, the Scotch-Irish in the 19th century became fully assimilated, ordinary Americans. But as they melded into general American society, they also played a vital role in molding it.
In the Civil War the Scotch-Irish fought for the North and the South, largely depending on where they lived. Our group will perform an Irish song transformed into a Civil War marching song.

We will describe the post-Civil War economic deprivation in the South and especially in the heavily Scotch-Irish Appalachian regions that were punished by their various state legislatures for having largely remained loyal to the Union during the war. Our ensemble will perform Scotch-Irish composer Stephen Foster’s poignant ballad from that period, *Hard Times Come Again No More*.

In the late 19th century many Americans of Ulster descent rediscovered their ethnic identity. Scotch-Irish societies were organized in cities across the country. They self-identified as “Scotch-Irish” for the first time. Some historians say this movement was in part a nativist reaction to the arrival of a million mostly Catholic and poor Famine Irish in the U.S. The Scotch-Irish Movement emphasized patriotism, American pedigree, and middle-class respectability -- playing down the alternate image of the Scotch-Irish living in poverty, ignorance, and isolation in Appalachia. In recent years, as Americans in general have taken keen interest in their ancestral heritage, a more scholarly and objective Scotch-Irish movement has flourished. Scholars delve deeply into the various colorful Ulster roots of American culture, including politics, religion, language, education, and folkways such as domestic architecture, diet, homebrewed whisky, and -- of course -- music. Our ensemble will perform Appalachian “old time” music, and scholars will relate it to traditional music in Ulster during the periods of heavy immigration.

Today Americans of Scotch-Irish ancestry visit Northern Ireland and find people much like themselves in a magnificent land at long last made more attractive for tourism by growing reconciliation between Irish Gaelic Catholics and English and Ulster-Scots Protestants. We will briefly cover the early 20th century rebellion that led to Ireland’s independence except for six Ulster counties that remained in the United Kingdom, the resulting sectarian strife in the North throughout the rest of the century, and the emerging peace and reconciliation movement there.

We will contend that Scotch-Irish-descended Americans and cousins in Northern Ireland who call themselves “Ulster-Scots” share an egalitarian mind-set deeply imbedded in their psyche – and in their music. Echoes of the fiddle tunes, hymns, and ballads about downtrodden common folk and heroic outcasts – music that rang out from Ulster cottages and Appalachian cabin front porches through the centuries -- can be heard in modern American country music – which is hugely popular in Northern Ireland. Footage of a popular modern-day Northern Ireland recording artist performing a Hank Williams medley will show how the link between Ulster traditional music and Ulster-rooted American country music has come full circle.

We will also posit that, however egalitarian and democratic their values, American descendants of Scottish settlers in Ulster have not always been willing to extend to others the rights they have demanded for themselves. In the north of Ireland, Ulster-Scots must balance pride in their rich cultural heritage with the need to rise above a bloody history of sectarian prejudice and reconcile with Gaelic Catholics who will eventually be in the majority there.

As McCutcheon will observe in closing commentary, charting a course toward future peace, prosperity and harmony demands that we transcend stereotypes about ourselves and people we’re at odds with – a process that can be both humbling and liberating. The Scotch-Irish story reminds us that – whatever our racial or ethnic heritage – we all can point to the deeds of our ancestors with both pride and shame. We all share that reality with the neighbor we might face across a picket fence, a lunch counter, a street between two churches, or the barrel of a gun.

McCutcheon and Irish balladeer Tommy Sands will close the film with an original anthem will make lyrical and melodic allusions to Foster’s *Hard Times* while expressing hopes for a future of peace and reconciliation in Northern Ireland and healing from economic hardship and divisive polarization in America.
Hard Times: A History of the Scotch-Irish Told Through their Music will be produced in state-of-the-art high-definition video and digital sound. It will feature lush cinematic images, stirring virtuoso musical performances, and narrative content vetted by some of the leading scholarly consultants in this field. We believe this program will appeal to general public television viewers, lovers of traditional music, and many millions of Americans and Europeans who claim this proud ancestral heritage.

In lieu of a formal bibliography, I gratefully acknowledge these outstanding scholars who have served as consultants during research for this project. Some will continue to consult during script completion and production.

References

Dr. Katharine Brown, Professor of History at Mary Baldwin College. Brown is the former Director of Research and Collections for the Museum of American Frontier Culture in Staunton, Virginia, and author of a doctoral dissertation and two books on the Scotch-Irish.

Dr. Tyler Blethen, Professor of History at Western Carolina University and former director of its Mountain Heritage Center.

Dr. Patrick Fitzgerald, Lecturer and Development Officer of the Centre for Migration Studies at Ulster-American Folk Park, Omagh, Northern Ireland.

Dr. Raymond Gillespie, Senior Lecturer at St. Patrick's College, National Institute of Ireland in Maynooth. Leading authority on early modern Irish history.

Dr. Peter Gilmore, Adjunct Professor, Carlow University. Ph.D. in social and cultural history from Carnegie-Mellon University. Authority on Scotch-Irish political, religious, and cultural identity, especially in Pennsylvania.

Dr. Patrick Griffin, Assistant Professor of History at Ohio University. Author of The People with No Name: Ireland's Ulster Scots, America's Scots Irish, and the Creation of a British Atlantic World, 1689-1764.

Dr. Warren R. Hofstra, Stewart Bell Professor of History at Shenandoah University in Winchester, Virginia. Specialist in history of the Shenandoah Valley.


Dr. Kerby Miller, Professor of History at the University of Missouri-Columbia. Co-author of book and PBS documentary film Out of Ireland. Lead writer and editor of Irish Immigrants in the Land of Canaan, Oxford University Press.

Alister McReynolds, noted Northern Ireland historian, educator, authority on Scots-Irish / Ulster Scots history and culture. Works include Northern Ireland - The American Connection.

Dr. Michael Montgomery, retired Professor of English and Linguistics at the University of South Carolina. Leading authority on the relation of English in Ulster and the American South.

Dr. John Moulden, scholar, singer, lecturer. One of Ireland’s leading authorities on traditional song. Publications include Thousands are sailing: a brief song history of Irish emigration.
To Share or Not to Share: GTA Self-Disclosure in the College Classroom
Nathan G. Webb, Emmanuel College

Rationale

Graduate teaching assistants (GTAs) live anything but glamorous lives. They often work long, grueling hours for a small stipend and tuition forgiveness. The arduous process of conducting course work, studying for comprehensive exams, and writing a dissertation often leave GTAs exhausted and at their wits end. GTAs also often have a tumultuous relationship with their advisors, in which advisor expectations may seem overwhelming at times.

GTAs also struggle with their occupational identity. Kasworm and Bowles (2010) stated that, “Most doctoral students face disjunctures between their sense of self as an adult, their placement as a novice in an expert scholar community, and their development of this new identity as a scholar and knowledge creator” (p. 225). Many GTAS cannot handle the stressors of balancing multiple roles and call it quits. In fact, the attrition rates for Ph.D. programs are only between 40 and 50 percent (Smallwood, 2004).

In addition to their other responsibilities, GTAS have duties as teaching assistants. While GTA teaching responsibilities often include leading discussion groups or grading assignments for professors, other GTAs lead entire courses. GTAs in the field of Communication Studies, in particular, often teach and lead their own sections of public speaking classes and other courses within the discipline. As GTAs are tasked with teaching undergraduate students, they must learn how to effectively manage their classrooms.

Managing a classroom effectively can be a difficult task for anyone, but it can be particularly difficult for GTAs. First, GTAs are usually significantly younger than professors, thus giving them less of an opportunity hone their classroom management and teaching skills. Waldeck, Orrego, Plax, and Kearney (1997) found that doctoral students were, on average, 30 years old, while professors were, on average, in their mid-40s. Not only are GTAs less experienced, but they are often perceived as being less credible than their older colleagues (Semlak & Pearson, 2008). Second, GTAs often receive little-to-no training on teaching before taking over their own classroom. It is not uncommon for GTAs to begin their teaching career with the experience of only one seminar on pedagogy, if any at all.

Because of their identity crises, young age, and lack of pedagogical experience, GTAs must learn to balance a tension of being a friend and an authority figure with students. Hennings (2009) found that GTAs struggle with balancing a dialectic of distance and closeness with undergraduate students, that “emerges from GTAs’ conflicting desire to be both authority figures and confidantes in the classroom” (p. 42). Hennings’ (2009) study showed that GTAs need to feel like they have earned the respect of students, while connecting with students on a personal level.

One of the ways that GTAs can effectively balance a tension between friendship and authority and manage a college classroom is utilizing self-disclosure. Self-disclosure has been linked in prior studies to positive classroom outcomes (e.g., Cayanus & Martin, 2008; Sorensen, 1989). The current study sought to build upon past research to understand why GTAs use self-disclosure in the classroom.

Literature Review

Self-disclosure has been defined as, “the act of revealing personal information to others” (Jourard, 1971, p. 2). When considering issues of self-disclosure, one can draw upon two communication
theories that speak in detail to self-disclosure in personal relationships. These two theories are relational dialectics theory (Baxter, 1988) and communication privacy management theory (Petronio, 1991).

Relational dialectics theory posits that people live their lives balancing an assortment of dialectics. One of those dialectics is the openness-closedness dialectic, which illustrates that people often struggle with sharing certain information and keeping other private information private. This dialectic speaks to how and why people have a hard time deciding what to disclose to others (self-disclosure). This dialectic is the cornerstone of the current study.

Communication Privacy Management theory was created, in part, to explain how people negotiate the openness-closedness dialectic. Based on the reality that individuals are constantly dealing with a tension between being open and being closed, Petronio (1991) asserts that people come up with ways to manage this contradiction. Petronio, Sargent, Andea, Reganis, and Cichocki (2004) describe the central concept of CPM, stating “The theory [CPM] proposes that people manage the flow of private information in relationships by constructing both personal and collective boundaries around private information that are owned by individuals and with others” (pp. 37-38).

Research has shown that instructor behaviors can lead to improved classroom outcomes. For example, the affective learning model (Rodriguez, Plax, & Kearney, 1996) posits that positive instructor behaviors are essential to building relationships between students and instructors, and positive instructor-student relationships can, in turn, help generate favorable affect toward both the instructor and the class and improve cognitive learning. There are a number of behaviors that instructors can utilize to build and maintain relationships with students,

The current study examined how GTAs manage their self-disclosure with undergraduate students. Specifically, the study examined GTA motivations for self-disclosing to their students.

Method

To examine the topic of GTA self-disclosure in the college classroom, Twenty-three, in-depth interviews were conducted with GTAs at a large Midwestern University. In the interviews, participants were asked to talk about their experiences and perceptions of self-disclosure in higher education classrooms.

Participants were recruited from the Communication Studies Department at a large research university in the Midwest. The university in which research was conducted is the largest university in the state, with over 30,000 students and approximately 2,500 faculty. The Communication Studies Department is comprised of approximately 40 GTAs, 24 non-GTA graduate students, and 16 full-time faculty. Participants in the study were all Ph.D. students and were, on average, 30 years old and were evenly divided between male and female (M age = 30.03, SD = 7.13, 11 males, 12 females). Participants also averaged just less than five years of teaching experience at the college level (M = 4.82, SD = 2.04).

Results

Data were inductively coded to uncover a number of overarching themes regarding GTA self-disclosure. The results indicated that GTAs are motivated to self-disclose for six reasons: for interpersonal reasons, to increase credibility, for reciprocity, to explain course content, to keep students’ attention, and to improve student evaluations. Explanations and examples of these themes include:

• Interpersonal Motivators. GTAs self-disclose to build relationships with students. For example, Kristin stated, “I think any relationship requires self-disclosure to move forward. So yeah, I mean, you build up on that by disclosing to your students; I think it can humanize you.”
• **Building credibility.** Participants self-disclose information about their past experiences to build credibility with students. Kristin stated, “I think I do it, because I think it builds my credibility, and I want to make sure that they respect me as the authority figure, and I think it’s hard to respect someone if you don’t think they know what they are talking about.”

• **An environment of reciprocity.** GTAs often share private information about themselves to create an environment where their students feel comfortable talking about themselves. For example, Emmi shared, “there is an element of reciprocity involved. I ask them to tell me things about themselves, for a number of reasons. I don’t think it would be fair and I don’t think they are comfortable doing so if I don’t offer them something.”

• **Explaining course material.** GTAs also self-disclose to illustrate or clarify course material. Corbin explain this phenomenon, saying, “my reasoning behind disclosing is usually to make, to make some kind of point, right. So, it’s usually to make some sort of abstract concept that I’m teaching seem much more clear to them.”

• **Keeping students’ attention.** GTAs talked a great deal about the need to keep students’ attention in the classroom and how self-disclosure can be used to meet this need. Valerie explained how she uses self-disclosure to keep her students engaged: “I know my biggest reason for disclosing is to make them laugh. I mean, one of the hardest things about teaching is that they are just so disengaged at times and so uninterested that, you know, you just can’t sit there and talk about the material all day.”

• **Student evaluations.** GTAs are aware of the need to have positive student evaluations, so they often self-disclose to receive favorable evaluations from students. Creighton shared this opinion, stating, “Evaluations, I’d say. Yeah, I mean there is a strong motivation there to pump those up, you know, if you can, again, create that connection with them.”

Related to GTA motivations for self-disclosure, results also suggested that GTAs perceive that self-disclosure affects student learning in a positive manner by making GTAs more approachable, increasing student motivation, explaining course content, and assisting students’ retention of course material. In short, GTAs view their reasons for self-disclosure as being effective in improving certain learning outcomes.

**Discussion**

Although the study provided multiple important findings, one finding is particularly important in regard to GTA motivation for self-disclosure. In short, the study revealed that GTAs need to be liked by their students, yet they want to simultaneously be viewed as credible. This is a dangerous line to walk, because GTAs often feel disenfranchised, and consequently GTA-student relationships could easily become improper and/or hinder GTAs’ ability to manage their classrooms.

The fact that GTAs are motivated to build interpersonal relationships with students is no surprise, as relationships between instructors and students have long been characterized as interpersonal. The current study on GTAs is unique, however, because it proposes that GTAs often feel a need to be liked by their students; GTAs need to feel important and humanized.

The finding that GTA’s self-disclose to establish credibility with their students is also not surprising at first glance. This finding aligns with prior research that younger college instructors are viewed as less credible than older colleagues (Semlak & Pearson, 2008). So, whether GTAs inherently feel that they are not credible or if they pick up on student perceptions, they feel a need to increase their credibility. Being younger than professors does not necessarily have to hinder credibility, however, but can instead increase credibility. The study revealed that GTAs may be able to use their age to an advantage in the classroom to establish credibility and build relationships with students by self-disclosing about popular culture references that undergraduate students can easily understand and relate to.
In sum, GTAs self-disclose for a variety of reasons. On one hand, they are disenfranchised employees who are simply looking for a friend, while at the same time, they are striving to become experts in their field. GTAs no doubt place a lot of importance on their self-disclosure as a pedagogical tool, so it is important that administrators increase training and dialogue on the subject. As GTAs frequently utilize this behavior, it is important that they understand how to strike a balance between being a friend and an authority figure.

References


Benjamin Bloom distinguishes between two types of characteristics believed to be instrumental in determining student learning: 1.) cognitive entry behaviors – the prerequisite learning held to be necessary to complete a new learning task and 2.) affective entry characteristics – the student’s motivation to learn the new learning task (Bloom, 1976, p. 11). In other words, as Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum (1981) summarize Bloom’s work: “Learning is operationally defined as a response in the affective domain and/or the cognitive domain” (p. 377). While many studies have been conducted to measure how teacher self-disclosure impacts student affective learning – student engagement or motivation – only a handful of studies have tried to connect the general communicative behaviors of a teacher to student cognitive learning. Further, only one study, conducted nearly 30 years ago, specifically connected teacher self-disclosure with student cognitive learning. The study reported in this article seeks to answer one simple question: does the amount of teacher self-disclosure affect student cognitive learning?

Student Cognitive Learning and Teacher Communicative Behavior

Two studies that have tied student cognitive learning to teacher communicative behavior are Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum (1981) and Chesboro & McCroskey (2001). These studies looked at student cognitive learning in relation to teacher communication behaviors such as immediacy and communicator style but did not specifically address self-disclosure. After performing three different investigations, Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum (1981) found that:

All correlations between communication behaviors and cognitive learning in all studies have been low, and many are not statistically significant. Any attempts to create meaningful relationships between perceived teacher communication behavior and cognitive learning from these correlations would lead to confusion and possible misrepresentation. At this point all we can say is that communication variables have not been shown to relate to cognitive learning in any meaningful or statistically significant way. (p. 391)

While Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum’s (1981) study did not prove any strong connection between teacher communication behaviors and cognitive learning.

Further, Chesboro & McCroskey (2001), like Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum (1981), looked at both affective and cognitive learning in connection with teacher communication behaviors but did not focus on self-disclosure but rather other communication behavior such as nonverbal immediacy and teacher clarity. They determined that:

Students of clear teachers are more likely to be motivated, have positive affect for their instructor and the course, and are likely to perceive that they have learned more cognitively. These results confirm hypothesis four and are consistent with existing research on teacher clarity. Although a comparison of the correlations related to teacher immediacy behaviors and teacher clarity appear to indicate that teacher clarity has a higher correlation with instructional outcomes than does immediacy, the correlations are essentially identical when the correlations are corrected for attenuation. Our best estimate, therefore, is that immediacy and clarity are of equal importance and probably usually highly interrelated in the instructional environment (they were correlated at r = .66 in the present study). (p. 65)

Definition and Elements of Teacher Self Disclosure

While it is important to note that scholars have connected teacher communication behaviors and student cognitive learning, one must realize that their studies did not specifically examine teacher self-disclosure.
disclosure. When one looks at research that does examine teacher-disclosure specifically, one sees that those studies focused on student affective learning and student liking of the teacher and class rather than student cognitive learning, which is the focus of the study reported in this article. Before looking at the specific studies and their details, a quick summary of the definition of self-disclosure in general and the specific elements of teacher self-disclosure are necessary.

Scholars have generally defined self-disclosure as one person sharing information about oneself with another person (Cozby, 1973; Wheless & Grotz, 1976), but Cayanus & Martin (2008) define and then developed a scale for measuring three specific aspects of teacher self-disclosure: amount, valence, and relevance. According to Cayanus (2004), “amount refers to how often a teacher self-discloses, valence encompasses both positive and negative self-disclosures, and relevance involves whether the disclosure is relevant to course content.” (p. 6). Cayanus & Martin justify the need for clarifying what is meant by teacher self-disclosure by citing Lannutti & Straumann’s (2006), which concludes “few studies examining the influence of instructor self-disclosure consider the multi-dimensional nature of self-disclosure” (p. 90). Cayanus & Martin (2008) contend that their inclusion of the factors of valence and relevance their scale captures the multidimensionality to the concept of teacher self-disclosure and also points to the differences between the type of self-disclosure appropriate for teachers to do in a classroom and what may be expected in an interpersonal relationship.

Cayanus and Martin (2008) describe this difference further when they write: “it is important to note that teacher self-disclosure is not the same as interpersonal self-disclosure in general. Teacher self-disclosure can promote immediacy and to some degree intimacy in the classroom, but “it should not muddy the professional boundary between instructor and student (Lannutti & Straumann, 2006, p. 96)” (327). Cayanus and Martin (2008) seem to suggest that, in addition to the need to develop a multi-dimensional model of teacher self-disclosure, they also developed their scale to try to clarify this distinction between the two types of self-disclosure. Cayanus and Martion (2008) explain that, according Collins & Miller (1994), most of research involving self-disclosure focuses on the relationship self-disclosure and liking; they explain that, despite several studies to find such a connection, “the relationship between liking and teacher self-disclosure has not been evident in the classroom (Cayanus & Martin, 2004b; Lannutti & Strauman, 2006; McCarthy & Schmeck, 1982; Sorensen, 1989)” (326); they cite Lannutti and Strauman (2006) explanation for these findings that “desirable classroom self-disclosure differs from self-disclosure that may be desirable in personal relationships because it should be more illustrative than revealing (p. 96)” (326). Thus, with their scale in place to measure both multiple dimensions of self-disclosure and distinguish between teacher self-disclosure in the classroom and other types of self-disclosure, they conducted several studies exploring the connection between teacher self-disclosure and student affective learning.

Teacher Self-Disclosure and Student Engagement and Affective Learning

According to Anderson (1979), “Affective learning involves forming an appreciation or interest toward a teacher and subject matter (Cayanus and Martin 2008, p. 328). Cayanus, Martin & Goodboy (2009) state that Cayanus & Martin (2008) have already proven that “all three dimensions of teacher self-disclosure (amount, relevance, and negativity) positively related to affective learning” and now want examine its impact on student communication and “particularly student motives to communicate in the classroom” (p.106). Cayanus, Martin & Goodboy (2009) argue for the connection between student engagement and motivation when they write: “When students are more engaged, they are more motivated and more likely to communicate with their teachers (Weber, Martin, & Cayanus, 2005). Student engagement increases based on the quantity of interactions with teachers (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005), as well as the quality of those interactions (Skinner & Belmont, 1993)” (p.106). Further, Caynus, Martin & Goodboy (2009) report: “There is evidence that teachers’ communication impacts student engagement (Martin, Myers, & Mottet, 2002; Skinner & Belmont, 1993), making it important to examine techniques and styles of teachers as a way of improving student engagement. One such technique is the use of self-disclosure” (p. 110). After conducting their study to determine
impact of teacher self-disclosure on student motivation to communication in the classroom, Caynus, Martin & Goodboy (2009) report their conclusions:

Although more research is needed, there is support for the idea that teacher self-disclosure may help (or hinder) students’ communication in the classroom. A canonical correlation analysis involving teacher self-disclosure and student motives to communicate produced two significant, meaningful roots. The first root focused on the self-disclosure aspect of negativity. Although teachers may be expected to avoid self-disclosing information that is overwhelmingly negative (e.g., a drug addiction, failing out of school, cheating on a significant other), there might be negative consequences to only or mainly revealing information that is complimentary. Students might feel inferior to their teachers. Students might also perceive that their teachers are narcissistic. (p. 110)

To tie this information to the idea of engagement, a student would not feel motivated to communicate and thus would not be engaged in the classroom if that student felt inferior to the teacher because of information disclosed by the teacher. This connection – and further pursuit of it by researchers – is important because, according to Carini, Kuh, & Klein (2006) “student engagement is one of the best predictors of learning; the more time students spend involved with a topic (e.g. reading, working on projects, participating in in-class and out-of-class discussions), the more they learn” (Caynus, Martin & Goodboy, 2009, p. 105).

