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ABSTRACT

This volume of an annual collection of essays relating to instruction in the basic communication course presents 1992 Speech Communication Association Basic Course Committee award winning papers, articles on teaching assistants in the basic course, approaches to teaching in the basic course, research on the basic course, and a commentary. Essays in the collection are "The Effect of Computer-Generated Instructional Feedback and Videotape on the Speaking Performance of College Students in a Basic Speech Course" (Bruce W. Russell); "The Impact of Perceived Research and Teaching Competence on the Credibility of a Basic Course Director: A Case Study" (Pamela L. Gray and others); "Are You a REAL Teacher? Student Perceptions of the Graduate Student as Instructor of the Basic Communication Course" (Lynda R. Willer); "Student Perceptions of Teaching Assistants (TAs)" (Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss and Donn S. Fink); "Teaching Ethics in Introductory Public Speaking: Review and Proposal" (Jon A. Hess); "Teaching Thinking in the Basic Course" (Melissa L. Beall); "An ESL Oral Communication Lesson: One Teacher's Techniques and Principles" (John M. Murphy); "Experiential Learning as an Adjunct to the Basic Course: Student Responses to a Pedagogical Model" (Judith A. Rolls); "The Status of the Introductory and Advanced Interpersonal Communication Courses at U.S. Colleges and Universities: A National Survey" (Rod Troester and Drew McGukin); "Adopting a Transformational Approach to Basic Course Leadership" (Dawn R. Weber and others); "Communication Competence: A Commentary" (Lawrence W. Hugenberg and Donald D. Yoder). (RS)

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Lawrence W. Hugenberg
Editor

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Editorial Board

Editor's Page

This *Basic Communication Course Annual* marks the end of a journey for me. I have been editor for all five annuals to date. As I prepare to turn over the editor position to Craig Newburger, I marvel with the feelings I am having. These feelings are similar to the ones I felt as my oldest son moved away from home. There is a sense of loss but a tremendous sense of pride. I have nursed the *Annual* since birth and it is now ready to leave my guidance. As with my son, the *Annual* has caused me frustrations but also immense satisfaction, joy and sorrow, delight and sadness, but mainly a great deal of happy memories. I am proud to have served the discipline as editor for these past five years. It has brought me tremendous satisfaction to witness this new-born "baby" accepted by my colleagues and the discipline. I am now ready to turn over the *Annual* to the care of others. Since the ideas was discussed with Norm Watson almost 8 years ago, the *Annual* and I have grown together. Every time I sit down to work on the *Annual,* I recall the discussions we had as Norm and I attempted to put our idea into print. The idea of an "annual" was conceived out of a sense of frustration that there was no consistent publication outlet for research in or on the basic course and no resource materials available for people interested and working in the basic course. It is to Norm's memory that I have dedicated and donated my time and energies to putting together the *Annual* every year.

There are too many people to thank as I end my tenure as editor to list them all here. There are five special people who I want to thank personally — the members of my family. It is

difficult to find words appropriate to express my gratitude and love. First, to my best friend, my wife Laura, without whose love and support I could not carry on. Second, to my four children — Paul, Christy, Bill, and Jenny — thank you for understanding the amount of time I spent every year working on the *Annual*. As with any project with publication deadlines, there were many times when I had to work on manuscripts, read and assimilate reviewers' comments and publication recommendations, correspond with authors, talk with the publisher, and such, that I could not spend with you. All I can say is I love you all very much and appreciate your support and understanding.

The manuscript reviewers made the task of working on this edition of the *Annual* a lot of fun. Even though I knew this was the last time I was doing this, I received tremendous satisfaction in the professional and timely efforts of all the reviewers. Each reviewer took time from their busy schedules to look at a number of manuscripts under some strict time constraints. With only a few exceptions, the reviews were well done and returned to me in a timely manner. They provided excellent guidance to the authors as they revised manuscripts for publication. The group of authors this year was also a joy to work with. Final drafts of manuscripts were well prepared and each author responded to reviewer comments thoughtfully and carefully.

I want to thank my chair, Fred Owens, because without departmental financial support for mailings and duplicating, I could not have completed any of the *Annuals*. In addition, he was always available when I needed a review on short notice. Over the years, other colleagues at Youngstown State have been involved in reviewing manuscripts for the *Annual*.

As I end my years working on the *Annual*, I would be negligent in not thanking all the people at American Press responsible for producing the final product. In addition, it is important to note that we have reached an agreement with the Speech Communication Association, to advertise the *An-*

nual with their publications material. This will provide increased awareness of this important basic course publication.

Finally, since I feel similar feelings as I end work on the *Annual* to those I felt when my son left home, I want to point out that my son is now a father — making me a grandfather. Who knows what the future will bring in terms of my involvement in the workings of the basic course. I might just become involved with a new generation of basic course people and activities. Thank you all for affording me these opportunities for 5 years to have so much fun. So long for now!

Larry Hugenberg
Poland, Ohio
September, 1993

Contents

1992 Speech Communication Association Basic Course Committee Award Winning Papers

1992 Award Winning Paper in Basic Course Pedagogy

This study examines the effect of computer-generated feedback and videotapes speech performances on the speech skill improvement of college students. Subjects are evaluated on "total" speech performance and on: (1) organization; (2) development; (3) style; (4) vocal quality; and (5) gestural quality.

Results indicate: (1) computer-generated feedback appear to be as effective as handwritten feedback; (2) providing instructor feedback before self-analysis of videotaped performances appeared to improve subjects' cognitive speech skill performances; and (3) providing computer-generated feedback appears to improve subjects' delivery speech skill performance.

1992 Award Winning Paper in Basic Course Research

This case study provides an initial inquiry into the Teaching Assistants' (GTA) perceived credibility of a basic course director (BCD), specifically isolating their perception of the teaching and research competence of the BCD. The results indicate that the perceived credibility may be tied to both teaching and research competence, appears to be extremely important to the GTAs and implies that low credibility would have many unpleasant effects on the staff, their teaching and the graduate program as a whole. This case study points to the need for more research to identify variables associated with the credibility of BCDs as a way to strengthen the quality of the basic course.

Articles on Teaching Assistants in the Basic Course

Research on the Basic Course

Commentary

The Effect of Computer-Generated Instructional Feedback and Videotape on the Speaking Performance of College Students in a Basic Speech Course

Bruce W. Russell

Speech education teachers are always seeking the most effective method for providing feedback that will develop speaking skill. Used properly, these methods motivate students to improve their speaking abilities. However, this task requires both a significant amount of time and expertise. Time is needed to observe, record, reflect, and respond to the students' performances and expertise is required to accurately observe, evaluate, and respond in a constructive manner. With the advent of television and the availability of personal computers, the possibility now exists to combine these media to provide timely, consistent, comprehensive feedback, and to streamline the evaluation process. The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of a computer-generated feedback system when used in conjunction with an analysis of videotaped performances of the students' speech and model speeches. The study investigated the relationship between the method and time of instructor feedback provided to the student and their subsequent performance on successive speaking assignments.

Considerable research has been conducted to determine the effectiveness of different methods of providing feedback. Book (1985) suggests giving positive comments first, followed by possibilities for improvement, and ending with a note of

praise. Cooper (1984) stated that the more complete, immediate, and thorough the feedback, the greater the degree of speech skill that will be developed. Young (1974) found that students rated atomistic, impersonal, positive comments more helpful than holistic, personal, negative comments. Book and Simmons (1980) found that students prefer atomistic over holistic and impersonal over personal peer comments.

When an instructor provides feedback is also a question for consideration. Should each speaker receive simultaneous feedback as the speech is delivered, or should they receive comments after each speech, or at the end of the class period? All of these alternatives have been studied. So what is the most effective approach to supplying student speech evaluations?

Amato & Ostermeier (1967) found that providing simultaneous "unfavorable" feedback created a decrease in delivery qualities. Nyquist & Wulff (1982) discovered that simultaneous verbal feedback works best when directed toward areas identified by the speaker as needing improvement. Behnke & Beatty (1979) used computers to generate simultaneous feedback on a computer monitor. Qualitative measures of student satisfaction were very positive but no quantitative measures of observable speech skills were reported. Dedmon (1967) argues that criticism should be provided after a speech or at the end of the class period. Miller (1964) reported that immediate feedback had a negative effect on succeeding speakers. Hence, providing simultaneous or immediate feedback may have a negative effect on the beginning speaker.

Many articles have been written concerning the effectiveness of electronic feedback in public speaking courses. Several studies have examined the negative effects of unguided viewing of speech performances. Hung and Rosenthal (1981) found that providing delayed, unguided feedback via videotape replay usually resulted in poor results. According to Dowrick (1983), if an individual observing his or

her own performance without directive feedback or recognition of areas of improvement, self-observation can diminish an observer's perceptions of his or her own abilities. Diehl, Breen, and Larson (1970) found that not offering beginning speaking students help in viewing their videotaped speech performances results in more non-fluencies, but determined that improvement increases when the instructor takes the time to point out the errors. Sorenson and Pickett (1986) found similar results: without instructor mediation and explanation, little improvement occurs. McCroskey and Lashbrook (1970) found similar results: viewing without feedback can be counter-productive to the goals of the course.

Studies have also examined the effectiveness of utilizing videotape to understand and observe the actions upon which the instructor criticism is based. Frandsen, Larson, and Knapp (1967) discovered that students who received instructor feedback "after" viewing their speech performance showed significant correspondence with the instructor's ratings of the speech. McCroskey and Lashbrook (1970) studied the effect of using videotape replay of speech performance and instructor evaluations on students meeting course goals. They found that the use of video and instructor feedback helps students meet the course goals better than students who either view their speech performance without criticism or receive criticism without the videotape. Videotape playback which is accompanied by instructor and student discussions can make a positive impact on the student's perception of the communication process, and on the speech content. Klinzing and Klinzing (1984) studied the effects which self-confrontation via television and additional training have on the "indirectness" of future secondary school teacher trainees. The results indicated that self-confrontation with discrimination analysis and microteaching with feedback has the greatest effect on improving upon indirectness. Research appears to suggest that providing videotape feedback with instructor comments does improve speech performance.

One technique employed to improve speech performance involves the use of model speeches. There has been considerable research on the benefits of corrective feedback and modeling. According to Vasta (1976), feedback which permits the most improvement relies on corrective modeling. Corrective feedback serves to improve the behavior identified, and it increases the observer's monitoring of new activities. Bandura (1965) found that when positive reinforcement or incentives are incorporated, the learned activity is quickly converted into performance. Carroll and Bandura (1985) also discovered that brief delays in observing replays of one's performance can reduce the informative value of the self-evaluation. Therefore, it would appear that positive, atomistic, impersonal, corrective feedback should be supplied in a relatively short amount of time to the student before viewing and/or critiquing the videotape.

With the development and availability of computers for individual instructors, there is now the possibility to combine computers and video, and provide students with even more appropriate and more timely feedback. With the aid of the computer, an instructor can develop theory-based comments. Comments that can be written on an impersonal level that address the strengths and weaknesses of an observed skill with recommendations for improvement. Several studies have investigated computer-managed instruction and feedback in speech performance (Behnke and King, 1984; Behnke and O'Hair, 1984; Behnke and Sawyer, 1986). These studies indicated there was positive student interest and/or satisfaction with the method of feedback (Pace, 1987). None have investigated whether computerized feedback improves student speaking performance to a greater extent than does the traditional handwritten method.

Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the "timing" in which students receive feedback (immediate/delayed), with respect to their viewing of their videotaped speech, and the "method" of feedback which

they receive (handwritten versus computer-generated). Since the research has indicated that student speech performances improve with positive, impersonal, and atomistic instructor comments supplied before a self-evaluation of a videotape, the following two hypothesis were tested:

Hypothesis I: Students who receive computer-generated feedback from their instructor will demonstrate significantly greater speaking skills, as measured by mean scores assigned by trained raters using the Pier Oral Communication Assessment Scale (POCAS), than students who receive handwritten feedback from their instructor.

Hypothesis II: Students who receive instructor-feedback before viewing videotapes of their speech performance will demonstrate significantly greater speaking skills, as measured by mean scores assigned by trained raters using the Pier Oral Communication Assessment Scale (POCAS), than students who receive instructor feedback after viewing videotapes of their own speech performances.

METHOD

The study entailed a 2x2 design, with the timing of feedback (before or after viewing videotape) as one independent variable, and the form of feedback (computergenerated versus handwritten) as the other independent variable. There were four treatment groups in the study. Treatment Group One received handwritten feedback before viewing their videotape (HB); Treatment Group Two received handwritten feedback after viewing their videotape (HA); Treatment Group Three received computer-generated feedback before viewing their videotape (CB); Treatment Group Four received computer-generated feedback after viewing their videotape (CA).

PARTICIPANTS AND SAMPLING PLAN

The participants for this study were 140 University students enrolled in nine sections of a required undergraduate public speaking course during the fall term of 1990. The participants signed a research consent form and were randomly assigned to groups. Sixty seven were male and 73 were female. Their ages ranged from 18 to 62, the mean was 19. Five groups of seven (35 students) were assigned to each of the four treatments.

The randomization was confirmed by an ANOVA of the performance on the first speech. The results showed no significant difference among the four treatrnent groups.

Fourteen students were lost to attrition, and due to video difficulties 14 students were not videotaped and therefore had to be dropped. One hundred and twelve students (52 males, 60 females) completed the study, 28 participants in Treatment Group HB; 33 participants in Treatment Group HA; 26 participants in Treatment Group CB; and 29 participants in Treatment Group CA.

Nine different faculty were assigned to the nine sections. Three classes scheduled at the same hour would meet as a large group for some team taught lectures and in individual classrooms for speech presentations. All nine sections used the same syllabus, text and test material.

PROCEDURE

Classroom and Laboratory Facilities

The classrooms were equipped with a remote controlled television camera and microphone. Each subject's speech was videotaped along with the speeches of the other six members of their group. The instructors videotaped all students in a

full length shot so that all body actions could be observed during videotape replay. Students were required to view their speech performances in a videotape viewing laboratory.

Speaking Assignments and Classroom Procedures

Each student was required to give five speeches during the semester. The first speech was a one to two minute informative speech on an assigned topic. The second was a three to four minute informative speech on a topic of the student's choice. The third was a five to six minute informative/ persuasive speech on a topic of the student's choice. The fourth was a six to seven minute persuasive speech on the same topic as speech three. The fifth speech was a one to two minute informative or persuasive speech on the most important concept they learned in public speaking. It was similar in length and structure to the first speech of the course.

Students were assigned to groups and given class time to discuss each speech assignment and topics. The groups were assigned speaking dates and the speech assignment, objectives, and evaluation form were reviewed by the instructor. A model videotaped speech, provided by the text publisher, was also shown to introduce the assignment.

The members of each group presented their speeches on the same day and were recorded on one videotape. At the end of each class those students who were assigned to a "before" treatment groups were instructed that their tape would not be available for viewing until the instructor had completed and returned their speech evaluation. When the evaluation was returned the students were instructed to review their videotape and return their self-evaluation form within one week (See Appendix B).

Those students in the "after" treatment groups were instructed to go to the videotape laboratory and immediately

review their tape. After the instructor received the self-evaluation form, the student was given the instructor's feedback.

Those students who received handwritten feedback received their instructor's comments written on the speech objective sheet (See Appendix C). Those students who received computer generated feedback received a computer printout of the instructor's comments. This printout was generated by selecting appropriate comments from the computer bank of comments and merged into the speech objective list.

Development of the Feedback Comments

The instructor feedback comments were developed on an atomistic basis, with specific comments developed for each of the 18 speech objectives. The nine faculty involved in the study met to review each of the objectives and identified specific observable speech performances that would indicate the students had met all the criteria for each objective. The instructors were asked to write each comment in a format that would describe what was observed, how well the observed performance met the speech objective, and what feedback should be given to the student if he or she: (1) met all the criteria in an excellent manner, (2) met all the criteria in a superior manner; (3) met allthe criteria in a competent manner; (4) met all the criteria in an inadequate manner, and (S) met the criteria in a poor manner.

A total of 212 comments were collected, reviewed, and entered into the computer. Each comment was entered under the appropriate speech objective and given a "field" code number. After viewing a speech an instructor who was supplying computer-generated feedback to a student would enter the appropriate "field" code number(s) on the speech evaluation form, and a student lab employee would enter the codes, merge the comments and print out an evaluation sheet for each student speaker. The speech evaluations were then returned to the instructor for distribution.

RATER TRAINING

Measurement of the dependent variable, speech skill, was quantified by five trained faculty raters who viewed and rated videotaped speeches, using the Pier Oral Communication Assessment Scale (See Appendix A). The raters were trained in the use of the POCA Scale in three, one hour sessions. The raters were asked to view a group of seven videotaped speeches. This videotape was randomly selected from one of the 15 groups that were not involved in the data collection for this study. One week later the raters and the researcher met again to evaluate the same set of speeches. The mean interrater reliability of the raters was $r5 = .93$. The mean intra-rater reliability of the raters on the successive viewings of the speeches was $r5 = .89$.

Unfortunately, three faculty members were unable to complete the project and three communication seniors were hired to replace them. They were given training sessions in the same manner as were the faculty members and viewed the same pilot videotapes on two successive weeks. Results of their evaluation revealed variability and two student raters were abandoned.

The mean inter-rater reliability of the remaining two faculty and one student rater was $r3 = .84$. The mean intra-rater reliability of the three raters was $r3 = .88$.

MEASUREMENT OF THE DEPENDENT VARLABLE

The dependent variable, speech skill, was measured through use of the POCA Scale. Measurement of the five dimensions of speech skill found on the scale (Organization, Development, Style, Vocal Quality, and Gestural Quality) is achieved with a five-point Likert scale. A score of one (1) representing exceptional; two (2), representing superior; three (3), representing competent; four (4), representing inadequate;

and five (5), representing poor. Measurement of the dependent variable, speech skill, was obtained by having the raters evaluate videotapes of the fifth and final speech given by each subject. Using the POCA Scale, the judges viewed and rated each subject's videotaped final speech.

Since there is a lack of conceptual agreement concerning speech competence measurement instruments, the Pier Scale was utilized because of its high content validity. Acknowledging that validity is situation specific, this instrument provides very high content validity for this specific course and this specific population. Data collection.

The data were collected from the rater's evaluations of the videotapes of the first and last speeches. The first tapes were used for a pre-test and the last tapes were used to measure the treatment effects. The rater's evaluations were on a scale from one to five, where a score of one (1.00) is excellent. Therefore, the lower the score, the better the performance.

RESULTS

An ANOVA was used to examine the impact of "method" and "time" of instructor feedback on final speech scores of the four treatment groups. For the analysis of Hypothesis One, the *type* of feedback, the scores of the "handwritten" treatment groups were combined and treated as one group identi~led as (HBA) and were compared to the scores of the combined "computer-generated" treatment groups, identified as (CBA). The analysis indicated no significant difference of the main effect or interaction effect of "method" and "time" on the "Total" speech score of the treatment groups. Therefore, the hypothesis was not accepted (See Table 1).

There also was no significant interaction effect found on the five individual elements of the POCA scale (See Table 2).

The analysis of the five individual elements for Hypothesis One on the POCA scale indicated no significant difference between the "handwritten" and "computergenerated" treat-

Table 1
Between Factor ANOVA of Main Effect
with "Time" and "Method"

Effect	*F*	*df*	*p*
Time x Method	.104	1,333	.748
Time	.240	1,333	.625
Method	3.614	1,333	.058

Table 2
Interaction Effects: Between Factor ANOVA with "Time" and "Method" for the Five Elements of the Pier Oral Communication Assessment Scale.

Element	*F*	*df*	*p*
Organization	.421	1,333	.517
Development	.002	1,333	.968
Style	.425	1,333	.515
Vocal Quality	.022	1,333	.882
Gestural Quality	.538	1,333	.464

ment groups on the elements of Organization, Development, and Style. A significant difference was found however, on Vocal Quality and Gestural Quality. The "computer-generated" treatment groups' mean score was significantly better than the "handwritten" treatment group on both elements (See Table 3).

Table 3
Hypothesis One: ANOVA of *Handwritten* and *Computer-Generated* Treatment Groups for the Five Elements of the Pier Oral Communication Assessment Scale

Element	*F*	*df*	*p*
Organization	.391	1,333	.532
Development	.829	1,333	.363
Style	3.505	1,333	.062
Vocal Quality	4.633	1,333	.032*
Gestural Quality	8.814	1,333	.003*

*p < .05

For the analysis of Hypothesis Two, the *time* at which the feedback was provided, the scores of the "before" treatment groups were combined and treated as one group identified as (HCB) and were compared to the scores of the combined "after" treatment groups, identified as (HCA). The analysis indicated no significant difference of the main effect on the "Total" speech score of the treatment groups. Therefore, the hypothesis was not accepted (See Table 1).

The analysis of the five individual elements on the POCA scale indicated no significant difference between the "before" and "after" treatment groups on Organization, Development, Vocal Quality, and Gestural Quality. A significant difference was found however, on Style. The "before" treatment groups' mean score was significantly better than the "after" treatment group (See Table 4).

Table 4
Hypothesis Two: ANOVA of *Before* and *After* Treatment Groups for the Five Elements of the Pier Oral Communication Assessment Scale

Element	*F*	*df*	*p*
Organization	.404	1,333	.526
Development	1.696	1,333	.194
Style	5.843	1,333	.016*
Vocal Quality	.007	1,333	.931
Gestural Quality	2.415	1,333	.121

*p < .05

Table 5
Mean Scores and Gain Scores of the Combined and Individual Treatment Groups on Pre-test and Post-test Speeches

Treatment Groups	*Pre-Test*	*Post-Test*	*Gain Score*
Group Total	15.04	14.55	0.49
Handwritten Before	15.11	14.56	0.55
Handwritten After	14.90	14.88	0.02
Computer-generated before	14.90	14.69	0.21
Computer-generated after	15.11	14.12	0.99

To determine the effectiveness of the treatments used during the study an ANOVA was used to measure participant improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. A significant difference was found between the combined post-test scores of all four treatment groups' "Total" speech scores compared to their combined pre-test "Total" speech scores. The most improvement was made by the (CA) treatment group. This group improved almost one entire rating point on the five point Likert scale (See Table 5).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The conclusion drawn from this study is that the treatments used in this study were effective in improving speech skill performances during the course of the study. The total scores improved for all groups. The computer treatment groups demonstrated more improvement than the handwritten treatment groups.

Neither hypotheses tested was supported by the results of this study. Some significant differences were found however, between the treatment groups on the five individual elements on the POCA Scale.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One tested the impact the *method* of feedback would have on the performance. The results did not provide a significant difference between the computer and handwritten treatment groups on their final "total" speech performance.

Students who received computer-generated feedback were:

- significantly better on their vocal quality skills
- significantly better on their gestural quality skills
- scored higher on organization skills
- scored higher on style skills
- scored lower on development skills

It appears that students who received feedback by the computer method were able to improve most on those speech elements that are easily observable on the videotape. Elements like voice pitch, volume, and rate and gestural quality which are more easily observed on the videotape could be more easily modeled. Bandura (1976) believes that those behaviors that are observed to be effective or rewarding for others, such as the easily observable voice and gestural qualities, are retained more than those that have negative consequences. Since both of these speech skills are more readily observed, it may be easier for the student to accurately observe and retain acceptable performances both from the modeled speeches and their own performances. The idea that an instructor commenting on a speaker's inadequacies that are directly related to one's self-image and observed by classmates, may in some way be received less personally and more objectively when received by the relevantly impersonal computer comments compared to an instructor's handwritten notes. The corrective feedback provided by the impersonal, atomistic comments delivered via the computer may not be considered a personal attack on the student's self-image and self-esteem. On the other hand the handwritten comments written on the speech evaluation form may be received less constructively by the student. The handwritten comments may have a negative affect on the student's interpretations of the feedback because it may contain more personal comments.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypotheses tested the impact the *time* at which feedback was provided, relevant to when a student viewed the videotape, would have on the speech performance. The results did not provide a significant difference between the before and after treatment groups on their "total" speech performance. One can conclude that the time at which a stu-

dent views their speech performance and when they receive feedback does not affect their "total" speech performance.

Scores on the individual elements on the POCA Scale indicate that students who received feedback *before* viewing their performance on videotape were:

- significantly better on style skills
- scored higher on organization skills
- scored higher on development skills
- scored lower on vocal quality skills
- scored lower on gestural quality skills

One can conclude that a student who receives feedback before viewing their videotape perhaps examines and critiques their tape more closely based on the instructor's comments. Since the elements of style, organization, and development are not easily observed, providing the instructor feedback before viewing the performance may permit the student to critically examine these more "cognitive" aspects of their speech that they may not be able to observe, model, and correct without instructor feedback.

One could conclude that the computer-mediated method of providing feedback does benefit the student as much, if not more so than the handwritten feedback. The computer-mediated feedback method also provides a more manageable, consistent, and efficient method for delivering theory based feedback.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations of the study were considered in relation to research design and measurement techniques. One limiting factor of this study is the selection of the final speech for data collection. Since this speech was only one to two minutes in length, it inherently restricts a student's ability to provide evidence of development and supporting material, limiting the

student's ability to demonstrate more than simple Organization and Style. This may also limit the opportunity for the raters to detect any improvements that may have occurred due to the treatments. Improvements that perhaps could be detected on longer speeches. The short speech assignment does favor Vocal and Gestural Quality. A second limitation of the study is the quality of the instructor feedback comments. This list was generated based on the combined years of speech teaching experience of the nine participating faculty. Although it does represent the type and form of instructor comments that are being used in the classroom it could be developed with more attention to theory based objectives.

Another limitation of the study is found in the measurement tool. The POCA Scale places many individual speech traits under one of five categories or elements. This limits, to some extent, the ability to determine exactly which traits are improving more than others.

In summary, given the limitations discussed in this section, generalization of results to other speech courses without careful consideration of the specificity of the speech assignments used in this course should be avoided. Since this is an initial attempt to quantify the effect of mediated feedback on speech performance,much more research needs to be conducted to determine the efficacy of the method.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Analysis of the results of this study led to the following conclusions:

1. The construct of modeling speech behavior and one's self-analysis of speech performance appears to be beneficial in improving those speech skill traits that are easily observed, such as; Style, Vocal, and Gestural Qualities.

2. The computer feedback method is more helpful than the handwritten feedback method in improving those observable speech skills; Style, Vocal Quality, and Gestural Quality.
3. Neither treatment appears to be significantly better in improving speaking skills on the non-observable speech skills, Organization and Development.
4. Receiving instructor feedback before or after self-analysis of the videotaped speech performance does not appear to significantly benefit either treatment group on improving speech skill.

Replication of the study is encouraged using more complex speech assignments to collect the data. A measurement scale that contains more individual assessments of specific speech skills would help identify specific areas of improvement. A taxonomy based instructor comment file should be developed that more clearly defines levels of competence within each speech objective.

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APPENDIX A

	EXCEPTIONAL A	SUPERIOR B	COMPETENT C	INADAEQUATE D	POOR E
ORGANIZATION Introduction Body Conclusion	Introduction actively motivates and engages, making the audience want to hear more; statement of main points are memorable, transitions are varied and appropriate; parts are related to whole; conclusion gives sense of completeness and impact.		Introduction directs attention, reveals topic and establishes credibility; speaker uses topically appropriate divisions; presents a concluding summary which clearly and gracefully ends presentation.		Irrelevant introductory comments; disjointed, unclear statements; order of main points inadequate, confusing; conclusion abrupt, unrelated to topic.
DEVELOPMENT Variety and number of supporting materials	Reflects and unusual, insightful, novel or unexpected analysis with well selected memorable examples which are especially apt and well adapted to audience.		Uses clearly related examples to illustrate points; balanced among types; appropriate to purpose, adequate in number and scope.		Support material is weak or speaker's statements unrelated to main points; support materials insufficient in number or quality; support attempts to confuse rather than clarify main points
STYLE Language choice Vocabulary Grammar	Grammar is technically perfect and free from error, vocabulary is accurate, reflects carefully chosen vivid and memorable language. Vivid language uses effective imagery and sustained metaphor which unifies speech; memorable language uses such devices as alliteration or grammatical parallels, etc.		Language is accurate and clear, grammar is correct but simple; work choice reflects sufficient variety to maintain listener interests.		Speaker uses grammar and elementary vocabulary, chichés, slang, unclear or inaccurate language.
VOCAL QUALITY Volume, rate, pitch variety, Articulation Enunciation Expressivess	Voiced displays controlled tempo, rate, and rhythm; conveys ideas with emphasis, is natur. clearly related to speaker's intention; can be easily heard; sustains attention and involvement of hearers.		Speech is flowing, loud, free of vocalizations; using clear, distinct pronunciation. Voice reflects speaker interest and attracts and maintains listener attention.		Speech is hesitant, erratic in rate, marked by non-fluence and vocalized pauses; volume is inadequate; garbled pronunciation; devoid of expression; speaker uses monotone or extreme variations in tone or pitch.
GESTURAL QUALITY Posture, stance Movement Eye contact Head, hand, arm gestures	Speaker is poised, using the body to enhance meaning, with gestures and movements which call attention to important points in natural engaging ways; posture and stance are relaxed yet appropriately energetic; gaze involves audience with speaker and topic.		Speaker's posture is upright, relaxed but stable; gestures are smooth and natural; eye contact is frequent and direct.		Stance is stiff, awkward; speaker assumes a nervous posture or slouches; avoids eye contact; gestures are wooden, artificial or absent.

APPENDIX B

Rating Sheet for Speech Criticism

Place a number in each blank indicating how you rate the each aspect of the speech you are observing. Use the following values:

5 = Exceptional 4 = Good 3 = Average 2 = Fair 1 = Poor

Introduction — Opening Statement should:

effectively gain attention ..... _____
create a relationship with the audience..... _____
establish a focus (orient the audience)..... _____
transition to the speech body ..... _____
Notes on Introduction:

Body — Main ideas should be:

clearly organizead ..... _____
interesting to the audience ..... _____
understandable to listeners ..... _____
Notes on Body:

Conclusion — Closing statement should:

summarize ..... _____
provide closure ..... _____
motivate the audience..... _____
provide for graceful departure..... _____
Notes on Conclusion:

Language Use — Vocabulary and sentences should be:

clear ..... _____
correct..... _____
vivid ..... _____
appropriate..... _____
Notes on Language:

Use of Voice (Check the appropriate blank):

Pitch level: too high _____ to low _____ OK _____
Variation of pitch: varied _____ monotonous to a degree _____
very monotonous _____
Rate: too fast _____ too slow _____ OK _____
Variation of rate: too little _____ too much _____ OK _____
Loudness: too loud _____ too soft _____ OK _____
Variation of loudness: too little _____ too much _____ OK _____
Pronunciation: generally correct _____ frequently faulty _____
Enunciation (distinctness): clear _____ slurring _____

Visual Aspects of Delivery (Check the appropriate blank):

Posture:
alert, but at ease _____ all weight on one foot _____
stiff _____ leaning on lectern (furniture, wall) _____
shifting weight constantly _____
Gestures:
too few _____ too many _____ appropriate number _____
Quality of gaestures:
properly motivated _____ affected _____ clumsy _____
Movements:
immobile _____ distracting _____
satisfactory in quality and quantity _____
Facial expressions:
very animated _____ occasionally animated _____
never animated _____
Eye contact:
looked at everyone _____ favored one section _____
avoided audience _____

APPENDIX C

Speech Two Evaluation Form

Speaker _____ Instructor _____ Section _____
Group _____

Objectives of Speech Two:

1. You must secure your group's approval of a preparation outline for an Information Speech, including in your outline all of the components on the Speech Outline Format provided in the student handbook.
2. You must give an informative speech on an Object, Process, Event or Concept turning in to your instructor at the time of your speech a full sentence preparation outline and a speaking outline.
3. You must deliver the speech as planned so that the listener can accurately write the specific purpose and thesis statement and clearly discern the arrangement pattern of the speech (using one of the arrangement patterns for informative speeches).
4. You must select and adapt your methods of INFORMING to your target audience, identified on the speech outline.
5. You must use one of the attention gaining devices presented in your text to introdu e a thesis statement for an INFORMATIVE SPEECH.
6. You must establish your credibility with the audience in the introduction and throughout the speech.
7. You must forecast or preview the main points of your speech in the introduction.
8. You must provide oral transitions between main points and use other emphases to assist the listener in following your reasoning.

9. You must use and orally cite at least three of the types of supporting materials specified in your textbook, taken from at least three different sources, selecting and adapting evidence and support to meet your informative purpose with the audience.
10. You must use an organizational method and pattern appropriate to your topic and the audience.
11. You must use sound reasoning and avoid logical fallacies.
12. Your conclusion must include a summary of the main points of your speech.
13. Your conclusion must reinforce the central idea and signal the end of your speech.
14. You must speak clearly and distinctly in a well modulated, conversational manner using appropriate vocal variety in rate, pitch and volune.
15. You must use language appropriately (good vocabulary and grammar; avoidance of slang, trite expressions, non-fluencies, etc.)
16. You must exhibit good speaking posture: standing erect, not leaning on podium, no distracting moves, using gesture in a way that is effective, appropriate and relevant to the content of the speech.
17. You must speak extemporaneously (i.e., not tied to notes, not memorized, not using a manuscript), maintaining eye contact with the audience rather than notes, walls, visual aids, etc.
18. You must finish the speech within the 3-4 minute time range.