While still looking at the connection between teacher self-disclosure and student learning, the study reported in this article examines cognitive learning rather than affective learning – whether self-disclosure helps student retain certain information about a topic rather than engage or motivate them to learn more information about or become interested in a topic. Although both of the studies mentioned earlier as examining general communication behaviors – Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum (1981) and Chesboro & McCroskey (2001) – also examined student cognitive learning, they did not specifically connect it to teacher self-disclosure. Thus far, only a McCarthy & Schmeck (1982) examined the connection between teacher self-disclosure and student cognitive learning as measured by recall of material given in lecture. McCarthy and Schmeck (1982) hypothesized that “teacher self-disclosure would elicit significantly better performance on a free recall measure of lecture material (p. 46); they report the findings of their study as follows: “Generally the results of this study suggest that teacher self-disclosure can affect student recall of lecture material, but the specific nature of the effect is surprising. Although self-disclosure raised the recall of males, it lowered the recall of females.” (p. 48).

**Study Rationale**

This study, then, seeks in some way to replicate McCarthy and Schmeck’s findings. It seeks to establish a connection between teacher self-disclosure and student cognitive learning as measured by recall of material given in lecture.

RQ: Does the inclusion of teacher self-disclosure in lecture examples impact student retention of lecture information?

H1: The inclusion of teacher self-disclosure in lecture positively impacts student scores on a test administered to determine their retention of the information covered in the lecture.

H2: The inclusion of teacher self-disclosure in lecture positively impacts student retention of examples given to illustrate concepts in lecture as determined by test scores.

H3: The inclusion of teacher self-disclosure in lecture positively impacts student retention of examples given to illustrate concepts in lecture as determined by test scores.

**Procedure**

There were 181 participants (66 male and 109 female) in this study. Participants were college students enrolled in communication classes at two different southeastern regional universities. Of those
participants, 85 watched the video with self-disclosure and 96 watched the video without disclosure. When asked if they had previous knowledge of the material covered in the lecture, 72 participants reported that they did and 109 participants reported that they did not.

With few exceptions, during each session of the administration of the study, participants were divided equally into two groups each to receive a different treatment. The only exception came when a whole class participated in the study, in which case the whole class received the same treatment; this was compensated for by administering the study in an even number of classes. Participants were told they were going to watch a recorded lecture on it and then would be asked to fill out a survey with questions about the material in the lecture. The researchers noted that some participants may have previous knowledge of the material covered in the lecture so they were asked to accurately disclose that information on the survey.

The recorded lecture was given by a twenty-four-year-old male graduate student in the communication department at one of the universities. The lecture was approximately 10 minutes in length and covered the history and categories of the Myers-Brigg Type Indicator test. There were two versions of the lecture recorded. The first treatment group viewed a version of the lecture in which the lecturer used self-disclosure only to give relevant examples from his personal life to illustrate each of the categories of the MBTI. The second treatment group watched a version in which he used hypothetical examples and made no mention of any personal knowledge of the material. After watching the assigned video, each participant was given a corresponding survey which asked basic demographic questions and also functioned as a quiz to test how much of the historical information and definitions and examples of the MBTI the lecturer had given was retained by the participants.

**Instrument**

The survey given collected data about participants’ gender and previous knowledge of the material covered in the lecture. It also asked one question about the definition of each of the eight MBTI categories and one question about the example given by the lecturer to illustrate each of those categories. This methodology differs only slightly from the McCarthy & Schmeck (1982) study; they describe their procedure as follows:

> Two 15 minute recordings were made of a simulated lecture on learned helplessness read from prepared scripts by a male college professor. On one tape the professor made three self-disclosing statements to illustrate concepts in the lecture....On the other tape, the professor gave the same three examples but phrased them totally in hypothetical, non-personal terms. (p. 46-47)

While McCarthy & Schmeck (1982) used a free recall test to determine the amount of recall achieved by the lecturer’s strategy, this study utilized a quiz to determine cognitive learning; this has precedence in this realm of research in studies done by Anderson, Norton & Nubssbaum (1981) to find similar connections between teacher communication and student learning.

**Results**

H1 stated that the total scores on the quiz administered after the viewing of the video lecture would be higher for those students who had watched the video with self-disclosure; H2 and H3 said that this finding would also be the case when comparing the participants understanding of the definitions and examples of the concepts in the lecture. All three of these hypotheses were supported. Descriptive analysis of the data shows that participants who watched the video with self-disclosure scored higher ($M = 10.20$, $SD = 3.28$) than those who watched the video without self-disclosure ($M = 7.73$, $SD = 3.19$). This trend was repeated when looking at the specific scores in the definition (with disclosure $M = 6.12$, $SD = 1.94$; without disclosure $M = 4.54$ and $SD = 1.81$) and example sections (with disclosure $M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.73$; without disclosure $M = 3.18$ and $SD = 1.81$) of the quiz.
Table 2: Descriptive Analysis of Total and Partial Quiz Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>Definition Score</th>
<th>Example Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>St.D</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Disclosure</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>6.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without Disclosure</td>
<td>7.73</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>4.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Analyzing the results of this study, one can draw several conclusions. The first conclusion is that all three of the hypotheses were supported; it can be stated that students who watched the video in which the instructor used self-disclosure scored higher on all parts of the test given after the viewing of the video than those who watched the video without self-disclosure. Students who heard self-disclosure from the instructor not only scored on the overall total of the test the those who heard no self-disclosure (H1) but also scored higher on specific sections of the test asking participants to define the categories of MBTI (H2) and those asking participants to identify examples of each of the categories (H3). Thus, one can conclude instructor self-disclosure does have an impact on student cognitive learning. This replicates at least to some extent McCarthy & Schmeck (1982) which found that recall scores improved overall among participants who heard instructor self-disclosure and observed that males who received the self-disclosure treatment scored higher on the recall instrument than females (p. 48). This study did not look at the gender factor but replicated the finding that teacher self-disclosure increases student cognitive learning.

If one assumes that hearing teacher self-disclosure increases student cognitive learning, one then can ask why and how that happens. McCarthy & Schmeck (1982) suggest that the males in their study who demonstrated more recall after hearing a male teacher self-disclosure were better able to relate to the teacher and thus better able to retain information (p. 48). This seems to suggest that the link between teacher cognitive learning and teacher self-disclosure is indirect, a result of the affective learning or engagement by the student. Is there any direct theoretical link between instructor self-disclosure and student cognitive learning? One could argue that, since this study did not use any negative self-disclosure that the only two elements of instructor self-disclosure remaining to explain the difference in cognitive learning demonstrated by the two treatment groups is amount and relevance.

When trying determine which of those variables was most directly responsible for the difference in cognitive learning, one can note that previous research has already studied the impact of these variables on affective learning. Explaining the connection between amount and affective learning, Caynus & Martin (2008) write:

Cozby (1972) and Gilbert (1976) asserted that that there may be a breaking point in terms of amount of self-disclosure; students may believe that too much self-disclosure may believe that too much disclosure is not a good classroom practice. Although the results here support the work of Sorensen (1989) and others who reported that the amount of self-disclosure relates to affective learning, the magnitude of the impact involving amount of self-disclosure in the present study was relatively low. It would be difficult to establish at this time that amount of self-disclosure has positive affect, especially without considering relevance and negativity of the self-disclosure. We discovered that amount and negativity (not using negative disclosures) contributed to the explained variance in students’ affective learning, but relevance did not. (p. 336-337)
Although they could not make a statistical case for the impact of relevance in their findings, Cayanus & Martin (2008) do see a relationship between relevance and affective learning; they write: “When teachers made disclosures that were low in negativity but were relevant, students reported that the course was meaningful, and also that they had a great capability to succeed” (p. 337). One could argue that these element of meaningfulness and success correlate with cognitive learning. Is it possible that the one element of instructor self-disclosure that does not impact student affective learning is the element tied to cognitive learning? The results of this study can point tentatively in that direction. Given that no negativity was used and the only self-disclosure given by the instructor were examples specifically relevant to the lecture content, one could suggest that had there been the same amount of self-disclosure but that those disclosures were not relevant to the content being discussed that the increase in cognitive learning between the two treatments groups would not have been so significant.

Limitations and Further Research

There are several limitations one could consider about this study. First and foremost is that it does not address the issue of relevance specifically in the sense that the variable of relevance was not manipulated. Further, the variable of amount was also only manipulated to the extent that there was either some self-disclosure or there was no self-disclosure given by the instructor. To provide more support for the idea that it is the relevance of instructor self-disclosure that influences student cognitive learning, further research would have to be conducted to establish the exact impact of the relevance of the disclosure.

References


Using YouTube in Speech Class: Group Apology Analysis
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Public speaking textbooks, such as The Art of Public Speaking (10th) by Stephen Lucas (2009), often contain a chapter introducing small group communication. A small group project ending with a symposium in the public speaking class provides many educational opportunities. First, students learn how to contribute to effective small group functioning. Second, students learn how to work with others to give a group presentation. Third, students examine a special occasion speech in detail to learn how real world speeches differ from the formulaic speeches often provided as examples in the textbooks. Fourth, students learn how rhetorical theories inform a speech analysis. Fifth, students learn how to develop evidence to persuade an audience about a question of value. The group apology analysis project accomplishes these five learning objectives.

Introducing Apology Analysis

The group apology analysis project fits in well in the public speaking course curriculum after the class has given individual persuasive speeches. Provide an overview of small group communication before introducing speeches of apology. Then begin with an example of a denial followed by a public apology. The most fruitful example may be two relatively short speeches by Marion Jones, who at first denies lying to USADA about her use of performance enhancing drugs and subsequently confesses to lying to federal investigators and apologizes. A more recent example involves Representative Anthony Weiner who gives a denial speech, obfuscates in a 60 Minutes interview, and finally apologizes and resigns from office. After showing each speech, ask the class to comment on its effectiveness. See if students can justify their evaluations using what the speaker said, how they said it, or what they know about the circumstances surrounding the alleged infractions. After seeing the film clips of Marion Jones denying the charges and apologizing, students may have mixed opinions about the effectiveness of the apology. A good question to ask the class is: What makes an apology effective? Get students thinking about times in their lives when people apologized to them or when they owed others an apology to see if they can develop evaluation criteria. Giving students examples of ineffective aspects of an apology may help them to develop criteria. For example, suppose that a wife is angry at her husband for an offense and the husband says, “Honey, I know you’re angry, and I’m sorry for whatever I did.” The class will recognize that the apology is less likely to be effective when there is no agreement about the nature of the offense. The introduction to apology analysis should generate interest in the upcoming project and give students an appreciation for what they hope to accomplish.

Theoretical Tools

In order to evaluate a public apology, students have to understand the circumstances surrounding the offense and the motivation of the perpetrator. Explaining how once well-respected public figures whose misdeeds are exposed and thereafter apologize are like tragic figures in a Shakespearean play provides a useful analogy for introducing Kenneth Burke (1945) and the dramatistic pentad. Applying the pentad to the case of Marion Jones or Anthony Weiner is one way to explain the five elements of the pentad: act, scene, agent, agency, purpose. Another approach is to show a movie clip where someone is harmed, for example, the scene in the Wizard of Oz where Dorothy accidentally kills the Wicked Witch of the West. Comparing the pentad to a reporter’s five W and one H questions: who, what, when, where, why and how helps many students to understand the basics of the pentad. Highlight the importance of the agent (the public’s perception of who the person is) and the purpose (the person’s motivation for committing the act which is derived from the other elements of the pentad). Once students understand how conducting research using the pentad’s framework will inform their understanding of a public apology, they can be introduced to image management strategies.
William Benoit (1995) provides a good classification scheme of image management strategies to analyze the text of the apology itself. A good way to explain how to identify different image management strategies is to ask the class to imagine a situation where someone is accused of a misdeed and provide an example of each of the various image management strategies (see Appendix). A situation involving infidelity is flexible enough to allow one to provide an example of all of the basic image management strategies.

Once students understand how to apply Burke and Benoit, turn to a consideration of the apology itself. Refer to the criteria for evaluating an apology (see Appendix). Remind students that nonverbal communication and credibility play an important role. The circumstances of the public apology should be mentioned. For example, what is the “scene” of the apology? Is the apology given on the courthouse steps as was the case for Marion Jones or was the apology delivered on a talk show (which is becoming increasingly popular)? How long after the act did the apology occur? Does the wife stand beside the husband guilty of marital indiscretions? Does the speech seem spontaneous or does it seem written by a lawyer? These factors will play a role in the effectiveness of the apology. What happens after the apology is given should also be considered. How did the audience react? Did the perpetrator make good on promises to compensate the victim(s) or reform his or her behavior? Evaluating an apology is a complex task, which makes it well suited for a group project.

The Assignment

Explain that students are to work in groups to arrive at a consensus in their evaluation of a public apology found on YouTube and then give a group presentation using PowerPoint. They must use Burke’s pentad and Benoit’s classification of image management strategies in their analysis. Other ground rules should include:

- The group presentation should be persuasive (providing evidence about the value of an apology), not informative.
- The speaking time of the group members should be balanced.
- The use of video should be limited (five minutes maximum).
- The maximum time for the presentation should be established so that two apology analyzes can be given on the same day with extra time remaining for questions and answers.
- Group members should exchange contact information.
- Group members should keep absent members up-to-date on group progress and assignments.
- Students who are absent for group meetings will lose points.
- Students will earn a group score and an individual score. The group score will be the same for all group members. The individual score will be determined by the delivery of their part of the group presentation and by peer evaluations.

Determining Group Membership

Four groups of approximately five to six members work well for this project. There are three methods for establishing groups. In the first method, assign students to groups by splitting up the class leaders, the skilled PowerPoint producers, and the students who are frequently absent. This method forces students to work with people they may not know and helps ensure the success of all of the groups. The second method allows students to form their own groups. They typically work with people they know or sit next to. This may make it easier for students to get together with their group members outside of class. However, it often makes for disparities in the skill levels of the groups. The third method is useful
when the class has higher than normal levels of absenteeism. This approach involves forming three of
the groups randomly and assigning those who are absent on the day groups are assigned to a separate
group. Those who are not present after being given a warning to attend are thereby assigned to a
group with others who did not show up. This helps reduce the drag on the other groups and may help
the absent members learn to be more responsible.

**Group Agendas**

The number of days to devote to this project will vary depending upon the length of class time, the
number of weekends that occur during the project, the likelihood groups can meet outside of class time,
and the amount of lecturing that can occur on the days that groups meet. Typically, at a school where
most students work and cannot easily arrange for a meeting time outside of class, it will take four group
meeting days and two presentation days. In the first meeting, students should be given the information
above, meet their group members, exchange contact information, select an apology, and divide up the
initial work by assigning research corresponding to parts of Burke's pentad. At the second meeting
(typically after a weekend has passed), students review the information they gathered, review the
apology again (looking for image management strategies), and divide up the remaining tasks. At the
third meeting, students should evaluate the apology and focus on putting together the PowerPoint and
presentation. During the fourth meeting the group should finalize the PowerPoint and focus on the
group presentation. Groups that are well organized will use this time to practice the delivery of the
group presentation.

**Instructor Role**

During the group meetings, the instructor should move from group to group, answering questions about
the nature of the assignment and helping the groups to accomplish their tasks. The instructor should
avoid becoming a group’s leader but can offer advice, information or encouragement. Reminding
groups to contact absent members, helping them to manage conflict, and clarifying work assignments
will help the groups to stay on track. The instructor should take notes about who is late or absent, who
seems to be playing a leadership role, and who is not engaged in the discussions. At the end of each
class, the instructor may share observations and give the class descriptive feedback about group
dynamics without naming groups or individuals. Spending five minutes at the end of class to note the
good things that were observed is an effective way to help students think about how they can help their
group to be more effective.

**Peer Evaluation**

After the students present, ask them to stay and complete an evaluation of their group members. Each
group member should get enough forms to evaluate all of their fellow group members. Include
questions using a Likert scale on characteristics such as leadership, contributions to the task, and
maintenance functions. In addition, ask questions about who contributed the most to the success of the
group, who were the best presenters, who played leadership roles, who worked the most on the
PowerPoint, and who was absent. Tell the class that their feedback should be a fair appraisal to help
their group members see how their behaviors affect others in the group. Share this information
anonymously when you evaluate the group project. Getting feedback from class members about how
convincing the group apology evaluations were is another valuable source of feedback.

**Conclusion**

Students tend to enjoy working on apology analysis project. Generally speaking, they have a good
group experience as well which is important because many report hating working in small groups
because of uneven workloads, conflicts, difficulty getting together, and communication breakdowns. If
students buy into this project, get off to a good start, and pay attention to group processes, they will see how group work can be made rewarding. Students will learn a great deal about the strategies used in one kind of special occasion speech and will learn how to work with others to provide a symposium.

**References**


Appendix: Handout for the Group Apology Analysis

Your group is to conduct an analysis of a public apology found on YouTube by a well-known figure. The analysis should be conducted in two parts. In the first part of the presentation, use Burke’s dramatistic pentad to help the audience conceptualize the motivation of the accused. Burke believed that life is a drama. A speaker attempts to get the audience to accept a view of the life-drama by calling attention to five elements of the drama called the pentad.

**Burke’s Pentad**

- **ACT:** What was done? What happened? What was the person accused of doing? What does the best evidence suggest occurred? Are there differing accounts?
- **SCENE:** When and where was it done? What are the historical circumstances sounding the act? What led up to the act? Where did the act take place?
- **AGENT:** Who did it? What is this person’s image? Why is the person famous? What has the person accomplished?
- **AGENCY:** How was the act done? What means were used? Was the act done openly? Was it done intentionally? Were any tools used? Were other people involved?
- **PURPOSE:** Why was it done? What was the person’s emotional state? What did the person hope to gain? How was the person caught? Did the person try to escape or avoid responsibility?

Simply put, the first part of the presentation should tell the audience what happened (the various accounts of what happened), explain the situation/context surrounding the offensive act, provide information about the person (the person’s image before the incident), state how the person committed the offense, and explain what motivated the person to commit the act. Which elements of the pentad does the speaker emphasize in the apology? What do the word choices (or omissions) reveal about the speaker’s motives?

After providing this background, the group should present excerpts from and analyze the apology itself to see how effective it is. When the accused admits guilt, the public apology typically needs to accomplish several goals to be effective.

**Goals of a Typical Apology**

1. State what was done that was wrong (it is typically ineffective to issue a blanket apology; some detail is necessary).
2. Acknowledge all victim(s) and the suffering that was caused.
3. Express remorse for committing the act.
4. Take responsibility for the act (do not blame others).
5. Promise to restore conditions to the way they were or never to commit the act again

To analyze and evaluate the apology, it helps to consider the strategies that the speaker employed. Consider the apology as an image restoration strategy. What kinds of strategies did the accused use in the speech? What was the audience’s reaction? Did the apology restore the person’s image? Did it restore his/her image in the minds of some segments of the audience, but not others? In what ways did the delivery of the speech impact its effectiveness?
The presentation should be approximately 25 minutes long. Everyone must have a speaking part. It should include a clip from the apology. The complete transcribed text of many apologies can often be found using Google.

The group should decide upon an apology, divide the analytical responsibilities into parts, discuss the apology itself, and see if a consensus can be reached on its effectiveness. The group’s goal is to persuade the audience that its evaluation is accurate.

Some famous people who have apologized publicly: Mel Gibson, Hugh Grant, Michael Richards, Alec Baldwin, Bill Clinton, Tiger Woods, Richard Nixon, David Letterman, Jimmy Swaggart, Michael Vick, Toyota representatives, Tom Cruise, Kevin Rudd (Australian PM), BP (Tony Hayward), Rod Blagojevich, Mark Sanford, Marion Jones, Edward Kennedy, Chris Brown, Arnold Schwazenegger, Kanye West, O.J. Simpson, Eliot Spitzer, Mark Sanford, Anthony Weiner.

**Image Restoration Strategies**
(adopted from William Benoit: *Accounts, Excuses, and Apologies*, 1995)

- **Denial:** there are two forms
  - **Simple denial:** deny performing the wrongful act, deny the wrongful act occurred, provide an alibi, claim mistaken identity, deny agency.
  - **Shift the blame:** the question often arises if the accused did not commit the act then who did? Some accused shift the blame to another, often toward someone that the audience already feels ill will toward.

- **Evading of Responsibility:** if the accused cannot evade responsibility, then s/he may try to reduce responsibility for it.
- **Provocation:** the act in question was performed in response to another wrongful act. The accused was provoked; therefore, the other person is responsible.
- **Defeasibility:** plead a lack of information, responsibility or control over situation.
- **Accident:** an attempt to reduce apparent responsibility for the action due to unforeseen circumstances.
- **Good Intentions:** claim that the action was done with good intentions.

- **Reducing Offensiveness:** An attempt to reduce the ill feeling that the audience has experienced.
- **Bolstering:** strengthen the audience’s positive feelings about the accused.
- **Minimizion:** reduce the negative affect associated with the negative event.
- **Differentiation:** Distinguish the act performed from other similar but less desirable acts. By comparison, the act may seem less offensive.
- **Transcendence:** Place the act in a different context or appeal to higher values to justify act.
- **Attack accuser:** Attack the credibility of sources of accusation.
- **Compensation:** offer remuneration to the victim.
- **Corrective Action:** A vow to correct the problem by either restoring the situation to the state it was in before or by making changes to prevent the recurrence of the action.
- **Mortification:** Admit responsibility and ask for forgiveness.
- **Silence:** Ignoring the accusations.
I Wanna Talk About Me: Areas to Explore Regarding Student Self-Disclosure and Perceived Motivation
Abby M. Brooks, Georgia Southern University

By the very nature of the job, teachers are tasked with providing thought provoking lectures, activities, and assessments in the classroom setting. Additionally, students often perceive their instructors as the primary motivating force in the classroom (Brophy, 1987) and seemingly effective teachers strive to motivate their students.

Finding the right formula to motivate fine young scholars can be a moving target. The concept of motivation is often divided into two categories: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation (Hofer, 2002; Whang & Hancock, 1994). Intrinsic motivation occurs when an individual strives to perform an activity for the value of the activity itself, to better oneself, not to gain reward or recognition from others (Whang & Hancock, 1994).

Perception certainly plays a part in this understanding in motivation as instructors might believe that their students are motivated to learn course concepts based on actions (e.g., classroom involvement, test scores) but in reality could only be motivated to earn a grade and then forget the course material. To better understand motivation a variety of catalysts have been studied between the student-teacher relationship: goal setting (Ames, 1992), immediacy (Frymier, 1993) and self-disclosure (Mazer, Murphy & Simonds, 2007) to name a few. It is this last element, self-disclosure, that is the focus of this work.

Self-disclosure has been defined as “revealing information about yourself to others, information that others would be unlikely to discover on their own” (Trenholm & Jenson, 2011, p. 217); and, has been evaluated in many environments including the world of academics. Teacher self-disclosure has been examined as a potential impact on teaching evaluations, recall of information and students participation (Lannutti & Strauman, 2006). Recently, as exploring self-disclosure from an interpersonal standpoint I began to think more and more about the relationship between students and teachers and what, if anything we share, and how, if at all, our students are impacted. The teacher-student relationship mirror the elements of interpersonal relationships (Frymier & Houser, 2000) and are logically, although perhaps unfortunately, significant factors on student learning and development. In the Interpersonal Communication class, due to the very nature of the subject matter, my awareness of my own self-disclosure and how this story telling as a way to communicate and provide exampled is perceived by my students was heightened. In conducting a review of literature I found that yes, when instructors offer personal examples, as long as the disclosures meet certain criteria (amount, are relevance and positive, Cayanus & Martin, 2008) the disclosure is impactful for student engagement. Further, researchers have not only explored in-class behaviors but also behaviors impacted by social media such as Facebook (Mazer, Murphy & Simonds, 2007) and out-of-class interactions (Cayanus, Martin, & Weber, 2003).

When teaching college level classes I often find myself using personal examples about the people and experiences of my life to relay a point. For example (and here’s one now) when talking with my students about the 5 bases of power I describe the concepts and then share the story of being with my pal Mike in Atlanta when his Jeep battery died. He needed someone to help him (that helper having something Mike wanted and therefore legitimate power) but when he finally talked a nice lady into helping (we were in the parking lot of a Home Depot) she was not sure where her car’s battery was located, let alone how to use jumper cables. Fortunately Mike had that kind of power (expert) and we were able to get a jump for the battery and get on with our day.

Multiple studies have explored the impact of a teacher’s self-disclosure on various classroom factors, yet more research is needed to further understand the relationship to teacher self-disclosure and student participation in the classroom (Cayanus, Martin & Goodboy, 2009). Participation, by very
understanding of the concept, is tethered to the construct of motivation. If we better understand a student’s motivation, instructors can potentially provide more catalysts for this motivation perhaps though inviting participation, encouraging self-disclosure with the ultimate goal of student learning.

There are still areas to explore with regard to this phenomenon. It is for the continued examination of these communication topics—self-disclosure and student motivation—that I am proposing to evaluate if a student’s self-disclosure indicates motivation. Further, the following questions would be investigated:

- How, if at all, does a student's motivation impact their self-disclosure?
- How, if at all, does a student's self-disclosure impact an instructor's perception of motivation?
- How, if at all, does the perceived student motivation impact an instructor’s motivation to teach?
- What, if any, ethical concerns does an instructor have when allowing a student to share?

Participants for this study must be from two populations. The first will be undergraduate students, at least 18 years of age, from a variety of disciplines at a large university in the Southeastern United States. The ideal sample would capture an equal number of students from the four undergraduate classifications as well as an equal number of males and females. The second population with be college instructors, ideally from a variety of disciplines. IRB approval is in process for this work.

It is expected that this study will find that students who report a higher level of motivation are also more likely to self-disclose with a teacher either inside or outside the classroom. It is expected that this study will find that an instructor is likely to perceive a student to be motivated if they self-disclose, on topic, either inside or outside of the classroom. It is expected that this study will find that perceiving that students are motivated will positively impact an instructor’s motivation. Finally, no expectations have been associated with the ethical concerns regarding a student’s self-disclosure other than that it will be interesting to discover.

Stay tuned.

References


To discuss spirit injury, it is at first necessary to articulate a space in the theoretical diaspora to conceptualize spirit injury as a concept deeply tied to the historical tradition of several theoretical frameworks. “Spirit injury” is a phrase popularized by critical race feminist Adrien Katherine Wing. It is a term utilized in critical race feminism (CRF) that brings together insights from critical legal studies (CLS) and critical race theory (CRT). Wing’s training is as a lawyer and legal scholar, not as a communication scholar, yet her work may help communication scholars more keenly theorize harm and violence. Her scholarship appears in the context of women’s rights, international law, and race and the law studies and is found mostly in law reviews, which may limit the reach of her ideas about feminism and rights in the larger expanse of social science research. Unfortunately, spirit injury has not been applied much beyond the legal literature where critical race feminists have found it quite important to a plethora of work. Her work on spirit injury is mentioned only briefly in other disciplines, suggesting that perhaps there is value in describing a broader standard for the application of spirit injury to the study of racialized minorities and feminist studies across disciplines.

Wing (1997) first popularized the concept of spirit injury, describing it as “the psychological, spiritual, and cultural effects” of violence done to women (p. 952). She described spirit injury by virtue of its effects; it “leads to the slow death of the psyche, of the soul, and of the identity of the individual” (Wing, 1991, p. 186). Spirit injury is, at once, an intersectional approach to the objectification, denigration, and annihilation of women and an articulation of the meta-atrocity of the war against women. The discussion of spirit injury is not a debate about origins or motives, but a conceptualization of the injury done and the pervasive reach and effects of that injury. Spirit injury is the term for the complex effects of violence, a matrix of harms, against women and as Patricia Williams (1987) (the first theorist to conceive of the term “spirit injury” and subsequently apply it to racialized minorities as part of a larger feminist jurisprudence) has noted, it may be as devastating as a physical crime. It is injury done by crime (rape, assault, robbery, sexual violence, and armed conflict), but also by the psychological domination of the patriarchal order acting against the psychological well-being of women. It strikes at the body as well as the mind, is physical as well as psychological. It may be conceived of as psychosomatic because while there is both a psychological violence and a physical violence, the two may be causally linked as spirit injury can so psychologically scar as to render the subject available to physical violence. Its denigration of the psyche opens people to continued violence as they see themselves as devalued.

Spirit injury is much aligned with what might be called postcolonial, Third World, or global feminism. As Chela Sandoval (2004) described, “third world feminism” is about creating an oppositional consciousness that is informed by international, racial, and ethnic awareness. Spirit injury takes into account the complex cultural matrix of harm and responses to harm to afford scholars a better opportunity to understand harm in an international context. For this reason, spirit injury may be firmly situated in a broader global feminist framework. Echoing Adrien Katherine Wing, Sandoval urged not for pity or sorrow, but for “love, hope, and transformative resistance” (Davis, 2000, p. xiii). The point is, quite directly, that there may be hope and encouragement in the face of spirit injury. Spirit injury does not foreclose healing nor does it reject action by positioning the victim as helpless or irreparably harmed and unavailable for recompose. It is a starting point from which to better understand violence and subordination in hopes of healing wounds that have festered, sometimes for ages.

Spirit Injury to Groups

Spirit injury manifests itself not only in the individual, but also in the group. Collective spirit injury, or the buildup of multiple spirit injuries, may destroy an entire culture (Wing & Merchan, 1993). The collective violence of multiple spirit injuries can be seen amongst South African, Palestinian, and Bosnian women,
to name a few groups that have suffered, perhaps, incompressible harm. We might also consider not only war torn countries and war-violated populations, but also workers in maquiladoras, domestic workers, sexual slaves, and others who are subject to pronounced psychological destruction of their subjectivities. So, when we talk about the spirit injury of Bosnians, or Africans at the time of their removal from Africa, we are really talking about a mass psychological violence that is far more than the objectification of an individual or individuals. Collective spirit injury amounts to more than the sum of their parts. Collective spirit injury is, in short, an annihilation of culture.

Seen in this way, the concept of spirit injury is broadly applicable. It may describe not only a violence done by the law, and reified in juridical structures, but also sociological, anthropological, and political conceptions of violence that move far beyond the traditional purview of critical legal and critical race theorists (Crits). Spirit injury is applicable across disciplines and indeed pulls from many to conceptualize the psychic injury done to people subject to violence. While it may be theorized primarily in the legal literature, it is equally important to other scholars interested in violence and healing. Communication scholar may find spirit injury broadly applicable to their work on violence, law, racialized minorities, diversity, cultural studies, public address, and reception.

Christian Sundquist (2003) applied the concept of spirit injury to African slavery thusly:

Slavery also created new spirit-injuries for the Black community to bear, while exacerbating the spirit-injuries endured during African enslavement. The spirit-injuries of the recent African enslavement and Middle Passage were systematically inflamed through slavery's endemic racism, cultural eradication, and family dissolution (p. 668).

It is not simply that Black communities suffered racism and that they are haunted by slavery’s ever too present past, but that spirit injury worked from the time of enslavement across the Atlantic, and that spirit injury left festering wounds that continued to exact a toll on the Black body, literally and figuratively. At each juncture from the forceful removal from Africa, to collection and stratification on West African shores, to the Middle Passage, to murder on the high seas as described in Ian Baucom’s (2005) excellent analysis of the slave ship Zong and the ensuing trial, to the slave auctions in the Caribbean and Eastern ports of the United States, to the plantation, to Reconstruction, to Jim Crow, to mass incarceration (what Michelle Alexander (2011) has termed the “New Jim Crow”), to the threat of a post-racial society; spirit injury continues, multiplies, and kills.

Black women particularly have felt the burden of spirit injury. They have been maligned for sharing African ancestry and maligned by a sociological formation of Anglo-patriarchy that has marked their existence in the United States, not to mention the pervasive racism directed at Black women internationally, for hundreds of years (Collins 1991). From the slave master’s mistress forward, the condition of Black women has been one of debasement and disenfranchisement. The lingering legacy of slavery continues to affect perceptions of Blacks by Whites, motivates institutional racism, and perpetuates discriminatory hiring practices and admissions processes, not to mention racial profiling and mass incarceration. Only now is this beginning to change, albeit slowly and anecdotally, but the remnants of these spirit injuries continues to haunt Black women.

Theorizing spirit injury may then be seen as a way to consider the historical evolution and markers of violence on oppressed peoples, more so than simply a theory to describe violence; it is a genealogical investigation of the evolving nature of violent subjugation. Seen as the violence of a number of years, slavery, patriarchal subjugation, and other violence might be seen as a process, evolving and ever-present, in modern discussions and policy actions. The injuries we note today are injuries inflicted, for the first time, ages ago.
Spirit Injury and Women

Adrien Katherine Wing and Tyler Murray Smith (2003) expounded upon the relationship between spirit injury and women in a study of Pan-Africanism and the African Union. African women have suffered spirit injury many times over as a result of violence in both the domestic and public spheres. By way of remedies, they suggest none in this article, but offer a hopefulness and urgency in addressing the multitude of violations against women in Africa and beyond. Discussing spirit injury may seem like a discussion of hopelessness, but it is instead cited as a critical juncture in the oppression of women. Its theorizing is an attempt to add purpose and direction to discussions of rights and redresses to violence. Spirit injury produces the meaninglessness, hopelessness, and lovelessness that Cornel West (1993) described, but investigating it is about freeing oneself from this nihilism.

Furthermore, spirit injury may be particularly useful in describing sexual violence, a central concern for many feminist scholars across disciplines. It helps describe the specter of such violence that haunts victims for years after the initial violent act (Penn & Nardos, 2003). Whether the case is child sexual abuse or rape, the effects of such traumas on the lived experience of victims lasts much longer than the initial tragic encounter. The effects of such violence are devastating and a lifelong mark on the subject. Using spirit injury to conceptualize the durée of injury may help all to better understand the lasting scars of sexual violence.

Spirit injury may also help explain women’s beliefs that they are complicit in their victimization. Such behavior is often seen in victims of rape and sexual assault where the ontological violence of the perpetrator is sublimated onto the victim (Walklate 2007). This illustrates one way spirit injury may manifest itself as a much more insidious injury than may have been initially thought. Only when psychological trauma is heaped upon the individual may the individual succumb to thoughts of complicity. Complicity and the accompanying complacency are the product of a violence wrought upon the split subject ($), a violation of psychological well-being (Žižek 2006). The subject is not split in the sense that there may be an un-split subject, but split in the sense that the subject is always divided as it tries to negotiate its existence in the Symbolic Order (Schroeder 2008). Katie Geneva Cannon (1985) makes this point specifically related to Black women who are forced to live in a world that is both White and patriarchal and Black and subordinated. Navigating the two worlds with two differing sets of experiences and ideals is psychologically traumatic, it requires constantly shifting between two competing sets of norms, never fully at peace with either.

Spirit injury may lead women to believe that the forces keeping them oppressed are of their own making (Wing 2006). This sort of thinking positions women against themselves, as complicit in the violence wrought upon them. Spirit injury causes a split that pits women against themselves, fighting for and against oneself to make sense of the violent condition. One may think of the Symbolic Order, with respect to spirit injury, as the order the patriarchal apparatus creates to subjugate, if not annihilate the female subject. This symbolic order is positioned against women, while at the same time they must live in it. The depredations perpetrated against women may result in the belief, by women, that they are of lesser value and deserve to be so. The violations of the patriarchy against women come to be seen as justified responses to women’s lesser quality. Because spirit injury occurs on a psychological level as much as an external level, the internalization of degradation may have a debilitating effect on women’s efforts to liberate themselves, challenge oppression, or recapture self-worth.

The subject is nothing but the split, the discord between self and Other, the divide between self and symbolic world (Fink 2008). Spirit injury creates a similar type of split, one that manifests itself with many of the same symptoms. Spirit injury describes this trauma of splitting, in a different way, through genocide or sexual violence perhaps, to the self and its impact on female being, while also articulating a potential for resistance in the condition of possibility of subjectivity. Here two scholars mirror each other: Lacan argues that there is subjectivity despite the split and Wing would argue that there is
subjectivity in the face of spirit injury’s trauma. In short, all hope is not lost for the subject’s value. All hope is not lost for resistance and healing.

Vignettes of Spirit Injury

The case of the Palestinians, who were forcefully made Other by the geopolitical machine in 1948 with creation of the Israeli state, is a central example of the concept of spirit injury’s application. The Palestinian people were denied their rightful place in the world geopolitical order by the Western powers’ creation of the Israeli state. Their sense of space and the physical place they occupied was ruptured in the colonial event. Palestinians were forced to relocate, over one million of them, away from their homeland, creating an expansive diaspora of displaced peoples with no homeland, divided families, and now the object of a juridical colonial order. The event of 1948, known as the nakba by Palestinians, was a violent uprooting of culture that had as its direct result the violent removal of the Palestinians from their ancestral homelands. Continued Israeli aggression has made things no better. The burden of history remains ever present in physical and psychological scars. Palestinians, to this day, refer to the nakba as a transformational event that marked a continued governmental violence against their people. Wing (2008) reminds us that spirit injury can be passed down generation to generation and indeed has been with Palestinians.

Here too, Wing suggests ways in which spirit injury might be addressed in the law. Indeed, she offers the idea of a Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) as a means to heal the spirit injuries of Palestinians (Wing 2008). Truth and Reconciliation Commissions are unlike adversarial courtrooms where victims are often doubly victimized by an inattentive if not belligerent court system. TRCs are more victim-centered and substantially reduce the hostility prevalent in court rooms. Because TRCs have been successful where violence has been perpetrated and voices maligned if not silenced, they may be successful in addressing Palestinian spirit injury. To be sure, spirit injury cuts both ways. The occupying forces of Israel have as well suffered spirit injury—the spirit injury of occupying the territory of and systematically violating a people for 60 years. The oppressor suffers along with the oppressed. This is not to equate the trauma of oppression experienced along the spectrum of control, but to stress that there is no safety, no wholeness in the oppression of others. The Palestinians are an example most are familiar with, but the same analysis could be put forward for Native Americans, Kurds, the Roma, and even the suburban housewife in the 1950s United States.

Wing also suggests that the idea of spirit injury may be helpful in assessing the violence the Hutus have perpetrated against the Tutsis in Rwanda (Wing & Johnson, 2002). The violence in Rwanda has existed for over 100 years, but came to national attention in the mid-1990s. This sort of ethnic violence usually involves more than crime’s standard level of hatred. Ethnic violence is directed at an entire group, a group whose culture, appearance, and very being is denied to the point that violence against them may not even be perceived as violence at all. The Hutu-Tutsi conflict, caused by earlier colonization, resulted in a Hutu-led 100-day genocide of the Tutsis in a defensive annihilation. The Rwandan genocide is an example of the impact spirit injury, and the fear of further spirit injury, can have on a people. Wing highlighted the violence done to women and children as examples of specific spirit injury against already maligned groups. The aggressor is no longer the question in Rwanda as both ethnic groups feel the denigration of spirit injury, and both use such injury as a legitimating factor in their violence.

The current debate on Muslim hijabs provides one more, and for this essay the last, example of spirit injury’s application (Wing & Smith, 2006). The controversy over headscarves in France has reached such a point that the French government’s refusal to honor diversity is having devastating consequences on the Muslim French. By banning headscarves, France is not promoting inclusion or assimilation as is the government’s stated purpose, but opposing it by creating further tensions and further devaluing Muslim women (Bienkowski 2010). France is conducting a war on culture. When governments attempt to create assimilation by destroying culture, they are complicit in the above-styled
group’s spirit injury. Assimilation at all costs means spirit injury in the name of togetherness and commonality, providing a shroud of acceptability for violence.

Conclusion

Spirit injury, though born of the Critical Race Feminist movement in the United States legal academy, may be fruitfully applied across disciplines wherever violence against racialized minorities or women is of interest. It is a useful tool in describing the psychological, spiritual, and cultural injury done to women by multiple and perpetual acts of degradation and violence. Spirit injury describes both an historical perspective for analyzing the violence of situations like slavery or ethnic conflict that leaves scars on the psyche that last hundreds of years and the effects of current or systemic violence. Likewise, spirit injury is a particularly useful idea when addressing sexual and gender based violence. It is also a way to conceptualize violence beyond the physical scar, broken bone, or bruised hand. It is a deeply psychological and spiritual investigation into the lingering legacy of violence. Through theorizing spirit injury, scholars and activists may be able to better understand violence’s impact on the subject. Through its application, scholars may begin to not only better understand violence, but also better understand healing. From the insights of Critical Race Feminists, other scholars may begin to conceive of violence holistically and address it using a broader expanse of psychological, spiritual, and cultural tools.

References


This session explored, through a free-ranging discussion, strategies employed to find sources of funding for technology for departments. In attendance were faculty members from Georgia Regents University, University of West Georgia, and the University of North Georgia. Below are highlights from the discussion which focused on funding experiences those in attendance had dealt with directly or had heard were being used in other programs.

**Introduction**

Many university communications and media departments have felt the need to find alternative sources of funding for maintenance and improvement of their communication lab/studio equipment and technology. Universities have been forced, due to shrinking state and federal funding for research and the competitive nature of public versus private universities, to look for new funding models. There are several sources for funding, and one of the most lucrative has been corporate funding. According to an article by Adam Schindler (2007), “from 1985 to 2005, industry funding of university research increased 250 percent, from $950 million to $2.4 billion, according to the American Association for the Advancement of Science” (p. 41). In 2005 industry was responsible for seven percent of university research budgets (Schindler, 2007, p. 41). However, most of that funding was targeted toward clinical trials at medical schools.

Another potential source is funding from foundations; according to a post-conference report of the Future Media Lab (2012) in the twenty-first century, foundations in this country have funded more than one billion dollars for “innovative platforms...for quality journalism,” including journalism education (p. 3). The Knight Foundation has invested in major fellowship programs in the college-level Carnegie-Knight Initiative (Future Media Lab, 2012, p. 25). But again, this type of funding is narrowly focused on one sector of communications.

Most universities have to deal with more mundane sources of funding, such as student, technology, and course fees. Grant funding has become a more familiar funding source, but is dependent upon a department’s expertise in, or access to, regulative and legal knowledge.

**Student Technology Fees**

- Funding via student activity fees is viable. However, universities may make a difference in how these funds are allocated depending on whether the equipment serves all students in the university or only students in the department.

**Philanthropy/Endowments/Scholarships/Donations**

- One possibility is to post an equipment wish list on the department’s website or in the form of fact sheets that can be distributed with departmental materials.