Letter Grade and Points Assigned: A B C D F

Comments and Recommendations:

The Impact of Perceived Research and Teaching Competence on the Credibility of a Basic Course Director: A Case Study*

Pamela L. Gray
Martin G. Murray
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Credibility can be defined as the degree to which an audience perceives the speaker as being competent, knowledgeable, and personable (Civikly, 1992). It seems logical, then, to believe that the perceived credibility of a leader would have an impact on the relationship between that leader and his or her subordinates. Research in communication has supported this belief. One potential leader/subordinate relationship is that of teacher and student. Scholars in instructional communication have posited that the credibility of a teacher to her or his students is an essential component of effective instruction. Without this credibility, students tend to question even minor decisions by the teacher and so cause an adversarial relationship to develop (Civikly, 1992; Cooper, 1991; Seiler, Schuelke, & Lieb-Brilhart, 1984). Another potential leader/subordinate relationship is that of manager and coworker. Scholars in leadership communication have noted that one of the primary communication objectives as a

* A preliminary draft of part of this paper was presented at the Midwest Basic Course Directors Conference, Dayton, OH, February, 1992.

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leader/manager is to be perceived as a credible source of information by co-workers and, when the coworkers are dependent on the leader for advice or assistance, expertise and the overall impression of this person are primary determiners of that credibility (Frank & Brownell, 1989; Yukl, 1989).

It seems interesting, then, that no research can be found in the published literature that specifically addresses the credibility of the basic course director (BCD) to his or her staff. Surely this role relationship of BCD to staff members is at least somewhat analogous to that of teacher and student and/or manager and co-worker. Further, the above information from instructional and leadership scholars in communication indicate that credibility is an important factor in success in such relationships. Why, then, has no research been conducted in this area?

One reason may be that this relationship seems not to differ from other relationships that have been studied and so may not warrant specific investigation into this context. This reasoning does not hold up well under scrutiny, however. It is difficult to imagine a relationship more complex than this one. In particular, the notion of power of this boss may seem convoluted. While the BCD may be the only supervisor the basic course staff answers to directly, other faculty may subtly or not-so-subtly indicate to the staff that the real decisions are made by a committee, the entire faculty and/or the department chair. Is the BCD a person to work hard to please or not, then? In addition, seldom does one find a context where the staff, especially if most are graduate teaching assistants (GTAs or GAs), is as torn between "job" responsibilities as this one. Is the teaching that important or should GTAs concentrate on their graduate coursework and research? If teaching is not important, then the relationship between the GTA and the BCD pales; if teaching is important, then the relationship takes on much more significance. Once again, is this a person to work hard to please or not? In short, it. would seem foolish

to avoid research into credibility in this context because of a belief that this context holds nothing unique to study.

Another possible reason to avoid research into the realm of credibility between a BCD and her or his staff may be that it is not an important consideration for this particular relationship. "The boss is the boss" and so little else matters; besides, this "boss" is only a temporary one so time spent fostering this relationship is not time well spent. Recently, two experiences at Central Michigan University, a midwestern university of about 16,000 students, encouraged these researchers to question this possible assumption that credibility of the BCD may not be a factor that would affect the relationship between him or her and the staff. Seemingly simple changes in the status quo at Central Michigan University produced noticeable differences in staff motivation and attitudes.

First, two of the researchers, both faculty members (one was the BCD), were asked to present a two-hour workshop on effective teaching for about 200 first-year and returning GTAs from across campus in a newly-instituted, campus-wide training program. We were the only faculty to be asked to do so and so were presented as authorities on teaching and GTA training. At a departmental gathering hours after the workshop, not at all related to the workshop or GTA training, our own GTAs indicated how lucky they felt after hearing GTAs in other departments bemoan their lack of training by qualified people. Rather than viewing GTA training as a time-consuming, exhausting activity, sentiments expressed by previous groups of incoming GTAs, this group saw immediate value in spending three weeks of their summer preparing to teach. These GTAs expressed more readiness to engage in training activities and more fully believed in the value of such activities. In addition, their willingness to accept input from the BCD about policies, procedures, effective teaching, and so on seemed to come with much less resistance than in previous

groups and their motivation to excel was clearly higher overall.

Second, as part of an introduction to graduate study course, faculty were asked to hand out resumes containing, among other things, a list of their presentations and publications. In our department, the BCD has a strong presentation and publication record. Again, a noticeable change seemed to occur in the overall acceptance of decisions, ideas and input from the BCD in her dealings with the GTAs in the basic course. Whereas in prior semesters early interactions with GTAs had focused primarily on the day-to-day exigencies of teaching the basic course, interactions this year were as likely to deal with more cerebral aspects of teaching and education in general.

The belief that the relationship between a BCD and her or his staff (especially GTAs) is a unique one worthy of investigation and the growing suspicion that a heightened credibility can affect this relationship prompted this case study of a BCD and his or her staff members. Specifically, the roles of both perceived teaching expertise and perceived research expertise in the judgment of perceived credibility were isolated for this initial investigation. Four questions guided this inquiry: (a) How important is the perceived credibility of a basic course director to the staff, (b) what effect would low perceived credibility have on staff members, (c) what is the relative importance of teaching competence and research competence to this perceived credibility, and (d) what skills/behaviors influence this perceived credibility?

METHOD

In an attempt to gather insights from staff members to illustrate and add to our own experiences working with GTAs, a detailed case study combining quantitative and qualitative measures was undertaken. Data were collected from the entire population of all GTAs teaching in the basic course in

Table 1
Raw Data and Content Analysis of Questionnaire[1]

Research Question 1: How important is the perceived credibility of a basic course director to his/her staff?

Data from questionnaire questions 1 and 2 below were used in discussing this research question.

Questionnaire Question #1: Overall, how important is it to you that your basic course director be credible in your eyes (1 = not very important, 5 = very important)?

(1 person answered 2) (5 persons answered 4)
(13 persons answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #2: Why do you feel this way?

5 persons viewed the idea of role model producing credibility
3 persons viewed the BCD as a foundation of support person to lean upon
3 persons would reject the advice/direction if lacking in credibility
4 persons viewed depth of knowledge and amount of experience as being important
2 persons believed a sense of humanness, faith and trust are necessary
2 persons believed confidence and professional distance are important

[1]Questions 2 and 3 were open-ended questions; questions 1 and 4 through 14 asked for responses based on a Likert-type scale. The last two, open-ended questionnaire questions are not included in this table. The questions were as follows: Question 15: Is there anything else about [your BCD] that has added to her credibility (or lack thereof) as a BCD in your eyes? Please list and state how important this credential/behavior is to your assessment, and Question 16: What else might [your BCD] or another BCD do to establish credibility with his/her staff? The vast disparity of answers given resulted in the development of the broad categories of answers already elaborated on in the text of this paper in the discussion of the fourth research question.

Research Question 2: What effect would low perceived credibility have on staff members?

Data from questionnaire question 3 below was used in discussing this research question.

Questionnaire Question #3: What effect(s) might a lack of credibility have:? What are you more or less likely to do if your BCD lacks credibility in your eyes?

5 claimed that GTAs would take matters into their own hands
4 claimed that GTAs would either avoid or ignore the feedback from the BCD
3 claimed that it would cause GTAs to feel insecure and lacking in confidence in themselves as well as the BCD
4 claimed that it would cause a lack of respect for the BCD among the GTAs
5 claimed that it would cause the department to look badly
6 claimed that it would cause GTAs to suffer from bad attitudes toward the course, department, and the BCD
4 claimed that a lack of foundation, direction, and consistency would lead to poor work ethics
1 person felt credibility is not important

Research Question #3: What is the relative importance of teaching competence and research competence to this perceived credibility?

Data from questionnaire questions 4 through 7 below were used in discussing this research question.

Questionnaire Question #4: For the following, 1 = not very credible and 5 = very credible. Overall, how credible to you feel [your BCD] is in her role as BCD?

(1 person answered 4) (18 persons answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #5: How credible is [your BCD] as a role model for being an effective researcher?

(2 persons answered 3) (5 persons answered 4)
(12 persons answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #6: How credible is [your BCD] as a role model for being an effective researcher?

(2 persons answered 3) (5 persons answered 4)
(14 persons answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #7: Which competence (teacher or researcher) is more important to you as you make your judgment about her as a basic course director?

(4 claimed both are equally important)
(11 claimed teaching competence is somewhat more important)
(3 claimed that teaching competence is the most important)
(1 person refused to answer, stating that both are equally important but neither is really very important)

Research Question 4: What skills/behaviors influence this perceived credibility?

Data from questionnaire questions 8 through 14b below and the final two open-ended questions (see footnote 1) were used in discussing this research question.

On a scale from 1-5 with 1 = not very important and 5 = very important, how would you rate the following credentials/behaviors in terms of their overall affect on your assessment of [your BCD] as a credible BCD?

Questionnaire Question #8: Knowledge of [your BCD's] teaching experiences:

(2 answered 1) (1 answered 3)
(4 answered 4) (12 answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #9: Knowledge of [your BCD's] teaching awards/commendations:

(2 answered 1) (2 answered 2) (7 answered 3)
(7 answered 4) (1 answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #10: Knowledge of [your BCD's publication record:

(3 answered 2) (6 answered 3)
(6 answered 4) (4 answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #11: Actual experience watching [your BCD] teach:

(1 answered 2) (5 answered 4) (13 answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #12: Actual experience watching [your BCD] present/conduct research:

(2 answered 1) (4 answered 3)
(10 answered 4) (3 answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #13: Private conversations with [your BCD] about teaching:

(1 answered 1) (1 answered 3)
(6 answered 4) (11 answered 5)

Questionnaire Question #14: Private conversations with [your BCD] about research:

(2 answered 1) (6 answered 3)
(8 answered 4) (3 answered 5)

our department during the spring semester, 1992. The staff consisted of 3 GTAs who had just started teaching a week prior to the meeting and 16 GTAs who had completed one to three semesters of teaching prior to the meeting. All 19 had completed the three-week, pre-semester training session prior to the fall semester, 1991.

The questionnaire was developed by the researchers to gain insight into the four research questions posed. The questionnaire consisted of 12 Likert-type questions and 4 open-ended questions. This questionnaire was distributed during a staff meeting. Since the subjects were few in number and homogeneous in context (i.e., all from the same program), results will be reported only in a general way to note apparent trends implied through this case study, possible implications of this information, and future paths for research. Table 1 presents the actual raw data and the content analysis results from the questionnaire. Table 1 also indicates what items from the questionnaire were used in the discussion of each of the four research questions posed in this case study.

RESULTS

Research Question 1: How important is the perceived credibility of a basic course director to his/her staff?

Certainly few people would believe that credibility would be of no importance, but this was a question we had given little thought to prior to our investigation. However, the experiences related at the start of this paper seemed to indicate that overall credibility may be of great importance. This suspicion was supported. On a 5-point scale (5 = very important), all but one GTA rated the importance of the BCD being credible to them as either a 4 or a 5. The one GTA who rated this question a 2 stated that what mattered was the staff's ability to teach and so the BCD's ability to teach, conduct research, etc. was of little importance. As logical as this might seem, this belief was held by only one GTA!

When asked why they felt as they did, the GTAs made some interesting observations. Overall, they described the need to put "trust and faith" in that person if the basic course were to be kept running smoothly. "It would be very difficult

to accept advice, information, etc. from *anyone* who I didn't find credible." Without credibility, it would be "difficult to take her seriously." "The confidence I have in her ability in her role gives me confidence in my role." Further, many GTAs stated that the credibility of the BCD helped form their impressions of the department: "This individual represents the department as the 'Communication Guru' and needs to have established a great deal of credibility to fulfill this role." It was quite clear that this group of GTAs felt that the credibility of the BCD was extremely important to their success as a GTA and even as a graduate student overall.

Research Question 2: What effect would low perceived credibility have on staff members?

Once again, the GTAs had strong opinions here. 'When a person's professional accomplishments are great, he or she is more credible to me a d thus commands more of my respect, causing me to work harder for his or her approval, etc." While the typical response just stated might not be all that surprising, other comments were much stronger. "I would also have a more difficult time taking my own job as a GA seriously." "I would be very unlikely to ask for assistance from a director with low credibility. Also, evaluation and criticism would be very difficult to receive from such an individual." "Lack of credibility would also result in my *not* paying much attention to ideas and suggestions for improvements." If such comments imply mutiny, that's just what some GTAs indicated, in no uncertain terms. "A lack of credibility could create a nonprofessional work climate which could lead to nonprofessional work ethics." Further, "I would probably tend to stray off of the specific format set up by the course director and 'do my own thing.'" "If I didn't see him or her as credible I may base my decisions more on my own assumptions." "I would be more likely to take litl upon myself to research the material I thought appropriate and teach as I see fit." "If I perceived my

basic course director to lack credibility, I would be less apt to follow the regulations that go along with teaching the basic course." "If I did have a BCD who lacked credibility], my ultimate task would be to create a program (syllabus, lesson format, etc.) that I could live with, and try to minimize the negative impact of such a director." Again, a detrimental effect on the department as a whole was suggested. "If I don't respect my boss, for example in some past jobs, I tend not to favor the job or the work environment. This not only affects my work performance but might also affect the image I present for the organization." The power of the above assertions seems heightened when it is kept in mind that this group of GTAs consists entirely of Master's students with little or, most commonly, no prior teaching experience before becoming a GTA and that the basic course at Central Michigan University is completely standardized (common syllabus, assignments, grading criteria, attendance policy, tests, and so on). These GTAs' responses lead to the belief that the lack of credibility by a BCD would have a dramatic negative effect on the basic course program and, possibly, even the graduate program!

Research question 3: What is the relative importance of teaching competence and research competence to this perceived credibility?

One question on the questionnaire asked the students to rate which competence, researcher or teacher, was more important to their judgment of credibility of their BCD: 1 = research competence is the most important, 2 = research competence is somewhat more important, 3 = both are equally important, 4 = teaching competence is somewhat more important, and 5 = teaching competence is the most important. One GTA refused to answer, stating that "this teaching and research stuff is irrelevant." (This same student went on to state that "She is most competent because she has co-

authored the textbook and helped design the present system for teaching.") However, most GTAs (11 of the 19) circled 4 - teaching competence is somewhat more important. Three GTAs circled 3 - teaching competence is the most important, but four GTAs circled 5 - both are equally important. While these data show that teaching competence is perceived by this group of GTAs as more important than research competence, what may be surprising is how significant research competence became as part of the total evaluation of credibility. In fact, it was interesting to note that these GTAs felt that their BCD was very credible in her overall role of BCD (18 answered 5, the highest option indicating credibility). In their responses to how credible she was as a researcher and then as a teacher, more GTAs rated her higher as a credible role model in research than they did in teaching! Once again, for the GTAs in this case study, research expertise ranked comparably with teaching expertise in terms of the affect of these two competence areas on credibility.

Research Question 4: What skills/behaviors influence this perceived credibility?

On the questionnaire, certain skills/behaviors were provided to the GTAs for their reactions (1 = not very important and 5 = very important). Knowledge of the BCD's teaching experiences were rated as important (mostly 4s and 5s), knowledge of teaching awards/commendations received varied responses (3s and 4s were the most common responses), knowledge of her publication record seemed somewhat important (10 of 19 responded with a 4 or 5 and 6 students answered with a 3), actual experience watching her teach was considered very important (18 of the 19 responded with a 4 or 5; most used 5), actual experience watching her present/conduct research was viewed as important (13 rated this a 4 or 5), private conversations with her about teaching were seen as extremely important (17 of the 19 rated this a 4 or 5;

most used a 5), and private conversations with her about research seemed somewhat important (11 rated this a 4 or a 5). From least important to most important, it appears that this group of GTAs ranked the above skills/behaviors in this way: knowledge of the BCD's teaching awards/experiences, knowledge of the BCD's teaching experiences, knowledge of the BCD's publication record, private conversations with the BCD about research, actual experience watching the BCD present/conduct research, actual experience watching the BCD teach, and private conversations with the BCD about teaching. Once again, although teaching behaviors seemed to outrank publication endeavors, knowledge of and experience with the BCD in the area of publication was important and outranked some of the items concerned only with teaching. Further, behaviors that included direct interaction between the BCD and the GTAs were evaluated as most important in developing their assessment of credibility.

On the open-ended questions seeking input from the GTAs about other behaviors/skills that could add to the credibility of a BCD, a variety of items were listed. Interpersonal abilities mentioned included the following: willingness to listen to feedback, support of the staff, keeping a professional distance yet a warm relationship, demonstrating caring toward the staff, socializing with the staff, listening ability, empathy, and being fair and open-minded. Leadership behaviors such as problem-solving abilities, open-door policy, knowledge of management procedures, years of experience, consistency, providing specific expectations for the staff, and maintaining control also were listed. Other items included research in teaching areas, overall knowledge of the field of communication, professional dress, speaking style, being a role model for effective teaching, personal standards, and seldom being wrong.

IMPLICATIONS AND SUMMARY

While this inquiry provides only an initial look at credibility as it impacts on the relationship between a BCD and the staff, some interesting insights have been gathered. First of all, the potential impact of a lack of credibility on the behaviors of the staff was frightening. Many GTAs openly admitted to mutiny! The distinct potential for such blatant conflict found in this case study lends credence to the claim that credibility is worth building with staff members.

Second, even though teaching competence was seen by GTAs as more important to the assessment of credibility of the BCD than was research, this finding was not surprising. What was surprising was the extent to which research skills and publications influenced their overall judgment of the credibility of the BCD! This finding could lead to the conclusion that an active researcher may be a solid choice for the role of BCD. Further, BCDs might make knowledge of their experiences/accomplishments in both teaching and research a part of the information they share with their staff members. This process should be approached with caution, however. This particular group of GTAs gained access to information regarding the experiences/ accomplishments of the BCD by way of another class. The instructor of that class encouraged the sharing of vitae as a method of getting acquainted with the faculty of thedepartment. If a BCD were to hand out her or his vita for the sole purpose of announcing qualifications, that person then runs the risk of a whiplash effect (who does she think she is?). Rather than building credibility, that person may, in fact, be perceived as egotistical and/or lacking in self-esteem (and so feel the need to build credibility through a listing of accomplishments rather than relying on his or her behaviors with the staff to build credibility). Either perception could harm overall perceptions of credibility. Sharing knowledge of the BCD's accomplishments in teaching and research might best be done through more subtle behaviors such as

using past experiences in discussions about graduate life and being sure that any "credential" associated with that teaching/research experience is part of the information shared, etc. Indeed, the GTAs in this case study referred to the importance of direct contact with the BCD in forming opinions about credibility (watching her teach and conduct research, talking with her in private, etc.). BCDs in programs too large to incorporate this direct contact, or where the commitment to the BCD (or by the BCD) does not allow the released time necessary for such individual contact, may encourage a low credibility assessment of the BCD by the staff and, therefore, encourage some of the negative behaviors that could arise from this view of the BCD. Regardless of how the sharing of information concerning the BCD's teaching and professional experiences is done, the data from this case study indicate that it is important to find some mechanism to have the information shared with the staff.

Third, as evidenced by the diverse list of items in the open-ended sections, credibility of a BCD is a complex variable that probably has different meanings for different GTAs (and other staff members) due to backgrounds, personality characteristics, the present environment, and so on. Surely the impact of knowledge of teaching and research competence is only the beginning in identifying factors that could lead to a positive assessment of credibility by staff members. Many of the items generated by these GTAs could be isolated and researched more specifically for their potential impact on a BCD's credibility. In addition, it is our suspicion that the environment in which the BCD operates may have an impact on overall credibility. Is the BCD treated with respect by colleagues and/or administrators? What is the overall image of the basic course on that campus? Is the basic course and BCD supported with office space, materials, classroom space, reassigned time, and so on? It may be possible that the staff members themselves transfer their own treatment as professionals to the BCD, believing that her or his credibility.

translates into better working conditions for them (office space, copying facilities, secretarial help, access to computers, etc.).

Further research into the effects of credibility on the relationship between a BCD and the, staff is warranted. Certainly our experiences and those of our GTAs may not be typical. Indeed, there may be reasons to believe that our situation is not typical. The BCD at Central Michigan University is well supported by the administration and the faculty. The BCD herself is, as one GTA wrote, "more than marvelous, she is motivating." In addition, the basic course staff at Central Michigan University consists solely of Master's level GTAs with little or no prior teaching experience. A broader base of perceptions is needed in order to generalize about the possible effects of credibility on the relationship between a BCD and the staff. However, this case study as an initial inquiry provides some tantalizing possibilities for avenues to be explored as researchers continue to look for ways to strengthen the all-important yet all-too-tenuous relationship between a BCD and the staff.

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Are You a REAL Teacher? Student Perceptions of the Graduate Student as Instructor of the Basic Communication Course*

Lynda R. Willer

> A teacher is one for whom the pupil, student, or associate has high regard . . . and guides the student's learning and impresses him/her as a devoted and special individual . . . (Bartley, 1982).

Many teachers of the basic communication course are graduate students. In fact, current estimates suggest upwards of at least 25% to 75% of the teaching of basic communication courses is done by graduate teaching assistants (GTA) or junior faculty (who is frequently at the instructor level and often a former GTA) (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray, 1990; Gibson, Hanna, & Huddleston, 1985; Gibson, Gruner, Hanna, Smythe, & Hayes, 1980; Nyquist & Wulff, 1987). The influence of the graduate teaching assistant's teaching experience on the effectiveness of the basic course is critical.

INTRODUCTION

Past research in the basic course has examined many aspects which relate to the graduate student's teaching

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experience. One line of research has attempted to identify the structure, scope, concerns, and perceptions of the course (see, for example, Gibson, et. al., 1985; Gibson, 35. al., 1980; Hiemstra & Staton-Spicer, 1983; Pearson, Nelson, & Sorenson, 1981; Weaver & Cotrell, 1989). Other research has examined the role of, and training of GTAs (see, for example, Andrews, 1983; Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray, 1990; Kaufman-Everett & Backlund, 1981; Nyquist & Wulff, 1987). Still other research, although not limited to the basic communication course, identifies dimensions as teacher credibility (Beatty & Behnke, 1980; Beatty & Zahn, 1990), power in the classroom (Plax, Kearney, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1986; Richmond, McCroskey, Kearney, & Plax, 1987; Roach, 1991), and teacher immediacy (Andersen, 1979; Cristophel, 1990; Gorham, 1988, Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Kearney, Plax, Smith, & Sorenson, 1988). These dimensions (and others) are often used to facilitate evaluation of teacher effectiveness, and certainly are applicable to evaluation of teaching in the basic course. However, little of this research (Roach, 1991 is an exception) focuses specifically on the graduate teaching assistant as teacher.

FOCUS OF THIS PAPER

This paper intends to focus on the graduate student as instructor of the basic course. As Buerkel-Rothfuss & Fink (1992) suggest, "GTAs have just begun the process of developing the knowledge and skills necessary to become competent teachers" (p. 3). Despite these beginning levels of knowledge and skills, as the graduate student instructor is often the first exposure to the communication discipline that an undergraduate has. Thus, the perception the undergraduate has of the graduate student as teacher becomes important for two reasons: 1) evaluating the teaching effectiveness of the graduate student, and 2) evaluating the worth of pursuing additional courses in the discipline.

But how accurate are an undergraduate's perception of the graduate student as teacher of basic communication courses? Are graduate student instructors perceived as comparable to faculty member instructors? Or are students feeling "cheated" when enrolled in a course taught by a graduate student and wondering whether the graduate student is a "real" teacher? This paper will attempt to answer such questions by examining the results of data collected to explore students' perceptions of graduate students as instructors of the basic communication class.

BASIC COMMUNICATION COURSES AND GRADUATE STUDENT INSTRUCTORS

The basic communication courses used for the data collection are an interpersonal communication course, a group communication course and a public speaking course (all at the introductory level). In the communication discipline, GTAs usually handle the major proportion of the teaching of introductory level courses (Staton-Spicer & Nyquist, 1979, p. 199). According to McMillen (1986), surveys show that graduate students teach a significant proportion of the lower division courses at major research institutions (p. 9). In the current data collection , the interpersonal and public speaking courses at the private academic institution are taught primarily by GTAs and cover three to four sections of each course for each of the three quarters of the school year. At the public academic institution, 50% of the 12-14 sections per semester of the public speaking course and the group communication course are taught by GTAs. Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray (1990) conclude that "much of our undergraduate educational function rests on the ability of people who have had no prior teaching experience and who have only recently left the undergraduate classrooms themselves" (p. 305). Additionally, many of these graduate students are teaching as a result of being awarded teaching assistantships. And yet, in the

Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray (1990) study, the GTA selection criteria found to be used the *least* were successful completion of a teaching methods course or prior teaching experience (p. 296). Further, 52% of responding chairpersons and department heads indicated the GTA has no prior teaching experience and 20% of the departments provided no training of the GTA prior to the first classroom teaching experience (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray, 1990). At the institutions where this paper's data were collected there were no formal training sessions for the graduate students assigned to teach the courses except for a brief orientation meeting for each course discussing the regulations and structural suggestions. This extent of training for graduate teaching assistants is not necessarily an unusual occurrence. Kaufman-Everett and Backlund (1981) report more than 50% of a survey's respondents indicated that their respective departments did not provide adequate preparation for college teaching. And while more current research (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Gray, 1990) found that 80% of those departments surveyed offered training of some kind, most indicated that the training takes one week or less. Often when training does occur the training focus was on the mechanics of conducting a course, such as syllabi construction, test construction, evaluation methods rather than on the teaching process (Kaufman-Everett & Backlund, 1981). And yet, it is not the mechanics but the teaching process that is the usual focus of teaching effectiveness evaluations.

EVALUATION OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

What do evaluations of teaching effectiveness typically consist of in examining the teaching process? A substantial body of research has been directed toward identifying important aspects of students' evaluations of their instructors (see Wittrock & Lumsdaine, 1977 for an early review of the

literature). Several dimensions of such evaluation have been identified in recent research including the interpersonal dimension and the task dimension.

Interpersonal Dimension of Teacher Effectiveness

The interpersonal dimension has been examined by several researchers (Beatty & Zahn, 1990; Cooper, Stewart, & Gudykunst, 1982; Haslett, 1976; Hughey, Harper, & Harper, 1982; March, 1977; Norton, 1977; Powell & Arthur, 1982, 1985; Scott & Nussbaum, 1981; Umble & Whitten, 1977) to identify and assess as variety of components attributed to the interpersonal dimension. Powell and Arthur (1982) conclude that affect dimensions such as enthusiasm, interactional style, student/teacher rapport, classroom personality, receptivity, warmth and confirmation are important aspects of teacher effectiveness.

Task Dimension of Teacher Effectiveness

Evaluation criteria related more to the task functions of teaching may be included with the interpersonal dimensions in the examination of teaching effectiveness. Such factors as knowledge of subject matter, planning and organization of the course, instructional format, classroom skills, and size of class have been examined (Browne & Gillis, 1982; Meredith & Ogasawara, 1982a, 1982b; Pearson, et. al., 1981).

Meredith (1983, p. 549) summarized previous evaluation research to cite ten characteristics identified as the most important components of effective university teaching; mastery of subject matter, concern for students, stimulation of student interest, clarity of explanation, enthusiasm, encouragement of student's participation, availability for consultation, fairness

in grading, preparation and organization, and public speaking ability.

RESEARCH ON THE EVALUATION AND TRAINING OF GRADUATE STUDENT INSTRUCTORS

Specific emphasis of some of the teaching evaluation research (see, for example, Hughey, et al., 1982; Meredith & Ogasawara, 1982, and Powell & Arthur, 1982) has been focused on the graduate student as instructor. In fact, Meredith (1980) identified the most salient ordered markers used in evaluating teaching assistants to be the following items: overall effectiveness, enthusiastic, stimulated sense of challenge, insight, and discovery in students, helpful, availability of T.A., T.A. interest in students and their progress, friendly and easy to talk with, effective in leading group discussions, and could explain in terms easy to understand.

Additionally, there has been a research focus on training graduate teaching assistants (Abbott, Wulff, & Szego, 1989; Andrews, 1985; Carroll, 1980; Dalgaard, 1982; Diamond & Gray, 1987; McMillen, 1986; Nyquist, Abbott, & Wulff, 1989).

However, despite these few studies which focused on graduate student teaching, it remains unclear what perceptions of the graduate student as instructor the undergraduate bring to the classroom situation, how the graduate student teacher compares to the faculty member, and what undergraduates perceive as advantages and disadvantages of being enrolled in a class with a graduate student as the instructor. An undergraduate may assess the graduate student instructor on evaluation items such as those suggested earlier with a distorted perception of the graduate student's abilities as a teacher. It is with an earlier version of this paper (Willer, 1986) and in related studies (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Fink, 1992; Romer, 1991 — reported since the present studies were completed) that the perceptions of the undergraduate students

enrolled in the basic communication courses taught by the graduate teaching assistants have been examined.

The data collection of this paper was designed primarily to examine the undergraduate's perception of the graduate student as instructor of basic communication courses. As a result, the following primary research question can be asked:

RQ1: *What are the perceptions that undergraduates have of graduate students as instructors of basic communication courses?*

A secondary goal of the paper was to identify any differences in these perceptions based on when in the academic term the undergraduates are questioned and any differences based on whether the respondents attended a private academic institution emphasizing research or a public academic institution emphasizing teaching. As a result, a second research question can be asked:

RQ2: *Are there any differences in these undergraduate perceptions depending on whether responses were sought in the beginning of a teaching term or at the end of the term or if the academic institution is public or private?*

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

Table 1 summarizes the following descriptive information about the respondents. A total of 403 respondents completed questionnaires during the 3 phases. The respondents' ages ranged from 17 to 51 ($\bar{x}$ = 20). Forty percent of the respondents were male and 60% female. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were freshmen or sophomores (frequently the year in school for enrollment in the basic communication courses).

Table 1
Demographics

	Total Sample n=403	Phase 1 n=138	Phase 2 n=77	Phase 3 n=188
Age	$\bar{x}$=20	$\bar{x}$ =19	$\bar{x}$=19.2	$\bar{x}$=20.9
Gender				
Males	40%	43%	33%	42%
Females	60%	57%	67%	58%
% of Fresh/Soph	69%	80%	69%	58%
Comm Course				
IPC		61%	95%	39%(GRP)
PS		39%	5%	61%
How much GS is Liked	$\bar{x}$=5.7	$\bar{x}$=5.4	$\bar{x}$=5.4	$\bar{x}$=5.8

Descriptively, of the 138 respondents in Phase 1, 45% were 18 years old and 30% were 19 years old ($\bar{x}$=19.2). Forty-three percent were males and 57% were females. Eighty percent of the respondents were either freshmen or sophomores. And 61% were enrolled in the interpersonal communication course and 39% in the public speaking course.

Of the 77 respondents in Phase 2, 30% were 18 years old and 38% were 19 years old ($\bar{x}$=19.2) Thirty-three percent were males and 67% were females. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were either freshmen or sophomores. And 95% were enrolled in the interpersonal communication course and 5% in the public speaking course.

The 188 respondents of Phase 3 ranged in age from 17 years old to 46 years old ($\bar{x}$=20.9). Forty-two percent were males and 58% were females. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents were freshmen and sophomores. And 39% were en-

rolled in the group communication course and 61% in the public speaking course.

Although the graduate student instructors were not the respondents for this paper, in many ways they were the "subjects." A total of 15 graduate teaching assistants participated in this project (8 females and 7 males) with an age range of 22 to 45 years old. Additionally, the graduate student teachers had a range of teaching experience from none to several with two or more academic terms of a teaching assistantship to several who had up to seven years of university teaching experience. Ten of the graduate students (4 females and 6 males) participated in Phases 1 & 2 and 5 (4 females and 1 male) in Phase 3.

Procedure

Questionnaires concerning the perceptions of the graduate student as an instructor as compared to faculty members as teachers were distributed to students enrolled in basic communication courses at two universities, one a private academic institution which primarily emphasizes research and one a public academic institution which primarily emphasizes teaching. The students earned extra credit for participation. The study was divided into phases of three separate data collections., Questionnaires for Phase 1 (n=138) were distributed during the fall academic term during the first few weeks of the term. Questionnaires for Phase 2 (n=77) were distributed during the last week of the spring term. The purpose for such a distribution was to be able to identify if students have initial perceptions concerning their instructors at the beginning of a school term (when many are being exposed to a college setting for the first time) and if further exposure to the university teaching setting (more classes taken, longer exposure to specific instructor for a specific term, etc.) changes students' perceptions of their instructors. Phase 1 and 2 data represented the private academic institution.

Questionnaires for Phase 3 (n=188) were distributed at the public academic institution at the end of the academic term.

Measures

The questionnaires sought to examine students' perceptions of how graduate student teachers compare to faculty members as teachers. Using the interpersonal and task dimensions of teaching effectiveness evaluation criteria identified in previous research, subjects were asked to respond to 7-point scale items on how satisfied they were with the graduate student's course, teaching skills, grade obtained, preparation, rapport, knowledge level, classroom presence, and accessibility as compared to a faculty member teacher. They were also asked how much they liked the class being taught by the graduate student.

Additionally, subjects were asked about their anticipation of having graduate students teach the courses they would take in college, whether they had even taken a course in which they did not know whether they teacher was a faculty member or a graduate student, how many courses they had taken which had been taught by graduate students, and whether their best class, best grade, and most knowledge gained had come from courses taught by faculty members or graduate students. Open-ended questions concerning perceptions of major differences between taking a class taught by a faculty member or by a graduate student and advantages and disadvantages of having a graduate student as a teacher were also asked.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In addition to descriptive statistics, the data collected were subjected to three statistical tests: 10 factor analysis, 2) reliability, and 3, analysis of variance.