- The potential of using the Kick Starter website was discussed.

- As a service project, students could develop a campaign to raise money for an equipment endowment.
• The University of North Georgia has an endowment that covers the cost of paying student assistants for their work in departmental labs.

• Departments could see if any used equipment is available through USG stores or from commercial studios that are upgrading equipment. It was debated whether used equipment was a good idea, as it provided more students access to technology, or if it was urgent to always have cutting-edge equipment available for classes.

Corporate Funding

• A department could offer low-cost technology services to corporations.

• The University of West Georgia has a corporate partnership with a local media outlet.

• Georgia Regents University has recently had corporate funding and provided some video work for that corporation as a service to the community.

• Some colleges have rented out student space to community groups or non-profits.

• The group wondered if some corporate relationships could lead to a co-dependent relationship between the company and the academic department.

Grant Funding

• Grants may sometimes provide for hourly fees for student assistants who are involved working on a grant project. This has been the case at the University of North Georgia. It is important, however, to be familiar with BOR policy and the legalities of this type of funding.

Course Fees

• More and more universities, like the University of West Georgia, are charging lab fees for any courses that involve equipment, specialized computers and/or specialized software.

Student Activity Fees

• The University of West Georgia is able to use student activity fees to pay student assistants who work for campus entertainment and news providers.

• The University of North Georgia is able to use these fees to help fund their radio station.

Funding for Building New Facilities

• Those needing to raise funds for a new building should work closely with the campus foundation office.

• In some locations, the community has raised the capital for a building (a theatre, for example) because the community felt strongly about the need for such a facility.

• The Woodruff program/foundation is worth exploring.

• Green building initiative programs may be able to assist with funding of ecologically-conscious projects.
Overall Concerns

- The cost of technology can be steep, especially in programs where keeping up with the latest technology is necessary to train students for a constantly changing workplace.

- Moving to upgraded equipment is often required when new software is developed. Often new versions of software will not be compatible with existing equipment. This means that not only does the department need funding for new software, but money to purchase new equipment as well.

References


The Georgia Regents University Senior Capstone Project
Requirement for Communication Studies

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Introduction

Over the past fourteen years, the communication studies program at Augusta State University (now Georgia Regents University) has developed a Senior Capstone Project (SCP) for its majors. The SCP requirement has changed over time, moving from a loosely-coordinated independent study course to a two-semester, terminal assessment with three components, delivered in as a stand-alone course. Its requirements, similarly, have been modified to challenge majors to demonstrate a variety of educational outcomes, making it more and more a terminal assessment for program exit, rather than simply another course to be completed in the degree program. This paper will discuss the background, development, and pedagogical approaches of the SCP used in the Department of Communications at Georgia Regents University. Specific elements of the of the courses will be explored as part of the discussion, as will specific challenges the program faculty have faced in administering the SCP and how they have responded to them. Finally, the paper will explore several peripheral benefits of the SCP program.

Background of Senior Capstone Project

The Senior Capstone Project debuted as a course and as a major program following conversion from the quarter to semester system. At the time, the course was taught as a single-semester, independent study course, and a faculty mentor worked with each student to complete the requirements which included a written thesis. The SCP also required the student to have a jury of two other faculty members. Faculty assigned to the SCP jury would consult with the student and with the instructor of record in completing the SCP, but the final responsibility lay with the instructor of record to deliver the course and to assess outcomes. The initial purpose of the SCP course was to help students to synthesize other course work in the form of what was, for all intents and purposes, a senior thesis, though it did not always take the form of a research paper. The course faculty taught the course to any student who needed it, on an ad hoc basis and without any additional pay. The quality and rigor of the course depended very much on who taught it, and the outcomes (in terms of grading) also tended to be uneven. In some cases this tended to breed some resentment among faculty who perceived this difference both as corrosive of academic standards and as unfair to faculty and students. While there were some changes to the course over the next seven or so years, they tended to be related to course prerequisites rather than how the course was structured and delivered. The problems with unequal standards for assessment continued to be an issue.

During Fall 2006, Communication Studies faculty introduced a revamped SCP course. Though still just a single semester long, the new SCP was designed to allow students to garner experience suitable for their career goals. The revamped course continued to be taught as an independent study, but Communication Studies faculty began to work together in an attempt to address how assessment of student learning outcomes might be standardized, at least to some extent. As has already been suggested, there had been concern in previous years that the rigor of the course was largely dependent on the student's SCP instructor, and a perception among both faculty and students that some faculty consistently inflated grades. For this reason, faculty began to develop forms and rubrics to use for evaluation of the various components of the SCP requirement. Finally, under the revised course requirements, students who did not perform well on the "independent project" portion of the SCP, or whose overall grade for the course was less than 85%, were required to complete a written comprehensive exam component. The "comps" were the faculty's attempt to address concerns about students' inability to demonstrate knowledge of and/or inability to apply concepts and theory related to the communication studies discipline. The comprehensive requirement has continued to be used in
various forms when students fail to demonstrate their ability to understand and apply disciplinary content.

It was not until the 2008-2009 academic year that the course first was taught in the classroom as a stand-alone course rather than an independent study. In large part, this move depended on the growing number of students in the major. Once there was a critical mass of such students, it was possible to fill the class enough that it was not canceled due to low enrollment. Since that first class, the course has filled consistently (See Table 1).

Table 1: SCP by Academic Year: Enrollment and Successful Completion by Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Year</th>
<th>COMS 4970</th>
<th>COMS 4971</th>
<th>COMS 4972</th>
<th>% Successful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>0 (0)*</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2001</td>
<td>4 (3)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>3 (1)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>5 (5)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-2004</td>
<td>5 (4)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>3 (2)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>6 (4)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>6 (5)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>10 (8)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>20 (14)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>13 (12)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>16 (13)</td>
<td>11 (10)</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>19 (15)</td>
<td>11 (7)</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-2013</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>16 (pending)</td>
<td>14 (pending)</td>
<td>(pending)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Numbers indicate # Enrolled (# Completed) for each course for that academic year.

Students prepared to take the new classroom-based course during Fall 2008 by working with the SCP instructor and recruiting committee members from among available Communication Studies faculty. The students worked with those faculty members to craft independent projects to be executed in Spring 2009. This was still a one-semester, three credit hour course, but required those preparations to occur during the semester prior to taking the course. The class would first be taught as a full-fledged course during Spring 2009, and enrolled 19 students. Kathleen P. Trigg, who taught the course in its first classroom-based iteration, identified in her summary report from that class several problems she had encountered and strategies for addressing them (quoted in its entirety):

- Early on in the semester it became clear that holding the class only once a year left a few students struggling because they had not had enough of the required courses to be fully prepared to complete their work at an acceptable level. The Communication Studies faculty has decided in the future to pursue offering the senior project over two semesters. Students in the future will sign up for one credit the semester prior to graduating and then sign up for two credits during their final semester. This will allow students the opportunity to complete more of the required coursework which will better prepare them to complete the projects.

- Managing 19 “independent” senior projects at once in a class is an organizational nightmare. In the past, faculty members were limited each semester to sponsoring only two projects and serving on no more than three total project committees. Assistance from other faculty members throughout the semester helped alleviate this problem and the future option of projects being spread out over two semesters should also help as well.

- Though the members of the Communication Studies faculty all made themselves readily available to serve as resources for students, only a few students took advantage of this
opportunity. In the future, students will need to make better use of all the assistance available to them from the faculty.

• Of the 19 students in the COMS 4970 class, only 13 were able to complete the class during the semester. … Four students received A’s, five students received B’s, and four students received C’s. It is the opinion of the member of the faculty who taught the class that six students were not capable of independent completion of the rigorous work required for the project. In the future, Communication Studies faculty will need to assess the appropriateness of students needing the assistance of the Writing Center to accomplish passing grades on their writing assignments. Faculty members are also examining any possible grade inflation in courses required as prerequisites for the Senior Capstone Project Class. Furthermore, a matrix has been designed to help students in the required upper level COMS classes to see exactly what knowledge and skills are taught in each class which will contribute to the major’s successful completion of the future senior capstone project.

• Last year, the Communication Studies faculty had discussed how much feedback students should receive on drafts. The concern was whether or not students were actually working independently if they could turn in drafts and receive feedback before the papers were graded. Of course, the quality of the drafts received and the kind of feedback provided (grammar and style versus new theorists to research who may shed light on a subject) made a difference on the final outcome. During the class, students received only one opportunity to receive feedback from the instructor without being graded on written submissions. Though this did curb some of the concerns of low quality being assessed properly, it limited better students from being challenged to produce even better work. More discussion will need to take place to resolve this issue.

• The class was taught as a workshop rather than lecture because students all worked on different projects. The class met twice a week and on the first meeting of the week, students made informal and ungraded presentations on their progress. The second meeting of the week took place in a computer lab and students worked independently on their projects in the lab, or independently in the community. The first meeting of the week did not work as successfully as the second. Students did not take the informal presentations seriously and therefore the time together was not as productive as hoped. The Communication Studies faculty will also devise a way to better approach this concern.

• Students were able to opt out of comprehensive exams if all written and oral work averaged above an 85% after the oral presentations. This presented a problem for students who had to write comps when their answers to comprehensive exam questions were substandard, but their work before that time was passing. The Communication Studies faculty will have to determine how this will be handled in the future.

• It was hoped that students would better stay on track with their projects if they had to attend class on a regular basis rather than work independently. After examining the past senior projects done independently, the faculty member conducting the class this Spring discovered that students did or did not complete their projects on time and appropriately at about the same rate as they had under the old system. Students who excel academically and are self-disciplined do well under both systems. Students who are academically challenged or undisciplined do not do well under either system. The students who are academically challenged, but hard-working and self-disciplined did seem to benefit from meeting together as a class. (K. P. Trigg, personal communication, 2009).

These concerns eventually led Communication Studies faculty to reassess the content of the course, and to standardize it to some degree. Additional attempts were made to link other upper-division course
content to the SCP, as well, to ensure adequate preparation for the work required in the SCP. This preparation would come to include rigorous enforcement of prerequisites for the courses, and allowing fewer exceptions to those prerequisites, especially if the student in question had not performed well above a "C" average in the courses already taken. Also, the faculty determined that students would be better served by more formal course structure, including required attendance and additional involvement of SCP committee members. There was increased attention both to increasing the rigor of the requirement and to ensuring fairness in outcomes. Ultimately, this discussion about the courses led to the development of the SCP course as a two-semester sequence carrying the same number of credit hours overall (3 semester hours).

During spring semester 2009, the Communication Studies track faculty began working on a redesign of the SCP requirement, shifting it to the two-semester course sequence with a proposal stage and an execution stage. Other changes were integrated to provide for better and more consistent student outcomes and to allow the students more time to accomplish the increasingly focused requirements. The new, two-semester format provided more explicit goalposts for students, guiding them from development of a faculty committee to mentor and assess work, to writing a proposal, to execution of a major writing project (e.g., thesis or other work approved by faculty), an applied learning experience (e.g., internship, job shadowing, etc.), and a professional presentation to an audience of Communication Studies faculty and students. The two-course sequence was first offered during the 2010-2011 academic year, though the faculty have continued to make changes in how the course is delivered and assessed. The latest version of the course has been modified to require an applied learning experience, where before it there was an option for either an internship or a thesis. This allows for students to have some practical experience without substituting practical experience for demonstration of skills in writing and research. There are additional prerequisites, as well, including a requirement that the student complete an application for graduation. Here are the current descriptions of the SCP courses:

**COMS 4971 Senior Capstone Project I (1-0-1)**

Each Communications major with a concentration in Communication Studies is required to design and execute an independent Senior Capstone Project. The parameters of the project will be set by the student in consultation with the course instructor, who must approve the final proposal. This course is the first to be taken in a two-semester sequence, and should be taken the semester before the semester in which the student plans to graduate. In this course, the student will write a formal proposal for the Senior Capstone Project, which must satisfy the specific proposal requirements set by the Communication Studies faculty and assessed by the instructor of record for the course. The student also will complete an annotated bibliography of sources appropriate to the project’s area(s) of study. Finally, the student will work with COMS faculty to find an acceptable venue for an Applied Learning Activity in the local community. The Applied Learning Activity may consist of an internship, a job-shadow opportunity, volunteer work, or other community-based work in which human communication is a prominent activity. It must be approved by the course instructor. Prerequisite(s): COMS 1010 or COMS 1020 or HONR 1010; COMC 2000 and COMC 2010; and three of the following courses COMS 3010, COMS 3040, COMS 3110, COMS 3250, COMC 4000. All courses must be passed with a grade of C or better. Requires permission of the instructor.

**COMS 4972 Senior Capstone Project II (2-0-2)**

Each Communications major with a concentration in Communication Studies is required to design and execute an independent senior capstone project. The specific parameters of the project will be set by the student in consultation with Communication Studies Senior Capstone Project instructor in COMS 4971, but will consist of a major writing assignment, a community-based Applied Learning Activity, and a presentation in which the student synthesizes his or her academic and applied learning. This course should be
taken in the semester in which the student graduates. Prerequisite(s): COMS 4971, completed graduation application filed with the Office of the Registrar.

As should be clear from these descriptions, the experiences of the faculty have led to a variety of specific amendments of the course. These are particularly significant in the prerequisites, the looser requirement for the major writing assignment, the requirement that all students have an applied learning experience (i.e., rather than choose internship versus thesis), and the explicit requirement that the presentation be used to synthesize academic and applied learning. In the next section, we will examine the design of the current course and the philosophy of instruction that guides it.

**Design of Senior Capstone Project**

The Communication Studies Senior Capstone Project (SCP) is designed to be a comprehensive terminal assessment of learning in the communication studies discipline, and depends on prior coursework to provide content-knowledge and discipline-appropriate skills in writing and presentation. Because it is a terminal assessment it requires synthesis of content from the courses taken, particularly those courses required by the Communication Studies major track.

**Philosophy**

The student goals or outcomes that are the basis this SCP requirement could probably be captured in three terms: Knowledge, Communication, and Professionalism. These are principles rather than "standards" in the sense that is usually meant by that term. They are abiding concerns that guide development of the project, rather than specific, cookie-cutter requirements for student outcomes. While outcomes are important, the project must account for variability in approaches to completion of the SCP and allow students to develop their own disciplinary interests.

Within this framework, "Knowledge" is concerned with students' understanding of the discipline of communication studies and ability to synthesize content from the coursework taken in the department. Much of this knowledge manifests as technical understanding of theories and concepts associated with the discipline, but might also relate to knowledge of mediated communication as it relates to human communication, or to knowledge of specific genres of communication, or even knowledge of sister disciplines like social psychology or political science or sociology. In each case, these are conceptual and theoretical bodies of knowledge that can inform students' understanding of communication studies as a discipline. However, the student must be able to make a case for the inclusion of such "outside" content. He or she should not, for example, use things learned in a business administration courses without explicitly and logically linking it to human communication. "Communication" covers the use critical skill sets like writing and speaking in technically and aesthetically pleasing ways that are adapted to one's audience. It also includes the ability to engage in productive discussion and critique of one's own work and of others' work. The last principle, "Professionalism" refers to the habits of thought and deed we tend to associate with dependability, good interpersonal communication skills, and sensitivity to different contexts and audiences. It also includes excellent work habits and the idea that improvement the student's knowledge and skills should be an important motivation.

Taken together, these three principles provide a means of describing what a graduate of the program ought to know, what that graduate should be able to do, and how that graduate should present him- or herself to the world. They allow for some flexibility in application, creating opportunities for diversity of projects, applied learning experiences, and other elements of the SCP. However, they provide enough structure that assessment can be the same for each project and faculty can be assured that what the student produces is relevant to the program's curricular content and disciplinary roots.

Each course we teach to the majors in our track provides opportunities to include references to elements of the philosophy described above. Each course allows students additional chances to learn
new things, acquire new skills, to hone what they already know, and to begin to model the professional lives for which they are preparing. Students can be encouraged to be self-motivated and to use the services available to them (e.g., the Writing Center and the campus library, including expertise of its staff). Increasingly, faculty are paying closer attention to attendance, deadlines, and academic honesty, and they are communicating regularly with students about these concerns. Even with such goading and encouragement, there are still problems to be found, but the faculty’s increased concern about curriculum and assessment and their communication with students about professionalism in academic life and beyond at least increases the chances that students can show real improvement over their careers in the program. Such efforts benefit both faculty and students.

Contents of the Two-Course Sequence
In a two-course sequence spanning a full academic year, each student will have adequate opportunity to complete a variety of tasks that relate to one or more of the principles discussed earlier: Knowledge, Communication, and Professionalism.

COMS 4971. This course carries one semester hour of credit and requires each student to assemble a SCP committee and to work with the committee and SCP Advisor to develop a plan for a project to be executed in the COMS 4972 course.

Written Component. In this course, students are required to write a proposal for their SCPs. The proposal will include a detailed written assignment describing the SCP's scope and how it will be carried out. In recent years, faculty have opted to require more extensive research and an annotated bibliography of sources appropriate both to the subject matter under consideration and to the communication studies discipline. Students also are required to develop a SCP committee including the course instructor and two other faculty from the track. Students and faculty have wide-ranging choices about the specifics of the project, but the structure of assessment also guides those choices into appropriate areas related to program outcomes in writing, presentation, and professional demeanor, among other things.

Applied Learning Experience. The student proposal of the project is accompanied by a search for an appropriate Applied Learning Experience (ALE), and completion of a memorandum of understanding (MOU) between the university and the ALE site's leadership. Failure to secure an MOU could result in legal liability for the institution, should something happen either to the student or as a result of the student's actions in carrying out the ALE. This step also helps faculty to ensure that the ALE is appropriate to the communication studies discipline and that it provides real opportunities for student growth and learning, rather than, say, requiring them to complete routine office work like filing or data entry, unless those are somehow done as part of other, more appropriate and challenging duties.

Presentational Component. Many faculty also use the COMS 4971 course to help students to develop formal and informal presentational skills appropriate to academic and professional life. The SCP instructor might, for example, require students in the course to make periodic, in-class progress reports related to the required work. These may or may not be formally assessed. Students also are required to meet with the course instructor and the other members of that particular student's SCP Committee. During these consultations the student has an opportunity to demonstrate both knowledge of topic and ability to behave professionally. He or she must make and keep appointments, provide evidence of preparation for meetings, and so forth. This allows for formative assessment of the students' work, and helps to provide more or less gentle reminders of course requirements and expectations.

Prerequisites. Over time this course's prerequisites have been ramped up to include completion of three of the five required courses for the Communication Studies track. Also, this course did not require regular class meetings, initially, but faculty experiences in teaching the sequence suggested that regular class meetings would be needed for some students and beneficial to most.
Basis for Assessment. In order to satisfy all requirements for this course, the student's SCP Committee must review the proposal and the associated paperwork, and each member must grant approval to proceed. A student's final grade in this course is derived from (1) quality of written work and other assignments, (2) ability to complete course milestones on time, and (3) professionalism in self-presentation and overall excellence in meeting the initial goals leading to completion of the SCP. Each instructor for the course sequence might have somewhat different assessments by which to evaluate these areas, but it is expected that each instructor will be guided by precedents set in prior years and by results of ongoing meta-assessment of the course sequence by the Communication Studies faculty. Having completed COMS 4971 with a grade of C or better, the student may then take COMS 4972. This should occur in the last semester of school prior to graduation, though this is not always the case.

COMS 4972. This course carries two semester hours of credit and requires the student to produce written work that demonstrates synthesis of theoretical and conceptual material related to the communication studies discipline, to take part in an internship, job-shadowing experience, volunteer position, or some other Applied Learning Experience (ALE). It also is expected that they student will meet with his or her academic advisor to complete an application for graduation. This step was added in recent years to ensure that students taking this course would be graduating seniors, but also that they would process such paperwork at appropriate times to avoid violation of various deadlines related to the graduation process. This final course in the SCP sequence contains four major assessments: (1) the major writing assignment, (2) the applied learning experience, (3) the presentation, and (4) the SCP instructor's evaluation.

Major Writing Assignment. The student is required to complete a major written assignment in APA format. The assignment, usually in the form of a thesis, requires demonstration of understanding of theoretical and conceptual knowledge from the communication studies discipline. The areas covered are not comprehensive of the discipline, but are, instead, related to a particular area or topic which may or may not also be related to the student's ALE. While there is not any specific guideline about length of this written work, satisfying the requirements generally will require about fifteen pages of text for tightly-focused and limited SCP, and even more for projects that are more ambitious in scope and complexity. The work is to be theoretically informed and use of research in its execution is expected. This is demonstrated by use, explanation, and citation of appropriate sources. The greater goal of this SCP component is to provide the student enough flexibility to accomplish many different kinds of written work, but not so much that the student produces something not appropriate to the discipline or to the spirit of the assignment. It must be academic and research-driven, and accompanied by a list of works cited. Each SCP instructor uses his or her own rubric to evaluate the written work, and provides the grade for the assignment. However, it is common practice for the SCP instructor to ask the other members of the particular student's SCP Committee to provide an assessment of the work to him or her. These assessments tend to be informal and global, and are advisory in nature. The SCP instructor provides the final grade on the written work.

Applied Learning Experience. The Applied Learning Experience (ALE) is an applied, professional experience appropriate to the communication studies discipline and work and careers associated with it. The goal of the ALE is to provide a student with an opportunity to put his or her disciplinary knowledge and skillsets to work at a job of some kind. In execution the specifics of any particular ALE vary widely. Over the years, students have taken part in traditional internships, missionary experiences, job-shadowing, and other kinds of work with businesses, non-governmental organizations, charities, churches, schools, and other entities.

Final Presentation. Final presentations are scheduled for the final exam period for the COMS 4971/4972 course sequence. Because both courses are taught during the same time period, by the same instructor, this allows students from both courses to attend the presentations. Communication Studies faculty also attend, and those who do so are expected to assess the presentations using a
common rubric. The goals for this assignment include ability to describe, apply, and synthesize disciplinary knowledge in a formal presentational context. Content includes theories and concepts relevant to the communication studies discipline, presentation of the major writing assignment, description and analysis of aspects of the ALE, and conceptual linkage of the "academic" and "applied" components. Successful students are able to express and explain knowledge of the discipline, and make connections between the literature referenced in the References page and the ALE. Finally, students' presentational skills are assessed, and this assessment may include all aspects of formal speech, their use of visual aids, professional dress and demeanor, and ability to respond substantively and collegially to questions about their work, among other things. The student should present him- or herself as someone who has mastery both of disciplinary knowledge and of the spoken word, and who can respond clearly, substantively, and respectfully to audience inquiries.

SCP Advisor Assessment. The last assessment is the SCP instructor's overall assessment of the student's work ethic, professionalism, and so forth in meeting the goals of the course. This allows the instructor of record to evaluate aspects of students' work that might not be apparent on the other assignments. It includes things like attendance, timely submission of written work, adherence to work plan, professionalism both in the course itself and in the ALE, and other less tangible aspects of students' performance in the course. This assessment is worth up to 10% of the final grade for the COMS 4972 course.

Challenges and Course Corrections

Over the almost fifteen years this course has been taught, the Communication Studies track faculty have continued to develop the course, its components and its requirements. Much of this development has occurred over the last seven years, and has been accompanied by changes in departmental structure and leadership, as well as changes in how faculty in the Communication Studies track of the major collaborate in delivering and assessing the SCP requirement. As faculty teaching these courses have encountered challenges, they have been supported by other track faculty. Their experiences individually and collectively, have helped guide revision of the SCP's required courses, their components, and their assessment. In this section, several of these challenges will be explored.

Challenge 1: Student Writing Skills

While it may boggle the minds of students to find out that, yes, writing often is required in communication studies, faculty must nonetheless ensure that students take their development as writers seriously, and that they learn good writing processes and skill sets. This has been an area of great concern to the faculty, as it seemed that many students were not advancing in their skills, yet had earned decent grades in the upper-division required courses for the major.

Response. Initial revisions to the SCP requirement largely were driven by students' difficulties in completing the written components of the requirement. Once the option to complete an internship instead of a thesis emerged in 2006, many students migrated away from the writing requirement as much as was possible. Faculty responded by requiring that students complete internship-related journal entries requiring them to apply theory to their internship experiences and demonstrate the ability to synthesize conceptual and applied areas of learning into new academic knowledge. This approach persisted for several years, but ultimately was abandoned in favor of a more rigorous writing task, where students were required to conduct research and make more complex arguments based on that research. The journal format simply didn't allow for that level of complexity, and tended to result in scattershot applications of theory.

Faculty also responded by making changes to other required courses, in an attempt to provide students with more preparatory writing and to enhance their skills in the kinds of writing tasks they'd be expected to demonstrate in the SCP. This process has been ongoing for several years now, and the quality of
student writing has improved somewhat. Other changes in the department's requirements for Core Curriculum Area F also should have an impact, but those are so new that it's hard to tell their effects on student writing outcomes.

**Challenge 2: Common Faculty Benchmarks for Outcomes**

It has been somewhat difficult to maintain consistency of benchmarks for student outcomes for the SCP requirement, both because of constant development of the requirement and because of individual faculty members' differing assessments of the work. While everyone might agree that students should be able to make a synthetic argument using theory, what a "good" argument might contain, look or sound like, depends on the faculty member making the evaluation. Different faculty members' assessments of the same assignments (e.g., writing and presentations) have varied, sometimes dramatically. This makes it difficult to have confidence in the results of assessments as reliable or valid measures of student outcomes. Similarly, it has at times created situations where faculty were required to decide whether or not marginal students in the courses would pass the requirement, and, if not, whether to require retaking the entire course or remediation of one or more components of it.

**Response.** The most important part of the faculty response to this cluster of concerns has been post-assessment discussions of the course and its requirements. It's been incredibly important for individual faculty members to have some self-awareness about how they assess particular requirements, and to understand how other faculty might assess the same requirements differently. Discussion of such differences seems, early on, to have led Communication Studies faculty to at least be concerned about what a common standard for assessment might look like. It also has led to changes in how both course SCP instructors and SCP committee members contribute to the overall process of grading in the courses. This has been especially true in cases when students were required to remediate SCP requirements.

While it would be nice if every student was equally successful in meeting SCP course requirements, this has not been the case. Each year's SCP experience has included failures to satisfy particular parts of the course requirements. These are not cases where the student clearly has failed the course, but more marginal cases where a student may not, for example, have included enough disciplinary knowledge in the Final Presentation. In cases where that failure has caused their overall grades to drop below the passing "C" level, students have been allowed to remediate the requirement via oral or written exams. In such cases, all SCP faculty have worked together, first to determine if such remediation was appropriate to the given case, then to determine a means of remediation to address the shortcoming, and finally to work together to assess the remedial work. In such cases, the student who is successful in remediating the requirement gets a (barely) passing grade for the final course, and is not required to retake it the next semester. In other cases, it has been determined that remediation is not appropriate, or that the quality of remedial work has been so poor that the student would have to repeat the course. In still other cases, other factors impacted students' ability to finish the SCP with a passing grade. Those will be addressed next.

**Challenge 3: Student Self-sabotage**

One particularly difficult challenge to teaching this course is that some students seem to go out of their ways to engage in self-sabotage. This self-sabotage includes things like procrastination, "stopping out" of class, academic dishonesty, and other issues. Some students have simply disappeared from class, never to return. Some have failed to complete required components of the SCP. Some have attempted to use academically dishonest means to satisfy requirements. The permutations of and reasons for self-sabotage are too many to cover in this essay. Nonetheless, student self-sabotage has been a constant feature of the SCP requirement. It is to be expected just as much or more so as in other academic classes. In additional, the SCP's status as a terminal assessment can create additional pressures on the students completing its requirements. The numbers of students self-sabotaging are significant enough that faculty have made a variety of changes to the SCP in response.
Response. In responding to the issue of procrastination, faculty have built into the SCP a variety of earlier milestones (e.g., annotated bibliographies, meetings with SCP Committee members, early drafts of written work) to ensure that students are working persistently to complete their work. This approach has helped immensely in curbing casual procrastination. However, some students have continued to self-sabotage, especially by simply “stopping out” of the class, not turning in work, and simply not completing the work during that semester. Some students get “F” grades in the course, some withdraw failing, and some take incomplete grades. Depending on the outcome, some students may have to repeat the course.

These are challenging cases for faculty, because the SCP is supposed to demonstrate, in part, that the student is capable of working independently to accomplish the course requirements. However, there’s a difference between “independent” and “completely unguided.” The growing number of students in the Communication Studies track has given its faculty the ability to field the SCP as a real, in-classroom course. Faculty have moved toward increasing the requirement for regular attendance at the SCP course, to attention on progress in satisfying SCP requirements, to simply having a critical mass of student peers in the same class, all working on different projects. This provides a better “shared experience” that makes it more difficult for students who are struggling to fade into the background and, thus, get lost.

Some instructors also have begun incorporating less formal writing and presentation assignments into the classroom-based format. This not only gives students experience it also ensures that they are moving constantly in the right direction to pass the course requirements. It becomes, as a result, increasingly difficulty not only to fall behind, but also for that fact to go unremarked. It’s difficult to tell at this point to what extent such strategies have been successful in promoting successful completion of the SCP requirements, but early results show some improvement. More importantly, the experience of dealing with such cases has helped faculty to get better at addressing them quickly and in a consistent manner.

There have also been some cases of student self-sabotage so severe that it has proven impossible for some students to complete the requirements. Some students literally have dropped out of school instead of completing this single course. Some have engaged in academic dishonesty ranging from common plagiarism to falsified internships. Such cases are difficult for students, but also for faculty. In most cases, the main burden falls on the SCP instructor to resolve them, especially academic dishonesty cases. However, other faculty and their experiences have been important resources for addressing these concerns. As the faculty have gained more and more institutional memory regarding the course, how it is taught, and how we adapt to particular kinds of circumstances, they also have become more adept at responding without need to "reinvent the wheel." The sheer number of experiences shared by the faculty has made the course easier for them to teach; this also has helped to make the course less mysterious to students who, themselves, are accumulating a body of common knowledge about the course and how to succeed in completing its requirements.

Challenge 4: The Unexpected

Life happens to all of us, and the SCP is not insulated from the variety of things that can throw a student off course. Some students have had health and family concerns, others have had to make mid-course corrections to things like internship selection, focus of project, and other things, simply because there were unforeseen difficulties in accomplishing the SCP as-designed. This provides unusual challenges for the SPC instructor who must work with student and faculty to refine or remake a particular student's project.

Response. Typically, this has been addressed on a case-by-case basis. The SCP Advisor for the project usually assesses the situation by communicating with the student. This can be difficult because some students are reluctant to reveal something that smacks of failure. The faculty have tried to address this sort of thing by increasing the number of checkpoints at which the SCP Advisor can
determine the student is not progressing well, by having more classroom-based meetings such that students are more broadly aware of others' progress on SCP, and by incorporating additional, ungraded assessments along the way (e.g., "progress report" presentations, drafts of written work, etc.).

**Challenge 5: Making the "Applied" Experience Work**

In earlier iterations of the SCP, there was no Applied Learning Experience (ALE). The Communication Studies track faculty determined relatively early on that an applied experience could be an important part of a SCP requirement. A variety of issues emerged as faculty worked to incorporate more "real world" experiences into the SCP. First, there were concerns about what kinds of applied learning experiences would be accepted as satisfying the SCP requirement. Then, there were concerns about how long the applied experience should take. Later, once the internship style ALE became an option, it also took on the reputation as the "easy" way to complete the SCP, as the writing required for internships was relatively limited in scope and simple in structure. Students tended to do the internship instead of the thesis option. Finally, because of institutional internship rules, faculty have had to establish memoranda of understanding with businesses and other organizations with whom the students would satisfy the required "applied" component of the SCP. All of these circumstances have required the faculty to continue to adapt the ALE to meet student, curricular, institutional, and other needs and requirements.

**Response**: Over the last few years, faculty have revised the ALE component to ensure both quality and consistency in student outcomes. There has been increased focus on ensuring that ALE are appropriate for Communication Studies track students. That is, the ALE provide students with sufficient experience related to practical communication skills. Also, the time required has been set at a minimum of 50 hours. While students are free to devote more hours should they choose to do so, the minimum requirement ensure that they get enough "time on task" to benefit from the experience. The most significant change, though, has been moving away from the "journal" writing requirement for ALE. This has ensured that every student is required to demonstrate the same written communication outcomes (described in the Response to Challenge 1, above), no matter what option is chose to complete the other components. The department chair and Communication Studies faculty have worked to establish better relationships with the campus Career Center to develop relationships with high-quality ALE sites, and to establish institutionally required MOU with those organizations. Finally, the faculty agreed recently to expand the types of experiences allowable as ALE. While the internship experience is still prominent among ALE options, the list of viable ALE now includes things like job-shadowing experiences, missionary work, and other sorts of applied experience in communication.

**Benefits of SCP**

Despite, or perhaps because of, the challenges faculty have faced in creating the current SCP requirement for Communication Studies track students, the process has become more structured and more uniformly applied. It has at the same time been developed to provide flexibility to both students and instructors. The continued development of the SCP courses also has led to a variety of indirect benefits for the Communication Studies program as a whole.

**Benefit 1: Data on Student Outcomes**

One of the most important benefits of a well-developed and comprehensive SCP is the ability for faculty to collect program data on student outcomes. Faculty actively are assessing a variety of student skills and knowledge and incorporating that knowledge in their approaches, not only to the SCP courses but also to other major requirements that prepare students for the SCP. While this data is useful in and of itself because it reveals information about how well the program is accomplishing its goals, it also can provide evidence of compliance with departmental and institutional goals and mission.
Benefit 2: Communication about Student SCP Outcomes

Wrestling with the complications caused by earlier iterations of the SCP has forced Communication Studies faculty to examine what they teach, how, where and when they teach it, and how they assess it. Initially, for example, the focus on writing skills (or lack thereof) was related to student performance in the SCP courses. However, discussion very quickly became concerned with why the other required courses in the major were not helping students to develop the specific writing skills they would need in the SCP courses. As a result Communication Studies track faculty have paid increased attention to other upper-level courses in the track, and even to work with the other tracks in the major to create a new, writing-intensive course at the 2000 level in Area F of the department's core curriculum requirements. Though it's still too early to declare victory in this case, increased attention on writing across the departmental and track curricula should help to improve student outcomes. Also, such emphasis should demonstrate to students that the department and track are very serious about writing, and that it is a Big Deal. It is the hope of the faculty that students will be encouraged to spend more attention and time on developing their writing skills.

Benefit 3: Professionalization

The final benefit to be explored is the development of professional habits and attitudes on the part of students completing the SCP requirement. While instructors already tend to touch upon these topics as early as the first public speaking course, and they are also emphasized in the upper-division requirements for the Communication Studies track, it is during the SCP experience that students really get full exposure to professionalism as a course requirement. While some elements of this are fairly obvious in other courses (e.g., the requirement that students actually attend class and turn in their work), in the SCP these requirements take on a more personal tone. It's not simply that you turn in an assignment because the teacher requires it. In this case it's your assignment, that you designed, and that you agreed to fulfill according to a schedule set with your instructor. It's a much more personalized course of study than those encountered in previous courses, and requires that students think seriously about themselves as executors of their SCP and as communicators about them. That is, it's their work and they are required to "own" it for better or worse, to be able to understand and communicate about it, and to take responsibility for their completion of it.

Along with this sense of ownership is the sort of professional development that comes from their interactions with both SCP faculty and the various professionals with whom they work on the Applied Learning Experience. This brings a different sort of attention to students' efforts. This is not simply about what they accomplish with their work, though that certainly is important. It's also about how they accomplish it. This "how" relates to professional conduct and demeanor, dependability and punctuality, and other qualities we associate with quality employees and colleagues. The importance of this benefit cannot be overstated. It is important that students learn to take themselves and their work seriously, and that they are successful in getting others to take them and their work seriously, as well. In many cases, it seems like this is something that holds students back: They have a hard time seeing themselves as professionals. The SCP attempts to help them bridge the gap between being a student and being a professional. While it is certainly true that outcomes will vary, it is much better to require such outcomes than not to do so.

Conclusion

In the past fourteen years, Communication Studies faculty in the Department of Communications at Georgia Regents University have developed a robust Senior Capstone Project requirement for the their track's majors. While the administration of the SCP requirement has resulted in a variety of challenges to be confronted by students and faculty alike, responding to those challenges has improved design and delivery of the SCP courses. The current version of the requirement is a two-course sequence spanning the student's final year in school, and requires each student to accomplish a major writing project, to present original work to instructors and peers, and to complete an Applied Learning
Experience. Completing the SCP helps students to further develop writing and speaking outcomes, as well as to become more aware of the demands of the professional workplace and the habits and attitudes characteristic of successful professionals. Attention to the SCP requirement also has allowed Communication Studies faculty to create more explicit connections between desired student outcomes and specific required courses where those outcomes might be developed in preparation for the SCP experience. The focus on these outcomes, while they not the only thing about which faculty are concerned, allows for the production of useful data for program assessment and provides faculty with tools for assessing teaching and assessment in the SCP and other required courses, among other benefits. Future development of this course will most likely require fewer changes to course content and delivery, and will probably be driven by assessment data from the course and from exit interviews with graduates of the program.
Cross-Cultural Comparisons of the Portal News Consumption Motives and Behavioral Outcome:
A Survey Approach
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Beom J. Bae, Ph.D. Georgia Southern University
Jiyun Kim, Florida State University

Abstract

Considering the important role of web portals as major news sources, this study aimed to understand online newsreaders’ use of interactive features in online news source websites in Korea and the United States. Employing a survey research method, the study tried, first, to identify and compare motives of using web-portals as news sources between two countries; second, to identify and compare interactive behavioral outcomes between two countries; third, to investigate correlation between the motives and behavioral outcomes. A couple of principal component factor analyses revealed four factors of online news source use (habitual use, casual information seeking, Quality information seeking, interpersonal utility) and three factors of interactive behavioral outcome (reader-message interaction, reader-editor interaction, reader-reader interaction). Motives and behavioral outcomes were compared by using a series of independent t-tests.

Introduction

In the last decade, the Internet and all its features have grown as a medium and a lot of news stories are consumed online. According to Pew Research Center for the People & the Press (2010) more than one third (37%) which is equivalent to 55% of the internet users, of Americans regularly consume online news. In addition, one third of Americans watch news programs or video clips online either regularly or sometimes. Those numbers show the popularity of Internet for news consumption. Among the variety of websites, web portals such as Yahoo and MSN are reported to be major news sources (Pew Research Center for the People & the Press, 2010). Thus, the web portals’ role as news sources is getting more important as more people consume news on the web.

One of the main reasons of the Internet use is its interactivity. The Internet users are information consumers rather than passive recipients. The interactivity is the function that facilitates the users’ roles as active information consumers. This study is to extend the understanding of internet use motives to the web portal consumption as news source.

Also, there are plenty intercultural studies for online news sites and corporate websites. Most of the studies show consistent suggestions: because eastern culture is collectivistic, the websites provide interactive features that can facilitate ‘within consumer relationship.’ And because western culture is individualistic, the interactive features focus on the message directed function. Most of the intercultural studies, if not all, are, however, focused on the intercultural differences of interactive features in commercial, news, government and educational websites rather than how consumers use the interactive features.

Therefore, the goals of the current study are
1. Identify the motives of using the web-portals for major news source,
2. And compare the motives between two cultures (the U.S. and Korea)
3. Identify the use of interactive feature (we will name it as behavioral outcome)
4. Compare the behavioral outcome between two cultures
Motives of Using the Internet
Motives of media consumption have been studied in various media context. Uses and gratification model has been used to explain for media uses patterns. To summarize the uses and gratifications model,

1. The media consumers use media to satisfy their social/psychological needs,
2. And therefore, they are active and goal oriented media user rather than a recipient.

Since the introduction of the theory to the public, this model has been used to identify motives of the various media use: mostly TV, however it expands to radio, newspaper and etc. In 2000, Papacharissi and Rubin applied the Uses and Gratification to the internet use motives and it can be summarized as Interpersonal utility, Passing idle time, Seeking information, For convenience, entertainment. In this study, we follow the tradition of UG research to figure out the Web-portal news use motives.

Interactivity
The use of interactive feature is conceptually defined as behavioral outcome in the current study. As aforementioned, there are generous amount of research to analyze the interactive feature of websites. Even though the current study aims to analyze the users’ behavior based on their self-reporting data, it was beneficial for us to investigate how previous studies have defined the interactivity and categorize those features.

Scholars tried to categorize the interactive features in various perspectives. Over the 3 decades, interactivity might be one of the most controversial concepts in mass communication. There is little agreement on defining this concept.

The initial attempt to define the interactivity concept was made by Heeter (1989). According to Heeter, interactivity can be found by measuring complexity of choice, the effort users exert, responsiveness to the user, monitoring information use, ease of adding information, facilitation of interpersonal utility. McMillan (2002) used three dimensional approach: no delay, real-time conversation, and engaging. A number of scholars regrouped the interactivity features into human to human and human to message interactions (Ariel, 1998; Ha & James, 1998; Cho & Leckenby, 1999). More recently, Cho and Cheon (2005) modified the 2 dimensional definition and developed these 3 interactive features from intercultural studies on corporate websites content analysis. The current study found the consumer — message, consumer-marketer, and consumer-consumer interactivity approach is best fit to the model of the current study. We eventually adopted and modified these interactivity features and categorized our behavioral outcomes as reader-message, reader-editor, and reader-reader interactivities.

Cultural Differences in Internet use
Another aspect we should consider was intercultural element. Starting from Hofstede in 1980s, communications scholars especially, organizational communication scholars have been interested in the analysis of cultural differences.

It has been consistently reported that eastern culture shows more collectivistic, high contextual (implicit communication style) and strong power distance whereas western culture shows more individualistic, low contextual (explicit communication style) and weak power distance. (Cho et al., 1999; Cho & Cheon, 2005; Cutler et al., 1997; Fernandez et al., 1997; Frith & Sengupta, 1991).

Reflecting the intercultural studies, the current study suggests following research questions and hypotheses:
Regarding motives and cultural differences:
RQ 1: What are the motives of using web portals as news sources?
RQ 2: Are there cultural differences in web portal use motives?
Regarding behavioral outcome and cultural differences;
H1: The U.S. web portal users use more reader-message interactive functions
than Korean users.
H2: The U.S. web portal users use more reader-editor interactive functions than Korean users.
H3: Korean web portal users use more reader-reader interactive functions than the U.S. users.

Method

Self-administered surveys were conducted in universities in the US and South Korea. We selected the US and South Korea as representations of western and eastern cultures respectively because prior studies consistently showed that the US valued individualism while South Korea valued collectivism (Cho et al., 1999). Total 443 participants completed online survey questionnaire (340 Americans and 103 Koreans).

The questionnaire consisted of three parts: demographics including gender and nationality, motives of using online news on web portals, and levels of using the interactive features.

Results

In response to RQ 1, a principal component factor analysis using the Varimax rotation was conducted. The analysis turns out 4 motives of using the news on web portals: habitual use, casual information seeking, quality information seeking and interpersonal utility (see appendix 1).

In response to RQ 2, four sets of independent t-test were conducted. According to the analyses, Koreans reported significantly higher score of following motives: habitual use; casual information seeking; and interpersonal utility. American users reported significantly higher score in quality information seeking motive (see appendix 2).