As mentioned earlier the items representing dimensions of teaching effectiveness evaluation criteria identified in previous research, were 7-point scale items on how satisfied they were with the graduate student's course, teaching skills, grade obtained, preparation, rapport, knowledge level, classroom presence, and accessibility. Table 2 summarizes the means of these 8 items in the total sample as well as by phases.

Table 2
Means of Perception of Graduate Students Items

	Total Sample n=403	Phase 1 n=138	Phase 2 n=77	Phase 3 n=188
Satisfaction with GS as Teacher	4.7	4.1	4.1	5.3
Satisfaction with GS Teaching Skills	4.3	3.8	3.9	4.9
Satisfaction with Grade Currently Receiving	4.6	4.0	4.7	4.9
Satisfaction with Preparation of GS	4.5	4.0	4.3	5.0
Knowledge Level of GS	4.1	3.7	4.0	4.6
Classroom Presence of GS	4.6	4.2	4.4	5.1
Rapport Established by GS	5.6	5.2	6.0	5.7
Accessibility of GS	4.9	4.7	5.6	4.7

Additional responses were sought concerning the respondents' anticipation of having graduate students as teachers, if respondents had ever taken a course in which they did not know if the teacher was a graduate student or faculty member, if they had ever had a graduate student as an instructor prior to their current class, and how much they liked classes taught by graduate students.

In the total sample of 403, 66% had not anticipated having a graduate student as the teacher of a course for which they would enroll (Phase 1 – 44%, Phase 2 – 51%, Phase 3 – 79%). Forty-six percent of the respondents in the total sample had taken or were taking a course in which they did not know if the instructor was a graduate student or faculty member (Phase 1 – 40%, Phase 2 – 45%, Phase 3 – 53%). In the total sample of 403 respondents, 49% never had a graduate student as instructor in a course prior to the course in which they were currently enrolled (Phase 1 – 60%, Phase 2 – 7%, Phase 3 - 59%). And finally, respondents generally liked the classes taught by the graduate students (x=5.6) (Phase 1 – $\bar{x}$=5.4, Phase 2 – $\bar{x}$=5.4, Phase 3 – $\bar{x}$=5.8).

Factor Analysis

The primary research question sought to identify undergraduates' perceptions of graduate students as teachers. As indicated earlier, past research pertaining to evaluating teacher effectiveness fairly consistently identifies two primary dimensions which can be labeled interpersonal dimension and task dimension with a variety of aspects attributed to each. Summarizing that information led to the development of eight items designed to tap into the undergraduate's perceptions of the graduate student as teacher of the basic communication course. A factor analysis was conducted to examine if indeed the two dimensions of teacher effectiveness emerged from the data. The purpose of this factor analysis was to examine the structure inherent in the responses to gain support for the

content validity of the items used to assess the undergraduates' perceptions of graduate student instructors. The traditional method of using those factors which had an associated eigenvalue of 1.0 or greater suggested two factors. A principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation was performed in which 2 factors were requested. Also the intuitive minimum of two items on any factor was used in identifying the 2-factor solution. The eignvalues and total percentage accounted for are provided in Table 3. A two-factor solution emerged with the varimax rotation and 3 iterations. Factor loadings were determined by the criterion of a loading of .5 or greater. Six items loaded on Factor 1 and 2 items on Factor 2. Table 4 identifies individual items and their factor loadings.

Table 3
Factor Analysis Initial Statistics

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Var	Cum %
1	4.36160	54.5	54.5
2	1.02065	12.8	67.3

Factor 1 appears to primarily represent the task dimension of evaluating teacher effectiveness. The items are particularly related to classroom techniques and skills (classroom presence, knowledge, satisfaction with preparation, satisfaction with grading, satisfaction with teaching skills, and general satisfaction with the graduate student as instructor of the course). Factor 2 appears to represent the interpersonal dimension of perceived teacher effectiveness consisting of the

variables of rapport and accessibility. While these are necessary for in-class management, they may be even more related to the relationship perceived to be established by the graduate student instructor out of class as well.

Table 4
Individual Items and Their Factor Loadings

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Satisfaction with GS as Teacher	.85250*	.15037
Satisfaction with GS Teaching Skills	.88459*	.13236
Satisfaction with Grade Currently Receiving	.61765*	.42136
Satisfaction with Preparation of GS	.83625*	.15935
Knowledge Level of GS	.74469*	.13923
Classroom Presence of GS	.67354*	.33729
Rapport Established by GS	.42879	.64292*
Accessibility of GS	0.2144	.90007*

Reliability

Because both dimensions of perceived teacher effectiveness appear to be represented by the items on the questionnaire, the individual eight items can be examined to determine if they could represent a computed score which would be a reliable measure of undergraduates' perceptions of graduate students as instructors of the basic communication courses. In order to answer the question if the eight items included in the analysis are a reliable assessment, a test of reliability was performed. Cronbach's alpha suggests a reliability of .88.

Thus, because so few articles focus evaluation of teacher effectiveness specifically on the graduate student instructor, this study makes an initial attempt to identify a means of examining that effectiveness.

Analysis of Variance

In order to answer the secondary research question, the eight items which comprise the reliable scale were then computed into a single total score of perception of graduate student as instructor. Using this computed variable as the dependent variable, analyses of variance were performed to identify differences of perceptions on issues of type of institution and when in the academic term the questionnaires were distributed. Examining just Phase 1 and Phase 2 data the perception score was compared between a distribution of the questionnaire at the beginning of the academic fall term and the end of the academic spring term. Phase 3 was not included in this particular analysis of variance because the data from that phase was only collected at t the end of the academic term. There was a significant difference [F=11.638, df(1,211), p=.001] in the perception of the graduate student as instructors as a result of when in the academic term the questionnaires were distributed.

A second analysis of variance was conducted to determine if a difference in perception of the graduate student as instructor existed in comparing private and public academic institutions with emphases on research and teaching, respectively. Again, a significant difference was identified [F=11.584, df(1,260), p=.001]. This particular comparison looked only at Phase 2 and Phase 3 data to control for the time in the academic year in which the questionnaires were distributed.

Table 5
Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages Phases 1&2/Phase 3	Disadvantages Phase 1&2/Phase 3
45/40 better rapport/more personal	70/37 less teaching experience
37/25 closer in age as a student	37/34 lack of knowledge
25/24 more understanding of student's needs and life)	9/12 nervous/lack of confidence
23/25 more accessible	7/10 preoccupied by own studies
14/15 enthusiastic	4/3 not as prepared
14/10 more interaction/ communication	4/4 less grading experience thus inconsistency
13/10 relaxed atmosphere	4/4 less esteemed/respected
11/7 tries new things/fresh ideas	4/2 disorganized/due to 1st time teaching
9/11 more approachable	3 grades harder
8/6 smaller classes	3 too arrogant
5/3 easier to understand	3/2 less control
5/1 more prepared/takes it more seriously	2 simply not good enough
3 more entertaining	2/3 doesn't challenge enough
3/3 less formal	superficially more friendly
3/3 has more current knowledge	language problems
2/4 never expects too much	can take advantage of
2/9 more fun/friendlier	1/2 less pull with faculty
2/1 not as cold as faculty	not as interesting
doesn't talk too much	less personal
more interesting	less interesting
not out to ruin student	overzealous
don't just prefer doing research	we're just "practice" students
1/1 helps hold tuition down	less professional
less jaded	not a teacher by trade

Open-ended Questions

The open-ended questions asking respondents for the advantages and disadvantages of having a graduate student as a teacher in many ways revealed the most interesting data. Combining the three phases, the top four advantages to having a graduate student as a teacher were: a better rapport/more personal, closer in age to the students, more understanding (of the student life and needs), and more accessible. The four most listed disadvantages to having a graduate student as a teacher were: less teaching experience, lack of knowledge, nervous/lack of confidence, and preoccupied/busy with own work and studies. See Table 5 for a complete listing of these advantages and disadvantages.

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to identify components of teacher effectiveness which contribute to the undergraduates' perceptions of graduate students as instructors of the basic communication course. Review of previous research identified dimensions of teacher effectiveness. However, few of these studies, particularly from a communication discipline perspective, focus attention solely on undergraduates' perceived evaluations of graduate students instructors on these dimensions. Thus, what is unknown is how undergraduates perceive (and perhaps, as a result, evaluate) graduate students who are the instructors of the basic communication courses in which they enroll. This study attempted to provide a preliminary exploration of this issue.

Using the variables of effective teaching identified in a summary of the available information, the descriptive analysis of the individual items suggests the positive perception of the graduate student instructors on most of the items. Further, the factor analysis conducted in this study confirmed

two factors consisting of variables which were fairly consistent with the interpersonal and task dimensions identified in the literature. Additionally, the percentage of variance (55%) accounted for by the factor which can be labeled as representing the task dimension appears to suggest that undergraduates do consider important classroom techniques and skills beyond assessing the relational aspects that can be developed between teachers and students.

Thus, this study suggests that undergraduates' perceptions of graduate student instructors can be examined in terms of interpersonal and task dimensions of teacher effectiveness. It also appears that undergraduates perceive graduate student instructors positively on most individual items of teacher effectiveness. Further, the reliability of the scaled items suggest the ability to look at undergraduate perceptions of graduate student instructors as a computed measure of graduate student teaching effectiveness.

A secondary purpose was to identify aspects which may influence these perceptions. Two variables were suggested for the preliminary exploration of this identification: 1) point of time in academic term when questionnaires are distributed; and 2) type of academic institution examined. The significant differences identified suggest the influence of each of these variables on the undergraduates' perceptions of a graduate students as instructors of basic courses. It is, however, beyond the primary purpose and scope of the current study to accomplish any more than the identification of some potential influences on perceptions of graduate student instructors.

However, some preliminary implications of the results of this study can be examined. One, exposure to graduate student teachers appears to be a key consideration in examining the undergraduates' perceptions of graduate students as instructors as, in Phase 1 and 2, there was generally a shift toward more positive perceptions from those responses gathered earlier in the academic term to those gathered at the end of an academic term. Phase 3 also appeared to confirm

the generally positive perceptions of graduate students as instructors of the basic courses on all the dimensions studied.

Since exposure to the graduate student instructor appears to be important to the development of more positive perceptions, there are some implications of the results for the training provided to graduate students in preparation of their teaching assistantships. If the undergraduates view the graduate student instructor as "just a student" despite positive perceptions of the experience of having graduate students as instructors, they may not attribute professionalism to the graduate student. The graduate student would benefit by being aware of such stereotypes and making the effort to overcome them. By making the effort to establish good rapport with the class, to be accessible to the students, to be well prepared, to demonstrate knowledge of the course material, to appear more professional in behavior and appearance, and to establish prior experience if the graduate student has it may be a way to answer in the undergraduates' minds whether or not the graduate student is a "real" teacher. Additionally, graduate students assign to fall term teaching responsibilities may want to exert more effort earlier to initially achieve a more positive perception. Often the graduate student instructor receives evaluations from their students only at the end of the term when it is too late to correct misperceptions. A midterm or regularly spaced evaluation system could help the graduate student instructor make the necessary adjustments before the term is over.

Secondly, there are some interesting implications when comparing the scaled evaluation items and the open-ended questions of these studies. It is obvious from both that rapport and accessibility influence the positive perceptions of graduate student teachers. Lack of knowledge does seem to be a consideration when undergraduates comment on the difference between graduate students instructors and faculty members on both the scaled items and the open-ended questions (although there was more of a concern with lack of

knowledge with the open-ended questions than with the scaled items). A couple of discrepancies occurred when open-ended responses yielded such a large number of respondents who perceived that an advantage of graduate students as teachers was that they were closer in age to the students than faculty members. For example, because the actual age range of the graduate student teachers participating in the study was from 22 years old to over 40 years old (which makes many of the graduate student teachers near the age or older than some of the faculty members at the participating in situations), it is apparent that the perceptual reasoning is that since this person is also a student, he/she must be close to the same age as the undergraduate students. The same perceptual process may also be operating when respondents feel that graduate students do not have as much teaching experience as faculty members. Many of the graduate student teachers participating in the study have as much, if not more, full-time teaching experience (although obviously without advanced degree in hand) as faculty members. Again, since the graduate student may be viewed first as a "student" then as an instructor, the perception is just the opposite. It appears that view of "students as teachers" may operate despite positive perceptions of the graduate student as teacher experience. The graduate student would benefit by being aware of such perspectives in order to make the effort to overcome them.

Further, relying more on open-ended evaluation questions may provide more useful information in determining what perceptions the undergraduate brings to the class in which the graduate student is a teacher.

Exposure to graduate students as instructors can also be examined as an explanation of results comparing type of academic institution. However, the differences between the two can possibly be explained by examining exposure from a different perspective. Instead of focusing on exposure as the length of time exposed to a specific graduate student instructor, it can be examined as how many classes respondents were

taking, or had taken, that were taught by graduate students. The respondents from the private university sample were taking, or had taken, more classes taught by graduate students than those respondents from the public university sample. The novelty of having a graduate student as instructor may not be impacting on the perceptions of that graduate student. As a result, the respondents from private university sample may be more critical in their evaluation of the graduate student. The Phase 2 and Phase 3 samples differed on all specific evaluation dimensions (knowledge, preparation, teaching skills, classroom presence, and accessibility) except rapport. On each of these, except accessibility, the respondents from the public university sample were less critical than the respondents from the private university sample.

Additionally, the particular public university utilized for this study has traditionally emphasized teaching over research responsibilities for both faculty and graduate students while research is emphasized at the private university. This difference in emphasis between the public and private institutions used for the studies can also explain some of the results. The graduate student instructors at the public university may spend more time on their teaching responsibilities; thus, be perceived as more knowledgeable, more prepared, have better teaching skills, and have better classroom presence. Because the faculty at the public university may also be more involved in teaching activities than research activities, the respondents may not view the graduate student instructors as more accessible than faculty; whereas, the respondents at the private university may perceive the graduate student instructors as more accessible than faculty members because of the emphasis on faculty research activities. In fact, this teaching or research orientation is much more descriptive of the differences between the two institutions than the public or private label. Certainly, future research may want to explore this and other distinctions between types of academic institutions.

Future research may also want to address other issues as well. There is a need for replication due to the exploratory nature of the current study. There is also the need to examine undergraduates' perceptions of graduate student instructors in their initial exposure to the graduate student (or maybe even prior to their first exposure) and then to examine the same undergraduates' perceptions of the graduate student at the end of exposure to the specific graduate students instructors. A repeated measures design would be recommended to be able to assess if indeed the undergraduates' perceptions become more positive over time.

The perceptions of graduate student instructors identified in this study and the preliminary identification of some aspects which appear to have influence on those perceptions indicate the need for graduate student instructor training on more than just the mechanics of conducting a course. Training needs to incorporate the areas of teaching effectiveness which influence undergraduate perceptions of the graduate student as instructor. Additionally, there is a need to tailor graduate student teacher preparation based on situational aspects inherent within the particular university system. In preparing graduate students for their teaching responsibilities there is no guaranteed method of ensuring teaching effectiveness. However, if consideration is given to the perceptions that undergraduates have of graduate student instructors based on their exposure to graduate students at the specific institution, the teaching experience the graduate student has become more positive and the teaching effectiveness of the graduate student instructor can improve. Certainly graduate student instructors can be REAL teachers too!

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Student Perceptions of Teaching Assistants (TAs)

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"In recent years...funding practices for graduate education, combined with an increasing hierarchy of educational values that diminishes teaching in favor of research .... has resulted in the fact that those graduate students, assigned to teach sections in elementary courses, are often the least experienced among their peers as teachers and in many cases also the newest arrivals at the university" (Romer, 1991, p. 331).

As the above quote suggests, the hiring of TAs to teach sections of basic courses presents a number of potential problems, especially given the large numbers of graduate students who assume that role. Since the latter part of the 19th century, the number of TAs in colleges and universities has grown dramatically (Eble, 1987). For example, a national survey by Gibson, Hanna, and Huddleston (1985) indicated that 48% of the basic communication courses were taught either by former or current TAs. Buerkel-Rothfuss and Gray (1990) reported that TAs generated 25% of the credit hours in speech communication departments.

Obviously, TAs' initial forays into teaching include many and varied problems which can beset the best of them and cause many to give up the task. In particular, most TAs are just beginning to develop the knowledge and skills necessary to be competent teachers while striving to meet the expectations of their students. As such, both the progress of TAs

and the interests of their students need to be given careful consideration.

The two studies described herein sought to identify those factors which influence the degree to which TAs can meet their students' expectations and to identify those areas where TA trainers and Basic Course Directors (BCDs) may focus their energies to best enhance TA training. By identifying reasons why TAs tend to be perceived as lacking in expertise, it may be possible for those involved in the training and supervision of TAs to better prepare them for their teaching tasks.

Weaver and Cotrell (1989) identified five problems that plague basic course instructors: (a) striking a balance between leniency and rigor in the classroom, (b) providing students with appropriate levels of dependence/independence, (c) establishing the desired outcome of the class (achieving a combination of learning theory and skill development), (d) establishing a productive relationship with students, and (e) establishing objective methods of evaluation and grading. Since TAs generally teach basic courses, the aforementioned problems could be especially problematic for them. In addition, a number of other variables appear to be related to teaching effectiveness: communication style (Andersen, Norton, & Nussbaum, 1981; Nussbaum & Scott, 1979; Scott & Nussbaum, 1981), verbal and nonverbal teacher immediacy behaviors (Anderson & Withrow, 1981; Gorham, 1988; Kearney, Plax, & Wendt-Wasco, 1985; Richmond, Gorham, & McCroskey, 1986), student-teacher interaction patterns (Cooper, Stewart, & Gudyknust, 1982; Gorham, 1988), interpersonal attraction (Andriate, 1982), compliance-gaining strategies (Kearney, Plax, Richmond, & McCroskey, 1985), and affinity seeking (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986). It seems likely that these variables also would have an influence on how TAs are perceived and evaluated by their students, given their relative lack of teaching experience and possibly limited background in their content areas. Each of these vari-

ables can be operationalized as specific TA classroom behaviors, such as presenting course material in a clear, organized, appropriately illustrated fashion (communicator style, teaching style, organization); using students' names and using personal examples to illustrate material (verbal immediacy); showing concern and respect for students (affinity-seeking); and so on.

TAs may differ from regular, tenure-track faculty in more than experience and content knowledge, however, and many of those differences could impact on students' perceptions of them as instructors. Most obviously, TAs, especially those teaching during their Master's programs, tend to be closer in age to undergraduate students than regular faculty. Also, TAs must handle the two often-competing roles of student and instructor, and conflicts between these roles may affect their teaching. For example, TAs who identify too closely with the student role may find it difficult to grade rigorously or uphold course policies. Likewise, such identification may lead to high levels of empathy for students and high regard for their concerns, which could impact positively on student evaluations and learning.

In short, little is known about how TAs are perceived and evaluated as teachers by their students. Likewise, few studies provide insight into which variables best predict student evaluations. The purpose of the two studies presented herein is to begin to identify how TAs are perceived by students. In particular, three research questions underlie this research (1) When compared to regular, tenure-track faculty, how favorably are TAs evaluated by undergraduate students? (2) What specific teaching behaviors are related to positive and negative evaluations of TAs? and (3) What demographic variables are related to students' perceptions of TAs? Study 1 answers those questions and Study 2 extends those findings by addressing the limitations in Study 1.

STUDY 1

The main purpose of Study 1 was to compare students' evaluations of TAs as instructors with their evaluations of regular, tenure-track faculty. A second purpose was to begin to identify specific TA teaching activities that contribute to positive student evaluations.

Method

Sample and Procedures. The sample for Study 1 consisted of 350 undergraduate students (186 males and 164 females) enrolled in an introductory speech communication course at a midwestern university during fall semester, 1991. The basic course enrolls nearly 3000 students yearly and is completely taught by TAs. Seventy-two percent were freshmen, 17% were sophomores, 6% were juniors and 4% were seniors. Students completed the questionnaire outside of class time during the final week of classes and received 3 extra points on a 120-point scale for participation. Students were assured that their participation was voluntary and that their responses would remain anonymous.

The Instrument. The questionnaire consisted of 37 Likert-type statements (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) that asked for comparisons between TAs and tenure-track faculty for a variety of teaching variables (see Table 1). Thirty-three statements were designed as comparisons between TAs and tenure-track faculty for a variety of teaching behaviors (e.g., faculty are tougher graders, TAs are more creative, TAs are more likable). Four statements were general assessments designed as the dependent measures (e.g., TAs are generally not as qualified to teach as regular faculty). The statements were culled from teaching evaluation forms, discussions with undergraduates regarding their experiences with TA instructors, discussions with TAs, and descriptions of variables related to perceptions of teaching effectiveness dis

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Study 1 and Study 2

Item	X/SD (#1) (N=350)	X/SD (#2) (N=124)
TAs are friendlier ...	3.5/0.9	3.2/1.0
TAs are less proficient communicating content ...	2.6/1.0	2.3/0.9
TAs do not teach well ...	2.8/1.1	2.5/1.0
TAs are more concerned about their abilities ...	3.4/1.1	3.3/1.1
Regular faculty are tougher graders ...	2.7/1.2	2.8.1.1
TAs are not very interested in teaching ...	2.0/1.1	2.0/0.9
TAs are less responsible ...	2.3/0.9	2.3/0.9
TAs are more willing to teach basic courses ...	3.5/1.0	3.3/0.8
TAs are less mature ...	2.6/0.8	2.5/1.0
TAs seem as professional ...	3.1/1.0	3.3/1.0
TAs seem more disorganized ...	2.6/1.1	2.5/0.9
TAs prepare as well for class ...	3.5/1.1	3.6/1.0
TAs are more creative ...	3.5/1.0	3.4/0.9
TAs try to establish a more personal basis ...	3.7/1.0	3.6/1.0
TAs give students more breaks ...	2.7/1.0	2.9/1.0
TAs are more interesting ...	3.0/1.0	3.2/1.0
TAs care more about students' performance ...	3.1/0.9	3.2/1.0
TAs are more helpful during office hours ...	2.9/0.9	3.1/0.8
TAs are slower in grading assignments ...	2.8/0.8	2.7/0.9
TAs are more open to alternative points ...	3.2/1.1	3.3/0.8
TAs are more willing to listen in general ...	3.0/1.0	3.0/0.9
TAs have little power in the classroom ...	3.0/1.2	3.2/1.1
TAs are more likely to have favorite students ...	2.8/1.3	2.7/1.1
TAs disclose too much personal information ...	2.4/1.0	2.4/0.9
TAs have difficulty grading fairly ...	2.7/0.9	2.6/1.0
TAs only teach to cover costs of their classes ...	2.3/1.1	2.4/1.0
TAs are more likely ...	3.2/1.3	3.1/1.0
TAs sometimes have trouble controlling classes ...	2.6/1.0	2.4/0.9
TAs have difficulty sticking to decisions ...	2.5/1.1	2.3/0.9
TAs rarely make excuses for problems ...	3.2/1.0	3.3/0.9
TAs tend to be too stiff and formal ...	2.4/1.0	2.4/0.9
TAs have little authority in the classroom ...	2.4/1.0	2.3/0.9
TAs are more "fun" than "challenging" ...	2.8/1.1	2.7/0.9
Students prefer regular faculty versus TAs ...	2.9/1.0	3.1/1.2
Students of TAs get less for their money ...	2.6/1.0	2.5/1.1

Item	X/SD (#1) (N=350)	X/SD (#2) (N=124)
TAs generally are not as qualified ...	2.2/0.9	2.1/0.9
Students respect TAs as much ...	3.5/0.9	3.2/1.0
TAs have as much credibility ...		3.1/1.1
TAs are more likely to keep promises ...		3.0/0.9
I would choose a regular faculty member ...		3.1/1.2
TAs treat students less consistently ...		2.5/0.9
TAs are more easily flustered ...		2.9/1.0
TAs have as much self-confidence ...		3.2/1.0
TAs are more defensive ...		2.7/0.8
TAs treat teaching as just a source of income ...		2.3/1.0
TAs mostly follow policies created by someone else ...		3.5/1.0
TAs generally do not have qualifications to teach ...		2.1/0.9
TAs show as much respect for students ...		3.8/0.9
I get less for my money when I have a TA instructor ...		2.5/1.1
Regular faculty are more professional ...		3.0/1.0
TAs are more likely to keep office hours ...		3.1/1.0
TAs do not answer questions well ...		2.4/0.9
TAs often come to class unprepared ...		2.1/0.9
TAs are better at explaining grading criteria ...		2.8/0.8
TAs offer more relevant examples ...		3.0/1.0
TAs view teaching as less important than their courses ...		2.5/0.9
TAs are as well respected ...		3.2/1.0
TAs deserve the same respect ...		3.7/1.1
TAs are more likely to admit their mistakes ...		3.2/1.0
TAs are less considerate of students' feelings ...		2.2/0.9
TAs are less serious about their role ...		2.5/1.0
TAs are more likely to adapt to students ...		3.3/0.9
TAs tend to talk about students behind our backs ...		2.3/1.0
TAs tend to talk about their partying experiences to be liked ...		2.5/1.0
TAs are as knowledgeable about course content ...		3.4/1.0
TAs are more likely to be calm under pressure ...		2.7/0.7
TAs are more likely to show nervous mannerisms		3.0/0.9
TAs are more likely to be theatrical/demonstrative ...		3.2/0.9
TAs are less tactful ...		2.7/0.8
TAs are less argumentative ...		2.6/0.8
TAs use more eye contact, facial expressions, and gestures ...		3.0/0.9
TAs tend to express fewer emotions and be more secretive ...		2.5/0.8
TAs tend to be more encouraging of students ...		3.3/0.9
TAs tend to be more precise in their presentations ...		2.9/0.8

Item	X/SD (#2) N=124
TAs expect more precise answers from students ...	2.7/0.9
TAs are less likely to notice when students do not understand	2.7/1.0
TAs are better at making it clear which concepts are important	3.0/0.8
TAs do a better job of fitting concepts together for students ...	3.0/0.9
Tenure-track faculty help students apply course content better	2.8/1.0
TAs use humor more frequently ...	3.3/0.9
TAs tend to encourage more student participation/interaction	3.5/1.0
I tend to learn more in classes taught by regular faculty ...	2.9/1.0
I tend to be less motivated in classes taught by TAs ...	2.4/1.0

cussed in the literature (e.g., (Andersen, Norton, & Nussbaum, 1981; Anderson & Withrow, 1981; Gorham, 1988; Kearney, Plax, Richmond, & McCroskey, 1985; Kearney, Plax, & Wendt-Wasco, 1985). As a whole, the items were expected to produce several dimensions of teaching evaluation. Specifically, students have demonstrated an ability to differentiate among at least three dimensions of teaching: "expertness/qualification," "friendliness/sociability," and "teaching skills" (Beatty & Behnke, 1980; Beatty & Zahn, 1990; Cohen, 1981).

Although it is interesting to identify specific differences in how students evaluate TAs and faculty, it is equally important to begin to categorize those perceptions. To identify dimensions of teaching ability, a principle components factor analysis using an orthogonal rotation was performed using the items comparing TA and tenure-track faculty. An item was considered loaded on a factor when it posted a primary loading of at least .60 with no secondary loading higher than .30. An eigenvalue of 1.0 was specified to terminate factor extraction. A factor was interpreted if at least three items met

the loading criterion for inclusion. Many items loaded at .4 or higher on more than one factor, thus eliminating them from further analyses.

Six factors emerged from the factor analysis. The first factor, sociability, contained items referring to degree of friendliness, attempts to get to know students on a personal basis, creativity in the classroom, expressions of concern and caring for students, and general likability of TAs. Many of these behaviors fit under the description of teacher immediacy (Andersen, 1979; Kearney, Plax, & Wendt-Wasco, 1985). The second factor, labeled authority, contained items relating to the degree of power and control TAs exert in the classroom. Negative behaviors, the third factor, contained a variety of items that would be considered detrimental to teaching effectiveness: showing favoritism, disclosing too much personal information in class, grading unfairly, and a perception that TAs only teach to pay for their own classes. Professionalism, the fourth factor, was made up of items measuring responsibility, professionalism, and preparation. The fifth factor, listening, contained three items: helpfulness, willingness to listen to alternative viewpoints, and willingness to listen in general. Finally, items in factor six referred to the amount of rigor in the classroom, as indicated by three behaviors: rigorous grading, giving students "breaks," and sticking with policies.

Four items were used as overall measures of student satisfaction with TAs and, thus, as the dependent measures for this study. The first was a preference measure: "Given a choice, I would select a tenure-track faculty member over a TA every time." The next two items assessed general effectiveness of TAs as instructors ("TAs generally do not have the qualifications to be good teachers") and relative value of courses taught by TAs ("I get less for my money when I have a TA for an instructor"). The final item measured respect for TAs: "I have as much respect for TA teachers as for tenure-track faculty."

Data Analysis. To determine overall student perceptions of TA teaching, means and standard deviations were computed for each of the 37 Likert-type statements on the instrument. To assess differences among students based on demographic information, cross tabulations and Chi-Square statistics were computed for year in school for each of the 37 items listed. T-test comparisons were run between males and females to measure gender differences. Step-wise multiple regression analyses were used to assess the relative contribution of each of the six factors described earlier (plus the demographic variables) to students' perceptions of TA teaching.

Results

The first research question asked how TAs are evaluated by undergraduate students when compared with regular, tenure-track faculty. Table 1 presents means and standard deviations for the 33 teaching items and global evaluations of TAs as teachers. Of these 37 items, virtually all suggest that students perceived no qualitative differences between the two types of instructors (TAs and regular, tenure-track faculty). For items worded in such a way as to suggest similarity (TAs are as [responsible, professional, etc.] as regular, tenure-track faculty), item means tended to be at or near the midpoint of the scale, suggesting no differences. For items worded to suggest that TAs demonstrate lesser abilities, means tended to be below the midpoint, suggesting disagreement.

The second question sought to identify specific teaching behaviors of TAs and regular faculty that are evaluated differently by students. The results in Table 1 suggest that students perceived TAs as being slightly friendlier, more concerned about their teaching abilities, more willing to teach basic courses, more creative, and more likable than regular faculty. Further, students perceived TAs to be more willing to establish relationships on a personal basis, while at the same

time they considered TAs to be as responsible, organized, prepared, qualified, and as interested in teaching as regular faculty. Finally, students felt that they were getting their money's worth from TAs, and they indicated a commensurate level of respect for TAs.

The third research question sought to identify variables which affect the evaluation process. Two possible demographic variables were investigated in this study: students' class standing and gender. Not tabled are the cross tabulations and Chi-Square analyses computed for class standing because none of the analyses yielded statistically significant differences. Thus, class standing did not appear to affect the ways in which students evaluated TAs in Study 1. Table 2 presents comparisons between males and females for the evaluation items. Gender contributed to significant differences in 24 of the 37 items. Females indicated more favorable perceptions of TAs versus male students in each of the significant relationships tabled. No clear patterns are evident in the data with regard to types of activities evaluated differently by gender. However, the number of differences suggests that females tend to hold considerably more positive perceptions of TA instructors than do males overall.

Table 2
Results of t-tests by Gender (Study 1)

Item	XM (186)	XF (164)	t sig
TAs are friendlier ...	3.4	3.5	−1.17
TAs are less proficient communicating content	2.9	2.4	4.51***
TAs do not teach as well ...	3.0	2.4	5.13***
TAs are more concerned about their abilities	3.3	3.3	−0.11
Regular faculty are tougher graders ...	2.7	2.6	1.12

Item	XM (186)	XF (164)	t sig
TAs are not very interested in teaching ...	2.2	1.8	4.42***
TAs are less responsible ...	2.5	2.1	3.75***
TAs are more willing to teach basic courses ...	3.5	3.6	–0.46
TAs are less mature ...	2.8	2.4	3.74***
TAs seem as professional ...	2.9	3.3	–2.97**
TAs seem more disorganized ...	2.7	2.4	2.72**
TAs prepare as well for class ...	3.4	3.7	–3.55***
TAs are more creative ...	3.3	3.7	–3.34***
TAs try to establish a more personal basis ...	3.6	3.8	–1.64
TAs give students more breaks ...	2.7	2.7	0.26
TAs are more interesting ...	2.9	3.2	–2.40*
TAs care more about students' performance ...	3.1	3.1	–0.36
TAs are more helpful during office hours ...	2.9	2.9	–0.32
TAs are slower in grading assignments ...	2.9	2.6	2.01*
TAs are more open to alternative points ...	3.2	3.2	–0.35
TAs are more willing to listen in general ...	3.1	3.1	1.24
TAs have little power in the classroom ...	3.2	2.8	3.05**
TAs are more likely to have favorite students ...	2.9	2.6	2.37*
TAs disclose too much personal information ...	2.6	2.2	4.2***
TAs have difficulty grading fairly ...	2.9	2.4	4.48***
TAs only teach to cover costs of their classes ...	2.4	2.2	2.35*
TAs are more likable ...	3.0	3.2	–1.27
TAs sometimes have trouble controlling classes	2.7	2.3	3.6***
TAs have difficulty sticking to decisions ...	2.7	2.3	3.16**
TAs rarely make excuses for problems ...	3.1	3.0	0.85
TAs tend to be too stiff and formal ...	2.6	2.1	5.21***
TAs have little real authority in the classroom	2.5	2.2	2.96**
TAs are more "fun" than "challenging" ...	2.8	2.8	–0.38
Students prefer regular faculty versus TAs ...	3.1	2.7	3.04**
Students of TAs get less for their money ...	2.7	2.3	3.1**
TAs generally are not as qualified ...	2.4	2.0	3.47***
Students respect TAs as much as regular faculty	3.2	3.8	–4.19***

* p. < .05
** p.< .01
*** p. < .001

Step-wise multiple regression analyses were computed to examine the relative contribution of teaching behaviors and demographic variables to overall perceptions. The six teaching indexes and the three demographic variables (GPA, class standing, and gender) were entered as independent variables. The four overall evaluations of TA teaching were treated as dependent measures.

Results of the analyses were somewhat consistent. For the first equation, four variables emerged as significant predictors of selecting a tenure-track faculty member over a TA: the perception that TAs tend to lack power and authority in the classroom ($B = .-45$; $F = 83.2$; $p < .001$), low perceived TA sociability ($B = -30$; $F = 65.5$; $p < .001$), high grade point average ($B = .11$; $F = 46.4$; $p < .001$), and low perceived TA professionalism ($B = -.11$; $F = 36.2$; $p < .001$). Most of the variance (29%) was accounted for by the first two variables. For the second equation, which assessed predictors of the perception that TAs generally do not have the qualifications to be good teachers, four variables emerged as significant. This time, the best predictor of this perception was low perceived professionalism ($B = -.23$; $F = 99.9$; $p < .001$), which accounted for 23% of the variance. The other significantly related variables were perceptions that TAs exhibit negative behaviors ($B = 29$; $F = 71.8$; $p < .001$), low perceived rigor in the classroom ($B = -.18$; $F = 55.0$; $p < .001$), and low perceived power and authority ($B = -.17$; $F = 44.9$; $p < .001$). For perceptions about the value of taking a course from a TA, students indicated that low perceived authority ($B = -.56$; $F = 151 .2$; $p < .001$), low perceived sociability ($B = --.26$; $F = 100.0$; $p < .001$), high perceived negative behaviors ($B = .24$; $F = 80.8$; $p < .001$), and low perceived professionalism ($B = -.16$; $F = 64.7$; $p < .001$) were the key variables. Lack of authority accounted for 31% of the variability in this equation; all four variables together accounted for 4496 of the variance in this measure. Finally, with regard to whether or not students respect TAs as teachers, the four most significant predictors were high per-

ceived professionalism (B = .57; F = 162.9; p < .001), high perceived sociability (B = .29; p < .001), low perceived negative behaviors (B = –.18; F = 81.2; p < .001), and high perceived authority (B = .11; F = 62 . 8; p < . 001) .

Summary

Overall, the results of Study 1 suggest that TAs are evaluated favorably when compared with tenure-track faculty. Although students did not indicate a strong preference for either group of instructors, the data indicate that TAs tend to fare well, especially in areas involving student-teacher interaction (friendliness, immediacy) and presentation/preparation (concern for abilities, preparation for class, creativity). Gender apparently plays a role in how TAs are evaluated, with females providing more positive evaluations for a variety of behaviors. Finally, two sets of TA behaviors emerged as critical to students' perceptions of quality teaching by TAs: degree of professionalism displayed and ability to exert appropriate levels of authority in the classroom.

STUDY 2

The purpose of Study 2 was to extend the results of Study 1 by attempting to replicate the results and by addressing the limitations of that study. In particular, there were several limitations of Study 1: (a) most of the subjects were freshmen in their first semester of college; (b) no attempt was made to ensure that subjects had taken courses from more than one TA; and (c) no attempt was made to control for students' perceptions about their speech communication instructors. The need to address these limitations formed the basis for Study 2.

Method

Sample and Procedures. The sample consisted of 124 undergraduates (60 males and 64 females) enrolled in the same basic speech communication course during spring semester, 1992. This time there was a smaller percentage of freshmen in the sample: freshmen, 52%; sophomores, 21%; juniors, 19%; and seniors, 8%. A majority of the students had taken more than one TA-taught class (X = 2.9). Again, students completed the survey during scheduled testing sessions and received extra credit for their participation. By checking section numbers, it was possible to verify that all TAs teaching that semester were represented fairly equally by students in the sample. Thus, the data represent evaluations of 14 speech communication TAs.

The Instrument. The questionnaire consisted of 79 Likert-type statements that required comparisons between TAs and tenure-track faculty. These 79 statements included the items from Study 1 and a variety of other items designed to add to the range of TA teaching behaviors examined in that study. Thus, the questionnaire contained 70 general evaluation items plus 9 items designed as measures of student perceptions of TA teaching: "TAs do not teach as well as tenure-track faculty," "TAs have as much overall credibility as tenure-track faculty," "Given a choice, I would select a tenure-track faculty member over a TA," "TAs generally do not have the qualifications to be good teachers," "I get less for my money when I have a TA for an instructor," "Regular faculty are more professional than TAs overall," "TAs are as well respected as regular faculty," "TAs deserve the same respect as regular faculty," and "I tend to learn more in classes taught by regular faculty than those taught by TAs".

In addition to the TA comparison items, the questionnaire contained student demographic questions (class standing, gender, approximate GPA, and number of courses taken that

were taught by TAs), instructor demographic questions (gender and age), and 32 Likert-type items designed to evaluate the speech communication TAs. Thus, the instrument contained nine dependent variables (measures of generalized attitude toward TAs and tenure-track faculty, 70 measures of perceptions of TA teaching, and 3 demographic variables (gender of student, gender of instructor, and student GPA).

Results

The first two research questions pertained to differences in how TAs are evaluated relative to regular faculty. The second column in Table 1 presents means and standard deviations for each of the 70 comparison items and for the 9 general evaluations of TAs as teachers. As in Study 1, students' evaluations were positive. Items suggesting that TAs are not as skilled as regular faculty (e.g., TAs are less able to communicate what they know, are less likely to treat students consistently, are not as interested in teaching, are less responsible, are more disorganized, are more easily flustered, are slower about grading, are less considerate, have difficulty grading fairly, often come to class unprepared, and find it difficult to stick with their decisions) received mean scores below the midpoint of the scale, indicating disagreement with those assessments. Many items suggesting that TAs actually perform better than regular faculty received evaluations above the midpoint, suggesting agreement: TAs are friendlier, are more creative, tend to encourage students more, try to get to know students on a more personal basis, are more willing to listen to alternative viewpoints, are more likely to admit mistakes, use humor in the classroom more frequently, encourage more student participation, and are more likely to keep their office hours. There was general agreement for all of the items that suggested equally high performance on the part of both TAs and faculty: TAs seem as professional, prepare as well for class, have as much self-confidence, show as much respect for

students, and are as knowledgeable about the basic course content as tenure-track faculty.

The third research question sought to identify other variables that play a role in the evaluation process. Not tabled are the results of the t-tests between male and female students. As in Study 1, females tended to evaluate TAs more positively than did males in the sample. Using one-tailed tests based on the results of the first study, females rated TAs more favorably on 19 of the items: TAs are concerned about their teaching ability, responsible, mature, professional, organized, prepared, composed, no more easily flustered than regular faculty, helpful during office hours, qualified, able to control their classrooms, challenging, able to provide relevant examples, no more stiff/formal than regular faculty, likely to admit their mistakes, considerate, precise in presenting content, likely to notice when students do not understand, and likely to encourage class participation.

Research suggests that gender of the instructor also affects students' evaluations (Sandler, 1991). To examine this relationship, t-tests were computed comparing evaluations of male TAs and female TAs. Only 5 of the 79 comparisons were statistically significant; of these, 4 pointed to a preference for male TAs. Female TAs were perceived as being slower graders, as having less authority in the classroom, as being less professional overall, and as generally having lower qualifications for teaching than male TAs. On the other hand, female TAs were perceived as being less argumentative than male TAs.

To examine the role that student GPA plays in assessments of TAs, t-tests were run comparing students who indicated carrying a GPA of B or better with those whose GPA was C or below. Two-tailed tests were run, based on the inconclusive results regarding GPA from Study 1. Nine significant differences emerged, all in the predicted direction. Students with higher GPAs felt that TAs are less concerned about being good teachers, lack self-confidence, are not more

concerned than regular faculty about how students do in their classes, generally do not have the qualifications to be good teachers, are more likely to have "favorite" students, do not offer more relevant examples than tenure-track faculty, are not as well respected as regular faculty, are not more likely to admit their mistakes, and are more likely to talk behind students' backs.

Thus, the data from Study 2 suggest that gender (both of the student and of the instructor) is a potentially important variable in understanding how TAs are perceived, as is GPA. Female students rated TAs more favorably; male TAs tended to be rated more favorably than female TAs. The gender break-down for students in the sample was 56% female students and 44% male students, and the gender break-down for TAs in the sample was 55% female TAs and 45% male TAs. This rather even distribution by gender would suggest that an over representation of one gender in either group did not account for the differences.

The next step in the analysis process was to determine whether or not the evaluation items contained the same six factors identified in Study 1. The 70 items were factored into six dimensions using a confirmatory factor analysis procedure and the same loading criteria specified for the first study. The expectation was that the same six factors would be identified from this set of data: sociability, authority, negative behaviors, professionalism, listening, and rigor. Those six factors were not replicated exactly, however, perhaps due to the much smaller sample size. Factor 1, labeled competence/professionalism, again contained items pertaining to TAs' overall professionalism and teaching competence. This factor accounted for 35% of the variance. Most of the measures referred to traits: friendliness, maturity, professionalism, preparation, organization, interest in students, self-confidence, fairness in grading, and lack of defensiveness. The second factor, immediacy, contained a variety of items measuring interpersonal communication skills (e.g., listening

ability and ability to explain ideas clearly one-on-one) and general concern for and liking of students (e.g., helping students during office hours, showing concern for student learning). This factor accounted for 11% of the variance. The third factor, negative behaviors, contained a set of teaching behaviors that would be considered inappropriate (e.g., disclosing too much personal information to students, finding it difficult to stick to decisions, making excuses and/or blaming others for problems, and becoming argumentative with students). Factor 3 accounted for 10% of the variance. Factor 4, commitment to teaching, contained items that suggested that TAs teach primarily for the money, not out of enjoyment of or interest in the teaching experience (e.g., TAs view teaching as a source of income and tend to be less serious about the teaching role than regular faculty). This factor accounted for an additional 8% of the variance. Factor 5, classroom communication, was a measure of some aspects of teacher communication behavior: ability to communicate what they know about course content and answer students' questions, ability to provide appropriate examples, and ability to remain calm under pressure. This factor accounted for 6% of the variance. Factor 6, authority, referred to TAs' ability to establish grading criteria, maintain authority in the classroom, and manage classroom interaction. Variance accounted for by this factor was 6%.

The 32 items measuring attitudes toward students' basic course instructors also were factor analyzed, using a nonconfirmatory procedure and the same loading criteria specified earlier. The resultant 6 factors accounted for just over 80% of the total variance, with the first factor accounting for 52% of that variance. Factor 1, labeled interpersonal skills, contained a variety of items assessing concern for students (e.g., being supportive of students, showing concern for student learning, showing respect for students) and teacher immediacy (being approachable, being likable). Factor 2 contained items measuring professionalism: being prepared for class, being

organized, being professional, being willing to admit mistakes, etc. The remaining factors contained too few items to allow interpretation Consequently, only the first two were used for the analyses.

To determine the effect of the dimensions of perceived TA teaching ability on overall assessments of TAs, nine step-wise regression analyses were computed for the nine dependent measures. Independent variables consisted of the six dimensions of assessment plus gender, GPA, and the number of courses students indicated having taken which were taught by TAs. Because all subjects were enrolled in sections of the basic course, it was felt that students' perceptions of those instructors might be especially influential in the evaluation process. Consequently, the two measures of perception about their TAs, perceived professionalism and perceived communication ability, were included in the regression equations.

Agreement with the statement "TAs do not teach as well as do tenure-track faculty" was tied to perceptions of TA competence/professionalism ($B = .65$; $T = 4.0$; $p < .001$). These two variables accounted for 16% of the variance. Agreement with the statement "Given a choice, I would select a tenure-track faculty member over a TA" was best predicted by two of the teaching dimensions: commitment to teaching ($B = .77$; $T = 3.9$; $p < .001$) and immediacy ($B = .43$; $T = 2.2$; $p < .03$). Variance accounted for was 26%. The third statement, "Regular faculty are more professional than TAs overall" was best predicted by a perception that TAs do not engage in negative behaviors ($B = .89$; $T = 3.9$; $p < .001$) and demonstrate appropriate levels of authority ($B = .60$; $T = 2.9$; $p < .005$). These variables accounted for 22% of the variance . The statement "TAs deserve the same respect as tenure-track faculty" was best predicted by perceptions of the TAs' professionalism ($B = .54$; $T = 2.9$; $p < .005$) and competence/professionalism of TAs in general ($B = .61$; $T = 2.8$; $p < .006$). Variance accounted for was 31%. The fifth statement, "TAs generally do not have the qualifications to be good

teachers" was related to one variable: commitment to teaching ($B = .95$; $T = 6.1$; $p < .001$). Variance accounted for was 31%. "For me, TAs have as much credibility as tenure-track faculty" was predicted by two variables, which accounted for 33% of the variance: competence/professionalism ($B = .72$; $T = 3.9$; $p < .001$) and interpersonal skills of the TA ($B = .32$; $T = 2.5$; $p < .01$). Perceived lack of authority ($B = -.71$; $T = -3.6$; $p < .001$), negative TA behaviors ($B = .66$; $T = 2.7$; $p < .01$), classroom communication ($B = .62$; $T = 3.3$; $p < .001$) and interpersonal skills of the TA ($B = -.37$; $T = -3.0$; $p < .01$) were the best predictors of the statement "I get less for my money when I have a TA for an instructor." Variance accounted for was 43%. Three variables, which accounted for 37% of the variance, predicted the statement "TAs are as well-respected by students as tenure-track faculty": competence/professionalism ($B = .72$; $T = 4.1$; $p < .001$), lack of negative behaviors ($B = -.71$; $T = -3.0$; $p < .01$), and GPA ($B = -.39$; $T = -2.5$; $p < .01$). Finally, the statement "I tend to learn more in classes taught by regular faculty than those taught by TAs" was predicted by two variables: a lack of competence/professionalism ($B = -.52$; $T = -2.9$; $p < .01$) and classroom communication skills ($B = .52$; $T = 2.6$; $p < .01$). Variance accounted for was 25%.

Summary

Although the results of Study 2 must be interpreted with caution, given the much smaller sample size, it would appear that those results confirm the findings of Study 1. There appears to be no major difference in the way students evaluate TAs and regular faculty but variables such as gender and GPA do appear to play a role in that evaluation process.

DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR TA TRAINING AND SUPERVISION

The results of both studies indicate that being "the least experienced among their peers as teachers and in many cases also the newest arrivals at the university" (Romer, 1991, p. 331) may not be all bad. In fact, in many ways TAs may be perceived by students in their classes as equal to, or even better than, their regular, tenure-track colleagues. In general, undergraduate students indicated no strong preference for regular faculty versus TAs; they viewed TAs as being as effective and as deserving of respect as regular faculty. Further, students perceived TAs as being somewhat more friendly, more creative, and more accessible. As such, these findings support the use of TAs to conduct classes, at least from the students' perspective.

Gender appears to play a role in how TAs are perceived by students. Given that both studies involved approximately an equal mix of male/female students and male/female TAs, the conclusions referring to gender perceptions of TAs should be fairly representative and generalizable. The differences in male and female perceptions of TAs may be due to sex-role expectations which are prevalent in our society (Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall, 1989). The affiliative nature of the female gender may contribute to a more favorable assessment and lenient attitude toward TAs of both genders. Further, females may be more forgiving of certain weaknesses in TAs, and they may overlook a lack of professionalism, especially if TAs compensate for that lack with appropriate and positive social behaviors. As the tests indicate, females tended to have more positive perspectives about TAs in a number of areas. For instance, females were more positive than males in their view of TAs as being more proficient, more committed to teaching, more responsible, more prepared, more creative, more personal, more fair in their evaluations of students, more positive in their outlook, and more deserving of respect.

Although the number of significant differences associated with gender of the TA was small, this finding is also noteworthy. The differences identified in Study 2 suggest a somewhat negative view of female TAs by both male and female students, which is consistent with research on perceptions of female faculty members (Sandler, 1991). Perhaps the college or university setting is still perceived by students as a male-dominated society. Certainly, many departments still suffer from a shortage of female professors. Males also may be at an advantage based on stature and other nonverbal characteristics. A six-foot tall male in a suit and tie may automatically have more credibility than a five-foot tall female similarly attired. Generally, males speak louder and with more authority than females. Likewise, it has been the experience of these researchers that females tend to be more tentative in the classroom than males, regardless of their knowledge of the content or preparation for the class. Thus, BCDs may want to focus on those gender differences during training and might consider providing suggestions for how their more reserved or anxious female TAs can compensate for those differences. Certainly, professional attire would be an important variable. Casual clothing or many of the contemporary figure-revealing fashions could work against a female TA's attempt to establish credibility and authority.

Higher GPA appears to be related to a preference for regular faculty. Our own experiences suggest that TAs often grade more leniently than tenure-track faculty. Thus, it is not surprising that students who have worked hard to earn good grades would not appreciate their less hard-working peers receiving high grades in the basic course for less effort. Further, students with high GPAs may hold the attitude that they deserve full professors rather than instructors-in-training. Certainly, they pay the same amount of money for a class taught by regular faculty as by TAs; these students may see greater value in those classes taught by professors. It would seem that BCDs could do much to work with this problem. For

example, it might be advisable for BCDs to inform the TAs of the rationale for hiring them to teach the basic course so that this information could, in turn, be passed along to students. Certainly, incorporation of TAs into the teaching staff holds the cost of a college education down for students overall. In addition, information about the amount of training provided for TAs could be passed along to students. Undergraduates may be glad to hear that their TA actually received more teacher training that the typical college professor. Perhaps most important, this finding stresses the need for BCDs to supervise grading in the basic course to make sure that TAs understand and can apply the grading criteria appropriately, thus improving the likelihood that all instructors in the basic course will evaluate students in the same way and with the same degree of rigor. TAs who do tend to grade too leniently can be singled out for one-one attention by the BCD. All TAs can be reminded on a regular basis of the need to grade fairly and objectively. An average performance or an average paper should receive a C, not a B-. In fact, in most basic courses which enroll a majority of freshmen students, the most common grade earned probably should be a C. This information is difficult for many TAs to comprehend because they, being the best and brightest of the undergraduates at their institutions, would never settle for a C and often cannot understand why any student would be happy with an "average" grade in the course. Perhaps just reminding TAs that students hold a variety of expectations about grades and bring a variety of motivations to each class would be helpful. Students with high GPAs may be motivated to learn or they may simply be motivated to keep the GPA high in any way possible.

In terms of teaching dimensions, professionalism appears to be the key factor in whether or not TAs are perceived as being equal to tenure-track faculty. Measures of professionalism include organization, preparation, maturity, self-confidence, fairness, handling responsibility, and owning behavior. Certainly, many of these qualities can be broken

down into specific behaviors and discussed during TA training. Providing a rationale for the various duties and responsibilities tied to the TA role (e.g., holding office hours as scheduled, starting and ending class on time, establishing clear criteria for grading, providing sufficient feedback to students so that they understand their grades, dressing appropriately, using appropriate language with students) may do much to help TAs adopt a professional attitude and demeanor. Many TAs may resist such information, however. Seeing their own professors in jeans and sweats or having had the opportunity to join the faculty for a beer at the local pub may color their perceptions of what a professor "should" be like. Some of our own TAs have suggested that casual dress, language usage, and attention to clock time convey an approachability message to students. What TAs fail to understand is that this casual attitude may work well for a highly respected full professor with a Ph.D. In fact, professors who invite students out for a beer or attempt to use students' slang may do so in order to reduce some of the intimidation associated with the student-professor relationship. Lacking credentials, the TA may not measure up in the eyes of many students, however, thus creating a perception that he or she is nonprofessional. One topic for discussion in a TA training session might be the differences between being liked by students and being respected by them. TAs, hoping to be liked, may give students too many breaks, fail to uphold course policies, socialize with students, or engage in other activities that would decrease the professional "distance" between instructor and student. These behaviors could damage any chances for earning students' respect. BCDs might want to establish firm guidelines at the outset about what is and is not considered professional behavior in the specific basic course program in which the TAs will teach. Rules regarding appropriate attire, prohibitions regarding dating students, and advice about handling personal problems brought to the attention of the TA might reduce problems in the long run. Likewise, advising TAs to

establish stringent course policies at the outset (penalties for late papers, expectations about arriving late for class, etc.) rather than starting off easy and hoping to gain back control later may be good practice for TA .

Other predictors of positive perceptions of TAs appear to be related to TA authority, interpersonal communication skills, commitment to teaching, and lack of negative behaviors (e.g., disclosing too much personal information, selecting "favorite" students, and talking about students behind their backs).

It is not surprising that TAs need to establish their authority in order to be perceived positively. Certainly, the ability to control classroom interaction would be necessary for effective teaching. In lecture settings, control may involve limiting the number of private discussions occurring in the audience. In more participatory classes (such as those typically found in basic speech communication courses), activities may get too loud, some students may refuse to participate, and/or the processing may not go as well as planned. Thus, communication TAs could appear to lack authority when, in fact, they are attempting to teach as they have been instructed. Another problem arises when TAs attempt to distance themselves from unpopular elements of the basic course by indicating to students that the decision making power is out of their hands, thus conveying a sense of powerlessness. Although the intention might be to suppress students' complaints by professing to have no ability to change the unchangeable, the end result may be a perception that the TA lacks authority and control. Certainly issues of authority can be discussed during TA training. The TA who attempts to over-control the classroom may risk the same negative evaluations as the TA who lacks authority. TAs can be taught how to manage discussions, strategies for keeping students on task while saving face (if possible), strategies for handling problem students, and so on prior to their entering the classroom. As described previously, TAs can be aided in putting together

personal course policies that will indicate to students that the class is to be taken seriously without creating such a long list of "don'ts" that students get discouraged or disgruntled before the class begins. Sometimes just semantics can help. Helping TAs see the advantage of referring to activities as activities, simulations or exercises rather than games may make a big difference in how seriously students will engage in the experience. Likewise, describing activities as "fun" may undermine their academic intent; words like challenging, engaging, stimulating, or thought-provoking might be more desirable. Finally, helping TAs see the value of making sure that all activities end with a discussion of how this material is applicable to the "real world" can maximize the likelihood that the class will be taken seriously and the TA will be seen as an effective instructor. Spending time during TA training focusing on how to effectively process activities may contribute to TAs' ability to demonstrate authority in the classroom.

With regard to interpersonal communication skills, TAs in this discipline should be somewhat advantaged. Hopefully, undergraduate coursework in communication provides a groundwork on which to build one's interpersonal skills. TA training that focuses on relational issues and conflict management could do much to enhance the perception that TAs are interpersonally adept. Perhaps required reading should include the various articles on power in the classroom and teacher immediacy (see, for example, Kearney, Plax, Richmond, & McCroskey, 1985 and Kearney, Plax, & Wendt-Wasco, 1985).

Finally, it is questionable what can be done to improve TAs' commitment to teaching or to eliminate the variety of negative behaviors that could detract from perceptions of their effectiveness except to open these topics for discussion. Perhaps hiring decisions could be based, at least in part, on the degree to which TAs at least appear to be committed to teaching. Similarly, classroom observations could detect neg-

ative behaviors that might be brought to the TA's attention before too much harm is done.

Overall, it would appear that there is no empirical support for the claim that TAs are lesser teachers than tenure-track faculty, at least when students' perceptions are used as the evaluative measure. How TAs are recruited, trained, and supported as they learn the trade may transform these "least experienced" of colleagues into fine college-level instructors. Certainly, the data presented herein provide a strong rationale for devoting time, energy and money to effectively train TAs before they enter the classroom. Handing out the textbook and indicating which sections TAs will teach should no longer be accepted practice.

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Teaching Ethics in Introductory Public Speaking: Review and Proposal*

Jon A. Hess

One topic that is not a high priority in most public speaking classes is ethics. Gibson, Hanna, and Huddleston (1985) found this when they surveyed 552 institutions of higher education in the United Sates. They wrote, "Perhaps the more surprising finding is what is *not* ranked among the top ten topics in time spent in instruction. The absence of ethics and rhetorical criticism from the 'top ten' in classes using the public speaking orientation ... provide[s] interesting, if not puzzling, questions about instructional priorities" (pp. 286-287).

The failure to teach communication ethics in our introductory speech course is a serious problem. Public speaking is a tool that can be used for good or for bad purposes, and students need to consider the moral dimension of their public speaking. Although speech teachers cannot be sure that their students will use the skills they learned in their pubic speaking class ethically, they can at least be sure that if students speak unethically it is by choice, not out of ignorance.

One difficulty teachers face in teaching any content area is the brevity of a single course. It is difficult to cover any topic thoroughly, especially a complex topic like ethics. Although teachers cannot expect that students will command a thorough grasp of speech ethics after their first course, the

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importance of including ethics in the introductory course goes beyond just the content students learn. Teaching ethics in the introductory course establishes the topic as one that is central to the act of public speaking. *Not* teaching ethics implicitly sends the message that the topic is less important than other topics, a message that is ill advised. Johnson (1970) suggested that "it may be that the most 'immoral' person is not he [or she] who makes 'wrong' decisions, but he [or she] who consistently neglects to consider the moral implications of decisions he [or she] does make" (p. 60). Todd-Mancillas (1987) echoed Johnson's concern when he wrote, "one of my greatest concerns is that we may well be helping an entire generation of students to presume the unimportance of asking fundamentally important questions about the rightness or wrongness of given communication strategies" (p. 12).

The need for teaching speech ethics is clear. In many cases, students are unsure (beyond basic issues) what is ethical in public speaking and what is not. In part, this may be due to a lack of role model or other source of ethical ideals for many people. Many of the examples set by our country's leaders are not conducive to positive moral growth. Jensen (1991) wrote, "The general public in recent years has been stirred to worry about ethics as a result of scandals in government, influence peddling, Pentagon waste, insider trading, exposes by whistle blowers, life and death issues in health care, raping of the environment, televangelist escapades, and media manipulations" (p. xi). Although some students will have learned ethical values at home, the high rate of broken families (Brehm, 1992) may mean that some students will not get adequate guidance there, either. The recent wash of sexual abuse cases within religious institutions suggests that even churches are not always successful at providing a strong moral foundation for youth. Furthermore, students who have had ample opportunity to learn ethical standards may not have considered ethical standards specific to public speaking. Thus, teachers should not assume that

students will be well versed in ethical choices or that they will consider ethical behavior to be an important aspect of public speaking if the issue is not included in the class.

A look at public speaking textbooks may shed light on why ethics are not taught much. A content analysis of top-selling introductory speech books revealed that explicit discussion of ethics averaged just 3.3 pages per text. By way of comparison, textbook authors wrote twice as much about selecting a topic, and three times as much about outlining (Hess & Pearson, 1992). A more extensive study of introductory speech texts found that ethics commanded just 2.0 pages per text, and in a third of the texts sampled ethics were covered in one page or less. That figure included three texts that did not even mention ethics (Hess, 1992). These studies show that introductory speech texts do not include much discussion of ethical choices.

It should be made clear that these content analyses only examined *explicit* discussion of ethics in introductory speech texts. Many people would argue that by discounting implicit discussion of ethics, the content analyses falsely minimize the treatment of ethics in public speaking texts. For example, most texts discuss proper documenting of sources, proper reasoning (as well as fallacious reasoning), and credibility. Clearly, these concepts come from expectations of ethical speech. Thus, by teaching the importance of citing sources, reasoning properly, and gaining credibility, public speaking textbooks ground their content in ethical ideals.

While this grounding is indeed a positive reflection on the integrity of the communication discipline, it does not help the student who has a question about whether a particular source needs to be cited in a speech, or who wonders whether a omitting relevant information at a certain point is unethical. Students need to be made aware of what the ethical questions are, and they need to be armed with ways to answer these questions. Only explicit discussion of ethics can create this type of awareness.

The preceding discussion may seem to imply that there is one clear conception of ethics that students need to learn for public speaking. That interpretation could not be further from the truth. If there were a simple code of ethics, it would be easy to put in a textbook or recite in a classroom lecture, and ethics would not warrant much discussion. Because there is great disagreement among scholars about what communication behaviors are ethical and what are not, the topic is important for classroom attention. Since both the questions and the answers are elusive, ethical issues are difficult to teach.

The downplaying of ethical considerations in most popular public speaking texts may lead to under emphasis of the topic in classroom lectures and discussion. If teachers simply follow their textbook's content, they will downplay the importance of ethical questions. In order to integrate ethical considerations fully into the course, instructors must supplement the text's material. Unfortunately, many educators are not well equipped to do so. Anecdotal evidence from Arnett (1988) and survey evidence from Gibson et al. (1985, 1990) indicates that many basic course instructors are graduate teaching assistants, adjunct faculty, and new instructors; these teachers may not be prepared to supplement the text when discussing ethics. Even seasoned professors whose interests lie outside communication ethics may not be well versed in ethical theory.

In this article I provide supplementary material for introductory public speaking teachers who wish to incorporate a more extensive discussion of ethics into their public speaking class than what their textbook offers. First, a review of what teachers can expect to find in texts is presented. Then, some theoretical foundations for conceptualizing ethics are presented. Finally, one possible outline for a class lecture and a smorgasbord of ideas are presented to provide concrete suggestions for teaching public speaking ethics. Of course, the

information presented here is just one possibility for teaching ethics, not the only correct way.

REVIEW OF TEXTS' CONTENT

Research on introductory speech texts indicated that explicit coverage of ethics is both minimal and inconsistent (Hess, 1992). The content analysis produced this outline of topics included in half or more of the texts surveyed (p. 269):

I. Importance of ethics in public speaking
II. Discussion of what is ethical (in general)
    A. Suggested standards for making ethical decisions
III. How to practice good ethics
    A. Use ethical methods
        1. Prepare the speech well
            a. Know the material well — be thoroughly informed
        2. Be honest and clear in your presentation of the material
            a. Be honest — don't lie to the audience

As can be seen from the outline, discussion of ethics was not well developed in the textbooks. Introductory public speaking texts often provided arguments for why ethics are important, discussed some general ethical guidelines (not specific to public speaking), and then provided some suggestions for how to speak ethically. Although many texts suggested some ethical standards for decision-making (point IIA), each text had different information. Only two specific suggestions — be well-informed and be honest--were provided in at least half the texts studied. In some cases, textbooks contradicted each other's guidelines.

This research indicates that textbook treatment of ethics is typically a listing of a few sundry suggestions, confined to a

page or two of text. The wide variety in content among the books is important for instructors to be aware of, because they may wish to compare discussion of ethics when selecting a text. Furthermore, instructors should be aware that more recent texts seem to have a better treatment of ethics than the books of several years ago. One new public speaking textbook has a better discussion of ethics than the texts sampled in this study, and some of the texts analyzed have included more extensive discussions of ethics in 1993 editions.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING ETHICS

Ethics are "principles used for determining what is good and right" (Haskins, 1989, p. 96; italics removed). Since scholars do not always agree about what is ethical and what is not, educators cannot simply prescribe a recipe approach to communication ethics. That is, they cannot say "Do this and you will communicate ethically." Rather, teachers must provide some guidelines for decision-making, and they need to prepare students with the critical thinking skills necessary to evaluate each situation and make the best possible judgment with the available information. The following principles are suggested as guidelines to help students understand the nature of communication ethics and to evaluate ethical merit to a communicative transaction. Four principles are discussed — rights and responsibilities, accountability, affirmative perspective, and degree of ethical quality.

Underlying Principles

Rights and Responsibilities. Two lines of ethical reasoning can be delineated in scholarly writings. The first is composed of theories that consider ethics a matter of assuring individual rights, or justice. An example is Kohlberg's work on moral development. Kohlberg's ethical system is based on "principles of justice, of reciprocity and equality of human

rights, and of respect for the dignity of human beings as individuals" (Kohlberg, 1981, p. 19). The second line of scholarship is composed of theories that consider ethics a matter of responsibility. Gilligan's work on an ethic of care exemplifies this type of theory. This ethical system is "...concerned with responsibility based on caring, empathy, and inclusion. Moral dilemmas are characterized by conflicting responsibilities among a web of enmeshed relationships..." (Bloom, 1990, p. 246).

These two lines of reasoning must converge to form a better conceptualization of ethics. Rights are privileges that a community owes an individual, and responsibilities are obligations the individual has to the community. By considering only one or the other in their theories, ethicists have ignored half the relevant data. Either concept can be oppressive if pushed to extremes. Organizations have often abused their power by suppressing dissent in the name of responsibility to the group, and unjustified slander has sometimes been excused because of the right to free speech.

Ethical behavior balances the rights of individuals with their responsibilities to the community. It is not simply an average of the two dimensions, but rather, a synthesis of the two. Some scholars have argued for this type of ethical standard. Bloom (1990) and Gilligan (1982) have argued for a transcendental ethic that combines elements from both male (justice: rights based) and female (care: responsibility-based) styles of communication and ethical reasoning. However, the way in which rights and responsibilities should be synthesized is not always clear.

Martin Buber's philosophy provides a good way to synthesize rights and responsibilities. Buber's concept of the narrow ridge embraces both concepts. As Arnett (1986) explained,

> The "narrow ridge" in human communication involves a balancing of one's concern for self and others. One must be open to the other's viewpoint and willing to alter one's position based upon appropriate and just cause, if necessary.