In order to respond to the hypotheses 1-3, the current study ran another factor analysis to figure out behavioral outcomes. Unlike content analysis studies, this study asked how often the web-portal news readers use provided interactivity features. As expected the analysis figured out 3 elements for the behavioral outcome: reader-message interaction; reader-editor interaction; reader-reader interaction (see appendix 3).

Hypotheses 1-3 expected cultural differences in behavioral outcomes. Three independent t-test showed that Koreans use reader-reader interactive feature significantly more than Americans do, and Americans use reader-editor, reader-message interactivity features more than Koreans do (see appendix 4).

Discussion

This study explored the uses of interactive features in online news contents on web portals. The study first attempted to identify motives of using the web portals for news source. As appendix 1 shows 4 items were identified as motives of the interest. The results are not exactly mirroring the previous researches. For example, the current factor analysis didn’t turn out an ‘entertainment’ motive as Papacharissi and Rubin’s (2000) internet motive research did. If we consider the nature of the study, it is expalainable. This study is not investigating the motives of general internet use. Rather it focuses on more active internet consumption: news reading. Relatively passive motive ‘entertainment’ may not play the role.
We found significant cultural differences of motives from a series of t-tests. Specifically, overall, Korean web-portal users showed stronger motives of habitual use, casual information seeking and interpersonal utility. The American users showed stronger motives of quality information seeking motive. Considering the cultural difference we discussed earlier, the findings resonate previous findings from the literature.

**Information seeking II: America > Korea**
As earlier studies suggested, low-contextual culture, American culture in this case, pursues more informative communication style. The result exactly reflects the theoretical suggestion. Americans use the portal site to look for better quality information, which is more information driven while Koreans are habitually and casually seeking the information.

**Interpersonal utility: America < Korea**
The phenomenon is also noteworthy. From the previous intercultural content analysis, scholars found that websites from collectivistic cultures provide interpersonal utility interactive features such as chatting rooms or discussion boards. The result shows that Korean users have stronger tendency to identify the group opinion. They are more likely to pay their attention to other users’ opinion on the discussion board and replies.

**Reader-Message behavioral outcome: America > Korea**
Hypotheses testing results revealed that behavioral outcomes reflect the cultural differences. In a low contextual culture, communicators look for explicit message which related to information seeking behavior by using the interactive functions of hyperlink uses and search function utilization.

**Reader-Editor behavioral outcome: America > Korea**
Western culture has been differentiated from the eastern counterpart with power distance. The horizontal relationship in Western culture encourages the American users to contact the news editors to seek more information or reflect their opinion. On the contrary, power distance in Korea forces to consider the editor as more power member of their relationship and accept the unequal power distribution (Cho & Cheon, 2005). As the consequence, Korean users are reluctant to directly communicate with the editor.

**Reader-Reader behavioral outcome: America < Korea**
As aforementioned, eastern culture is collectivistic where a communicator finds oneself as a member of a bigger community. In a collectivistic culture, communicators are more easily connected with their group members.

This study had a limitation related with the sample. The sample was college students, and it accounts for small amount of total online news consumers. They are not much different from other age groups in terms of the proportion of people consuming online news, but there could be a difference in their use of interactive features. Thus, it is recommended that future research include different age groups to test the main effect as well as moderating effect of age with other variables on the uses of interactive features.

**References**


### Appendix 1

**RQ 1: What are the motives of using web portals as news sources?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use the web-portal news ..........</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1. Habitual use</strong></td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• By habit</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To get rest while I work by the internet</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To idle time away</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because it is a news of an initially set portal site</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because portal news other than other media is enough to get information</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because it is a part of daily life</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2. Information seeking I (casual seeking)</strong></td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because photo or news title draw attention</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because news titles are interesting</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To get the information of current events or issues</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To get some information that I am looking for</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because portal site provide interesting news</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3. Information seeking II (quality news contents seeking)</strong></td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because news contents are rich and in depth</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Because I believe the objectivity or accuracy of news</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 4. Interpersonal utility</strong></td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To get to know others’ opinions from reply</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To get to know different perspectives of an issue in discussion forum</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 2

RQ 2. Are there cultural differences in web portal use motives?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives</th>
<th>Mean for the U.S. (SD)</th>
<th>Mean for Korea</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Habitual Use</td>
<td>3.80 (1.19)</td>
<td>4.95 (0.75)</td>
<td>258.5</td>
<td>11.477***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual information seeking</td>
<td>4.71 (1.17)</td>
<td>5.22 (0.72)</td>
<td>274.4</td>
<td>5.40***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality information seeking</td>
<td>3.70 (1.31)</td>
<td>3.18 (0.91)</td>
<td>242.0</td>
<td>-4.567***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Utility</td>
<td>3.58 (1.41)</td>
<td>4.15 (1.47)</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>3.50**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<0.01, ***p<0.001
Appendix 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1. Reader-Message interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Click link to watch video or listen audio news clip?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Click internal/external hyperlinks to see more information?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Use search functions to search for additional information?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 2. Reader-Editor interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• E-mail your opinion to the reporter or editor?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 3. Reader-reader interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Post your opinion in the reply functions of article?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4

H1: The U.S. web portal users use more reader-message interactive functions than Korean users.
H2: The U.S. web portal users use more reader-editor interactive functions than Korean users.
H3: Korean web portal users use more reader-reader interactive functions than the U.S. users.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives</th>
<th>Mean for the U.S. (SD)</th>
<th>Mean for Korea (SD)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reader-Message interaction</td>
<td>19.34 (25.00)</td>
<td>14.05 (28.32)</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>-1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader-Editor interaction</td>
<td>0.95 (6.06)</td>
<td>2.56 (5.59)</td>
<td>173.6</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader-Reader interaction</td>
<td>0.57 (2.5)</td>
<td>0.17 (0.72)</td>
<td>434.7</td>
<td>-2.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Georgia’s Agrarian Economy

The cotton gin, invented by Eli Whitney in 1793, separated cotton fiber from seeds. This splendid machine allowed heartier varieties of cotton to be planted, which substantially increased production of cotton in Georgia resulting in an increased need for slaves to harvest the crop (Cobb, 1996). By 1826, Georgia was the world’s leading producer of cotton with 150,000 bales produced which stimulated population growth. By 1859, at the peak of production, 701,840 bales of cotton were produced (Sullivan, 2003). By 1860, according to the United States Census, 592,000 Whites and 466,000 Blacks lived in Georgia. Although Georgia’s economy was dominated by the harvesting of cotton, Georgia did not build many cotton factories. Instead Georgians used the railroad to transport the crop to the port of Savannah and to the factories in the North. By 1861, Georgia had the best railway system of any southern state with 1,400 miles of track (Sullivan, 2003).

Pre-Civil War Georgia’s economy was fragile because it lacked diversification. As production of cotton increased the price dropped. Georgia’s cotton plantations relied on slavery to plant and harvest the cotton crop but needed factories in the North to purchase and process the crop (see Mitchell, 1921, for a more nuanced explanation of how cotton mills operated in the South).

The Gate City

Atlanta, once known as Marthasville, was incorporated in 1847. The population of Atlanta was less than 200 people when founded, but grew to about 8,000 by 1856 (Reed, 1889). The rapid growth of the city can be attributed to several factors. Among Marthasville few buildings was a railroad office. As the railroad lines in Georgia expanded, Atlanta became connected to Savannah to the east, Macon to the south, and the rest of the large cities of the South to the west. Atlanta was ideally located. It rested at the foot of a large mountain range, providing easy access from the northern coast to the west. Those same mountains provided precious minerals. The temperature was moderate, rainfall was abundant, and the rivers provided natural power. Because of its location, Atlanta came to be known as the Gate City to the South (see Martin, 1902).

The Battle of Atlanta

In the Battle of Atlanta in 1864, the city of Atlanta was shelled for 40 days, the major buildings were burned to the ground, the city’s infrastructure was destroyed, and the remaining population was given 5 days to leave (Brooks, 1914; Ecelbarger, 2010; Sullivan, 2003). On September 4, Federal troops took possession of the city, making use of some of the 450 houses that remained standing. Approximately 4,500 houses in the Atlanta area had been destroyed (Martin, 1902). The Battle of Atlanta was the last major battle of the Civil War--General Lee surrendered soon thereafter.

Reconstruction

A period of Reconstruction followed the Civil War, but the decades after the war were difficult for many Georgians. The slaves were formally freed in 1865, but the Ku Klux Klan terrorized African Americans and lynchings in Georgia were common. Crop production fell as both plantations and sharecroppers struggled to adjust to the new economic conditions. African Americans were elected to the legislature
during Reconstruction and many Blacks were registered to vote while federal troops oversaw the registration process. In 1868, the year the capital was moved from Milledgeville to Atlanta, Democrats ousted all but four of the Blacks who were elected to office. The black legislators were later reappointed, but soon thereafter forced out once again. Poll taxes eventually kept away most black voters (Cobb, 1996). Government corruption and commercial scandal shook investor confidence. These factors and others made any investment in Atlanta and the South seem risky. How did Atlanta, a city devastated by war and still suffering from its aftermath, change its image and manage to become the capital of the South?

Henry Grady and the New South

Henry Grady was born in Athens, Georgia, in 1850. His father, William, was a successful merchant who organized a cavalry company for the Confederate Army. William Grady started as a Captain and was soon promoted, but died on the battlefield (Turpin, 1969). Henry graduated from the University of Georgia in 1868 and then studied at the University of Virginia. He bought out several newspapers in Rome, which failed in a matter of months. He purchased an interest in the Atlanta Herald which folded. Having lost most all of his money, he traveled to New York out of desperation with $3.00 left in his pocket. Nonetheless, he managed to get a job writing about Southern politics for the New York Herald. Soon thereafter, using borrowed money, he bought an interest in the Atlanta Constitution and eventually became its editor. At the time, the paper had the largest circulation of any paper of its kind in the United States (Woodward, 1971, p. 147) (Grady wrote of this purchase in the Atlanta Constitution on April 18, 1880 which is reproduced in the 1969 book Atlanta and its Environs: A Chronicle of its People and Events 1880s-1930s by Franklin Garrett.)

Henry Grady was intensely interested in politics though he never ran for office. Nonetheless, he was involved in numerous philanthropic activities aimed at serving the public welfare. Grady was described by his friend, Joel Chandler Harris (1890), as an extremely gifted writer who had no malice toward anyone nor did he suffer from egotism. Grady seemed to know everyone and genuinely cared about people’s well-being. Soon after Grady’s death in 1889, Harris wrote that Grady was the “best beloved and the most deeply lamented man that Georgia had ever produced” (p. 12). Edna Turpin, writing in 1904, stated: “No man ever did more to upbuild and develop a section than did Mr. Grady to the South, desolated by war and ravaged by reconstruction misrule. His busy hand and brain were behind the success of the Atlanta fairs of 1880, 1886, and 1888” (p. 8). Grady was a relentless promoter of Atlanta and Georgia. He recognized the need to attract investment from the North. He understood that the only way to do so was to change the North’s perceptions of the South and give the South an aspiration vision of its future.

The Civil War was the bloodiest battle in American history, so the North would naturally be wary about forming partnerships with its former enemy. Although the fighting was over, the North had to wonder whether friendship was possible when wounds from the war were not fully healed. The North knew that the South had an economy rooted in agriculture—could the South expand its industrial base and diversify its economy? Investors from the North also had concerns about the South’s workforce. Could former slaves and their former masters live and work together? Would African Americans be granted the full rights of citizenship, especially the fundamental right to vote?

Henry Grady understood the North’s concerns. In the three speeches he gave during the last three years of his short life, he did not try to deny the North’s concerns, but neither did he suggest that the South would give up all its traditions. He spoke with pride in the South, which undoubtedly would make the South more attractive to investors than would portraying the South as the lodging of a vanquished enemy living in shame due to its transgressions. The “New South” was the concept he used to hinge his arguments upon. The idea that the south was “new” would attract attention as it does in any advertisement. The phrase tied in nicely with metaphorical images of the rebirth of the South rising from the ashes of the Civil War. More importantly, perhaps, the contrast between the old and new Souths
allowed Grady to define the differences in ways that would calm Northern investors’ fears while reassuring the people of the South that its basic way of life would remain intact as the South became prosperous once again. Grady’s speech entitled “The New South,” delivered at the New England Society of New York in 1886, attracted nationwide attention (see Brooks, 1913). Harris (1890) quoting Grady, indicated that the speech was intended to be a toast to the South but turned into an “impromptu” speech (more likely an extemporaneous speech) that “stirred the whole country from one end to the other, and made Mr. Grady famous” (p.16).

Grady (1910) began his speech by reaffirming the truth of a quotation he drew from Benjamin Hill (a fellow Georgian who spoke at Tammany Hall, the headquarters of the Democratic Party in New York City), who stated that the South of slavery and succession was dead and the South of the union and freedom is growing every hour. Opening the speech by recalling Hill’s words delivered in the same city twenty years before indicated to the audience that the Old South—the South of plantations and slavery died at the end of the Civil War. Through a story, he reminded the audience that the colonists--the Puritan and Cavalier--had different traditions and values, but became unified by becoming Americans during the Revolutionary War. Grady’s praise for Lincoln, as the man who “fused the virtues of both, and in the depths of his great soul, the faults of both were lost” (p. 28) gave the audience and the country the clear message that the New South bore no ill will toward the North, respected the people of the North, and sought to put the good of the country ahead of regional differences. Grady then attempted to evoke sympathy for the Southern soldiers by comparing what they faced upon returning home after the Civil War to what the Northern soldiers faced. The Confederate soldier after the Civil War, he stated reached home and

finds his house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barns empty, his trade destroyed, his money worthless, his social system, feudal in its magnificence, swept away; his people without law or legal status; his comrades slain, and the burden of others heavy on his shoulders (p. 30)

Rather than giving up, the South went back to work and rebuilt the social structure, making improvements for the benefit of both white and black. Later in the speech, Grady downplays the fighting, suffering, and loss in the Civil War and instead described the Civil War as an experience both North and South shared. Both North and South, he said, share hallowed ground which is “sacred soil to all of us” (p.40),” for both the victors and doubly so for the defeated. So, Grady addressed the first image problem that the New South faced-- whether the South was ready to bury the hatchet--by admitting the South was wrong to secede and that slavery was wrong; asking the North to consider the War from the perspective of the Southern Soldier who fought honorably for a cause that he honestly, if not mistakenly, believed in; and suggesting that Northerners and Southerners are all loyal to America.

In the second part of the “New South” speech, Grady (1910) turned his attention to what was called the “race problem.” Can the North invest in the South where equality is denied, unrest continues, and the workforce lacks education and training? The loss of the Civil War, Grady claimed, brought the recognition that slavery was wrong. However, Grady painted the picture with broader strokes, saying that the South itself was a slave to the plantation system. The Old South, he stated, “rested everything on slavery and agriculture, unconscious that these neither give nor maintain healthy growth” (p. 37). The New South, he argued, is now democratized, replacing the palaces of plantations with multiple homes. He supports his claim by noting the investments that have been made to educate Blacks. He describes the relations of the Southern people with the “negro” as being “close and cordial” (p. 35). He acknowledges a debt owed to the slaves who stayed to protect Southern women and children while the men were off fighting to keep them in slavery. One may conclude from this remark that Grady thought that the North’s perception of slavery was far worse than it really was as was the North’s perception of race relations as they existed as Grady spoke. “No section shows a more prosperous labor force than the negros of the South,” Grady claimed (p. 34). Grady reminded the Northern audience that their fathers in New England sold slaves to Southern ancestors, so the North had no right to be so critical
and should patiently allow the South to work on the problem. Grady’s solution to the “race problem” in this speech was in part a denial that the problem existed. Existing laws and the friendship of the Whites were all that was needed (together with faith and common sense) to solve the problem.

In his next major speech, entitled “The South and Her Problems,” delivered in Dallas at the Texas State Fair, Grady (1910) talked in greater detail about the “race problem” and then discussed what he calls the “industrial problem.” He took a more personal approach in this speech noting that “he had no better friend than the black boy who was raised by his side” (p. 46). He recalled his mammy singing him to sleep while holding him in her arms. He argued, in effect, that a bond that the North cannot fully understand, existed between the races. The “race problem,” he suggested in this speech was two-fold. First, Grady assumed that “the white race is the superior race” (p. 53). The differences between the races reflected God’s will who ordained that the Anglo-Saxon race should dominate the other races as has been the case historically. Grady concluded that the two races can only be treated equally in some respects. The fear underlying Grady’s argument was that Blacks would come to dominate state politics if allowed to vote. The numbers of Whites and Blacks were nearly equal at this time. During Reconstruction, many Blacks held political office, but in 1877, a poll tax had to be paid to vote in Georgia. While Grady talked of the harmony between the races, he failed to mention the legalized discrimination and the extra-legal terrorism that existed in Georgia (Cobb, 1996). Grady bolstered his argument by igniting the hatred some felt for other races toward “Indians” and the Chinese who suffered far worse at the hands of people from both the North and the South. Second, he argued, the race problem, could be reduced in time. The interests of both races were identical, but since freedom came so fast for the slaves, the result was a poorly education Black population whose votes would be rooted in ignorance or purchased by unscrupulous politicians. He spoke of General Sherman’s warning that if the Negro vote is not counted “you will have another war, more cruel than the last” (p. 59) to which Grady replied “careless as he was twenty years ago with fire, he is even more careless now with his words” (p. 59). His speech, delivered to audience in Texas, not one in the North, boiled down to the view that as Blacks should come to respect the superiority of the White race, and will then acquiesce White governance. This governance, Grady noted, will be based on the justice, friendship and tenderness that the Whites have traditionally felt for the Blacks. His patronizing view was that the Whites should give every civic and political right that the “strong should always accord the weak” (p. 61). It is difficult to image that this line of reasoning helped to convince fair-minded Northerners to invest in the South though we must remember that neither prejudice, nor segregation, nor extremist hate groups were restricted to the southern states. Grady asked for patience, arguing that time will prove him right if there is no interference from the federal government.

In the second half of the “Problems of the South” speech addressed the industrial problem, Grady began by evoking sympathy for the soldier-farmer of 1865 who worked hard without complaint and enabled to South to rebuild. The New South still produces large amounts of cotton even though it had to survive the past effects of the Civil War and the new international competition. Grady provided statistics suggesting a more diversified southern economy. He spoke of the production of iron, coal, wood and food staples, often comparing states in the South’s output to the state of Texas, northern states and other countries. He blamed slavery for preventing off manufacturing to take hold in the South. Near the end of the speech, he described a wounded soldier who was told by a doctor that if he lived to see tomorrow’s sundown he would survive. The soldier’s willpower and thoughts of his home and family kept him alive. God, Grady said, is the South’s physician, calling on the South to make it through today’s hard times to see a prosperous future.

The last speech Henry Grady ever gave was entitled “The Race Problem in the South,” and was delivered at the Boston Merchants’ Association Annual Banquet in 1889. Grady toned down his rhetoric but used some of the same strategies. He began by praising New England, evoking its rich Revolutionary War heritage. He then compared the South with its “brave and hospitable people,” its “perfect climate,” multiple crops, boundless treasures and natural resources to El Dorado. He questioned why so little was invested by New England in the South and why so few immigrate to the
South when New England has more workers than it needs. Today’s barrier to progress in the South, he suggested, was the “race problem.” He made the same basic argument he made in his speech in Texas, but in a somewhat more sophisticated manner. Grady argued that no two races have ever gotten along. He reminded people of what happened to the red and yellow races. He knows that the Black race should be treated differently, presumably because they were enslaved and are citizens of the United States. But the South, he stated, has firmly committed to attempt to do what has never been accomplished before--to have two races live together in peace on the same land with equal rights. He argued that the South is making progress and the North needs to be patient about social equality.

Henry Grady reassured his audience that the workforce is strong. Grady argued that in 25 years since the slaves were freed, they now own more than $10 million dollars worth of property in Georgia. The South, even though it has less money than the North, returned a higher percentage to Black schools. He suggested the problem is more a matter of perception than reality, noting that Blacks and Whites work side by side in the fields. Grady admitted that some jobs, like teaching at white universities, were closed to Blacks justifying this by saying, “we hold it better to tend the weeds in the garden than to water the exotic in the window” (p. 204). He pointed out that there are successful Blacks who were editors, lawyers, and doctors. In addition, he offered statistics that reflect a lower percentage of Blacks in Southern jails than in Northern jails. Grady admitted that violence occurs in the South, but argued that it is portrayed differently than the same violence would be if it occurred in the North. He admitted that the Blacks were not free to vote, but claimed this was necessary because uneducated Black men would cast a united vote based upon their memories of enslavement against the interest of Whites. He questioned the fairness of elections in other states, and warned that the federal government should never again be allowed to interfere in the voting of a free state. “Never, sir,” he stated, “will a single state of this Union, North or South, be delivered again to the control of an ignorant and inferior race” (p. 213). He ended with a call for patience, talked of his love for the Black race, and pled for the North to send its (Anglo-Saxon) sons to the South. Grady was sick when he gave this speech and died a few days later from pneumonia.

Grady’s speeches, especially the first one delivered in New York City, were well received in the North. He may have altered some opinions about the South, but had problems he side stepped were far more serious than Grady let on. Although his solution to the “race problem” was fundamentally flawed, his speeches set the stage for more tangible proof that the South was ready to develop its industries and strengthen its commercial ties to the North and the rest of the world. Henry Grady was one of the main architects of the first two expositions held in Atlanta, and he promoted them relentlessly through articles published in the Atlanta Constitution. He died before the grandest fair of them all, the International Cotton States Exposition, but his image was engraved on the souvenir coin purchased by many of the approximately one million people who attended.

Atlanta’s Expositions

The Cotton States Exposition was held at Oglethorpe Park in 1881. The fair had 1,113 exhibits (Reed, 1889). The main building was shaped like a cotton factory. The fair was limited in scope, focusing mainly on cotton and the textile industry, although other products such as rice, sugar and tobacco were showcased. Stephen Prince (2008) argues that the New South was born at the opening ceremonies. Hundreds of thousands visited the fairgrounds, coming largely by the railroad, which promoted travel to fairs across the country. Due to Henry’s Grady’s daily reports, word of splendor of the fair and the city of Atlanta was spread across the country by sympathetic reporters living in other cities. This was something the South could take pride in not soon after the end of the Civil War. It reflected the desire to reach out to the North and develop a greater industrial base. Cotton was the attraction, but the fact that Atlanta could pull off being host to the fair undoubtedly enhanced the image of the South in the minds of many.
Six years later, Atlanta hosted the Piedmont Exposition. Henry Grady, a member of the Piedmont Driving Club, was a vice-president of the Exposition Company. The main building was quite large and had two stories. This fair promoted the natural resources of the Piedmont region. Garrett (1969) stated that Henry Grady pursued the fair with the “fervor of an evangelist” since the “project coincided perfectly with his ‘New South’ idea” (p. 29). The fair had 1113 exhibits including exhibits by seven foreign countries. The opening day ceremony and the visit by President Grover Cleveland were the highlights of the fair. General Sherman also visited, stating “I have come today to look upon these buildings where once we had battlefields...we are now in a position to say, every one of us, great and small, Thank God we are American citizens (Garrett, 1969, p. 33). When the general of the Northern army who was responsible for the destruction of Atlanta can return to the city he ordered shelled and walk about freely while praising the South’s work as being the product of America’s efforts, the New South is more than just an idea. The fair attracted the attention of the nation and enhanced Atlanta’s image as a center of commerce.

The 1895 International Cotton States Exposition held again on the grounds of Piedmont Park, came on the heels of the Chicago World’s Fair. Henry Grady was no longer on hand to promote the event, but the Exposition was the culmination of his idea of the New South, highlighting the virtues of the region for investment, not only from the North, but from around the world. The fair addressed the “race problem” in a way that showed the weakness of his rationalizations. The fair was the site of what came to be known as the “Atlanta Compromise” speech by Booker T. Washington, who spoke at the opening day ceremonies to a crowd of mixed races. In the speech, Booker T. Washington argued that the two races had to learn to trust one another, using the metaphor of a ship crew fearing to draw salt water from the ocean when urged to do so by another group who knew that the ship was anchored at the mouth of a fresh water river. “Cast your buckets down where you are!” those from land shout repeatedly to the crew. Once trust is established, Booker T. Washington suggested Blacks and Whites can work together: “In all things that are purely social, we can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.” A former slave and the founder of the Tuskegee Institute, Washington argued that Blacks needed to focus on education and economic progress before striving for equal rights. The message was similar to Grady’s although Washington’s motivation may have come from a desire to preserve his race given the extant violence against Blacks than from any kind of acknowledgment that his race was inferior. His speech was well received and congratulations were telegraphed from across the country. After some reflection, however, some members of the black community challenged his speech for accommodating racism rather than striving for equality.

The 1895 International Cotton States Exposition was by far the most ambitious event in Atlanta’s history. It lacked Henry Grady promotional skills, but at least two books were written to promote Atlanta and the fair. One book was by Margaret Severance (1895) entitled the Official Guide to Atlanta including Information of the Cotton States and International Exposition where she describes in words and provides pictures revealing the natural advantages of the city while praising its transportation, banking, manufacturing, and educational systems. The other, issued by the City Council, was entitled A Few Points in 1895 about Atlanta. This small book highlighted the strengths of the city as many Chambers of Commerce do today.

To encourage the North to invest in the South, the Cotton States and International Exhibition used many strategies. For example, it showed that the Civil War was nothing more than a powerful memory. A building dedicated to remembering the Civil War, Confederate Hall, was constructed. Northern troops dressed in uniform marched on the fairgrounds. A day was set aside, the Blue and Gray Day, for a reunion of Confederate and Union veterans, where the “North and South could reconcile by trumpeting the heroism of both sides” (Perdue, 2010, p. 50). New York, Pennsylvania, Connecticut and Illinois paid to build buildings on the fairgrounds (see Jones, 2010) and each state had special days set aside in its honor, Tourists from those states were encouraged to attend and take part in the festivities on their special days. The message to the North was clear: you are welcome to come to Atlanta—the past is not forgotten but it is remembered with pride rather than anger. The Liberty Bell traveled to Atlanta and was
displayed at the exposition. It symbolized the loyalty Southerners felt toward the Union. The message to the northern visitors was that the Old South which tried to secede from the Union died on the battlefield of the Civil War.

The Cotton States and International Exposition was also a monument to social progress. The fair was the first to host a building designed by Elise Mercur and financed, decorated and managed by women. The building contained among other things, art by women, artifacts, canned goods, textiles and a library filled with books written only by women. More controversially, the exposition was the first to have a building dedicated to African Americans. It was called the "negro building." At its entrance stood a statue of a slave whose chains were broken, but were still attached to his body. The message to the South was clear. Those from the North could interpret this as a sign that African Americans were permitted to speak out against ongoing injustices. Apparently, African Americans were allowed to work in this building as curators of the exhibits, but were not generally permitted free access to the rest of the fairgrounds.

The fair also promoted Atlanta as a technologically advanced city. The Electricity Building lit up the buildings at night. One hundred fifty feet tall pictures of wheat sheaves, lilies, and curtains were projected onto the spray of a water fountain in the middle of Lake Clara Meer (Jones, 2010). Inside the exhibition buildings, especially the Manufacturing and Liberal Arts Building, exhibits testified to the progress of mankind. The Transportation Building featured trains, bicycles and numerous other forms of transportation. Machinery Hall provided a tribute to the engine. Technology and art went hand in hand at the fair, with a Fine Arts building housing masterpieces from New York, Philadelphia and European countries. Shakespearean plays were performed regularly to entertain those staying at nearby hotels. The message to the North was that the South was not only a place for investment; it was a good place to live.

The Cotton States and International Exposition attracted close to a million visitors. Stories about the exposition appeared in newspapers and magazines across the country. The current and a former President of the United States visited. The Phoenix Wheel towered above the midway, taking visitors nearly 200 feet high, where they could bear witness to the grandeur of the buildings found on the 189 acre fairground.

After the Exposition

The population of Atlanta more than doubled from 1900 to 1920 (when the population was 200,616). The population of the region in 1920 exceeded 600,000. Despite Georgia’s inability to adequately address the “race problem,” Grady’s vision of the New South had the power to inspire Southerners to work hard and Northerners to reevaluate their impressions. Although Grady’s vision was imperfect and some of the flaws of the vision of the New South remain today, it was an important part of the picture of how Atlanta could rise Phoenix-like from the ashes of the Civil War to grow to become a metropolis with more than 5 million people. The Gate City is no longer an apt name because it is the destination as the capital of the South.

References


The Observation of the “Them” and the “Us” During My Study Abroad in Ireland
Sylvia Allen, Georgia Regents University

Abstract
The purpose of my research was to examine the nature of discrimination across cultures. Specifically, I sought to explain why Irish Travellers are considered a cultural minority in Ireland and whether the experience of Travellers was similar to or different from that of America’s most prominent minority, African Americans. My research is grounded in “in-group/out-group” theory, which explains how “them” and the “us” attitudes develop and influence social groups. My project used this theory to analyze the socio-cultural aspects of Ireland’s relationship to its Traveller community. The project was informed by my experience as an African American. My research was carried out during a Study Abroad trip to Ireland.

My methodology focused on conducting interviews with non-Traveller Irish, Irish Travellers, and non-government officials tasked with serving the Traveller community. The results were surprising to me. I had not expected Travellers to be experience such harsh discrimination. My research discovered that the basis of discrimination against Travellers is their lifestyle and the way they dress, as well as transmitted cultural norms. The people of Ireland prejudged the Travellers based on what they have been taught, their influence from others and how different the Travellers looked from them. This is also true of the discrimination of African Americans in the United States. Most people are unwilling to give a cultural group an opportunity to prove they are not the minority, but an individual, and this study found an explanation for that behavior in in-group/out-group theory. Further, the research demonstrated that the theory seems to apply across cultures.

Explanation of In-Group/Out-Group Theory as it relates to “Them” and “Us”

In the U.S., the dominant majority, or in-group, has traditionally treated ethnic and cultural minorities as out-groups, and this distinction has often been racially or ethnically based. I am interested in how the in-group/out-group theory would apply in a society where those sorts of physical distinctions do not exist. I had the opportunity to explore this question on a study abroad trip to Ireland the summer of 2012. The largest minority there is Travellers, who are also known as Tinkers. There are approximately 4,487,000 Irish people, of which 36,000 are Travellers. Irish Travellers look exactly like non-Travellers in that they have white skin, dress the same, and speak the same. The distinctions between Travellers and the rest of the Irish population are not obvious to the eye, making Ireland a perfect laboratory to explore my question.

Wilder wrote about the in-group/out-group theory in his article the Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. The in-group/out-group theory is a part of the larger theory of Social Identity.

Understanding one’s social identity can be difficult when it comes to being a part of an in-group or an out-group because everyone has different likes and dislikes and individuals generally migrate to those of similar interest. The in-group is more persuasive and powerful than the out-group and this in turn creates expectations of the in-group. The in-group is expected to act a certain way, do certain things, and not to mix with the out-group. When members of the in-group do not conform to these expectations, they are then considered members of the out-group.

Conversations I had with ordinary Irish People while in Ireland

My research was ethnographic in nature. It consisted of observation and interviews. During my stay in Ireland, I had the opportunity to stay at a hostel and meet many people from various countries such as,
Hungary, Germany, Poland, Australia and I listened to their views about the Travellers. They all had negative viewpoints about them. They described them as being rude, trashy, loud, and disruptive, and they disapprove of their marriage customs. I had a conversation with our bus driver Mick Flynn. He shared with me his dislike of the Travellers. Flynn had nothing good to say about them. His dislike was not because of something that the Travellers had done to him directly, but it developed from what he had heard and learned about Travellers over the years. He would just say, “They are not nice people.”

An elderly Irish woman around 75 years old had a much kinder tone for the Travellers. She recalled as a youth, how Travellers were respected by the community because of the pots and pans they made and sold. Even though they had a skill, they were still an out-group. This is how they inherited the name “Tinkers.”

Conversations I had with actual Travellers

The Travellers came to be called that because they moved about in caravans, settled in groups, and formed close communities. They became an easily identifiable ‘out-group’ in Irish society.

Their customs are different from the general population of Ireland - they speak a different dialect and use terminology only they can understand. Another difference is the custom of marrying within the immediate family, between 1st or 2nd cousins, and this practice has not been accepted by the Irish population.

While in Ireland I contacted Pavee Point Travellers Center in Dublin, a non-governmental support agency that promotes Human Rights for Travellers. I spoke with the Center Director, Ben Archibald and told him my purpose for wanting to visit the Center. He arranged an interview for me with two young male Travellers. I sat and listened to them as they shared their dislike of the general population of the Irish people. They told me about the problems of discrimination they experience such as difficulties in renting hotel rooms or venues for weddings. Even going to a Pub to buy a pint of Guinness has always been a challenge for the Travellers. They mentioned that this might be because Travellers have a reputation for fighting in public. The fights are mainly due to the feuding that has always gone on between the different Traveller families such as Collins, Joyce, McDonough, McGuiness, and Wards. These feuds have a long history, continuing from generation to generation.

Summary

In the United States, out-groups like African-Americans that were historically discriminated against have made significant progress in terms of equality with the in-groups of the dominant culture. Will that ever happen in Ireland for the Travellers?

I asked Ben Archibald, the Pavee Point Director, “What are some things that can change the image of the Travellers?”

He responded, “…there need to be better role-models for the community, particularly Travellers in respected professions. …if the public could know there are Traveller doctors, police offices, lawyers, nurses, etc. not only would the image of the community improve, but the number of your Travellers who might seek to emulate them would increase.”

References

A Study Examining Classroom Incivilities Among African American and White Undergraduate General Education Majors at a Southern Technical College

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to assess whether African American students attending a two-year public Southern technical college were more likely to engage in classroom incivilities as compared to white students. The survey consisted of two-hundred eighty-one students enrolled in degree level classes. Results reveal African American males reframed from reporting students who engaged in classroom incivilities but self-report arriving in class late and leaving early. However, white females and white males reported others who engaged in classroom incivilities. Unexpectedly, white females and white male’s self-reported disrupting class significantly more than African American females or African American males. The evidence suggests race is not a factor in assessing classroom incivility.

Today's college students believe the world centers on their desires. Electronic devices heightened the desire for immediacy while a dearth of interpersonal skills are lacking. Students enter class chatting on the cell phones Frand (2000). They are impatient and subscribe to immediate gratification. They expect classrooms to adapt their values. Their expectations are unrealistic. For example, they email professors minutes before class starts and expect answers upon arriving in class Boice (1996). Some use class time to voicing opinions, while disregarding their peer’s contributions and become upset when asked to conclude their diatribe. Twenge (2006) stated the entitlement mentality was cultivated in elementary school, middle school, and high school. Students live in the me generation where teachers advocate everyone is special and entitled to one on one treatment. This concept developed to increase self-concept but it developed into selfish behaviors that migrated to academe. The ten percent of students who subscribe to this concept require an excessive amount of professor’s time: conducting student conferences, typing incidence reports, and typing counseling letters. These students want rules modified to satisfy their ends; from childhood they have been indoctrinated that their status is unique Twenge (2006).

Students believe they are entitled to unearned grades (Hira 2007); professors believed students entered academe to share and debate ideas, create theories, and test hypothesis. Instead, students entered academe believing education is a financial vehicle leading to middle or upper class status. However, African American males believe they are excluded from the middle class and more likely exhibit disruptive classroom behavior.

Methods

Participants
The survey examined predictors of classroom incivility among white and African American undergraduates from a Georgia two year technical college in the General Studies Department. The survey comprised of two-hundred and eighty-one participants (78 males, 203 females, ranging in ages from 18 to 61. Participant’s race was representative of the target population (53% Caucasians and 35% African Americans, and 12.5% reporting another race. Permission was granted from the classroom instructors to circulate surveys to students enrolled in degree level psychology, (2 classes), (sociology 3 classes), (humanities 2 classes), English composition (2 classes), and remedial English (1 class). The surveys were circulated by classroom instructors and the researcher on different days and different times. Respondents were informed that answering all questions were not mandatory. The classroom instructor and researcher stood in back of the classroom and reframed from answering questions.
regarding the survey. Upon completing the surveys, participants were instructed to place the surveys on the front table in the classroom. When students completed answering questions, the researcher retrieved the surveys and exited the classroom.

The survey period occurred spring 2012. No inducements were exchanged for participation: iPod drawings, gift certificates, or other incentives that sometimes inflate and influence responses. The researcher developed questions based on common behaviors occurring in class and a review of research questions discussed in existing research studies.

**Instrument**

The researcher formulated the instrument from Bjorklund and Rehling (2010); Appleby (1990); Boice (1996); Feldman (2001). The instrument consisted of nine sections and 60 questions: Section One consisted of eight questions and asked to what degree do you consider the following behaviors or actions uncivil? Section Two asked the following: Please rate the frequency in which you observed students engaging in the following behaviors or actions. Section Three asked the following: Please rate the frequency in which you engage in the following behaviors or actions. Section Four asked the following: To what degree do you consider the technical and academic activities uncivil? Section Five asked the following: Please rate the frequency in which you engage in the following technical or academic activities. Section Six asked the following: Please rate the frequency in which you observe students engaging in the following technical or academic activities. Section Seven asked the following: To what degree do you consider the following behaviors and actions uncivil? Section Eight asked the following: Please rate the frequency in which you observe students engaged in the following behaviors and actions. Section Nine asked the following: Please rate the frequency in which you engage in the following behaviors and actions. The Social Research Center at a local university reviewed reliability and validity. Uncivil was not defined on the instrument precluding respondents from answering questions in accordance with the definition. The instrument was based upon a five point Likert-type scale, ranging from not uncivil, somewhat uncivil, no opinion, uncivil, and extremely uncivil. Using Analysis of Variance, a difference was found on the following variables: sleeping, arriving late/leaving class early, using technological devices for non-class activities, working on other class assignments, reading, talking, conversing loudly, non-verbally showing disrespect, and swearing. Using Independent t-test it was determined that significantly more males reported sleeping in class, arriving late/leaving class early, talking or conversing loudly, showing disrespect, and swearing. Females were found to report significantly more acts of using technological devices for non-class activities, working on other class assignments, and reading. These findings suggest that men were more likely to display overt signs of classroom incivility, while females are more likely to display covert signs of classroom incivility.

**Results**

**White Males vs. White Females**

White males reported sleeping significantly more in class than white females. White females reported believing that talking in class, conversing loudly, showing non-verbal signs of disrespect, swearing, and making disparaging remarks were significantly more uncivil than white males. White females also reported observing significantly more signs of making disparaging remarks than white males.

**White Males vs. African American Males**

African American males reported sleeping, arriving late/leaving early significantly more than white males. White males reported observing significantly more signs of other students eating/drinking in class than did African American males.

**White Males vs. African American Females**

White males reported significantly higher levels of disrupting class than did African American females. African American females reported conversing loudly in class, swearing, and making disparaging remarks was significantly more uncivil than white males.

**White Males vs. Hispanic Males**

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White males reported significantly higher levels of disrupting class than did Hispanic males. Hispanic males reported believing that showing non-verbal signs of disrespect and swearing as being significantly more uncivil than did White males.

**White Females vs. African American Males**
White females reported observing significantly more students eating/drinking in class than did African American males. African American males reported sleeping in class, arriving late/leaving early, and disrupting class significantly more than did white females. White females significantly viewed talking; non-verbally showing signs of disrespect, and swearing as being uncivil did African American males. White females also reported significantly more students making disparaging remarks and indicating dissatisfaction with the class than African American males.

**White Females vs. African American Females**
White females reported observing significantly more students disrupting class and eating/drinking than did African American females. African American females reported sleeping in class significantly more than did White females, while White females reported disrupting class significantly more than did Black females. White females reported observing significantly more students making disparaging remarks than did African American females.

**White Females vs. Hispanic Males**
White females reported disrupting class significantly more than Hispanic males. White females reported believing that talking in class is significantly more uncivil than Hispanic males.

**African American Males vs. African American Females**
Black males reported significantly more acts of sleeping, arriving late/leaving early, and disrupting class than black females.

**Black Males vs. Hispanic Males**
African American males reported significantly more acts of arriving late/leaving early, disrupting the class, and questioning the value of an assignment than Hispanic males. Several key significant correlations were present. Participants who rated sleeping as uncivil tended to report arriving/leaving class early, packing up before class was over, and inattention as uncivil at the p<0.01 level. Not surprisingly, a significant negative correlation was found between the belief that sleeping was uncivil, and the reported rates of participants actually sleeping (p<0.01).

**Frequency of Behaviors**
75% of the students reported never or seldom seeing other classmates sleeping in class which is slightly lower than the 96% of students reporting that they never or seldom slept in class. These findings are consistent with the social-desirability bias which states that individuals have a tendency to report behaviors and opinions that others find acceptable. Interestingly, 76% of students reported never or seldom seeing another classmate texting in class while 56% of students reported texting often or extremely often in class. Texting is an easier act of classroom incivility to hide, because 64% students reported they believe texting is uncivil or extremely uncivil.

**Comparing Behaviors based on Gender**
Using Analysis of variance a difference was found on the following variables: sleeping, arriving late/leaving class early, using technological devices for non-class activities, working on other class assignments, reading, talking, conversing loudly, non-verbally showing disrespect, and swearing. Using independent t-test it was determined that significantly more males reported sleeping in class, arriving late/leaving class early, talking or conversing loudly, showing disrespect, and swearing. Females were found to report significantly more acts of using technological devices for non-class activities, working on
other class assignments, and reading. These findings suggest that men are more likely to display overt signs of classroom incivility while females are more likely to display covert signs of classroom incivility.

**Whites vs. African-Americans**

Using Independent t-test a difference was found between these two groups on three factors of incivility. Results showed African-American students were significantly more likely to report sleeping in class, and arriving late or leaving early than white students. On the other hand, white students fidgeting significantly more than African-American students.

**Discussion**

Contrary to the hypothesis, the evidence tends to support the notion that African American males are less likely to be disruptive in class but more likely to arrive late and leave early. The below explanation and interpretations explains the data. The data revealed additional information regarding white female and white male classroom behavior. White males were more likely to sleep in class as compared to white females who were applying to competitive license practical, registered nursing and radiology programs. In addition, white males were more aggressive than white females, which explain why white females reported swearing and other forms of incivilities as disrespectful.

In the past, African American males may have noticed white student’s opinions were valued, appreciated, and discussed. On the contrary, African American males believed their class participation was devalued and inconsequential to class; therefore, they arrived late and left early. The evidence also suggests African American males sleep more than white males, which may be attributed to class discussions centered on Eurocentric ideals dismissing African American contributions. Even though African American males exhibited specific behaviors, they were less likely to report other respondents engaging in classroom incivilities. In many lower class African American communities, a code of silence exist preventing bystanders from cooperating with the authorities or reporting deviant acts; this culture migrated to academe. Because of their ascribe status, white males enter class feeling confident and more likely to disrupt class fearing little to no repercussions. However, African American females feel their status is questionable in white American and academe and carries little to no weight, which leads African American females to reported talking loudly and swearing as uncivil.