> However, ...being concerned for oneself and the other does not necessarily mean a compromise or an acceptance of another's viewpoint (p. 36).

To employ a narrow ridge perspective, the actor has to recognize both the rights to one's own viewpoint and the responsibility to listen to other's views. Narrow ridge thinking does not compel the actor to just find a middle ground (compromise), but rather it compels him or her to find a mutually satisfying solution based on commitment to some principle. This notion squares with Bloom's suggestion for a transcendental ethic that "would not be a simple combination of the justice and care orientation; it would be something quite different from either" (p. 251). Two examples demonstrate how a narrow ridge between rights and responsibility can be implemented.

The first example involves a recent controversy at Yellowstone National Park. In the spring of 1992, a national news network reported a conflict between land owners bordering Yellowstone Park and park officials. Land owners were drilling wells on their property; geologists and park officials believed that action would endanger the parks main attraction—its geysers. Park officials argued that the park had the right to prohibit the use of these wells to protect its geysers. Land owners argued that they had the right to do what they wanted with their land.

If ethics are conceptualized only in terms of rights, an impasse has been reached between the competing rights. However, if responsibilities are also considered, ethical behaviors can be determined. Although both parties do have the right to protect and use their land, they also have a responsibility to their community--the American public. Given that Yellowstone Park is a national treasure, the land owners have the responsibility to join the rest of the nation in preserving it. However, the U. S. government also has a responsibility to its citizens. Since land owners would be making a sacrifice for the community good by not drilling wells, the government

would need to compensate the land owners in some manner to facilitate their compliance. For example, tax credits might help the land owners afford a different source of water for their livestock (or swimming pool, in the case of one land owner).

A second case was described by Sandmann (1992), who addressed the issue of hate speech on college campuses. Sandmann argued that the rights to free speech and the rights of the victim conflict when hate speech happens. Without denying either side their rights, he argued that the most ethical solution was to consider the right of the victim to reply. Sandmann argued that if colleges are going to tolerate hate speech as a First Amendment right, they should also provide the victims a medium with which to respond to the charges.

This solution seems reasonable, but there is another way to analyze the situation: while people do indeed have the right to free speech, they also have the responsibility to the subject of their communication. This means that if the message is damaging to its subject, speakers have a responsibility to be sure the charges are accurate. Evidence for claims should be provided, reasoning should be carefully and honestly explained, and the speaker should not remain anonymous (as in the case of graffito writers who paint hateful messages on walls).

In practice, this ethical system would address hate speech this way. If a hate-speaker wishes to say that people with a certain characteristic deserve to die, he or she needs to explain why those people are a threat to others, provide sound evidence, explain why death is the best solution, and then be willing to listen open-mindedly to contrary views. Given that hate speech will happen Sandmann's solution seems to be the most ethical *response*. The principles described here are intended to suggest the most ethical *alternative* to the potential hate-speech act.

Affirmative Perspective. Speech ethics are often taught as a list of limitations on communication behavior (e.g., do not knowingly use false reasoning, do not plagiarize, etc.). However, ethical principles actually create as many new options as they prohibit. An analogy from Shames (1989) makes this clear the rules in baseball could be viewed as a prohibitive (if the batter did not have to hit the ball in fair territory, he or she would have more options on any pitch). However, the rules are what makes the game possible. Ethics should be viewed as affirmatively as the rules of baseball. Ethical standards make society possible. If there were no agreed-upon codes of conduct, no one could be trusted in any situation. Geewax (1992) noted, "Ethical behavior is the keystone of capitalism. Free markets cannot operate efficiently without participants being committed to keeping promises, telling the truth, and dealing fairly" (p. 11B).

Often, ethics are most salient when unethical behavior is desired by someone who finds certain unethical actions more profitable in some sense. Students may find that acting ethically prohibits something they would like to do (for instance, present an atypical example of how bad the school's bureaucracy is as an example of how the system always operates), but most of the time ethical behavior goes unnoticed and is beneficial to them. Students expect that when information is presented in a speech is has not been fabricated. The assumption of honesty is an example of how ethical standards guide routine decisions. Students should conceptualize ethics as guidelines for all decision-making, not just limitations to their options.

Accountability. Perhaps the single most important point to make to beginning speakers is that they are held accountable for everything they say in public. The notion that people can escape accountability for their words is not acceptable in our society. The fact that the words were spoken in a class setting does not grant the rhetor immunity from this principle. A speech in the classroom is very much part of the "real

world." Classroom speeches influence audience members, and should be subject to all the same ethical standards that a speech in a different arena is expected to uphold.

The principle of accountability is based on rights and responsibilities. In our society, speakers have the right to say whatever they want (the right to free speech), but they must take responsibility for the consequences of their communication. If a given communicative act has negative consequences for that speaker, he or she is obligated to accept them. Listeners have the right to expect a person's behavior to be consistent with his or her words. The affirmative view of ethics is especially relevant to accountability. If people were not held accountable for their words, coordinated social action would be dictated by the party with the power (however illegitimate that power may be) to subordinate others. Thus, ethics can be seen to have a constructive impact on social transactions.

The world is full of examples of speakers who have been punished for unethical speech. A university dean was fired for plagiarizing a speech, and an owner of a major league baseball team was recently suspended for alleged racist remarks. All public speakers, in the classroom or wherever, will be accountable for what they say.

Degree of Ethical Quality. Jensen (1985) argued that people should think of ethical quality as a continuum, not a dichotomy. Rather than ask "is it ethical?" students should ask, "how ethical is it?" He proposed this seven-point Likert scale to rate ethical quality (p. 327):

Unethical						Ethical
Highly	Moderately	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Moderately	Highly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

There are two reasons the ethical quality idea is important. First, with just two categories students must assume that an act is either totally good or totally bad, which is clearly inadequate for dealing with the complexities of our human social transactions. Second, when using a dichotomy, once an act has been labeled unethical, there is no reason to evaluate it any further. However, if the scale is more flexible, students must think more carefully when evaluating. The ethical quality scale encourages students to put more thought into their judgments.

LECTURE IDEAS

Provided here is one possible outline for a lecture on ethics in public speaking. It is intended to help students think clearly about the importance of communicating ethically, to provide them with a basic understanding of the nature of communication ethics, and to provide some specific guidelines for ethical behavior. Obviously, this outline is intended to be heuristic in value. Instructors should tailor it to meet their own needs and interests.

The specific suggestions presented in this outline (point IV) were compiled from these introductory public speaking texts: Bradley (1991), DeVito (1990), Hanna and Gibson (1989), Lucas (1989), Nelson and Pearson (1993), Osborn and Osborn (1991), Samovar and Mills (1989), Sproule (1991), and Verderber (1991).

I. Importance of ethics

   A. Speech communication is a tool with that can have a profound impact on people. It can be used for good or bad ends. There are many reasons why speakers should want to speak ethically.

      1. A few reasons for communicating ethically

         a. Ethical behavior is the glue that holds society together. If people don't act ethi-

cally, then violence and repression is the alternative to prevent anarchy.

b. Life is much more difficult when you cannot trust your neighbor. Without honesty and integrity in communication, friendship is difficult.

c. If society's members acted ethically, billions of dollars would be saved in law enforcement, consumer protection, legal eases, etc. This money could be used to benefit everyone.

d. Unethical communication causes great pain and suffering in many cases (you might want to provide examples here — there is an inexhaustible supply).

2. Self-benefiting reasons (i.e., even if a speaker is only concerned with his or her own well-being, there are still good reasons to communicate ethically)

a. Unethical communication, when discovered, can have negative consequences. These consequences range from as minor as a verbal reprimand to as major as loss of job or divorce by spouse.

b. Ethical communication in tough situations can earn the respect of colleagues, friends, and the general public.

3. What other reasons can students suggest for the importance of ethical public speaking?

II. Bases of ethical communication

A. Rights and responsibilities

1. Either concept alone can be oppressive

a. Unchecked, individual rights permit a person to commit offenses in the name of rights to free speech, etc.

b. Unchecked, responsibility to a group/ community eliminate a person's chance to go against the majority's will.

B. Affirmative perspective

1. Ethical systems allow people to live together in harmony, providing guidelines for routine and mutually satisfying decisions.

2. Consider ethics as guidelines for daily decision-making, not just a list of prohibited behaviors.

C. Accountability

1. Speakers are accountable for everything they say. That is, they are expected to accept the consequences--positive or negative — of their communication.

2. Suggestions

a. If you're not sure if information is correct, tell the audience.

b. Distinguish between your opinion and fact.

c. Do not attempt to mislead the audience in any way.

D. Degree of ethical quality

1. Don't force ethical judgments into one of two categories: ethical or unethical. Realize that the complexities of our world mean that almost any action can have some ethical and some unethical qualities to it. Some acts are more ethical (or unethical) than others.

III. General guidelines for ethical public speaking

A. Honesty is the best policy

1. While there arguably are a few occasions when deceiving the audience is ethical, the speaker bears the burden of proof. Reasons for deceiving the audience must be compelling; lying to the audience is *rarely* ethical.

B. Many strategies can be ethical or unethical, depending on how they're used. A few examples illustrate this:

1. Arousing emotion

a. If it is justified (this is the difficult part to determine), then it is an acceptable strategy.

i. Consider Martin Luther King's "I have a dream speech" for an example of justified emotional appeal (appeal to ideals).

ii. Consider Adolf Hitler's rhetoric for an example of unjustified emotional appeal (appeal to prejudice).

2. Using statistics

a. Statistics can be informative or misleading. If statistics are intentionally used to deceive, the speaker communicated unethically.

IV. Specific guidelines for ethical public speaking

A. Determining Purpose

1. Speakers should have an ethical goal

a. The speaker should not be the only one who benefits from the suggested change(s) in a persuasive speech.

B. Getting Information
   1. The speaker should be well-informed.[1]
      a. When doing research, you should seek out competing viewpoints to be sure that your case is representative of all relevant information.

C. Support Material
   1. Speakers should report information as accurately as possible.[2] Among other things, this involves:
      a. Differentiating facts from opinions
      b. Not suppressing key information
      c. Not oversimplifying
      d. Quoting in context
   2. Speakers should be honest about their intentions and biases
   3. Speakers should give credit to their sources

D. Reasoning
   1. Speaker should not knowingly use false reasoning.
   2. Speaker should not use unacceptable emotional appeals such as:

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[1]Although a speaker should be well-informed, Schwartzman (1987) suggests that speakers need to be competent, not expert. Being expert still does not guarantee that the information is correct and unbiased. Furthermore, overdoing the need for expertise can repress the public and suppress challenges to authority. The key is balance — speakers have the responsibility to be well-informed, but need not be experts to speak ethically.

[2]It is important to distinguish between an honest mistake and unethical behavior. A speaker might fail to mention key information or quote out of context due to an honest error; while this is often the result of sloppy work it is not necessarily unethical. However. the issue that arises when the number of mistakes begins to climb is: at what point does sloppiness become neglect or irresponsibility, and thus eligible to be judged for eithical quality?

a. Flattery
b. Provocation and/or name calling
c. Distraction
d. Prejudice

E. Language
   1. Use language to clarify, not to obscure, the facts.

F. Persuasive Speaking
   1. Persuasive speeches should let audiences make up their own mind with full knowledge of all relevant facts.

G. Listening
   1. Audience members should try to pay attention.
   2. Audience members should give the speaker a fair hearing.
   3. Audience members should give the speaker clear and honest feedback.

TEACHING IDEAS

In this section I present ideas for effectively teaching ethics. These ideas help clarify ethical standards for students, provide in-depth information on speech ethics, and get students actively involved in considering ethical standards.

Clarifying Ethical Standards. Students are often not aware exactly what a teacher considers ethical behavior, and what that instructor considers unethical. By making ethical expectations explicit, teachers can be sure that students understand what is expected, and students can easily see how teachers model their ideals. Two ways to implement this suggestion are provided.

1. *Be clear about your code of ethics.* Sikkink (1981) recommended that teachers should set up the code of ethics they will use for their class, explain it to the students (noting that it is not the only imaginable code, nor is it necessarily the best code in existence), and then use it throughout the course. This recommendation is helpful for several reasons. First, it requires both teacher and students to think carefully and explicitly about the ethical system they choose to adopt. Second, if students disagree with any part(s) of it, they will think critically about ethical choices. Finally, it emphasizes that ethics are a topic to be taken seriously in the class.
2. *Put your ethical standards in the syllabus.* Sikkink (1981) and Winsor and Curtis (1990) recommend putting ethical standards on the syllabus. The advantage to this method is that students can understand clearly what the instructor expects, and they cannot claim that they were not forewarned. Additionally, putting the standards on the syllabus emphasizes their importance.

Some instructors may prefer to discuss ethical responsibilities in communication with their students and mutually sculpt a code of ethics for the class. In this case, after the ethical ideals are agreed upon, the instructor should type a copy of the class's ethical standards and copy it for all the students. This will assure that there is no misunderstanding of what class members agreed upon.

Providing In-depth Information. Since introductory public speaking textbooks only provide cursory discussions of communication ethics, teachers may wish to provide alternative sources of information. There is a plethora of well-written material that has informative and/or provocative value for students. Several sources that are especially relevant to pubic speaking are listed in the last section of this paper. Instruc-

tors can find readings to stimulate thought or discussion and get copies to students, or put a supplemental class packet together.

Greenberg (1986) recommends creating study guides for outside readings on ethics. If students are given outside sources to read, instructors might want to try writing questions about the reading for students to answer. Questions can be written to be sure students understand the main ideas or to provoke them to think critically.

Getting Students Actively Involved. Because ethics are complex and are not clear-cut, students should be encouraged to actively consider ethical ideals. Challenging students with difficult ethical questions forces them to examine their own belief structures and to question the validity of their beliefs. Four different ways to encourage students to critically examine their ethical beliefs are suggested.

1. *Have students craft their own ethical standards.* Rather than just letting students passively hear ethical ideas from the lecture, teachers may wish to get them actively involved. Two methods have been proposed:
   - Sikkink (1981) suggests this exercise. In class, prior to teaching ethics, have students write a few sentences on what is ethical, and have them share with the class. Probably few of these ideas will ultimately prove useful. Then, have students rewrite their statements outside class to answer this question: "What limits, if any, would you at the present time impose on your efforts to use human communication to influence the others by modifying their beliefs, values, or attitudes?" (p. 4). Have students bring their responses to class and read as many as can be done in 20 minutes; spend the rest of the period in class discussion.

- Instructors may wish to have students formulate their own codes of ethics (Greenberg, 1986). This can be done by having students write an essay about their ethical system before the material is covered in class. Then, have students compare their ethical systems with the instructor's.

2. *Have students discuss ethics in small groups.* Teachers can put students in groups of four to seven and present them with a moral dilemma. They should state that groups have 20 minutes to come to consensus on the most ethical solution. Then, each group should present its solution to the class, and the class can hold large group discussion.

3. *Use case studies.* Smitter (1989, 1992) recommended using case studies to help students learn more effectively. He argued that when students do case studies, they get in the habit of analysis (they learn to ask questions to better understand the situation, and they learn to make choices), and they learn the habit of responsibility (they must be prepared for class and contribute to it). Furthermore, case studies allow for integration of multiple perspectives and demand that students make choices.

   Case studies may use factual or fictional sources. Many episodes of *Star Trek* and *Star Trek: The Next Generation* are based on moral dilemmas, and may provide good material for a case study. Articles from almost any newspaper can be used, as can case studies from books, personal experience, or hypothetical scenarios. When using case studies, instructors will find it helpful to ask students a set of specific questions. Instead of just asking "What's the most ethical solution?" they should try asking questions such as:

- How ethical (degree of ethical quality) were the actions of each person involved?
- What is the most ethical solution to this problem?
- What are the pros and cons of each solution?
- Is there one clear best choice?
- What relevant information was not provided but is necessary for resolving the issue?
- How would you have handled this situation had you been each of the actors?
- What alternative solutions can you propose? How ethical are your alternatives?
- What could have been done earlier to prevent this ethical dilemma from happening?
- What can be done to prevent a similar situation from happening again?

4. *Do role plays.* Students often learn best by doing. Instructors can put students into groups and assign each group a scenario with an ethical dilemma. Groups should be given 15 or 20 minutes to come to agreement on the most ethical solution, then each group should enact the role play for the class. Classmates should decide:
   - Did the role play model the most ethical solution?
   - What alternatives could the group have chosen?
   - Were there alternatives that were equally ethical?
   - Did the solution present new ethical choices?

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Several articles and papers are available that instructors may find helpful either for preparing lectures or for supplementing the textbook. Of these articles, Eubanks's and Johannesen's articles are the most useful as supplemental reading for students.

Eubanks, R. T. (1980). Reflections on the moral dimension of communication. *Southern Speech Communication Journal, 45,* 297-312.

Greenberg, K. J. (1986, May). The issue of teaching ethics in the introductory speech course. Unpublished paper presented at the annual meeting of the Eastern Communication Association, Atlantic City, NJ. ED#271798

Haskins, W. (1989). Teaching ethics in the basic survey speech communication course. In L. Hugenberg (Ed.), *Basic Course Communication Annual, I (pp.* 95-105). Boston: American Press.

Jensen, J. V. (1985). Teaching ethics in speech communication. *Communication Education, 34*(4), 324-330.

Johannesen, R. L. (1980). Teaching ethical standards for discourse. *Journal of Education, 162*(2), 5-20.

Sikkink, D. (1981, November). Ethics in persuasion: An integrated teaching approach for increasing student awareness of ethical issues in persuasion. Unpublished paper presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Anaheim, CA. ED#209708

Several books also provide good background material. Instructors may wish to have students read selections from the following sources. The Arnett piece may be difficult for undergraduates to understand if not provided with background information. It is included in this list because it is rich with ideas and is a good text for stimulating classroom discussion. Particularly, students should consider what Arnett's conceptualization of the ethical community is, and how public speaking fits into that framework.

Arnett, R. C. (1986). *Communication and community.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press. (Chapter 6)

Bok, S. (1978). *Lying: Moral choice in public and private life.* New York: Pantheon.

Jaksa, J. A., & Pritchard, M. S. (1988). *Communication ethics: Methods of analysis.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

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CONCLUSION

Although ethics are not covered extensively in public speaking texts, a little extra attention from instructors can go a long way toward preparing students for responsible use of their newly improved skill. By emphasizing that it is important for students to speak ethically, supplying them with some conceptual background, and involving students in actively considering ethical choices, teachers can help students be more ethical in their public communication. The ideas presented in this paper should facilitate that process.

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Teaching Critical Thinking in the Basic Course*

Melissa L. Beall

Concerned educators at all levels are often caught in a professional bind. On the one hand, business, industry, and educational reformers call for excellence in education, including the teaching of thinking. Indeed, the 1992 Goals Report of the National Education Goals Panel has identified reasoning and critical thinking as special areas of emphasis in two objectives:

> The percentage of students who demonstrate the ability to reason, solve problems, apply knowledge, and write and communicate effectively will increase substantially, and
>
> The proportion of college graduates who demonstrate an advanced ability to think critically, communicate effectively, and solve problems will increase substantially (Paul, 1993, p. 20).

The new Secretary of Labor, Robert Reich, claims that the "wealth of a nation is given in the quality of the thinking of its workers" (Paul, 1993, 1.2: 22). On the other hand, educators often proclaim that students don't and can't think. A recent memo from a department head in our college carried a warning that "critical thinking is a process. . . children learn to think early, and if students come to the college/university level without the ability to think, it's too late for us to do anything." This is a frightening concept: that people can only

*Portions of this paper on the teaching of critical thinking have been used in other articles by this writer.

"learn to think" early in life, and teaching college students to think is hopeless.

Another common complaint from educators is "I teach my students to think, but it just does not transfer." This writer believes not only that thinking *can be* taught, but indeed, that it *should be* taught, *in context,* at all levels of education. Another strong personal conviction (supported by the research in critical thinking [cf. Paul, 1991]) is that the transfer of thinking abilities can and does occur, if the right classroom strategies are followed. Unfortunately, Paul (1993) suggests that the educational community does not focus on the process of good thinking, but rather on the "end products of thought" and educators do little to suggest the thinking/reasoning that is the basis for the products (p. 28). In communication courses, we may feel that we are teaching the process of thinking/reasoning because so much of what is required of our students, particularly in the basic course, involves a great deal of analysis and application. Unless, however, instructors focus on the thinking about the thinking (metacognition) that occurs, there will be little transfer to other communication activities, much less to other disciplines.

This paper provides one course director's view of how the basic communication course can facilitate students' abilities to make connections between and among courses, activities, and thinking, rather than merely focus on the end products of thinking. Given the focus on the communication *process,* our task should be easy, but it does not appear to be the case. Sometimes we may attribute this difficulty to the approach taken by some of our basic course textbooks. In our own basic course, we take the "practical" approach and have much greater success with students. We see and hear evidence of the kinds of thinking we hoped to see when our students draw inferences, make comparisons, and refer to earlier specific activities throughout the semester. Discussions and papers exhibit the students' search for reasons, evidence, and criteria. Speeches, too, provide increasing evidence of careful

thought and evidence to support views. We've tried a variety of approaches over the past three years, and believe that a focus on metacognition, specific instruction in critical thinking, and a conscientious effort to encourage students to make connections between classroom activities and other classes and/or situations makes critical thinking instruction meaningful to our students.

Most basic course textbook authors acknowledge the need to address critical thinking. Many authors look at critical thinking from the perspective of formal logic that basic communication course students (and their graduate student instructors) often have trouble grasping, or at least have trouble in applying to their own communication activities. Pearson and Nelson (1991) provide a chapter on critical listening and critical thinking. The chapter covers listening, note-taking, definitions of critical thinking, and attitudes that encourage critical thinking. Much of the chapter is devoted to arguments, fallacies, inferences, rules, truth, and validity. Others, too, provide a formal reasoning or argumentation approach. Gronbeck, McKerrow, Ehninger, and Monroe (1990) include a chapter on argumentation and critical thinking. The chapter provides background on argumentation, refutation, reasoning, claims, evidence, fallacies, and proofs, and directs the student to apply concepts through discussion questions and exercises. Berko, Wolvin, and Wolvin (1992) briefly review reasoning systems, vis-a-vis logic, reasoning, philosophical thought, and conflicts between reasoning systems. Verderber's newest text (1991) address critical thinking and provide chapter questions to direct the student to think critically. Zeuschner (1992) includes both a chapter on critical thinking and an emphasis on cri thinking about the concepts covered throughout the text. Each of Zeuschner's chapters also has a "critical thinking box" and application questions and exercises. Most of the latest texts address, in one way or another, the concept of critical thinking. Many of the new texts or revisions are looking

at critical thinking from a more practical perspective (e.g., Zeuschner's [1992] critical thinking boxes].

Increasing numbers of textbooks now include critical thinking chapters and activities. Given the national emphasis for "more critical thinking" and "more transfer" we really have little choice but to address critical thinking in the basic communication course. The difficulty lies not in teaching critical thinking, but in finding an approach that makes sense to the students. Our goal should be to facilitate students' ability to make connections between ideas and activities, and to use good thinking/reasoning in their speaking, listening, and writing.

Most educators believe that they are teaching students to "think." And, more than likely, thinking occurs in most classrooms. How much of that thinking is a natural part of the student's *modus operandi,* and how much is the result of the pedagogical methods utilized in the classroom is an issue. Another issue is the extent to which students are provided opportunities and assistance in making connections and finding the interrelationships between and among concepts. Individual instructors can promote thinking and can facilitate the transfer of those thinking abilities to other areas, with perhaps only a change of perspective.

College/university students know how to think or they would not be in college classes, for a certain amount of thinking is required to make it through the educational system. The problem lies in making students aware of what, why, and how they think. If we can teach students to think about their thinking (be metacognitively aware) we can help them make the connections between what we do in our classes and what is expected outside the classroom. We can never assume that thinking will automatically develop or transfer just because teachers provide opportunities for thinking. Students must be directly taught *how* to think within the specific communication situation, and how that thinking can be applied to other situations.

DEFINITIONS

Definitions of thinking, thinking skills, and thinking strategies are necessary. Elsewhere, this writer has defined "critical thinking" as "the search for meaning." Others, too, have similarly connected critical thinking and the making of meaning. A thinking "skill" refers to such discrete thinking abilities as classifying or categorizing, while thinking strategies involve more complex operations such as problem-solving (Beall, 1993, in press).

THE THINKING SKILLS MOST NEEDED IN THE CLASSROOM

Talking about and even requiring knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation is not enough, although using Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) is an excellent basis for setting up the categories of cognitive skills and objectives for class discussions, activities, and exam questions. Many writers believe teachers ought to concentrate on the how and why of classroom learning as much as on what is to be learned. For example, Svinicki (1991) suggests that cognitive psychology provides practical suggestions for both teachers and learners. She asserts that teachers have two tasks: (1) to "organize the course and its content in a way that is consistent with what we believe about how learning takes place" and, (2) to "help students learn how to learn content, a step in sophistication above the mere learning of content itself" (29). Also, Weinstein and Meyer (1991) suggest that college teachers need to focus their teaching "not only on content but on how to learn content in the context of particular courses" (15).

Teaching "thinking" is not the same thing as teaching specific thinking skills or strategies. Each teacher should establish clear expectations of students' thinking in each class-

room in order to better provide the appropriate instructional methods and activities for the students in that particular classroom. Beyer (1987) posits that it is extremely challenging to select what thinking skills/operations to teach. Brandt (1984) and Costa (1984) suggest that educators teach *"of, for. and about thinking"* in all classrooms. Beyer (1987) suggests the following criteria for making selections about thinking for classroom instruction:

1. Does the skill or strategy have frequent practical application in the students' everyday, out-of-school life?
2. Does the skill or strategy have frequent, practical application in a number of subject areas?
3. Does the skill or strategy build on previously taught thinking operations or lead to the development of other, more complex operations?
4. Does the subject matter in which the operation is to be taught lend itself to teaching the operation?
5. Can an understandable form of the skill or strategy be mastered relatively easily by the students, given their degrees of readiness and experience? (p. 45).

The following is a list of thinking skills we utilize in preparing for the basic communication course. (The list of thinking skills is included in the course guide, covered early in the semester in the unit on critical thinking, and referred to throughout the semester.) While not exhaustive, it is a helpful stimulus for determining what to include in teaching of, for, and about thinking. All educators are urged todetermine their own expectations for their students. It may also be helpful to the students to have a copy of the instructor's list of thinking skills as a reference for activities and discussions.

List of Thinking Skills Most Needed in the Basic Communication Course

1. Concentration Skills

   Attending
   Concentrating
   Focusing
   Seeking Information

2. Information-Gaining Skills

   Listening to information
   Processing information
   Note-taking
   Questioning
   Organizing information into some schemata
   Responding to one's intuition

3. **Critical Thinking/Critical Listening Skills**

   Discriminating (sounds, words, concepts, ideas)
   Analyzing
   Classifying
   Categorizing
   Evaluating
   Determining relationships
   Questioning
   Identifying main ideas
   Distinguishing between fact and opinion
   Drawing inferences (inductive and deductive reasoning)
   Identifying significant details
   Following sequence
   Relating new to old
   Relating information to personal ideas
   Relating information to personal values
   Making constructive comments/criticisms
   Knowing what specific information to utilize
   Knowing when to use specific information

Using Trial and error
Comparing
Contrasting
Synthesizing
Applying
Crystallizing
Predicting outcomes
Hypothesizing
Following one's intuitions to see where they lead

4. **Response skills**

Responding verbally
Responding nonverbally
Knowing when to respond
Writing notes
Providing feedback
Adjusting
Judging the validity of information
Judging the sufficiency of information
Judging the ethics of the speaker
Judging the worth of the information
Identifying the situation or message
Imagining
Testing the validity of arguments
Testing the validity of reasoning
Testing the possibilities
Determining whether or not the intuitions provide the appropriate information

Instructors are encouraged to determine their own lists of thinking skills/operations based upon the needs of the curriculum, the students, and the situation. Teachers should determine what the students know and can do before attempting to teach specific thinking skills or strategies. The research in thinking is inconclusive as to how many thinking skills there are, and which are the most important. The

thinking experts seem to agree, however, that choosing the thinking skills to be covered in any classroom should be made on the basis of the kinds of thinking the teacher believes students will need in situations both inside and outside the classroom.

COGNITION AND METACOGNITION

We need to differentiate between cognitive and meta-cognitive skills. When teachers teach *of* thinking (teach students what thinking is, or, discuss/provide the labels for the kinds of thinking being utilized), and *for* thinking (teaching students why they use certain kinds of information and reject other information), we are teaching cognitive skills. When teachers teach *metacognition,* they teach people to think about their own thinking. When students are metacognitively effective, they are aware of how they think, why they think, and what has gone into the thinking process. Students can be objective and reflective about their ability to think when they reflect upon what thinking took place (an activity which most of us take for granted). Metacognition allows thinkers to know how they can and do think and how they make meaning from the world around them. Metacognition allows thinkers to internalize things. Students would probably be more proficient in their transfer of thinking from one area to another if we encouraged them to think about what went into the thinking process — before, during, and after each thinking act. Flavell (1976) says there are three aspects of metacognition: **planning, monitoring, and assessing.** Metacognition can be likened to the director's role in setting up the basic course: the director first considers the course and what it should cover, and then plans the best approach. Secondly, the course director oversees the course as it is being taught and considers what is working well and what needs to be improved. After the academic term is completed, the course director evaluates the strengths and weaknesses and determines what addi-

tions, deletions, or changes are needed. Thus, the curricular process may be likened to the metacognitive process, because it, too, is almost second nature. Just as thinking may be second nature to the students, most faculty members do not spend a great deal of time thinking about the thinking involved in their courses. Students, however, must be taught to internalize their thinking if we want them to be more effective thinkers. Even in advanced undergraduate and early graduate classes, we have all found critical thinking to be a rare commodity. Who among us has not bemoaned students' inability to understand what is involved in an analysis of the problem? In debriefing sessions, we can focus on metacognition by asking students how they could have prevented certain problems and how they might approach a similar problem in the future. When instructors focus on metacognition, students and teachers alike will become more concerned with the process of thinking even though something (a product) is created, a paper is completed, or a task is completed. When the classroom becomes obviously process-oriented, more thinking takes place, students internalize the information and the process and can thus make connections between that class exercise or activity and other situations.

AN APPROACH TO TEACHING THINKING

Earlier, we said that each instructor needs to determine the approach most appropriate for all individuals in the classroom. This necessitates a view of the variety of learning styles students and the instructor bring to the classroom. Each student learns differently but there are specific patterns to learning. Teachers should recognize that a variety of teaching strategies and activities are generally most helpful for the majority of students. The more the instructor allows students to have ownership of the class through interactive strategies, the more likely the student is to stay "tuned in." Classroom activities should provide opportunities to observe the kinds of

thinking students bring into the classroom situation. If students already take effective notes, for example, there's no need to cover that aspect. When students do not understand what is involved in making predictions, the process needs to be both modeled and explained. Thinking is not something easily assessed, so there should be opportunities for informal evaluation of student thinking, and especially created opportunities to try the thinking process without a fear of failure.

Students need to know the teacher's expectations. One way to ensure this is to provide handouts or use overhead transparencies so lists of thinking skills can be explored. This becomes a handy reference for the student in ensuing discussions of the thinking process. Activities in the class should enable students to focus on the thinking skills/strategies expected. Students need to know why they are doing what they are doing in the classroom. Thinking should not be taught in isolation if internalization or transfer is the goal. Instructors should let the students internalize the thinking process in which they, themselves, are engaged. Modeling the thinking strategies is an effective reinforcement for the teaching of, for, and about thinking.

Too often instructors ask questions, wait one or two seconds, and then re-phrase the question, ask another question, or answer the question, without providing enough "wait time" to actually think things through. If the **process of thinking** is emphasized, teachers will allow enough time for the students to process the question and think through possible responses. This should be natural because we deal with the communication process, but too often a "product" becomes too important. Instructors who continually remind their students that the *process* is more important than the product, and who provide opportunities for evaluating the process rather than the product will allow students to believe that thinking *is*, indeed, important.

As is the case with any effective classroom strategy, thinking activities must be discussed. Discussion should focus

on both the cognitive and metacognitive aspects: (1) What were t(3) Why did people make the choices they made? (4) What was needed to arrive at a decision? (5) What would need to be changed to accept some information over other information? (6) What would the student do differently next time? (7) Where else might this kind of thinking be utilized? The instructor should help the students see that the kinds of thinking engaged in for the class are necessary/helpful/already required in other classes and in other activities and situations outside the classroom. Reminders to previous activities and previous thinking facilitates the retention and transfer of thinking to other activities. Constant reinforcement of thinking skills and strategies, and reminders of previous activities allows the student to become fully cognizant of the thinking process used throughout the academic term. Even at the college level, the teacher has to make the connections for students over what seems to be an inordinately long period of time. When the reinforcement occurs constantly and naturally, however, the students begin to make the connections on their own.

A General Education Committee member (a faculty member from another college and department within our university) questioned how we approach the critical thinking aspect of the general education requirements in the Oral Communication course. After examining the materials included in the *Guide to Oral Communication,* he remarked that what we provide is "good teaching."

Perhaps that really is the key to teaching thinking: to be good teachers, teaching well. And, for us, that means making students aware of their own thinking and how that thinking can be used in other situations, both inside and outside the classroom.

ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE THINKING IN THE BASIC COURSE

The following materials are included in our *Guide to Oral Communication* text. Different instructors use them in differing ways, but all report that the concept of critical thinking is easier to approach with these materials. Students (and their instructors) report greater satisfaction with practical materials than with textbook chapters. Students seem to grasp the practical application of the thinking process far easier than they are able to deal with enthymemes, syllogisms, models of arguments and formal logic. That is not to say that formal reasoning should be avoided. Rather, it has been our experience that a focus on the practical applications (making connections) and metacognition is working for our students. We have tested a variety of approaches to the teaching of thinking over the past three years. During that time we've included at least six hours in staff orientation sessions on the practical approach to teaching students to think critically. In addition to the August orientation, at least two hours are built into staff meetings during the each semester. Graduate teaching assistants take the Communication Education Seminar and are required to demonstrate and apply teaching strategies for critical thinking in course units and in microteaching sessions. Bloom's Taxonomy provides the basis for making the graduate teaching assistant aware of higher order thinking skills, and serves as a reminder of classroom objectives. We have found that asking students to analyze, develop criteria, test criteria, provide evidence, justify, apply the concepts or evaluate the concepts we cover in specific situations is not enough. All staff members have found that making students aware of how they think, and what they are doing pays dividends. Our students *do* learn to make the connections on their own.

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APPENDIX A

LINKING LISTENING AND THINKING

Listening and thinking are closely inter-related. Think about the process of listening. What is involved? We hear sounds, we interpret the sounds, and then we try to do something with the sounds and their interpretation. Just as there are similarities between perception and listening and between the speaking process and the *listening* process, there are similarities between listening and thinking. What happens when we think? What happens when YOU think about something?

Let's experiment for a moment. Read and complete each section before moving on to the next paragraph, please.

Think about that last question: What happens when you think? What happens first, then what, then what, and, what do you end up with? How did you get there? Write down what you think happens as you think in the space below.

Now, let's do a bit of problem solving: Identify what you consider to be the **world's greatest invention.** Then, in the space provided, explain why you believe that invention is the greatest the world has known.

Think about what happened when you had to decide what the world's greatest invention is and why it is the greatest. How did you arrive at your decision? What was the process in

which you were involved? What kinds of thinking occurred? How did you use information? What information did you seek? What information did you reject? Why did you reject certain bits? Why did you reject certain inventions? Why did you finally choose the one invention you did? What helped you make that decision? How did you go about rationalizing your decision? What *are* the justifications for that invention as the greatest *in the world?* What other alternatives are there? Why? Why did you reject the alternatives?

Explain your thinking (Provide answers) here:

Compare your answers from what you thought thinking was like to what actually happened when you had to make a solve a "problem" how similar were your answers? How different?

Now, compare the whole thinking process to the communication process. Where are the similarities there? What are the differences? How similar is the thinking process and the listening process?

In the examples here, you had to read, think, and respond. As a listener, you hear, listen, think, and respond. On a *prima facie* basis (on the face of things), you can see the similarities. Do those similarities go deeper than that? This writer believes they do. Thinking *is or should be* involved in everything we do. But, then, so should speaking, listening, and questioning. If we wish to be effective in whatever we do, we must take every opportunity to improve upon and utilize our communication/thinking skills. The purpose of the exercises here are to get you to think about the whole process. If you'll carefully respond and then think about what you've written and what you've done, you will have made progress toward utilizing the listening-thinking connection. Carefully look over the MZETACOGNITION handout in this packet. Pay careful attention to the diagram on the fourth page. The teaching learning process utilizes speaking, listening, questioning and thinking skills as well as other teaching-learning strategies. If you think about how those circles move together and apart in various learning situations, you'll realize that the skills are inseparable, but we must be aware of them, and we must understand when, where, and how to use those skills in all facets of our lives.

An effective and efficient listener is utilizing his or her questioning skills, listening skills, and thinking skills, and then is able to apply the skills and the results of using them to whatever situation is being faced at the moment. The student who is aware of what is happening during the process is the one who will be able to use the information and the thinking and be able to *apply* it to a variety of situations throughout her or his life — not just in an activity in this class, but in everything she or he does.

APPENDIX B

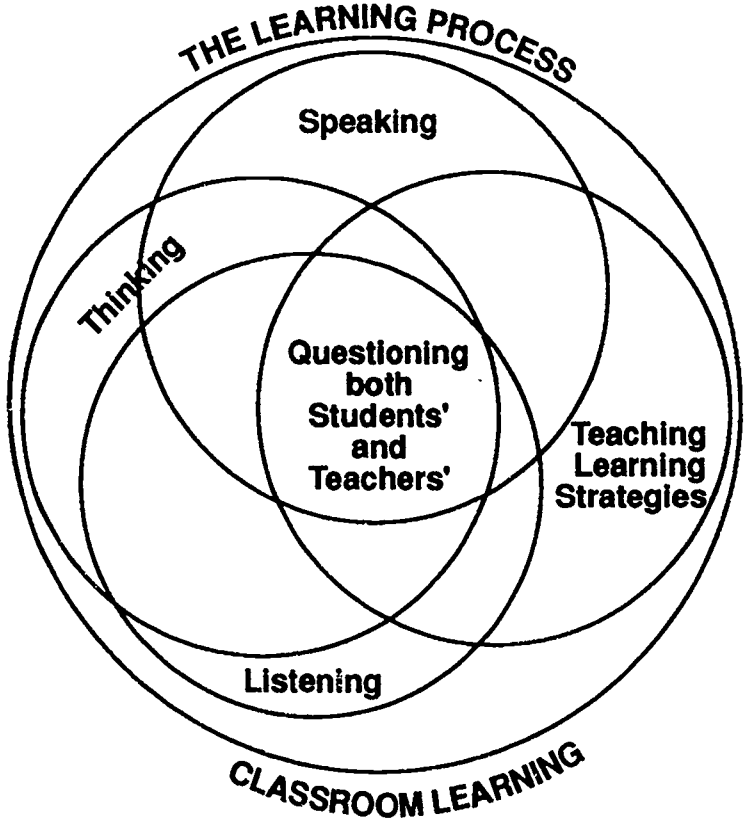
METACOGNITION: THINKING ABOUT THINKING

In the past decade or more, in virtually every educational report, and every survey of what businesses expect of their employees, three competencies have been identified: speaking, listening, and thinking. (See Figure 1.) These competencies are the focus of much of what we do in Oral Communication, 50:023, and much of what is required of us in our roles as friends, family members, workers and citizens. Since these areas as well as an awareness of a changing world are issues of concern for all people, we have put together several packets to supplement readings and class discussions.

A United States Labor Department Commission in July, 1991, issued a report urging the nation's schools [at all levels] to concentrate "on five learning areas of increasing importance in the workplace" [see "Workplace Skills" from the U.S. Labor Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills]. Many of the areas are covered in this course; for example, "working with colleagues in teams and other settings; using and evaluating information; understanding systems; listening; speaking; an array of thinking skills, including creative thinking, decision making and problem solving, and such personal qualities as responsibility, self-esteem, sociability, self-management and integrity." (Peterson, Los Angeles *Times*. Dl, 7-3-91).

Many of the competency areas cited by the Labor Department are skills and operations we *think* we already know. Unfortunately, we may know that these competencies are important, but we don't really give them much thought in our pursuit of an education. Instead, we tend to concentrate on "what is needed to do well on the exam" or "what is needed to

The Relationship
of Speaking, Listening and Thinking
in the Learning Process



Melissa L. Beall, UNI

Figure 1

The Workplace Skills

The U.S. Labor Secretary's Commission on Achieving necessary Skills released a report Tuesday describing five learning areas of increasing importance in the workplace. Their development depends on a foundation of more basic abilities.

The Foundation

- **Basic:** Reading, writing, mathematics, speaking and listening.
- **Thinking:** Creativity, making decisions, solving problems, seeing things in the mind's eye, knowing how to learn, reasoning.
- **Personal qualities:** Responsibility, self-esteem, sociability,. self-management and integrity.

Job Skills

- **Resources:** Allocating time, money, materials, space and staff.
- **Information:** Acquiring and evaluating data, organizing and maintaining files, interpreting and communicating and using computers to process information
- **Systems:** Understanding social, organizational and technological systems, monitoring and correcting performance and designing or improving systems.
- **Technology:** Selecting equipment and tools, applying technology to specific tasks and maintaining and trouble-shooting technologies.

Source: U.S. Labor Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills

(from the Los Angeles, *Times*, July 3, 1991, p. D7.)

get an "A" in the course. Too often we forget that the material we study is at least perceived to be valuable for **most** people. Also, our teachers sometimes forget that the object of education is to provide opportunities for students to move from one

place to another in order to help people learn **how** to do **what** and **where** to go to get answers, not to fill up minds just for an exam.

Thinking skills and operations are, by this time, almost automatic. we just do what we have to do, and don't really give much thought to what happens when we think. If we concentrate on what we think about, how we think, and what happens when we think, we can improve our thinking greatly. Even more importantly, we can learn to use that same king of thinking in other situations. Only when we become aware of how we think, why we think, what decisions have gone into the thinking process, and what and why we selected or eliminated available alternatives can we become "better thinkers." Students have to take advantage of the thinking opportunities provided them if they are to make the transfer from classroom to other situations.

Metacognition is a word which refers to how one thinks about thinking. What we ask people to do when thinking about their thinking is to figuratively step back and observe our own thinking. We must reflect upon the thinking we do, **before, during** and **after** the act of thinking. Think about the problem-solving process. There are many "steps" in solving a problem, but the basic elements according to Flavell (1986) and other thinking experts are: **planning, monitoring** and **assessing**.

Planning means that we analyze the situation and decide what we will do and how we will approach the problem. We engage in any number of thinking operations and skills to do this. We may focus our attention on the elements involved in the problem, then we may ask questions, listen to information, look for significant details, process information, make inferences, draw comparisons, look for contrasts, evaluate the evidence, make predictions, create hypotheses, and predict possible solutions.

As we continue to work on finding a solution to the problem(s) we monitor what we're doing. Some of the same think-

ing skills come into play in this operation. And we may further relate new and old information, relate information to personal values/views, look for significant details, try to identify sequence, make adjustments, look for relationships, determine when we use specific information, and synthesize the evidence and the reliability of the solutions we've begun to determine. We constantly monitor ourselves by asking such questions as "How am I doing? How can I get (x) to happen? This isn't working. I'll try this approach. Yes, this is better. We're checking, adjusting, changing, throwing out, seeking additional information, finding new approaches: we're monitoring the rethinking (even if automatic pilot has taken over the controls).

Once a solution or series of solutions have been generated, the thinker must assess whether or not she or he has found the best solution and the most effective response to the problem. Any number of the thinking skills utilized earlier may be brought into play for this aspect of the thinking process. The thinker continues to make judgments about the problem, the solution/s, and the **best** or **most effective** means of implementing the solution/s. We assess not only whether or not the approach we took for this particular problem was best, but we also need to think about how we can use this process for another situation. Again, we mentally calculate how we would change the approach in a similar situation.

In a face-to-face communication, we respond to feedback to determine whether or not we're getting through. As a part of the **assessing** that goes into our thinking, we should consider not only whether or not we're "getting through" but also, "how effective was my thinking in this situation" and, "how can I use this process in another situation, at another time?"

Flavell (1986) indicates that we are using metacognitive skills when:

1. we take note of what we have trouble learning,

2. we remind ourselves to double-check something before we accept it as fact,
3. we remind ourselves to scrutinize each alternative in a multiple-choice test **before** selecting an answer,
4. we sense that it is important to write something down before we forget it, and,
5. we have INTROSPECTION (looking inside ourselves and our minds to figure out what and how we're thinking, and what kinds of thinking skills we're using), RETROSPECTION (looking back to see what we've done and evaluating whether or not we're on the right track, or what additional information we need), and FUTURESPECTION (thinking about how we might use this process in the future, in another situation or for another problem, or when we think about how we can prevent certain problems and how to approach problems in the future).

Margaret Donaldson (1978) gave us a view of what is needed in educational systems:

> "[the students] should learn to turn **language and thought** in upon themselves. They must direct their own thought processes in a thoughtful manner. They must become able not just to talk, but to choose what they will say, not just to interpret but to weigh possible interpretations (90) [emphasis added by this author]. . .. If a [student] is going to control and direct his/her own thinking, . . . s/he must become conscious of it" (96).

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APPENDIX C

QUESTIONING STRATEGIES FOR THINKING STUDENTS

Questioning skills are among the most important skills in the classroom, for students and for their teachers. In the communication classroom questions are particularly important because the effective listener, the effective thinker, the effective communicator must all utilize questions as a way of making sense of the communication process if they are to apply knowledge and understanding to themselves and their lives.

Questions are more than just asking a question or making a query. Questions help us make sense of the world around us, especially if we ask questions and find answers. We ask questions to clarify our understanding of concepts, to make sure that we got the requirements of an assignment, to make sure that we understand what another is saying, and, we should also ask questions to get further into matters than we often do. Students who are constantly learning should be the ones who ask many questions, Unfortunately, the educational process has not always encouraged the use of questions by students. This writer remembers numerous times from the primary grades through graduate school when she got "into trouble" with the teacher because she asked too many questions. (Is it any wonder that she now believes that one can never ask too many questions in search of knowledge?) Questioning ourselves, whether mentally or aloud, helps us to reveal our thoughts and feelings to ourselves and to others. Learning to use questioning strategies and developing our questioning skills helps us to become "critical thinkers." Critical thinkers do more than just deal with the basic content of something. Critical thinkers use questions to facilitate the in-

tellectual process so that they can use and apply information and knowledge not just to one class, one activity, or one thing, but to a variety of situations in their lives. Critical thinkers who question and find answers are the people who learn to integrate information, explore topics, argue points of view, interact effectively with others, and LEARN.

Many of you have doubtless heard of Benjamin Bloom's "Taxonomy of Learning." Bloom identifies a hierarchy of learning moving from (1) basic knowledge (recall), to (2) comprehension, to (3) application, to (4) analysis, to (5) synthesis, and finally to (6) evaluation. You can't move up the hierarchy unless you have the basic knowledge, first, but there's not a real sequence otherwise. You may, for example, ask a question which helps you establish what's going on, and then ask a question which allows you and the person of whom you ask the question to evaluate something. A third question might allow you to apply knowledge. There's nothing wrong with that kind of configuration, but you can't move anywhere unless you know first know what is being discussed. These guidelines are merely suggestions and do not imply that people asking questions have to move from recall questions up the hierarchy. If one does not understand the basic concept, however, she or he will be unable either to effectively phrase a question or understand an answer designed to move into the higher levels of thinking. What is important, instead, is that we begin to actively seek ways to improve our questioning skills, learn new questioning strategies so that we can be the most effective communicators/thinkers/learners we can be.

Let's look at some of the ways we can begin to work on our **questioning strategies.**

1. If you're not sure of what someone is saying or what you're reading, ask a question. "I'm not sure I understand you. Are you saying . . . ?" **In this classroom, there are no dumb questions.** How can we learn unless we ask questions?

2. Allow yourself to think about and come to terms with the material being covered. An immediate response, either to another's question, or to another's statement is not required. Thinking takes time. Phrasing questions takes time. Use your time wisely, and don't worry about speed or lack thereof!

3. Be flexible. Listen carefully and think about what you need to know so that you can ask questions that will help you be a more effective communicator/listener/thinker/questioner.

4. Don't be afraid to ask questions that make others think. In other words, take some risks. In this communication classroom we're not going to get upset with you for asking a question that moves beyond the factual areas -- we encourage you to ask questions which allow you (and us) to comprehend, apply, analyze, synthesize, and to evaluate. We'll commend you for helping us move to higher levels of thinking, too.

5. Try out the questioning process in the dyads and small groups in which you work in this class, and in other situations. Listen carefully to what's being said in class, in discussions, in presentations, and mentally apply that information to other situations. How does it fit? Where might it fit? What additional information do you need to have? Where can you find the needed information? How will this apply to something somewhat similar but not exactly the same thing?

6. Ask questions that let others know that you were listening and that you are thinking about what you heard. Instead of asking, "What did you tell us?" or, "What was the assignment?" or, "What is it you want us to do?" (questions which imply that you were NOT listening), ask questions such as: "Does that mean you want us to come up with three alternatives?" or,

"What if we can only find two alternatives?" or something similar. Do you see the difference in the questions? The first type of question asks what another said and the second (better) type of question tests for understanding or allows the person being questioned to see that you're not sure of the consequences.

7. Listen to others' questions and the answers they receive. This will help you focus on what is being asked and how it is being applied.
8. Take every opportunity to ask questions, either silently of yourself, silently asking others, or verbally asking questions aloud, in class, in discussions, as you watch television, hear a speaker, or talk with friends. Asking questions helps you clarify your own thoughts and those of others. Asking questions helps you to know what it is you're thinking.
9. Give yourself time! Asking the "right" kinds of questions isn't easy. It involves perhaps different kinds of thinking skills than you've had an opportunity to utilize very often before. Remember that you'll get better with practice.
10. The objective is to ask questions that will help you learn more.

****

SAMPLE PROBLEM SITUATION
(from Christenbury and Kelly, 1983):

A husband and wife drive to work together each day. Their office is a half-hour drive from their house, but each night they leave work at 5:00 and don't reach their house until 6:30. Why?

Generate a list of questions to help you solve this logic problem.

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An ESL Oral Communication Lesson: One Teacher's Techniques and Principles*

John M. Murphy

> Labour well the Minute Particulars, . . .
> He who would do good to another, must do it in Minute Particulars . . . General Forms have their vitality in Particulars . . .
>
> — From William Blake's *Jerusalem*. Chapters 3 & 4. (Plate 55: 51, 60 & Plate 91: 29). [Paley, W. (Ed.), (1991)].

William Blake's conception of the value of minute particulars reveals a seminal poetic vision vigorously explored by English language writers such as Poe, Whitman, Dickinson, and Williams, and that continues expanding through contemporary literary verse of the western world (Ginsberg, 1986). It is exciting to see that a similar conception appears to be emerging in the current literature on methods of classroom instruction (Carter, 1990). While the terms "method" or "approach" refer to ways of teaching which are based on systematic techniques and principles, there are many classroom instruction specialists who caution against the impact of globally defined methods on teachers' classroom behaviors (Pennycook, 1989 & 1991; Prabhu, 1990 & 1992; Richards, 1984; van Lier, 1991). In a recent discussion of alternatives to adopting either a global method or a broadly targeted curriculum design, Pennycook

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(1989) calls for teachers and teacher educators to "strive to validate other, local forms of knowledge" about language, communication, and teaching (p. 613). Prabhu (1990) echoes a similar theme by directing attention to "teachers' subjective understanding of the teaching they do" (p. 172). These writers suggest mechanisms for developing increased awareness of one's own classroom behaviors which include documenting authentic classroom experiences, examining them for recurring patterns, reflecting critically upon them either alone or with others, and sharing insights with interested colleagues. Emerging from this tradition, the following discussion introduces a set of techniques and principles that one teacher finds useful for a specific student population with particular learning need.

THE CONTEXT AND SETTING

At universities and colleges in the United States, Australia, and Canada there is a long tradition of teaching oral communication to second language speakers of English. Such efforts play a prominent role within intensive English as a second language (ESL) programs (Meloni & Thompson, 1980; Morley, 1991; Murphy, 1992). At the same time, growing numbers of ESL students are enrolling in courses made available through departments of communication (Pearson & Nelson, 1990; Yook & Seiler, 1990). More specifically, ESL students are entering the introductory communication course (ICC) in increasing numbers (Braithwaite & Braithwaite, 1991; Hill & Javidi, 1993; Schliessmann, 1985). Discussion of the following set of techniques and principles begins with a prose description of an authentic lesson in a course designed to prepare ESL learners as successful ICC participants. As well as depicting my own sense of possibilities when teaching in this area, the discussion may suggest alternative ICC classroom procedures, particularly for ICC instructors who find themselves working with

significant numbers of non-native speakers of English. The major investigative tools contributing to the lesson's description were: a video recording of the class, a separate audio recording (I carried a small audio recorder in my shirt pocket), my own retrospective account composed immediately following the class, and field notes provided by an experienced classroom observer. The lesson took place within a large ESL program at a metropolitan university in the United States. The students' ages ranged from 18 to 25 years. They were studying at a high-intermediate-level of English language proficiency. The class met for 75 minutes, twice a week, over a 14-week semester.

A central feature of the lesson is the decision to highlight dyadic interactions while attempting to work within a traditional content focus of the ICC [i.e., the public speaking approach as described by Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty, (1990), Gray, (1989), Makay & Bechler (1993), and Verderber (1991)]. By placing students in dyads, speakers have multiple opportunities to deliver oral presentations on self-selected topics that have been developed outside of classroom time. Using dyads also provides student listeners with numerous opportunities to take written notes and to interact with their peers. At regular intervals, everyone changes partners and begins to work with a different member of the class. The lesson's primary objectives are for students (1) to develop a more realistic sense of audience and (2) to realize that one's presentation of a topic to a peer encompasses a challenging process of discovery, change, and revision. The following events occurred during the twelfth class meeting.

THE EXPERIENCES: A DESCRIPTION OF 'MINUTE PARTICULARS'

Upon entering the room, I place several folders and a stack of paper on the front desk. Two of the folders contain

samples of the students' writings from the previous day's class. In the stack are sheets of paper with the heading 'listener-notes' on each page. As students enter, I greet them and return written work collected during a previous class. At the same time, several students are placing photocopies of written outlines on the front desk. The students' outlines are to be used as a basis for oral presentations in today's class. They have kept original copies for themselves. As the outlines are handed in, I skim through them. Several are composed of lists of sentences, some resemble tentative work sheets, others are in essay form, only a few approximate the format of a conventional outline. From one of the folders, I take out several sheets of paper with the class roster listed in the left-hand margin. On one of these sheets, next to each name, I begin to jot down brief phrases culled from the outlines just submitted. While I am quickly jotting down notes, the students pick up two sheets of 'listener-notes' paper from the stack located at the front desk. There are 16 students in the room.

Addressing the whole class I say, "In a minute, I am going to ask everyone to arrange yourselves into pairs of two. As you know, no two speakers of the same native language should be working together. Since there are only six males in this class, no two men should be together either, at least not for now. But before you stand up, using your eyes, look around the room and try to find a partner. Remember, look for someone you have not worked with recently."[1] Students begin to glance around the room. Some are smiling in recognition that they want to work together. Others are indicating to each other where they would like to sit. A couple of students quietly check to see if they have worked together

[1]Some of the teacher's and students' comments in this section of the article have been re-worded for the porposes of clarity and conciseness of expression, although the excerpts do accurately reflect the gist of what the speakers originally said.

Figure 1
DIRECTIONS FOR BEING A SPEAKER

1) As you introduce your presentation to different members of the class, the content you present should *change significantly as you go* from one listener to the next.

2) Use your *written outline only as a starting point*. As you become more aware of what your listeners do and do not know, make adjustments in the information you present.

3) Develop a more realistic *sense of audience* as you go from one partner to the next.

4) Pay attention to your different partners' concerns and *make adjustments* in your presentation so you are even clearer for the next listener.

5) *Experiment* with different ways of expressing similar ideas.

6) *Summarize yourself* from time to time. *Backtrack periodically* and go over major points that the listener may have missed the first time around.

7) *Look at the listener* as much as is possible while you are speaking. Look at the outline only when you really need it.

8) Learn to *accommodate* to the needs of your *different listeners*. If someone is having trouble understanding you, take their problems seriously while attempting to bring yourself to their level of language development.

9) Be *Polite!* Be friendly, but get the job done as well.

10) *Add new ideas* to your topic as you progress from one person to the next.

11) Sometimes *ask the listener some questions* just to see if she or he has understood you well.

12) Do not be overly concerned with the listeners' notes. That is not your responsibility. Do not spell words for them. This is *not a selling lesson.*

13) *Find out what the listener is suggesting* in his or her notes on your topic.

Figure 2
DIRECTIONS FOR BEING A LISTENER

1) As well as being a speaker from time to time, you will be a listener for at least *3 different speakers* during today's class.

2) As a way to begin taking notes, you are expected to *summarize* what the speaker has had to say during the presentation. Write down as much of what the speaker says as is possible during the time provided (10 minutes for each speaker).

3) However, it is not enough only to write down what the speaker says. *Include your own questions. suggestions. thoughts,* and additional pieces of information as they relate to the speaker's general topic.

4) Think of a speaker's presentation as a *starting point for you as a writer.*

5) When taking notes, place yourself into the position of the speaker. *What might you have included in the presentation* that the speaker has failed to mention? Write this type of information in your notes as well.

6) If you do not have enough time, *concentrate on your own questions, suggestions. and your own contributions.* You are given more credit for what you can contribute to the speaker's general topic.

7) Get your ideas down on paper as well as you can. *Do not worry too much about grammar and spelling.*

8) Try to *label the different sections* of your notes (e.g., 'speaker's ideas', 'my ideas', 'questions', etc.).

9) In your notes, react to the speaker's topic and to the information presented. Show that you are able to *analyze and synthesize* what the speaker has to say.

10) *Consult* with the speaker. Give him or her advice on how to improve the presentation for the next listener. Suggest some new questions to be covered with the next partner.

11) If the speaker's topic is terrible or unsatisfying, then include *some extra questions* in your notes that could help the speaker begin to plan new directions for the presentation.

12) Include many questions in your notes. *Invent and create* questions that you would like the speaker to answer for you, even if the speaker does not have enough time to answer them. Write these down in your notes.

worked together recently. I say, "Has everybody found someone? Paulo, would you want to work with Janice?" I suggest a partner to several other students. "OK, whenever you're ready, you can go ahead and sit with your partner. If you have any questions on what you're supposed to be doing as either a speaker or as a listener, please refer to the direction sheets in the back of the course syllabus."

The students begin to move around the room, re-arranging available seats before sitting down. There is noise from the movement of chairs and considerable chatting between students. *Teacher:* "Remember, try to get as much distance as you can between your group and the other dyads in the room. Try to be aware of where your neighbors are sitting, you shouldn't be too close."

After about a minute, most of the students have positioned themselves as directed. Some students seem relaxed, others nervous. Although most are facing their partners directly, a couple of students seem to be waiting for a cue. *Teacher:* "OK, who is going to be the first speaker in each of your groups?" After hesitating for a few moments, one student from each dyad begins to raise a hand. I write the number 'one' next to these eight names on my information sheet. At the same time, the listeners from each group write the names of their respective partners on the paper being used for listener-notes. *Teacher:* "It looks like we have some

interesting topics today. Alan, I see you're going to talk about escaping from a fire? Did that really happen to you?"*Alan:* "Yeah. It was six months ago. Very scary. My family OK, but some people lose a lot of things."*Teacher:* "I'm sorry to hear that, terrible! But it sounds like an important topic for all of us to know about. Are you going to tell us anything about safety precautions?"*Alan:* "First about what happened. Then something like that."*Teacher:* "And Lizzette, is this one about saving money? I can't believe how fast my money goes. Will you be giving us advice on shopping at department stores or something?"*Lizzette:* "No, just supermarket shopping. you know, show you how to save by compare prices on the same things, and different stores, like coupons."*Teacher:* "Didn't you discuss something similar last week?"*Lizzette:* "This is different. Last time was just one thing, how to buy radio. Now I talk about more things, more examples."*Teacher:* "OK, that sounds fine. Comparison shopping, I guess. Maybe I'll become a better shopper after today's class, and with Alan's topic I'll know how to keep my family safe from fires. Now to everyone, "Well, I know you're familiar with the procedure by now. Call me over if you're having trouble getting started. Speakers, you can begin with your presentations as soon as you're ready. Remember, try to adjust the content of your topic to your listener's interests and questions."

Gradually, the students identified as speakers begin to address their respective listeners. At first they speak softly, though the noise level in the room increases as more speakers start to join in. After about a minute, eight different speakers are presenting their topics to individual listeners simultaneously. Some speakers are referring to their prepared outlines occasionally, others more frequently. Most of the listeners are taking written notes. Periodically, a listener will interrupt a speaker in order to ask a question, make a suggestion, or offer a new piece of infor-

mation. While the students are working in dyads, I move around the room: eavesdropping, glancing at my copies of the students' written work, repositioning myself to hear more clearly, and taking notes whenever possible. In these notes I occasionally copy down a word, phrase, or sentence that I hear one of the students produce. I write some of these in broad phonetic transcription. Less frequently, I copy an overheard word or phrase onto the blackboard. After several minutes, one of the student speakers leans toward me and in a soft voice says, "Excuse me, how you say when a person leave your home and go to another country?" I move closer, lower myself to eye level and ask, "Do you mean immigration, or emigration?" *Student:* "I think immigra." *Teacher:* "Immigration. A person might immigrate to another country. A lot of Asians are immigrating to the U.S. this year. They are referred to as immigrants." The student whispers "immigrants, immigration" and then returns to the dyad.

As speakers present their topics, most of their voices are animated. There are a few exceptions, however. At one point, I walk over to a dyad in which one student is speaking very softly. *Teacher:* "Could you move your desks a bit farther apart. I'd really like Joanna to speak louder. You look like you can't hear her very well. If you move apart, it might help her to speak up." On the other side of the room, one student is speaking loud enough to be disturbing the members of several dyads sitting near him. I walk over to this speaker and say, "You know, you're going to have to speak a bit softer. Paulo over there is having trouble hearing his partner."

After a few more minutes, I begin to clear my throat in an attempt to get everyone's attention. It takes a few moments for a majority of the students to notice. I repeat "excuse me" and "pardon me" several times. *Teacher:* "I'm sorry I have to interrupt you like this. I guess that's part of what teachers are paid to do. You'll get a chance to finish

your thoughts in a moment." Then, in a slightly louder voice, "Listeners, I am talking to you now. What I want you to do is see if you can summarize what your partner's topic has been about. Use your notes if you need them. You should try to explain to the speaker your understanding of what she or he has had to say up to this point. When listeners have finished doing this, the speaker can clarify any confusions and then continue with the topic wherever you just left off."

In response, most of the listeners begin to speak. About a minute later, there are five different listeners summarizing for their respective partners the content of the topics being presented. At this point, I approach one of the dyads, lower myself to eye level, look at the listener directly, and say, "I see from your partner's outline that the topic is 'Buying a Used Car.' Can you tell me what she has been saying about this topic?" *Listener:* "Well, she say that it's hard to find the right car for you. But is important. She have a cousin who bought a car last week. And she go with him to help buy the car. She say the salesman give them a lot of pressure, and he want too much money. I don't know what else, she didn't finish yet." I ask a few questions (e.g., "What kind of car did her cousin want to buy?"). The listener responds as well as he can. The interaction is directly between myself and the listener. The speaker in the dyad is not being addressed and is not overtly participating. After about 60 seconds of discussion, I excuse myself, move on to another dyad, and the original speaker resumes her 'Used Car' presentation.

From across the room, I am watching one of the speakers closely. After about 30 seconds, I walk over and begin to tug the speaker's outline out of his hands. The speaker seems surprised but relinquishes it right away. I turn the outline over, and place it on top of his desk while saying, "Now try to explain what you were just saying without looking at the page." The student responds, "But I can't remember. It's hard." *Teacher:* "Oh come on, you can do it. You've thought about it. You've planned what to say. Now just try the best

you can. It's OK to look at your outline every now and then, but try to be more interactive with your listener."

I move on. A bit later, from the center of the room I say, "OK, now, speakers, you'll have about two more minutes to finish with your presentations. Then we will shift roles."

I return to the front desk and begin to fill in several assessment forms. Upon hearing the two-minute warning, some of the speakers begin rushing through their topics before time runs out. Others seem completely unaffected by the announcement. A few speakers have already finished and are waiting for others to catch up. Several of the listeners are advising speakers on how to improve their topics. When just about every speaker has completed this first presentation of the day, I call for the class' attention but one listener says, "Wait a minute, I didn't finish writing this yet." I pause for about half a minute more, and then say, "OK, I think everyone is just about done with that one. Sorry, speakers, if you didn't get a chance to finish. Some of you may have to shorten your presentations a bit. Let's change roles now, and change topics too. Listeners, you are going to be the speakers for the next ten minutes or so, but now it's time to work with your own topic. Your partner will be taking notes on what *you* have to say."

The students remain in the same dyads but switch roles. Papers are shuffled and the new interactions proceed. I intervene at two to three minute intervals with several structuring prompts that are addressed to the whole class (e.g., (a) "OK, listeners, could you begin to summarize the topic being developed so far?" (b) "Listeners, try to ask your partners one or two questions about their topic." (c) "Speakers, I am talking to you now. Could you back up a bit and try to summarize what you have had to say so far? Try to paraphrase yourself." (d) "Speakers, ask your listener a few questions just to check on his or her understanding.") On several occasions I use similar prompts while addressing individual students within the dyads.

During the first 25 minutes of the lesson, both the teacher and the student-listeners are busy taking written notes. At one point, I interrupt everyone and say, "OK. Let's take a break for about a minute. Listeners, this will give you some extra time to work on your notes. Speakers, you can plan how you might like to change some aspects of your presentations." In response, the room becomes silent except for the sounds of students writing and shuffling papers. Though intended as "a minute" of silent reflection, it actually lasts more than twice that long. Afterwards, the speakers continue presenting their topics.

For the sake of brevity, the narrative account will now shift ahead to the final 25 minutes of the lesson. At this point, the students have already finished working with their second set of partners, and I have just asked them to rearrange themselves into their third dyadic groupings of the day. Once the students comply, those acting as speakers are ready to present their topics to new partners, from the beginning, for a third time. It is the last time I ask them to work in a new dyad for today's lesson. About seven minutes later, while the initial speakers are still in the midst of presenting their topics, I interrupt everyone and say directly to one student who is not sitting near me, "Mario, would you make a shortened version of your topic for everyone to hear? See if you can work with Alice as your designated listener. Alice, try to be as encouraging and supportive as you can." After some initial hesitation, Mario looks across the room to Alice, acknowledges her with a nervous smile, and starts to present his topic directly to her. His topic is "Tips on Making New Friends in College." As he speaks, he remains seated. Since Alice is sitting on the opposite side of the room, they have to lean to their sides a bit, in order to maintain eye contact. Alice does not say very much but she expresses interest with her eyes and nods her head frequently. There are three instances in which she asks Mario to rephrase what he is trying to say. After about three

minutes, and well before Mario has finished, I say, "I'm sorry to have to interrupt you, Mario. That was great! And thank you, too, Alice. We don't have much time left, so let's go back to the speakers' presentations. Speakers, you will have about two more minutes to finish up." Then, everyone returns to their work that had been in progress prior to the Mario-to-Alice exchange.

By the end of this 75 minute class, each student has participated in three different dyads, affording three separate opportunities to present a prepared topic to a listener. Also, while acting as a listener, each student has practiced taking notes on three different students' presentations. When the class is over I collect all of the notes that students have written as listeners and remind them of a reading assignment from their course text (Dale & Wolf, 1988) planned for the next class. Before the next class I will examine the students' outlines, write comments on them, and attach a completed assessment form to each. I will also examine and assess the quality of the notes that the students have written as listeners.

Figure 3
FEEDBACK/ASSESSMENT FORM:
THE LISTENERS' NOTES

(Teachers circle the number(s) corresponding to their impression of the student's work.) Grade: 5 4 3 2 1

1) These are *excellent notes*. They are interesting and I learned something new while reading them.
2) Your notes are *too brief*. Try to include more information in them next time.
3) The many *original questions* you included in your notes are very helpful.

4) Try to *label the different sections* of your notes, for example: speaker's ideas, my ideas, my questions, my own information, etc.

5) The *organization* of your notes is very clear. It's easy to follow and I appreciate that.

6) The notes you have written are too *chaotic*. Please try to organize them better.

7) I have discovered *a good mix* of the speaker's ideas, your own ideas, your questions, and your suggestions for change while reading these notes.

8) Try to suggest to the speaker, and in your notes, *new directions* s/he might try to explore in the presentation.

9) It is extremely *difficult to make sense* out of the material you have written here.

10) In these notes you have effectively told me what the speaker was talking about. But that is only *1/2 of your target assignment.* You have been less successful at including your own ideas and your own examples of questions, outside information, and creative suggestions as they relate to the speaker's topic.

11) Your work is *too sloppy*, and I can not read it.

12) Please spend more time being creative by *writing down more of your own thoughts*, questions, and new directions.

13) Show me that you are *analyzing*, synthesizing, and carefully thinking over the speaker's topic while you are taking notes.

14) As a speaker, your notes would help me out *enormously* if I were trying to improve my presentation. Thank you!

THINKING ABOUT THE EXPERIENCES

The preceding has been a detailed prose description of my own instructional practices during a high-intermediate-level, ESL oral communication lesson. A consistent theme revealed during the lesson is that traditional public-speaking activities (i.e., individual students taking turns speaking to the whole class) are de-emphasized in order to provide increased opportunities for dyadic interactions which are focused upon oral presentation, listening for note taking, and interpersonal communication. The next section presents in chronological order a series of retrospective observations about the lesson just described. Specific observations are listed in the left hand column, and from them a series of corresponding principles are drawn. The principles that appear to be underpinning for the lesson appear in the right hand column.

	Observations	Teacher's Principles
1.	Assessment forms are returned to students at the start of class.	Frequent on-going assessment is central to the learning process. Students need to know how well they are doing in the course.
2.	Students place photocopies of written outlines on the front desk and keep a copy for themselves.	Because speaking and writing are closely related language processes, students base their oral presentations upon written work.
3.	As the students submit their outlines, I skim through them and takes notes.	I attempt to keep in touch with what students are doing by gathering information on their self-selected topics.

4.	Different students write outlines in very different ways.	I try to be open to a wide range of outlining styles. Written outlines are a means to an end, not a primary end-product.
5.	Students work in dyads with partners who do not speak their native languages.	More than an object of study, the target language is also the students' primary medium of communication. I try to structure classroom interactions accordingly.
6.	While remaining seated, students look for a partner without speaking.	Non-verbal communication matters, and its role is highlighted during class.
7.	After reminding students that they should try to work with new and different members of the class, I help some of them find a partner.	Students can make decisions on many aspects of classroom interactions for themselves. If problems arise, however, I am ready to offer assistance.
8.	I refer to written directions that have been designed to introduce and explain the procedures used in the course.	Students need to be well-informed concerning teacher expectations and the rationale behind classroom activities. To this aim, I try to use written directions to reinforce oral explanations.
9.	As students re-arrange available seats, they are reminded to make use of the entire classroom space.	An awareness of classroom space, and proximics in general, is important for effective interpersonal communication.
10.	Once arranged in dyads, the students wait for a cue from the teacher.	I assume primary responsibility for structuring and guiding classroom events.

11.	I ask, "Who is going to be the first speaker in each of your groups?" I take notes on students' turns as speakers and listeners.	I try to develop personal strategies for keeping track of student-to-student interactions. Taking written notes is an example of one such strategy.
12.	I introduce some of the students' topics to the whole class.	I try to demonstrate that I am interested in and responding to, the students' current work.
13.	Speakers are encouraged to improvise, to incorporate changes, and to accept the content of their topics.	A topic presented in class is a work in process. While written outlines serve to center a speaker's thoughts, they are envisioned as a starting point for genuine interpersonal communication.
14.	In addition to taking notes, listeners sometimes interrupt a speaker in order to question, request clarifications, suggest changes, and offer new points of information.	Collaboration is a necessary component of learning. Students who learn to become actively involved and creative listeners are better prepared to improve as speakers, too.
15.	During dyadic interactions, I move around the room, observing, eavesdropping, and taking notes.	I attempt to monitor classroom interactions as closely as I can while gathering first-hand information on student performance.
16.	Occasionally, I write an overheard word, phrase, or sentence on the blackboard.	Samples of students' utterances collected during fluency activities are incorporated into subsequent accuracy activities.
17.	The teacher answers questions from individual students.	I try to act as a resource person who remains available to students.

18.	Most students seem successful in ignor ing the considerable amount of commo tion in the room.	I try to structure classroom interactions to help learners tune out distractions and non-relevant communications.
19.	I sometimes interrupt the dyadic interact ions while prefacing the interruptions with an apology.	I step in and guide student interactions at regular intervals. This role eventually becomes less prominent as students learn to manage their collaborative work on their own.
20.	Following a whole-class interruption, I address one of a variety of structuring prompts to either the speakers or the listeners.	I try to avoid asking students to do too many things at once by directing structuring prompts to a specific audience, while focusing them on a single, manageable task.
21.	I approach a dyad and ask a listener to summarize his partner's topic while deliberately ignoring the speaker.	Listeners are expected to keep track of what speakers say to them. Asking for oral summaries is one way of reminding listeners to be full participants during dyadic interactions.
22.	I remove a copy of a speaker's outline and turn it over on the student's desk.[2]	Since oral communication is an interactive process, I remind students to avoid merely reading aloud from a prepared script.

[2]There is a danger that such a direct intervention on the part of the teacher may be resented by a student. A private discussion concerning the problem of reading aloud from a written script is one alternative instructional strategy.

23.	I announce that the speakers allotted time will be over in about two minutes.	Transitions between activities are introduced in stages. Students feel more secure then they have a sense of what will be happening in the classroom and the approximate amount of time available.
24.	In class, I begin to complete several speaker-assessment forms.	Since one's memory of classroom events can be highly unreliable, I feel that the assessment of students' performances as speakers need to begin during classroom time.
25.	After working in a dyad for about ten minutes, students switch roles. A speaker becomes a listener and vice versa.	Cooperative learning is reciprocal. Speaking development and listening development go hand in hand.
26.	Several times, I interrupt everyone and ask for a minute of silent reflection.	The use of silence can serve to heighten a student's alertness and concentration. It also provides listeners with extra time to work on their written notes.
27.	I ask one student to present his topic for the whole class to hear	I try to challenge students beyond their current levels of speaking ability. Some students want (and need) opportunities to address themselves to a larger group.
28.	I ask a student from the opposite side of the room to act as a "designated listener."	When speaking for the whole class, some students appreciate the chance to focus their attention upon one person. Also, I select a "designated listener" from across the room in order to encourage voice projection.

29.	By the end of class, each student has had an opportunity to work both as a speaker and as a listener in three different dyadic groupings.	Providing speakers with multiple opportunities to discuss their topics helps cultivate a studio-workshop atmosphere in the classroom that is focused upon revision, change, and the elaboration of meanings.
30.	When the class is over, I collect all of the notes that the students have written as listeners.	Listeners are held accountable for producing a tangible record of the speakers' topics and of their own contributions.

CONCLUSION

This article illustrates one way of meeting the oral communication needs of ESL learners who are preparing for successful participation in the ICC. While the illustration may be useful, it is important to acknowledge that many teachers are likely to prefer contrastive instructional styles and procedures. There is a wide range of instructional alternatives and resources already available to ESL classroom teachers (e.g., Bassanoh Christison, 1987; Klippel, 1987; Ladousse, 1989; Nolasco & Arthur, 1989; Golebiowska, 1990) and to teachers of the ICC (e.g., Hugenberg (Ed.), 1991; Hugenberg, Gray, & Trank (Eds.), 1993). In addition, most of the instructional techniques implemented during this particular lesson highlighted fluency issues. In ESL oral communication classrooms, accuracy activities may need to be integrated along with the types of fluency activities described above (see, for example, Firth, 1992; Morley, 1991; Murphy, 1991; and Wong, 1988 for more on this topic).

The classroom lesson that centers the article took place as part of a semester-length course designed to prepare ESL

learners as ICC participants. Although a few original techniques were introduced, most of them reveal a blending of ideas from well know sources including the literatures on: cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1987), ICC instruction (Hugenberg, et al, 1993; Gray, 1989), and the teaching of oral communication across the curriculum (Davilla, West, & Yoder, 1993; Cronin & Glenn, 1991). In addition to these general influences, I benefitted greatly from being able to discuss the teaching of oral communication with both ESL and native-English-speaking ICC students, teacher-colleagues, and supervisors over a ten-year period while working at a large metropolitan university in the United States. During this period over 1,600 ESL learners participated in a course designed around versions of this particular set of techniques and principles that were gradually developing over time. As an extension of these experiences, the present discussion represents an attempt to clarify my own ideas (to the possible benefit of future students), build rationale, share information, and participate in continuing discussions.

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Experiential Learning as an Adjunct to the Basic Course: Student Responses to a Pedagogical Model*

Judith A. Rolls

Since a knowledge of interpersonal or public communication theory does not ensure a student's possession of the requisite communication skills, some form of experiential learning as an adjunct to the basic course is provided at many universities. This often takes the form of classroom games and exercises. This study attempts to assess a unique experiential learning model used since 1976 at the University College of Cape Breton (Nova Scotia, Canada) which requires among other things, regular attendance at a communication lab. Delineating the model's specifications might be useful to others interested in implementing such a facility. This work contains a description of the design and an analysis of student responses to this pedagogical procedure.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MODEL

Both an interpersonal communication and a hybrid course (focusing on interviewing, small group discussion, and public speaking) serve as a basic course in this model. In addition to three hours of class time, students are required to meet in a communication laboratory for one hour per week, earning a

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percentage of their final course grade. In regularly scheduled small groups (five to seven persons per gathering), students engage in videotaped structured learning exercises that complement course theory and/or they practice for upcoming classroom performances. Conducted by the coordinator or a peer facilitator, each lab is goal directed and seemingly unstructured as personnel endeavor to create a safe, relaxed atmosphere where students feel free to express themselves. Like the facility as a whole, these meetings are also referred to as "a lab."

In this model, most classroom presentations are videotaped for later individual student assessment. If possible, the coordinator views these performances with the students and asks probing questions such as, "How do you feel about what you have just seen?" or "What would you do differently if you could do the presentation again?" While the coordinator may help with special problems like articulation, students are encouraged to assess their own performances. This has been an effective practice but as student numbers increase, less time is available for such interactions.

Students also complete question and answer journals in order to help them examine their cognitive, affective, and behavioral development. Outside of scheduled labs, students come to view classroom performances, to meet for informal communication apprehension counseling, to arrange for missed labs, or just to say "hello."

The lab is truly the pulse of the basic course and the communication department in that its commonalty to each section binds both students and instructors. Functioning full time and headed by a coordinator, the facility consists of a 9X20 foot central room, a coordinator's office, two practice rooms, and a room designed specifically for viewing taped classroom presentations. It houses state of the art audiovisual equipment and serves about three hundred students per semester.

The coordinator is responsible for the daily operation of the facility. This includes scheduling (at the onset of each semester) some 300 students into approximately forty-four weekly lab slots, arranging for ten to twelve peer facilitators to conduct the lab activities, and coordinating equipment and operators for approximately 12 sections of the basic course. She also compiles payroll information, distributes pay checks, maintains and orders all audiovisual equipment, and addresses space needs. It is clear that the effective functioning of the lab depends almost entirely on the competent management by its coordinator. Choosing appropriate personnel for this role is vital to the success of the operation.

SELECTING, TRAINING, AND APPRAISING PEER FACILITATORS

In addition, the coordinator selects, trains, and appraises peer facilitators. To qualify, students must possess a knowledge of communication (indicated by completing twelve credit hours in the discipline) and display superior interpersonal, leadership, and language skills. Interpersonal competence is rated on the applicant's demonstration of supportiveness, empathy, self disclosure, self-confidence, open-mindedness, and sensitivity to gender issues. Leadership aptitude is judged on whether the contender is perceived to be trustworthy, dependable, and to possess organizational, instrumental, and group maintenance skills. Language proficiency is estimated on the effective use of grammatical and verbal codes.

Approximately one to four new peer facilitators are prepared each year. Training takes place in the lab by the coordinator who reviews duties, expectations, and regulations and is assisted by a seasoned facilitator who shares his or her experiences. Having taken both basic courses as prerequisites for upper level ones, facilitators come equipped with a knowledge of the goals and structure of the lab. Subsequently, training focuses on how peer facilitators can best meet stu-

dent needs. Training is essentially ongoing during weekly meetings where upcoming lesson plans are reviewed and problems encountered by facilitators are discussed. Facilitators receive a file containing a master lab schedule, tentative lesson plans, journals, journal assessment forms, lab/peer facilitator evaluation forms, and other miscellaneous documentation.

One month into the semester, new peer facilitators are appraised by the coordinator during a supportive interview. The facilitator's expressed strengths and weaknesses are discussed and those who are encountering difficulties may choose to conduct fewer labs. Many of the facilitators plan to pursue graduate study and regard this instructive role as a prerequisite for attaining a teaching assistantship. Thus, they have typically been effective and responsible. The coordinator's aptitude for skillfully selecting and managing people also attributes to the success experienced in this area.

ASSESSING EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AND STUDENT JOURNALS

Experiential Learning Assessment

Experiential learning grades are assigned by the facilitator of the particular lab. Points are awarded on the basis of the student's general attitude, willingness to participate, group member sensitivity, and skill improvement. A systematic evaluation form (See Appendix 1 and 2.) developed by the coordinator is used to assess the lab performances. Rated on a weekly basis, grades are recorded and then averaged at the semester's end. To date, this method has not been formally assessed. As literature on grading experiential learning seems relatively scarce, evaluation inadequacies may be rectified by examining the literature addressing communication competency-based assessment (Aitken & Neer, 1992; Hay,

1991; Meadows & Higgins, 1975; Neer, 1990; Rubin, 1982, 1985; Spitzbery & Hurt, 1987; Trank & Steel, 1983).

Student Journal Assessment

The journal is a useful pedagogical tool in that it supplies students with a means of evaluating the experiential learning they have encountered. Three question and answer journals focusing on the cognitive, affective, and behavioral components are completed in each basic course. Rolls (1981), in a study examining approaches to journal assessment (analytic, holistic, and primary trait), reported that the analytic approach best indicated a student's mastery of speech communication. Particularly useful for inexperienced graders, the assessment guide suggested by Rolls features a reasonably simple checklist for the completeness of descriptions, the depth of entries, the ability to apply communication principles and concepts, the amount of self disclosure, and specific areas in which work is needed. Space is also provided for holistic comments regarding each of the cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions. Adoption of this assessment guide has proven effective.

Although students are provided with descriptive responses to their journal entries, they receive no numerical evaluations until the end of the semester. Upon submission, however, each journal is assigned a recorded grade by the facilitator conducting the particular lab. This procedure is followed by holistic grading by the coordinator in order to test for consistency on the part of the peer facilitators. As with the experiential learning, grades are averaged at the end of the semester thus preventing an end-of-semester grading crunch.

Undergraduates grading undergraduates may be a source of debate in some institutions. Webb and Lane (1986) described how this problem was eliminated at the University of Florida by instituting a credited practicum course titled "Peer

Facilitation." Establishing a similar program might prove valuable in this model.

STUDENT RESPONSES TO THE MODEL

This model is a viable, practical one that might form a prototype for others seeking such a pedagogical framework. To determine the model's pedagogical viability; that is, to ascertain whether lab attendance, video technology, and journal submissions as adjunctive requirements to the regular course specifications actually help students gain a mastery of speech communication, I examined student responses to this experiential learning model.

A phenomenological approach was adopted for this investigation because in this method of analysis, "attention is given to a particular experience in which the various structures and modes of consciousness that have been synthesized to constitute it are analyzed and descriptively explained" (Polkinghorne, 1983, p. 205). The research methodology employed in this study utilized qualitative data from two forms of personal documents - student journals and lab/facilitator evaluation forms. Regarding the use of personal documents, Bogdan and Taylor (1975) note that "whether used as autonomous sources of understanding or as resources from which hypotheses can be generated, personal documents permit us to study facets of people, events, and settings which are not directly observable" (p. 6). The narratives contained in the personal documents allowed me to construct and gain an understanding of students' lived experiences of this pedagogical model.

Lab/Facilitator Evaluation Forms

Sixty-six interpersonal and forty-eight hybrid evaluations completed over a three year period and that evaluated labs facilitated by the coordinator and by some seventeen different peer facilitators were analyzed. As pertinent information is

often contained in written comments, I used the responses to a question inviting suggestions, criticisms, or recommendations regarding the lab and/or the peer facilitators as the data base for a content analysis to assess the model's effectiveness. Since the major goal of the model is to promote proficiency in the cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains, I used these denominations, along with "lab/facilitator," for the analytic schema. The results of this investigation lead me to believe that the lab encounter is a useful one in that it effectively promotes experiential learning. The following are specific examples of how learning takes place.

Cognitive Domain

Most comments from the interpersonal course may be classified as content based. For instance, many students expressed that as a result of either the small group discussions or the illustrative exercises and simulations, they were better able to understand and grasp difficult concepts. Others noted that the lab experience reinforced course theory and terminology. As one student put it,

> "The lab was helpful in that I was able to recognize terms from class which were explained again. This improved my understanding of the course material."

While few comments from the hybrid course were coded under this dimension, some students noted that they actually learned how to structure speeches and what was expected of them in class performances.

Affective Domain

Overwhelmingly, in both the interpersonal and the hybrid courses, students reported that they enjoyed the lab. Of the fifty-three statements coded under this dimension, 23 contained the word/s "enjoy," enjoyed," or "enjoyable." "Comfort-

able" was the second most used descriptor. "Relaxed," "encouraging," "welcome," "favorite," and "fun" were other frequently used expressions. This suggests that students were receptive to the experiential learning approach and cooperated in its effort. Specific to the interpersonal course, comments attested to personal growth or improved self-esteem.

> "I found Kara made labs very enjoyable and would make me feel more at ease, especially through the self-conscious times. She was good at building self-esteem at these times."

> "I believe that it helped me to look inside myself and I learned plenty of things about me and who I am."

Behavioral Domain

I the interpersonal course, reflections seemed to suggest a heightened awareness of the visual, vocal, and verbal extent of communication. Remarks like the following were common.

> "Some experiences in the lab were quite helpful to show areas you needed to work on."

> "The lab made me more aware of my actions when [I was] in social interaction. I can now notice my mistakes and correct them at a given time. Before coming to the lab I was completely ignorant about the flaws in my speech, tone, and actions. Now they can be replaced with better ones."

> "It was very difficult to actually see yourself on the video and recognize personal quirks, mannerisms, etc."

Another stream of comments clustered around interpersonal improvement. These are but a few examples. "

> The lab really brought me out of my shell. All my friends and family notice a difference in my speech and my shyness."

"The lab helped me to communicate more openly with people."

Students in the hybrid course concentrated their remarks on their communication strengths and weaknesses and/or on the practice for graded presentations. The most commonly used descriptor was "helpful." Overall, they seemed to find that the lab experience definitely attributed to success in the classroom. The next entries illustrate this.

"It was helpful in getting me ready for our speeches and interviews — the on camera work was intimidating at first but it was most helpful to play back the tapes."

"It was good in that I got a chance to practice making presentations before actually making them in front of the class."

"It shows you where your strong and weak points are before you do your actual speech."

A review of student testimony contained in the evaluation forms suggests that the model is effective. Course content is reinforced, communication strengths and weaknesses become distinguishable, and students in the hybrid course find the videotaped preparation for class presentations particularly beneficial. Reported too are personal growth and greater sensitivity toward themselves and others as communicators.

STUDENT JOURNALS

Content contained in communication journals were also used as a data source to assess the model's effectiveness. Pupils identify concepts/theories important to them, describe feelings they have experienced, and try to assess their strengths and weaknesses in each of the visual, vocal, and verbal areas. Twenty interpersonal journals were analyzed by dividing the narratives into seven conceptual schema categories: cognitive, affective, behavioral, cognitive/affective,

cognitive/behavioral, affective/behavioral, and cognitive/affective/behavioral.

If an indication of learning is assessed on the basis of testimonial evidence, then the model is clearly an effective one. Statements such as "allowed me to see," "gained a stronger understanding," "developed an awareness," "became more aware," "helped me to learn," "am more cognizant," "have noticed," "realized," and combinations thereof, were consistently used in entries coded under the cognitive categories (cognitive, cognitive/affective, cognitive/behavioral). Some of the topics targeted were self-concept, nonverbal communication, relationships, listening, social comparison, and conflict. The following excerpt was typical of several entries.

> "The lab experience where the couple acted out either good or bad communication allowed me to see how ineffective arguing and shouting are and how calmness and politeness are wonderful aspects of communication. Nonverbal communication plays a large and important part in relaying messages. Tone of voice and facial expressions are two that determined if the communication was perceived positively or negatively in this situation."

What became particularly clear was the interrelationship among the cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains in the experiential learning process. Competent communicators are often high self-monitors and modify their communication style to meet contextual demands. Entries coded under this category illustrated this pattern. Many students indicated that they had gained (a) an understanding of themselves as communicators, (b) a sensitivity toward others, and (c) an insight into their communication strengths and weaknesses. Students talked about feeling more confident in initiating conversations and attributed this to being cognizant of the tools of effective communication.

> "After studying the chapter on body language I have become more aware of the nonverbal reaction of others toward my communication. This combined with my understanding of

empathy has made me become a more sensitive communicator."

Fear and nervousness were commonly expressed themes in the affective dimension. Many disclosed their apprehension of communicating in the classroom or in front of the video camera. Such comments were often followed by more positive remarks.

"The most helpful activity we did last week in the lab was when we were videotaped. I felt nervous about doing the three minute talk. However, when I viewed the playback, the nervousness I felt didn't show."

Improvement was typically referred to in entries coded under the behavioral dimension. Listening, communication skills in general, and attentiveness to others were noted most often. For instance,

"I feel that my communication skills have improved a great deal since I started this program. I find it much easier to relate to people when I'm talking to them. I find I am able to listen better and not just to what people are saying but also to what they mean when they say it."

Finally, thirty journals from the hybrid course were examined. These are more event specific in that students respond after completing their classroom performances — the interview, the group presentation, and the speech. Again the cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions served as the analytic schema. Due to content specific questions, less insight into the effectiveness of the model was provided. Some information was gleaned, however, from the speech event journal which asked respondents to compare perceptions of their performance with the actual videotaped production. Most proclaimed that their speech was better than anticipated. The following is typical.

"After I delivered my speech, I felt it had been a failure. However, after viewing it, I found that the opposite was

> true. I don't think it will go down as one of the great orations in history but I was surprisingly pleased."

If given the opportunity to repeat their speech, most students said they would calm down.

While the hybrid journals were less informative, the interpersonal journal documentation of student's lived experiences of the communication lab further substantiate the viability of this model. It is clear from the narratives that students learned to integrate concepts at the cognitive, affective, and behavioral levels. Use of the video played a major role in this endeavor and this too was echoed in the lab/facilitator evaluation forms. Quigley and Nyquist (1992) make a strong argument for the use of video technology to provide feedback to students in performance courses. They assert that it provides the opportunity to adopt a role similar to that of observer, to identify or emphasize particular skills, and to compare different performances both with one's own and with others. This model confirms their stance.

CONCLUSIONS

This experiential learning design is a practical one. Due in great part to the coordinator's individual skills, it underscores the importance of personnel in the success of such a model. For instance, the coordinator's role demands a practical, organized, responsible person who displays socio-emotional sensitivity toward peer facilitators, students, and professors alike and who possesses the ability to recognize these qualities in potential peer facilitators. To realize satisfactory results, professors too must support the lab's philosophy by standardizing and synchronizing course content and graded classroom presentations with the lab's exercises. Finally, peer facilitators who contribute immensely to the process, must be dependable, mature, and adept facilitator/trainers.

Not only is the model workable, it is effective. Students report that they enjoy the lab experience, find that course

content is reinforced, gain insight into their communication strengths and weaknesses, become more sensitive communicators, and make better classroom presentations. Communication scholars interested in meeting both the theoretical and practical needs of students in the basic course may wish to develop a similar program at their university.

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APPENDIX 1

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING EVALUATION FORM FOR INTERPERSONAL BASIS COURSE

Name:_____ _____ Peer Facilitator: _____

Lab Number:_____ Course Section Number _____

Cognitive Domain

Has the student demonstrated an aptitude in the area of interpersonal communication theory? Explain in terms of the following:

A) Ability to understand the purpose of the lab exercises.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

B) Ability to adopt new communication vocabulary.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

C) Ability to relate concepts with personal experiences as revealed through lab groups.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

Additional Comments:

Overall Rating of Student's Ability in this area: _____ %

Affective Domain

A) Has the student demonstrated an acceptable attitude throughout the semester? (Committed, Concerned, Creative, Eager, Excited, Involved, Lively, Uninvolved, etc.)
Comments:

B) Describe the student's interaction with lab members. (Supportive, Friendly, Uncaring, Unfriendly, Little interaction, etc.)
Comments:

C) Has the student's level of confidence changed? More Confident Less Confident No Change
Comments:

Additional Comments:

Overall Rating of Student's Ability in this area: _____%

Behavioral Domain

How has the student behaved throughout the semester? Explain in terms of the following:

A) Willingness to attend and participate in all labs.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

B) Contribution to the successful execution of lab exercises.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

C) Overall behavior.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong

Additional Comments:

Overall Rating of Student's Ability in this area: _____%

Suggested Total Overall Rating: _____

APPENDIX 2

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING EVALUATION FORM FOR HYBRID BASIC COURSE

Name:_____ Peer Facilitator: _____

Lab Number:_____ Course Section Number _____

Cognitive Domain

Has the student demonstrated an aptitude in the area of communication practicum theory? Explain in terms of the following:

A) Ability to understand the purpose of the lab exercises.
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

B) Ability to understand theory as it applies to:
Interviewing
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Group Discussion
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Speeches
Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

Additional Comments:

Overall Rating of Student's Ability in this area: _____ %

Affective Domain

A) Has the student demonstrated an acceptable attitude throughout the semester? (Committed, Concerned, Creative, Eager, Excited, Involved, Lively, Uninvolved, etc.)
Comments:

B) Describe the student's interaction with lab members. (Supportive, Friendly, Uncaring, Unfriendly, Little Interaction, etc.)
Comments:

C) Has the student's level of confidence changed?
More Confident Less Confident No Change
Comments:

(D) What is the student's general attitude toward the lab experience?
Positive Neutral Negative
Comments:

Additional Comments:

Overall Rating of Student's Ability in this area: _____%

Behavioral Domain

How has the student behaved throughout the semester? Explain in terms of the following:

A) Willingness to attend and participate in all labs. Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

B) Contribution to the successful execution of lab exercises. Very Weak Weak Fair Strong Very Strong
Comments:

C) Overall behavior:
Cohesive Demonstrates Leadership Remote Inhibited or Shy
Comments:

Additional Comments:

Overall Rating of Student's Ability in this area: _____ %

Suggested Total Overall Rating_____

The Status of the Introductory and Advanced Interpersonal Communication Courses at U.S. Colleges and Universities: A National Survey

Rod Troester
Drew McGukin

Interpersonal communication as an important area within the Communication discipline is only little more than 20 years old (Berryman & Weaver, 1978; Miller & Knapp, 1985). Not only have the past 20 years witnessed the emergence of this area, they have seen its development into one of the major foci of the discipline. In the early seventies, there were mixed feelings about courses in interpersonal communication. While some predicted that "interpersonal communication might become as common to college freshmen and sophomores of the seventies as public speaking had been to undergraduate students of the fifties and sixties" (Stewart, 1972), others pondered the status of interpersonal communication courses as merely a passing fad (Illardo, 1972). Berryman and Weaver (1978) concluded from their survey of interpersonal communication courses at over 600 U.S. colleges and universities that interpersonal communication had gained a strong foothold in the communication curriculum and was more than a fad that would soon be gone.

Bochner, Cissna, and Garko (1991) provide a key reason for the sustained interest in interpersonal communication. They claim that "interpersonal communication is an intoxicat-

ing subject that never satiates one's curiosity about the perplexing dilemmas of social life" (p. 16). The past 20 years have witnessed tremendous growth in interpersonal communication theory and research, and that growth has produced tremendous diversity in this area. In the mid-eighties, Ayres (1984) surveyed the interpersonal communication literature produced within the communication discipline to identify the different lines of thinking within the area. He identified four dominant and distinct approaches: dialogue, cohesion, message process, and rhetorical. More recently, Bochner et al. (1991) claim that the area is characterized by numerous perspectives and that "each of these perspectives offers a somewhat different vocabulary, oriented toward a different set of research problems, and addressed by different methodological and analytical procedures" (p. 17). They use three "arbitrarily chosen" metaphors to organize the study of human interaction and interpersonal communication: control, coordination, and contextualized interaction (Bochner et al. p. 21).

The diversity in interpersonal communication theory and research has the potential for influencing instruction in interpersonal communication. In the seventies, Pearce (1977) identified three dominant approaches to teaching interpersonal communication: objective scientific, humanistic celebration, and humane scientific. Berryman and Weaver (1978) began their survey of the interpersonal course with the belief that there would be little consistency in the interpersonal course as it was taught at different colleges and universities. They concluded, however, that there was a surprising and unexpected consistency, Since their survey (which was never published), no current, systematic descriptive examination of the interpersonal communication course could be located in the communication literature.

The present survey provides a check-up of the interpersonal course in the communication curriculum at U.S. colleges and universities. The purpose of this study is to describe the structure of the interpersonal communication course, its role

in the communication curriculum, the instructional methods and materials used to teach the course and course content. In addition, the results of the current study are compared to the earlier study by Berryman and Weaver (1978) to determine if significant changes in the course.

METHODS

Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study was modeled after the questionnaires used by Berryman and Weaver (1978) and by Gibson, Hanna, and Leichty (1990) in their recent survey of the basic communication course. The questionnaire contained sections on demographics, the introductory or lower level, and the advanced or upper level undergraduate courses. The 48-item questionnaire included both open and closed ended questions designed to examine course characteristics, curricular concerns, instructional methods, and course content and materials.

Sample

Seven-hundred-seventeen questionnaires were mailed to speech communication and communication departments listed in the *1991-92 Speech Communication Association Directory*. Departments that identified themselves in terms of theatre, speech pathology, mass communication, or other ways that distinguished themselves from communication were excluded from the sample. Two-hundred thirty-six questionnaires were returned providing a response rate of 33%. Although the response rate is lower than desired, it is comparable to the rate Hay (1992) reported in a survey of national trends in assessment (29%) and Gibson et al. (1990) reported in the

latest national survey of the basic course (28%). The length and complexity of the questionnaire may account for the lower than desired response rate.

The respondents, however, approximate a representative cross section of U.S. colleges and universities. Responding schools ranged from those with enrollments below 5,000 (53.3%, n=123) to those between 5,000 and 15,000 (29.1%, n=67) to those over 15,000 (17.3%, n=40). This size breakdown is similar to that found in Hay's (1992) survey. Sixty percent were public institutions, and 39.9% were private and religious institutions. Gibson et al. (1990) found a similar breakdown of school type in their national survey of the basic course with 65% public and 32% private or church related. The percentage of public versus private within the communication field appears slightly higher on the public side when compared to U.S. Department of Education numbers which suggest 52% of U.S. colleges and universities are public (cited in Hay, 1992, p. 250).