Because of the Hispanic’s male status in society and academe, they reported identical results as African American females. Because of past treatment of people of color in the United States, African American females and Hispanic males may suffer from low esteem, which explains their responses as compared to white males who reported higher levels of disrupting class. African American females and Hispanic males seem to share similar values regarding classroom decorum. Most white female respondents were competing for limited number of seats in health care programs, which explains why the evidence suggests white females were more likely to report other respondents engaging in classroom incivilities and seldom self report classroom incivilities as compared to African American males who adhere to the code of silence.

The evidence suggests, not only are white females more likely report other genders and races engaging in classroom incivilities, white females self reported they are more likely disrupt class as compared to Hispanic males. This phenomenon is attributed to the white female’s ascribe status theory. White females self reported disrupting class more than Hispanic females, who like African American males subscribe to the code of silence and were less likely to report other respondents eating and drinking in class. This research serves as a springboard for researchers to examine other factors that may contribute to classroom incivility:

1. Does socioeconomic status contribute to classroom incivility?
2. Are first generation college students more likely to engage in classroom incivilities as compared to second or third generation college students?
3. What factors contribute to African American males arriving late and leaving class early?
4. Why are white females more likely to disrupt class as compared to African American females?
5. Why are African American females more likely to sleep in class than white females?

Below are suggestions for decreasing disruptive class behavior.
Establish a class tone or students will establish their tone. Emphasize communication classes are grounded upon empirical research, not opinions, speculative, or bar room discussions. Students must understand class expectations and rigors. Explain communication classes are writing, speaking, practicing intensive, and students with writing deficiencies will experience challenges.

Articulate Explicit Classroom Expectations
Most students enter class the first day and need clear directions regarding class expectations; therefore, requirements must be unequivocally explained in the syllabi, leaving no room for interpretation. Students sometimes enter communication courses believing assignments are subjective, and every perspective and viewpoint carries equal weight during evaluation as compared to their major classes. Assignments must be fact-based and not contingent upon opinionate ideas.

Verbal Agreements
Narcissistic students thrive on controversy; therefore, professors and students should never engage in verbal agreements, which create misinterpretation and confusion. Agreements between students and professors must be typed by the student and signed by both parties and each party receives a copy.

Syllabi
The syllabi are the most important class document. It guides the classroom direction, the Holy Bible or Holy Grail of academe, and a legal agreement binding students and professors. Even though the professor discussed the syllabi day one, many students ignore syllabi content, and later contend they did not understand or never received a syllabus. To refute this claim, students must sign a syllabi acknowledgement stating the professor read the syllabi, explained the syllabi, and students understood the document. Those who elect not to sign must be asked or required to withdraw. The professor must emphasize the syllabi is nonnegotiable.

Assignments Revaluations
Professors are not infallible and oversights occur. On the contrary, some students request assignment revaluation to earn extra points, which is time intensive. Before reevaluating assignments, professors should establish procedures. Students must be apprized revaluations may result in receiving additional points, or points will be deducted if additional errors are discovered. Students must wait twenty-four hours and submit a typed requesting revaluation. The request must state the issue or claim in a simple or compound sentence. The student must explain in paragraph form the facts and submit supporting evidence: lecture notes, book chapters, and other supporting evidence to buttress his or her claim. The conference will only focus on the claim, and other issues will not be discussed. Students who understand they have more to lose, seldom ask for revaluations.

Disrespectful Behavior
Waiting until disruptive classroom behavior occurs is reactive. Rude students are sometimes looking for attention and are narcissistic; therefore, reprimanding students in class escalates and exacerbates the problem. First time offenders should be privately reprimand by email outlining the problem and explain breaches of decorum will not be tolerated. Reiterate future breaches of decorum will result in permanently being removed from class.
Using Rubrics
Classroom incivility sometimes occurs because disenchanted students receive undesirable grades. Students must understand how grades and points are calculated. The professor’s inability to logically explain how points are allocated causes students to become hostile and uncivil. Rubrics are codified expectations assigning points to each assignment section and clarify why grades were assigned. Rubrics and assignment instructions should be simultaneously circulated and discussed before assignments are submitted.

References


Incorporating Travel and Study Abroad Into a Public Speaking Course

Dr. Penny Joyner Waddell, Gwinnett Technical College

Abstract

More colleges and universities are incorporating a Study and Travel Abroad aspect into curriculum plans. “The Institute of International Education reports a 144 percent increase in American student enrollment in study abroad [programs]” (Andrews and Henze, 2009). Although each college and university handles their Travel and Study Abroad programs differently, it is important that all of us come together to share our own experiences with this type of educational delivery. As a director with the Travel and Study Abroad Program at Gwinnett Technical College, his past October and November, I was able to host a 2nd Travel and Study Abroad Program to Italy which incorporated 24 students and 4 faculty members. Gwinnett Technical College’s enrollment for 2012 was up over last year, and with over 7,000 students registered we realize the need to develop intercultural competencies for our student body, to help them achieve personal and professional success in a global world. Today, I'll share with you the three things that we did to incorporate the Travel and Study Abroad Program into the Public Speaking course at Gwinnett Technical College. First, I'll discuss what we did before the trip. Next, I'll tell you how we incorporated the coursework during the trip, and finally, I'll share with you what the students did after the trip. First, let's take a look at the things we did before the trip!

Body

I. Before the Trip
   A. Establish Fields of Coursework
      1. Communications
      2. Humanities
      3. Psychology
      4. Interior Design
   B. Select Faculty Member Travelers
   C. Choose Tour Group
      1. CEPA – Customized Educational Programs Abroad
      2. EF – Education First
      3. Decision – CEPA
   D. Plan the Trip
      1. Objectives
         a. Course credit for students
         b. Educational opportunities for students
         c. Life-long impact for students
      2. Destination - Italy
      3. Dates (End of October to Early November) – 10 day trip
      4. Price of the trip: $2,000 (excluded air fare)
         a. Base Price: What this includes
         b. What this does NOT include
      5. Travel Plan: Milan to Florence and Tuscany Region, Bologna, to Lake Como, Bellagio and Menagio, back to Milan
   E. Communication to Prospective Travelers
      1. E-mail to ALL students
      2. Information Sessions Scheduled (125 students attended – 24 registered)
      3. Accepting Applications/Deposits/Copies of Passports/Recommendation Letters/Copy of Current GTC transcripts
4. Notifying Students Who Were Accepted
5. Course Credit for Students/Registration Instructions/CRN#s
6. Information Session for Accepted Students – Share Itinerary
7. Collecting Payments (24 students – 4 instructors traveled for free – CEPA - Usually - 1 free instructor for every 6-8 students)
8. Final Meeting with Students - Share FINAL Itinerary
   a. Time to Meet at the Airport
   b. What to Pack
   c. Money Exchange
   d. Final Instructions
F. Once the semester began, students in the Study and Travel Abroad classes had to complete coursework to prepare them for the trip. They were required to complete readings, quizzes, and preliminary assignments.
   1. There were some class meetings.
   2. Some assignments were completed online.
   3. Mandatory reading assignments.

It took quite a bit of effort just to get the students interested and ready for the trip. Our speech presentations actually began DURING the TRIP.

II. During the Trip
   B. At the Airport
      1. Introduction Speech Outline Template
      2. Assignments and Class Expectations
   C. Class in Milan, Italy
      1. Outline written before trip
      2. Introduction Speech presented during Welcome dinner
   D. Class in Florence, Italy
      1. Organizing a Speech – The Outline
      2. Presenting the Informative (Central Idea) Speech
      3. Something they have learned during the trip
   E. Three Impromptu Speeches:
      1. Milan
      2. Florence
      3. Lake Como
   F. Special Occasion Speech in Bellagio
      1. Organizing the Speech – The Outline
      2. Presenting the speech (Roast and Toast) during the Farewell Dinner – night before we leave for home
   G. Journal (Blog)

The students had a great time on their Travel and Study Abroad trip to Italy, but they weren’t quite finished with the course. We arrived back in the USA and after a weekend of resting, student were back to class. Most of the work after the trip involved online assignments. They received 3 credit hours for the Travel and Study Abroad Speech Course, which was designed as HYBRID Instructional Delivery. Eligible students would also qualify for 5 credit hours for a Travel and Study Abroad Humanities, Psychology, and Interior Design Courses.

III. After the Trip
   A. First Class Meeting at GTC
      1. Submit Journals/Blog
      2. Impromptu Speech on campus
   B. Reading Assignments
      1. Effective Presentation Skills
      2. MLA Documentation and Research
3. Creating Effective Visual Aids and Handouts
C. Peer Editing Assignments and Discussion Board Activity
   1. Informative Speech about Italy Trip - Outline
   2. PowerPoint Presentation or Video
D. Last Class Meeting to Present Final Project Speech
E. Reunion Dinner and Activities planned
   1. Hosted by one of the instructors
   2. Students and instructors could exchange pictures
   3. Travelers were invited to bring a guest to share the memories.

Conclusion

Today, I have had the opportunity to share with you what we did before, during, and after the Travel and Study Abroad Trip. Incorporating a Public Speaking Course into the Travel and Study Abroad Program was not a difficult task. The students enjoyed the experience, and I enjoyed sharing the experience with them. We developed a relationship that cannot be compared with the “in class” experience. I’m looking forward to traveling to England and Ireland in 2013 with another wonderful group from Gwinnett Technical College.
Rationale
Learning to speak with vocal variety is an essential delivery skill for public speaking students. Experienced broadcast news anchors and reporters routinely model the power of inflection, pacing, pitch and pauses to add interest and drama to the news stories that they report. Learning the techniques of broadcasters can help students develop stronger vocal variety in their delivery of classroom speeches.

Learning Outcomes
Students should be able to
- Mark up text to indicate where vocal emphasis and pauses are needed.
- Deliver the text with increased vocal variety.

Supplies Needed
Samples of short news stories collected from the newspaper, news magazines, and websites of news outlets. The ABC News affiliate in Charleston, WV, publishes its actual on-air broadcast scripts on its website: [www.wchstv.com/newsroom/showscripts](http://www.wchstv.com/newsroom/showscripts). News stories that report on crime, natural disasters, heroic rescues, the bizarre, shocking or unusual, and other issues of a dramatic nature work best for this assignment. Collect enough stories so that each student in the class can be given a copy of a different news story. Make photocopies of the stories so that students can write on a copy and you can keep the original.

Time Needed
30 minutes

Instructions
1) Play a brief clip downloaded from the Internet of a broadcaster delivering a news story that demonstrates effective inflection on key words and other aspects of vocal variety. Discuss the key words that the broadcaster chooses to emphasize with his/her voice.
2) Explain to the class that news anchors prepare for their shows by “marking up” their “copy,” underlining key words that they want to emphasize vocally by delivering those words louder and slower than surrounding words, and writing two slashes [ // ] in places where they want to pause for dramatic effect.
3) Example: Show the class a sample script of a short news story on PowerPoint and ask which words they would emphasize with an underline and where they might pause. I show the following example adapted from an actual Atlanta-area news story. After students tell you which words they would emphasize, have a student read the story with the emphasis and pauses that they’ve indicated.

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A violent home invasion rocked a South Gwinnett neighborhood today, leaving two homeowners shaken and hospitalized. Neighbors are expressing shock upon learning that four area teens were arrested for the crime. And who drove the teens’ get-away car? // Police say it was one of the teens’ own mothers.
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4) Pass out a photocopy of a different news story to each student. Ask the students to mark up their copy for vocal emphasis and pauses.
5) Deliver a “newscast” with students reading their news stories with their best vocal variety.
6) Encourage students to “mark up” their speaking notes in the same way to help them practice delivering their presentations with increased vocal emphasis.
Georgia Communication Association
82nd Annual Convention
Dalton State College, Dalton, GA

Friday, February 22, 2013
8 a.m. - 4 p.m.
GCA Conference Registration: Lobby of Brown Center

Student Film Festival: Brown Center 102
Film Room: Viewing of Top Three Student Films
Coordinator: Paul Gaustad, Georgia Perimeter College
Film Festival Refreshments and Gifts Sponsored by Pearson Publishing
Films will be in rotation through the duration of the conference
Hospitality Room: Brown Center 105. Sponsored by the Dalton State College Foundation

Session I, 9 - 9:45 a.m.

Brown Center 103
“Nothing is Unfair in Politics”: How MGM’s Irving Thalberg’s Pioneering Use of Political Attack Ads Helped Defeat Upton Sinclair’s 1934 Campaign for Governor of California”
During the 1934 California gubernatorial race, MGM’s Irving Thalberg’s pioneering use of political attack ads helped defeat Upton Sinclair’s campaign for governor.
Presenter: Kevin M. Mace, Brenau University

Brown Center 104
“Utilizing Videos from YouTube in Public Speaking Class”
This panel presentation will provide example of student speeches and real world speeches posted on YouTube and how to evaluate them.
Presenters: Mark Hovind, East Georgia College, and Panelist Mark May, Clayton State University

Session II, 10 - 10:45 a.m.

Brown Center 101
“An Exploratory Study Examining Classroom Incivilities of Undergraduate Communication Majors at a Southern University”
This study found undergraduate communication majors are more likely to engage in minor classroom incivilities.
Presenter: Dr. Stephen E. White, Columbus Technical College

Brown Center 103
“The Six Gun Angel: Teaching Students Structuralist Film Theory via Religious Motifs in Clint Eastwood’s High Plains Drifter.”
This is a proposed method of introducing students to structuralist theory via analysis of the film High Plains Drifter.
Presenters: Anthony Clark Vines and Paul R. Raptis, University of North Georgia

Brown Center 104
“Spotlight on Symposia”
Panel discussion focused on why and how to implement public symposia in conjunction with the basic course.
Presenters: Bruce Daniel, Gail Reid, Meda Rollings, Wendell Stone, Solomon Nelson (student), University of West Georgia

Brown Center 205
Meeting of the Board of Regents Communication Discipline Advisory Council

Session III, 11 - 11:45 a.m.

Brown Center 101
"Communication, Change, and Consolidation"
The panel will share experiences related to the challenges involved in the process of consolidating two sets of USG colleges/universities.
Presenters: Rick Pukis and Pamela Hayward, Augusta State University, and Allison Ainsworth, Gainesville State College

Brown Center 103
Student Panel on Gender and Culture
These papers focus on football in Southern culture and in-group/out-group theory as show in the experience of Irish travelers in Ireland.
Presenter: Frankie Booker, Dalton State College; and Sylvia Allen, Augusta State University

Brown Center 104
“Including Public Speaking in Your College’s Study and Travel Abroad Program”
Introduce Your Students to the World! Learn how to incorporate a public speaking course into your college’s study and travel abroad program.
Presenter: Penny Waddell, Gwinnett Technical College

12:15 - 1:45
Luncheon and Keynote Address

Pope Student Center, Second Floor
Conference Attendees may walk through the Wood Valley Residence Halls, drive their cars and park in the faculty lot on College Drive by the Liberal Arts Building, or take advantage of the shuttle.
Agenda: Welcome by Barbara Tucker, Site Host
Welcome by Dr. John Schwenn, President, Dalton State College
Remarks by Travice Baldwin Obas, President, Georgia Communication Association
Meal, Sponsored By McGraw-Hill Publishing
Keynote Address:
Dr. Kris Barton, Associate Professor of Communication, Dalton State College
“My Last Lecture”

Session IV, 2 - 2:45 p.m.

Brown Center 101
“The Augusta State University Senior Capstone Project Requirement for Communication Studies”
This presentation examines the use of Senior Capstone Projects in communication studies, with focus on Augusta State University’s approach.
Presenter: Edgar Johnson, Augusta State University

Brown Center 103
“Broadening the Appeal of Subject Matter in Documentary Filmmaking”
Veteran public television documentarian will discuss a media project in development that will use the music of the Ulster-Scots and Scotch-Irish people to trace their history.
Presenter: Chris Moser, Georgia Perimeter College, Newton Campus

**Brown Center 104**
“Moving Speeches into 2013”
This session reviews the processes and rationale used to have students deliver one speech for mediated presentation.
Presenter: Carl Cates, Valdosta State University

**Session V, 3 - 3:45 p.m.**

**Brown Center 103**
“Ethics in our Environment: Education, Practice and Practicality”
Panelists disclose their explorations of ethical concerns and issues in a variety of online and in-person communication contexts.
Presenters: Abby Brooks, Urkonia Andrews, Camille Broadway, Ann Healy, Morgan Ginther, and Melissa S. Plew, Georgia Southern University

**Brown Center 104**
“Ideology and Rhetorical Strategy: The Tea Party and the 2012 Election”
Tea Party rhetoric is grounded in a series of ideological assumptions which are distinct from those of moderate Republicans and from traditional Democrats.
Presenter: Patricia Linder, Middle Georgia College

**Brown Center 205**
“Using LearnSmart Products by McGraw-Hill”
A presentation of the versatility of the Connect online tools that enhance learning in communication courses.
Presenter: Travice Baldwin Obas, Georgia Highlands College
NOTE: This session will extend into the 4:00 time slot for those who want to remain and discuss the tools.

**Session VI, 4 - 4:45**

**Brown Center 101**
“Can’t Stop the Sequel: How the Serenity-Inspired Browncoats: Redemption is Changing the Future of Fan Films”
This research explores how the fan film Browncoats: Redemption represents a new paradigm for fans working with film studios.
Presenter: Kristin M. Barton, Dalton State College

**Brown Center 103**
“Cross-cultural Comparisons of the Online News Use Motives as the Predictors of Interactive Behavioral Outcome: A Survey Approach of Korean Online News-Portal Readership”
The study compares the predictors of using interactive features in online news source websites between two cultures.
Presenters: Youngrak Park and Beom J. Bae, Georgia State University, and Jiyun Kim, Florida State University

**Brown Center 104**
“Help Me—My Students Don’t Care: Engaging Reluctant and Apathetic Students”
Panelists will explore the complexities of student reluctance, apathy, and faculty burn-out. Activities and strategies will be offered to increase students’ commitment to their education and way to battle faculty burnout
Panelists: LaVette Burnette, Patricia Linder, Andre Nicholson, Marla Thompson, Middle Georgia College

GCA Annual Membership Meeting, 5:15 p.m.

Brown Center 205
Meeting is open to all conference attendees
Presentation of Service Awards to GCA
Presentation of Film Festival Awards
Door Prizes Sponsored by Dalton State College Auxiliary Services and Bookstore

GIFTS Presentations

“Child’s Play”
This activity encourages students to analyze the role that toys play in the formation of self-concept.
Presenter: Meredith K. Ginn, Georgia Highlands College-Marietta

“Teaching Vocal Delivery Skills with News Stories”
This presentation describes a classroom activity to help public speaking students develop a more powerful vocal delivery by using the techniques of newscasters.
Presenter: Katherine Kinnick, Kennesaw State University

Dinner, 6:30 p.m.

Dalton Depot
Dinner is reserved for members that prepaid at time of registration.
Carpooling is strongly suggested.
Maps available at Registration Desk

Saturday, February 23, 2013
8 - 11 a.m.
GCA Conference Registration: Lobby of Brown Center

Student Film Festival: Brown Center 102
Film Room: Viewing of Top Three Student Films
Moderator: Paul Gaustad, Georgia Perimeter College

Session VII, 9 - 9:45 a.m.

Brown Center 103
“Funding the Future of Technology in Communications and Media Departments: A Discussion”
This session explores, through a free-ranging discussion, strategies employed to find sources of funding for technology for departments.
Presenters: Gaye Ortiz and Pamela Hayward, Augusta State University

Brown Center 205
“Henry Grady, the 1895 International Cotton States Exposition, and the Rise of Atlanta from the Ashes of the Civil War”
This presentation will examine how the International Cotton States Exposition, promoted by Henry Grady of the Atlanta Constitution, revived Atlanta and the New South.
Presenter: Mark May, Clayton State University

Brown Center 104
Two Presentations on Instructor Self Disclosure
“Does Teacher Self-Disclosure Help Students Learn?”
This paper will report on a research study conducted by the presenters to determine if teacher self-disclosure helps students to learn and retain information.
Presenters: Molly Stoltz, Faculty, and Kevin Bryant, Graduate Student, Valdosta State University

“To Share or Not to Share: GTA Self-Disclosure in the College Classroom”
An exploratory study on the motivations for and the learning outcomes of graduate teaching assistant self-disclosure.
Presenter: Nathan G. Webb, Emmanuel College

Session VIII, 10 - 10:45 a.m.

Brown Center 103
“Spirit Injury and Feminism: Expanding the Discussion”
In this paper, I explain the pedagogical benefits of using spirit injury to explore issues of political, social, sexual and psychological violence in the communication classroom, as well as in related disciplines like women’s studies, and philosophy.
Presenter: Nick Sciullo, Georgia State University

Brown Center 205
“Golden Rule Communication: Speak Unto Others as You Would Have Them Speak Unto You”
Apply the principles of Golden Rule Communication to create a culture of constructive communication in society.
Presenter: Jerry Drye, Dalton State College

Session IX, 11 - 11:45 p.m.

Brown Center 103
“Nipping it in the Bud: Proactive Strategies for Handling Classroom Problems Before Things Get Ugly”
This presentation explores proactive strategies for averting classroom issues before they occur, thus making the instructor’s life easier.
Presenter: Dana H. Pergrem, Georgia Highlands College

Brown Center 104
“Enhancing Instructor Visual and Vocal Communication for More Effective Teaching and Interaction with Students”
This panel showcases a variety of vocal and visual communication techniques used to enhance instructor communication and interaction with students while teaching.
Presenters: Shani Clark and Victoria Smith-Butler, Darton College

Brown 205
Student Presentations on Film and Mass Media
Papers focus on the depiction of motherhood in the television shows Weeds and United States of Tara and the storytelling medium of film as shown in The Last of the Mohicans.
Presenters: Courtney Chandler and Greg Ellis, Dalton State College

Conference Adjourns, 12 noon