The respondents also approximate the distribution of communication and speech communication departments across the four geographical regions. Of the 717 departments identified in the directory, 34% were in the Central region, 28% were in the Southern region, and Western and Eastern both had 19%. The regional distribution of the survey respondents was 37% from the Central region, 24% from the Western region, 20% from the Southern region, and 19% from the Eastern region.

RESULTS

The Introductory Interpersonal Communication Course General Characteristics

The majority of schools (67.8%) offer only one interpersonal course, 22.3% offer 2 different courses, and 10% offer 3 or more different interpersonal communication courses. Most schools (46.3%) offer only one section of the introductory interpersonal course, 35.4% offer 2-5 sections, 11.5% offer 6-10 sections, and 6.8% offer 11 or more. The introductory course is most commonly worth 3 credits at most schools (85%). Enrollments in the basic interpersonal course during the last five years were found to have increased at 57.5% of the responding schools, remained stable at 37.3%, and declined at only 5.2%. Like the basic communication course which was found to have steady or increasing enrollments at 92% of reporting institutions (Gibson, et al., p. 238), the interpersonal communication course appears strong and healthy.

At most colleges and universities (63.7%), the introductory interpersonal communication course and the "basic" course (defined as a general education communication course required of most/all students) are totally distinct, while at 25.9% of the responding institutions, interpersonal is an option within the basic course offerings, and at 10.4% the basic course is the introductory interpersonal communication course. This last finding conflicts with the finding of Gibson et al. (1990) that only 4% of basic courses follow an interpersonal orientation. The introductory course is required of communication majors by 50% of the responding schools, offered as an elective to communication majors at 37%, serves as a general elective to all majors at 64%, and is required of non-communication majors at 25%. A total of 15 different majors or pro-

grams were mentioned by respondents as requiring the introductory interpersonal communication course, ranging from accounting to engineering. The most frequent non-communication majors required to take the course (in rank order) include: education, nursing, business, criminal justice, sociology and social work.

Students in the introductory interpersonal communication course are most likely to be taught by full time faculty at 86% of the responding institutions, while 7.3% will have part-time instructors and 6.7% will have graduate student instructors. These findings are similar to those of Gibson et al. who report the basic course is most likely taught by full-time regular faculty members (p. 253). Although the majority of responding institutions (67.4%) report that instructors experience a great deal of autonomy in their courses, many institutions (45.6%) also report that there is a high level of consistency between and among sections. The finding that most institutions offer fewer than five sections of the introductory interpersonal communication course would appear to explain the levels of consistency and autonomy in teaching the course.

Most sections of the introductory course (85.4%) follow a small independent class format, 10% a mass lecture/ discussion format, and only 4.7% are strictly mass lecture. Consistent with the results on class format, small class size appears to be the norm with 51.5% of the respondents indicating section size between 23-30 students, 35.7% indicated class sizes of fewer than 23 students per section, and only 13% enrolling 30 or more students per section. Unlike the basic communication course where class sizes of 30 plus were reported by 70% of schools (Gibson et al., p. 237), sections of the interpersonal course remain relatively small. Respondents indicated the introductory course is usually taught from a combined humanistic/social science approach (62.5%) with 19.3% following a social science approach, and 18.2% a humanistic approach.

Instructional Practices

An emphasis on theory and conceptual learning outweighs a concern for performance/skills development at 46.6% of responding schools. The most common ratio of instructional time devoted to theory versus performance/skills indicated by respondents was 70/30 (26.4%) followed by 50/50 (22.3%), 60/40 (20.2%), 40/60 (17.6%) and 30/70 (13.5%). By contrast, a 40/60 theory/performance ratio was reported by 52% of basic course respondents (Gibson et al., p. 242). An emphasis on theory and concepts over performance in the interpersonal communication course is also reflected in the finding that at 49.2% of responding institutions, students grades are based on a 70/30 ratio of mastery of content versus skill development. Respondents indicated that on average, exams accounted for 44% of a student's grade, while papers would account for 24%, class participation 13%, performances 12%, journals 6%, and other activities 2% of a student's grade. When compared with the basic communication course, students in the interpersonal course are evaluated more on their theory-conceptual learning while 61% of grades of basic course students is based on performance, speeches, discussion, etc. (Gibson et al., p. 244).

Respondents were presented with a list of 15 commonly used instructional methods and materials and asked to indicate the 7 that were most frequently used in teaching the introductory course. Table 1 presents the top 7 methods, their frequency and percentage of use. The most common types of performance opportunities offered to students included role playing, group discussions, exercises, games and labs, informal and mock-job interviews and dyad discussions, reports and presentations, and participation in simulations.

Table 1
Instructional methods and Materials
Introductory Interpersonal Course

	Frequency	Percentage
discussion	175	92%
lecture	167	88%
role play	130	68%
handouts	120	63%
films/video	112	59%
term papers	100	53%
simulations	92	48%

Course Texts and Contents

Respondents were asked to indicate the textbook used in the introductory interpersonal communication course. A total of 56 titles were listed by respondents. Table 2 presents the top-ten choices listed by respondents.

Respondents were also asked if they used a reader or supplemental text in the introductory course. While the majority did not (66.8%), of those who did 17% used an instructor compiled collection of readings, and 16% used a published reader. The only published reader to be mentioned by more than two respondents was John Stewart's *Bridges Not Walls*, which was listed by 17 respondents.

Respondents were provided with a listing of 38 topic areas compiled from the tables of contents of recent interpersonal communication texts and common to interpersonal communication courses. They were asked to indicate 10 of these topics which would receive a significant amount of instructional time in the introductory course. Table 3 lists the top ten topics and their frequency.

Table 2
Top Texts in the Introductory Course
author/title/publisher

Frequency	author/title/publisher
40	Ronald Adler and Neil Towne, *Looking Out Looking In,* 6th ed., Fort Worth, Tx: Holt Rinehard and Winston. 1990.
22	Joseph DeVito, *The Interpersonal Communication Book,* 5th ed., NY: Harper and Row, 1989.
17	Ronald Alder, Lawrence Rosenfeld, and Neil Towne, *Interplay: The Process of Interpersonal Communication,* 4th ed., NY: Holt, Rinehard and Winston, 1989.
15	John Stewart, *Bridges Not Walls: A Book About Interpersonal Communication,* 5th ed., New York: McGraw Hill, 1990.
13	Sarah Trenholm and Arthur Jensen. *Interpersonal Communication.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing, 1988.
8	Joseph DeVito, *Messages: Building Interpersonal Communication Skills:* New York: Harper and Row, 1990.
8	Mark Knapp, *Interpersonal Communication in Human Relationships.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1983.
8	Rudolph Verderber and Kathleen Verderber. *Inter-Act: Using Interpersonal Communication Skills,* 5th Ed., Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing, 1989.
7	John Stewart and Gary D'Angelo, *Together: Communication Interpersonally,* 3rd ed., new York: Random House, 1988.
6	Thomas Mader and Diane Mader, *Understanding One Another.* Dubuque, IA: W. C., Brown, 1990.

Note: A total of 56 titles were provided by respondents.
Top 5 titles account for almost 50% of the market.

Table 3
Top 10 Topics in Introductory Course

	Frequency
self-concept	138
nonverbal	138
self-disclosure	135
perception	130
listening	128
conflict	122
language	110
relational development	100
emotions	72
person perception	70

Respondents were also asked to respond to the following question: "In your judgment, what are 5 of the best theories or conceptual approaches students should be familiar with if they are to understand interpersonal communication?" Table 4 presents the responses and the frequency of response for the 10 most frequently listed theories or approaches provided by respondents. Interestingly, when provided with a list of topics and asked to identify those which receive a significant amount of instructional time, respondents ranked Social Exchange Theory 16th, yet it ranked first in terms of the best theories/ approaches.

These results suggest the introductory interpersonal communication course is a common offering at responding institutions, and is either as a requirement or elective at 87% of responding schools. The interpersonal course is distinct from the basic course and taught primarily by full time faculty who experience a great deal of consistency and

Table 4
Top 12 Theories/Approaches in the Introductory Course

	Frequency
social exchange theory	34
social penetration theory	30
uncertainty reduction theory	24
rules theory	24
perception/person perception/constructivism	20
attribution theory	16
self-disclosure	14
pragmatics of interpersonal	14
transactional analysis	11
symbolic interaction	10
needs/motivation	10
nonverbal communication	10

autonomy in their teaching. Theory and mastery of content appears to be more important than performance/skill development in terms of instructional time and the determination of student grades. The top five (5) texts account for roughly 45% of the market for introductory interpersonal communication courses.

The Advanced Interpersonal Communication Course Characteristics

In addition, questions regarding the introductory course, the third section of the questionnaire focused on advanced undergraduate coursework in interpersonal. A total of 58 respondents (24.5% of the total) offered advanced coursework

in interpersonal communication. Not surprising, introductory courses are generally taught at the freshman or sophomore levels while the advanced courses are taught at the upper division level. The advanced course is required for communication majors by only 23.6% of the schools which offer it, is offered as a communication elective at 60%, serves as an elective to all majors at 56.3%, and only 5.5% list it as a requirement for non-communication majors. At most institutions, the advanced course is considered to be more in-depth and theory oriented when compared to the introductory course which is survey oriented and more focused on skill development.

Instructional Methods and Materials

Respondents were provided with a list of 15 instructional methods and materials and asked to indicate the 7 that were most frequently employed in teaching the advanced course. Table 5 presents the frequency and percentage of use. When compared with the methods used in the introductory course, lectures, term papers, and research articles become more important while more experiential methods are less frequently used.

Table 5
Instructional Methods and Materials
Advanced Interpersonal Communication

	Frequency	Percentage
lectures	54	85%
discussion	50	79%
term papers	44	70%
research articles	41	65%
handouts	36	57%
film/video	25	40%
role play	22	35%

Course Texts and Contents

Respondents were asked to list the textbook(s) used in the advanced course. Table 6 presents the top choices listed by respondents. Eight text were listed by two or more respondents and 30 additional titles were provided.

As with the introductory course, most instructors in the advanced course (55%) do not to use a reader as a supplemental text. Of those who do, 34% compile the reader them-

Table 6
Top Texts for Advanced Interpersonal Communication

Frequency	author/title/publisher
9	Mark Knapp, *Interpersonal Communication in Human Relationships*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1984.
4	William Wilmot, *Dyadic Communication* 2nd Ed., Reading, MA: Addison Wesley, 1980.
3	Paul Watzlawick, Janet Beavin and Don Jackson. *Pragmatics of Interpersonal Communication*. New York: W.W. Norton. 1967.
3	Deborah Tannen, *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation*. New York: Morrow, 1990.
3	Theodore Grove, *Dyadic Interactions*, Dubuque, IA: W. C. Brown, 1991.
2	Deborah Tannen, *That's Not What I Meant*, New York: Wm. Morrow & Co., 1986.
2	John Stewart, Ed., *Bridges Not Walls: A Book About Interpersonal Communication*, 5th ed., New York: McGraw Hill, 1990.
2	Michael Roloff and Gerald Miller Eds., *Interpersonal Processes: New Directions in Communication Research*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, 1987.

Table 7
Top 10 Topics in Advanced Interpersonal

	Frequency
relational development	34
social exchange theory	31
conflict	29
intimate relationships	26
uncertainty reduction theory	25
social penetration theory	25
self-disclosure	23
rules theory	19
person perception	18
self-concept	18

selves, and 10.7% use a published reader, but no published reader was mentioned by more than one respondent.

Respondents were provided with a list of 38 topic areas related to interpersonal communication and asked to indicate 10 that would receive a significant amount of instructional time. Table 7 presents the results. These results, when compared with Table 3, tend to bear out the observation that the advanced course is more theory oriented when compared to the introductory course.

Finally, respondents were asked: "In your judgment, what are the 5 theories or conceptual approaches that students should be familiar with after having completed an advanced course in interpersonal communication?" Table 8 presents the responses provided and their frequency of mention. Clearly, theory occupies a central place in the advanced interpersonal communication course. This orientation is further clarified

Table 8
Top Theories/Approaches in the Advanced Course

	Frequency
social exchange theory	10
social penetration theory	9
rules theory	9
attribution theory	8
uncertainty reduction theory	8
relational development	7
coordinated management of meaning	5
symbolic interaction	4
Duck's relational typology	3
pragmatics of communication ala Watzlawick et al.	3
constructivism	3

when the key theories are compared with the topics reported in Table 7. A further comparison with the key theories in the introductory course (Table 4), however, indicates a close relationship between the key theories at both levels.

The advanced course in interpersonal communication is offered at approximately 25% of responding institutions, and is less likely to be required of majors than the introductory level course. It is a course which places less emphasis on performance or skill development in terms of instructional methods, materials, and course content when compared with the introductory course.

DISCUSSION

These results provide a description of the current status of the introductory and advanced interpersonal communication courses at U.S. colleges and universities. Since a previous unpublished survey of the interpersonal communication course exists (Berryman and Weaver, 1978), it is possible to compare the present state of the course with the earlier results in terms of course structure, instructional methods and materials, and course texts and content.

In general, if the interpersonal communication course was gaining a foothold at U.S. colleges and universities in 1978, the results of the present survey suggest that the course is well established and flourishing. The percentage of schools not offering coursework in interpersonal decreased from 39% in 1978 to only 16% in 1991. Currently, 83.5% of responding schools offer introductory and/or advanced coursework in interpersonal communication (57% introductory only, 24% introductory and advanced, 2.5% advanced only).

The interpersonal course was most frequently taught at the freshman level in 1978 (61.9%) and remains so in 1991 (54% at the freshman level, 46.6% at the sophomore level). It continues to be most frequently offered as a 3 credit course. The present study found that undergraduate interpersonal communication courses run the range from the freshman to senior level, and that at 32% of responding schools, two or more course are offered. The interpersonal course was, and is increasingly taught primarily by full time faculty (80% in 1978, 86.6% in 1991); the present study notes a decreased use of part-time and graduate student instructors in the course.

It is not possible to directly compare the audiences taking the interpersonal course (whether as a requirement or elective) given the results reported in the 1978 study. However, Berryman & Weaver found that 36.6% of "arts and sciences" students were required to take the course as well as several other majors (1978, p.5). The current survey found the intro-

ductory interpersonal course to be required of 50% of communication majors and required of other majors at 25% of the responding schools. The present study found the most frequent majors to require the interpersonal course are, consistent with the 1978 study, education followed by nursing and health related fields, business, sociology-social work, and criminal justice. The interpersonal communication course appears to be solid a part of the communication curriculum as well as an elective or required course by other disciplines.

The course format used in 1991 is similar to that found in 1978. Small independent section were the norm in 1978 (79%) and have increased in popularity in 1991 (85.4%). The course was and is increasingly taught in small sections of between 18 and 30 students (64.8% in 1978 and 79.8% in 1991). The large lecture format was unpopular in 1978 (only 2.5%), and is employed by only 4.7% of respondents in 1991.

The most frequent philosophy or approach to the course in 1978 was a humanistic/social scientific combination (50%), such a combined approach has grown in popularity to 62.5% of the present respondents indicating a combined humanistic/social scientific approach. Interestingly, the present study found a decrease in the humanistic approach (from 25.5% in 1978 to 18.2% in 1991) and an increase in the social scientific approach (10.1% in 1978 to 19.3%).

In examining the relative importance of theory to performance and skill development, Berryman and Weaver found a 50/50 ratio of theory to performance to be the most frequent while the present study found a 70/30 ratio to be most frequent. There appears to be a shift away from performance and skills development toward theory and mastery of content. In addition, student grades are increasingly being based on mastery of content versus performance and skill development. In 1978 a 60/40 ratio was most frequent. In 1991, a 70/30 ratio was twice as frequent as the 60/40 ratio (49.2% in 1991 vs. 22.8% in 1978). This is perhaps explained by the difficulty of measuring and evaluating student interpersonal performance

and skill development. As in 1978, the written exam continues to be the most widely used grading method accounting for 44% of the average student's grade in the 1991 interpersonal communication course.

Table 9 compares the top instructional material and methods used in 1978 with those used in 1991. The comparison is not exact because different lists were used in the 1978 and 1991 studies.

In terms of course contents and materials, some features have changed while some have remained consistent. Table 10 compares topics covered in the interpersonal course in 1978 with those indicated in 1991.

Table 9
Rank Order Comparison
of Instructional Methods and Materials

1978	1991
handouts	discussions
exams	lectures
exercises	role play
syllabi	handouts
supplemental readings	films/videos
dyadic encounters	term papers
simulations	simulations
worksheets	journals
journals	case studies
critique sheets	field studies

Note: The above comparison is qualified in that the methods and materials provided to respondents in the 1978 and 1991 were similar but not exactly the same.

Table 10
Rank Order Comparison of Top Ten Topics, 1978/1991

1978	1991
verbal	self-concept
nonverbal	nonverbal
feedback	self-disclosure
self concept	perception
comm barriers	listening
listening	conflict
perception	language
self-disclosure	relational development
empathy	emotions

Note: The above comparison should be qualified in that respondents were not presented with the same list of topics in 1991 as in 1978.

In examining textbooks reported in use in 1978 with those used in 1991, a great deal of consistency is found. The top text in 1978 was *Looking Out/Looking In* by Adler and Towne. It continues to be the number one text in 1991. DeVito's *The Interpersonal Communication Book* was ranked third in 1978 and second in 1991. *Bridges Not Walls* was ranked fourth in 1978 and remained in that position in 1991.

In terms of growth in the interpersonal communication course, in 1978 57.5%. of respondents reported gains in enrollment with 37.5% suggesting enrollment was maintaining. In 1991, 57.5% of respondents reported increased enrollment over the last 5 years while 37.3% reported enrollments remaining the same. As in 1978, only 5% of responding schools reported declining enrollments. No comparison of advanced courses is possible given the 1978 survey did not distinguish introductory and advanced. Berryman and Weaver did note

that "some respondents offered interpersonal coursework at more than 1 level (p. 5). The present study found at least 24.5% of responding institutions offer both introductory and advanced interpersonal communication courses. Indeed, the interpersonal communication course is alive, well, and thriving and U.S. colleges and universities.

CONCLUSION

The introductory and advanced courses in interpersonal communication are alive and well at U.S. colleges and universities. A student enrolling in an introductory level interpersonal course will most likely take the course as a freshman, be taught by a full time faculty member in a small independent class, experience a theory oriented course and be evaluated on the basis mastery of content, and read one of five popular texts. A student enrolled in the advanced course would most likely be taking the course as either a communication requirement or elective, receive an intensive examination of interpersonal communication theories, and be exposed to more lectures, research articles, and term papers. The growth in enrollments experienced by most responding institutions, the increasing number of institutions offering more than one course, and the decrease in the number of schools not offering interpersonal coursework confirms the observation of Bochner et al. (1991) that interpersonal communication truly is an intoxicating subject.

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Adopting a Transformational Approach to Basic Course Leadership

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We often have heard about basic course directors (BCDs) who struggle to win acceptance for their ideas about how the basic course should run, only to surrender those ideas in the face of departmental opposition and/or resistance from the people teaching the course. It has been our experience that some BCDs move on to other job descriptions within a fairly short time frame. Other BCDs have made sweeping changes in their programs, gaining financial and emotional support from their departments in the process and frequently enhancing the image of that course campuswide and disciplinewide (Buerkel-Rothfuss, Gray, & Yerby, 1993; Seiler & Fuss-Reineck, 1986). These latter BCDs report satisfaction with their roles and often stay on in the capacity of BCD for decades. What is the difference between these two groups of people? Is one group simply less prepared for the task? Do BCDs who give up the job lack courage? Motivation? Skills? Does the environment doom them to failure? Is the other group advantaged in some way? Are these people more charismatic? Harder working? More "in tune" with what is expected of them? Are there other factors that conspire to support one group and not the other?

There probably are many answers to the above questions and, in addition, it is quite possible that different answers apply to different basic course situations. However, one cer-

tainty does exist for many BCDs: Directing the basic course can be a frustrating, low-status and often confusing role. Three consecutive presentations at a 1991 Midwest Basic Course Director's Conference explored the viewpoint of the BCD, the viewpoint of the department chair and the viewpoint of central administration; all three presentations pointed to the potential for conflict between and among these leadership positions and the other related personnel (faculty, basic course instructors, students, etc.). In other words, the problems/questions posed above (as well as many other questions) still exist in/about the basic course. We need to search for ways to "frame" the issues so we can identify potential avenues for improvement.

One possible way to frame thought about the basic course comes from organizational theory. Indeed, basic courses are similar to business organizations in many ways. (For a more thorough discussion of how basic courses function within organizations, see Buerkel-Rothfuss & Kosloski, 1990.) Like any subsystem of a larger system, the basic course exists with a structure of its own (a director, some instructors, and students) and has its own rules, norms, and expectations. Like any organizational subset, the basic course exists within a larger sphere, the academic department. In turn, the basic course is influenced by the departmental system, the college system, and various other subsystems and supra systems. Places where boundaries meet (and overlap) are the interfaces between and among those components, and communication at those interfaces is critical for the effective flow of information in the system as a whole. These interfaces have been studied extensively in the literature on organizational communication.

The resemblance of the basic course to a subsystem of an organizational system, then, encourages closer analysis of the possible application of organizational theory to the basic course as a way of identifying a conceptual framework for basic course research and problem solving. Likewise, the need

for BCDs to "direct" or "lead" that subsystem implies a focus on those variables that enhance the BCDs' ability to function.

The purposes of this paper are both applied and theoretical. First, we describe one organizational perspective, transformational leadership, and present ways this approach can alter how BCDs both define their position descriptions and function in those positions. Then, to further research on basic course leadership, we identify variables that could be investigated relative to the adoption of transformational principles by basic course "leaders."

APPLICATION OF GENERAL ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY TO THE BASIC COURSE

According to Shockley-zalabak, an organization is a "dynamic system in which individuals engage in collective efforts for goal accomplishment" (1991, p. 30). As dynamic systems, organizations continually must adapt to changing environments. This adaptation process is the result of an organization's ability to create and exchange meaning through communication in an effort to manage environmental uncertainty. Understanding what an organization stands for and how it works requires an understanding of the process of organizational communication. Thus, we are interested in looking at the communicative behaviors of organizational participants, the effects of their behaviors and how those behaviors are interpreted by others.

Pace and Faules (1989) suggest that how one defines an organization is determined by one's point of view. One possible point of view, the *objective* approach, suggests that an organization is a tangible system with definite boundaries. Sometimes referred to as the *container* view, this approach implies that organizations are concrete structures that actually hold people, relationships, and goals. Objective approaches emphasize the importance of the environment (e.g.,

job title, organizational chart, duties and responsibilities) as a determining factor in explaining an individual's behavior. The *subjective* approach, on the other hand, places humans in a more active and creative role. Organizations are viewed as social collectives in which people act and interact. Humans do not simply exist within the organizational system, but they create the organization. Advocates of a subjective point of view recognize that an important part of organizational behavior is the way in which organizational members create their environment and how that environment, then, affects their subsequent behavior (Weick, 1979).

While these perspectives typically define differing theoretical approaches to research in organizations, they also suggest pragmatic applications for the basic course. For example, department chairs who take an objective view of the department/organization may not realize that they tend to see roles in the organization positionally and tend to expect compliance from subordinates based on what they perceive to be legitimate power. Should these department chairs request a format change for the basic course from self-contained sections to mass lecture, they would expect the BCD to make the change — period. BCDs who share this objective viewpoint may have little problem complying: A duty of a BCD is to follow orders from above. However, BCDs who take a subjective approach may resist such change until they can assess possible effects on the instructors and students. Change would come more slowly with such BCDs; only after input is sought from all involved would these directors be comfortable with a drastic format switch. Thus, conflict is likely between chairs who take an objective view and BCDs who work from a subjective perspective. Similarly, conflict based on differing perspectives could occur between BCDs and instructors or other faculty, between instructors and students, and in a variety of other relationships associated with a basic course.

Whenever such conflicts occur at the interfaces in the system, the potential for successful attainment of system goals is

jeopardized. Thus, identification of variables that maximize successful organizational development and change are critical for enhancing organizational behavior. This statement should be no less true for basic courses: identification of some critical variables in achieving organizational success in the basic course will be discussed later in this paper.

Other organizational concepts useful for application to the basic course are transformation and vision. In a successful organization, at least two things must happen. First, someone must demonstrate the ability to move the operation of that organization toward a desired future state (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). This desired effect comes about by *transforming others,* by lifting them to higher levels of performance consistent with both the values and the vision, or mental image, of the organization and the role it is to play in the environment in which it functions. This process fits with the subjective view of organizations in that the mechanism for transforming others is tied to the negotiating, constructing, and sharing of meaning. Second, steps must be taken to ensure consistency of this vision at the various levels of the organizational hierarchy. The more consistent the vision among the various components of the organizational system, the more effectively that system can function overall (Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Tichy & Ulrich. 1984). This assumption fits with the subjective approach in that visions can be developed and maintained transactionally.

Again, these theoretical notions have practical applicability. A BCD frequently must transform new instructors (even inexperienced new graduate teaching assistants) into prepared, knowledgeable, and credible classroom teachers. As the instructors begin to teach, the BCD's vision of them may be of individuals who are prepared, knowledgeable and credible (probably due to training), but the BCD's immediate task requires helping the instructors to see themselves as prepared, knowledgeable, and credible. The BCD must work with these people to help them share the vision: the process of transformation that has taken place or is taking place. Then,

the BCD must ensure that this vision is consistent at various levels in the hierarchy. Suppose, for example, that the dean of the college believes that graduate teaching assistants (TAs) should not be allowed to teach autonomous sections of the course. The BCD must negotiate with the dean to arrive at a shared vision, perhaps by detailing the elaborate preparation that the TAs will receive prior to entering the classroom, by sharing copies of the handbook that will be used to train TAs, and by negotiating strategies for dealing with TAs who are not prepared to teach on their own. Thus, working toward congruence of vision is a persuasive, communicative process that involves negotiating meanings.

The ability to transform others and to transact with others to negotiate a shared vision successfully can differentiate between effective and ineffective BCDs. The effective BCD is a better "leader" than the ineffective one. Thus, leadership is an important concept for understanding the role and function of the BCD in the academic organization called the basic course and so will be analyzed more thoroughly in the next section.

APPLICATION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY TO THE BASIC COURSE

The Functional Perspective

Historically, leadership has been studied in a variety of ways, depending on the researchers' conceptualization of leadership and choice of methodology. Current thinking tends to favor a functional approach because of its obvious focus on communication as central to leadership ability. In a functional approach, emphasis is not placed on specific abilities and skills of the individual in the leadership role, nor is the focus of research on environmental factors and their impact on

leadership behavior. Instead, a functional approach helps us understand leadership success by examining the communicative behaviors that must be performed by the leader (and other group members) for the group to move toward a desired future state. Leadership is perceived as essentially a relationship between two or more people who rely on communication to develop and sustain relationships. In addition, communication helps individuals identify goals and opportunities, establish rules, exchange information, and generate and manage change. Research from a functional perspective on managerial effectiveness and perceptions of effectiveness describe communication competence as a central element in measuring a leader's success (Argyris, 1962; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Drucker, 1966). A functional approach, then, examines the communicative behavior of individuals as a means of assessing leadership effectiveness.

Within the past fifteen years, a transformational theory of leadership has emerged as a means of studying leadership from a functional approach. This theory of leadership holds considerable promise for useful application to the basic course.

Transformational Theory of Leadership

Although transformational leadership has been studied in a variety of ways by a variety of researchers, the results of those investigations point to some clear dimensions of leadership. A *transformational theory of leadership* views leadership as a process, not as a set of discrete acts. Burns (1978) described leadership as "a stream of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational responses from followers and modifying their behavior as they meet responsiveness or resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counterflow" (p. 440). At the same time. Leaders and followers, acting together with different levels of motivations, power potential, and skills, "raise one another to higher levels

of morality and motivation" (p. 20) in pursuit of a common goal.

Increasing others' awareness about issues of consequence occurs when an individual is guided by a deeply held personal value system (Bass, 1985). Burns refers to such a value system as end values. The expression of end values enables transformative leaders to unite followers as well as change their goals and beliefs (Burns, 1978). When followers adopt these end values as their own, a change in perspective, attitudes, beliefs, and goals occurs. As a result, transformative leaders motivate followers to accept more challenging goals and to achieve higher levels of performance than would otherwise be thought possible. Thus, a principal theme of transformational leadership is "lifting people into their better selves" (Hitt, 1988, p. 9).

Transformative leaders engage in four primary activities: (a) clarification of the organization's value system (Hitt, 1988; Peters & Waterman, 1982), (b) creation of a vision, (c) mobilization of commitment, and (d) institutionalization of change (Tichy & Ulrich, 1984). Every organization is guided by certain *beliefs or values.* The first step effective transformative leaders take, then, is to highlight the major values of the particular organization. Transformative leaders (a) articulate the value system of the organization, (b) ensure a sense of congruence between daily beliefs (situational factors that affect rules and feelings about everyday behavior) and guiding beliefs (the fundamental, principle foundations of the organization), and (c) identify critical success factors as a means of identifying specific areas that will ensure organizational effectiveness in light of the values. An organization may be governed by one or two guiding beliefs or by a complex structure of such beliefs. Examples of guiding beliefs include the following: innovation, teamwork, growth, profitability, longevity, prestige, impartiality, benefit to humanity, quality, integrity, and corporate citizenship, among others. An organization based on a profit motive will have different guiding

beliefs and, consequently, different daily beliefs, than one which is motivated by a desire to self-actualize employees or build a sense of a corporate family. A typical college or university would espouse guiding beliefs such as the following: tolerance, impartiality, excellence, integrity, intellectual challenge, benefit to humanity, and quality.

Second, transformational leaders *create a vision* which gives direction to the organization while being congruent with the leader's and the organization's mission. This vision, which is described in detail later, allows organizational members to see the organization's guiding beliefs in action and to anticipate the effects of proposed changes on the organization.

The third step is for transformative leaders to use their communicative ability to *mobilize* employees to accept and work toward achieving the new vision. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), " a vision cannot be established in an organization by edict, or by the exercise of power or coercion. It is more an act of persuasion, of creating an enthusiastic and dedicated commitment to a vision because it is right for the times, right for the organization, and right for the people working in it" (p. 107). This mobilization step might be considered a form of motivating and/or empowering others in the system to work toward the shared vision. When the vision becomes one that they accept and value, moving them toward the desired change becomes easier.

The fourth step of transformational leadership is the *institutionalization* of change. New patterns of behaviors, decision-making processes, and means of communication must be adopted at every level of the organization. It is not enough for employees in one segment of the organization to adopt the change, because their activities necessarily affect every other component of the organizational system. Effective leadership involves envisioning how change will affect all areas of the organization and paving the way for the change to become a way of life at all levels of the hierarchy.

This four-step process easily applies to the basic course. For example, when the BCD at the authors' institution decided to convert the basic course from a mass lecture/lab recitation model to a Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) model, the first step was to assess the attitudes and values related to PSI models, both inside and outside of the department, and to ensure that incorporation of this model would not conflict with institutional guiding beliefs. In this case, several courses in other departments were being taught using PSI, suggesting institutional acceptance for such a model. Clearly, such courses would not have passed through the curricular process had there been doubts about the degree to which such a model supports university guiding beliefs. Inside the department, faculty expressed skepticism about PSI but willingness to experiment with new ideas, based on guiding beliefs in the value of innovation and in the importance of supporting one's colleagues. Having established that such a model would not conflict with prevailing values, the second step was to work out the details of the "vision." How would the new sections of the basic course function? How would they be structured and organized? How would staff be trained and who would train them? How would this new model be an improvement over the current system of delivery of instruction? Once the vision had been formulated and articulated, the BCD was able to persuade faculty to teach using the new system for a limited number of semesters: the commitment phase. As evidence began to accumulate (through program evaluation) that suggested superiority of the new model, these individuals began to recruit others into the program and they actively campaigned for departmental support for the model: the beginning of the institutionalization phase. Thus, transformational leadership provided for a smooth transition from a model that had been in place for many years to a new model that, in many ways, was a dramatic (and drastic) change.

Transformational Leadership Variables: Vision and Congruence of Vision

The key variable here is not the magnitude of the change but, rather, the degree to which the purpose and direction of that change are clearly articulated and deeply felt: the degree to which the "vision" is clear. Littky and Fried (1988) state "the process of real change begins with the leadership of one or more people who have deeply-felt vision — call it a passionate vision" (p. 5). All studies seem to indicate that a transformative leader has the ability to create a vision and that developing a shared vision is central to organizational success. Consequently. this concept deserves careful scrutiny for BCDs, who function within a deeply embedded group of people who potentially do not share an even remotely similar vision of the role, function, and importance of the basic course.

What is vision? Shieve and Shoenheit (1987) described a vision as a "blueprint of a desired state .... an image of a preferred condition that we work to achieve in the future" (p. 94). In 1956, Appley suggested that the ability to create a clear mental picture, and the capacity to transfer that image to the minds of others, are critical to increasing the achievement and recognition of some executives. Moreover, Hitt (1988) contended that formulating a clear vision of a desired future may be the most important leadership function. Why is the development of a vision so vital to the success of an organization? It is because it provides all levels of the organization with a clear sense of purpose and direction toward a desired future state. The presence of a clear vision offers a number of practical benefits to the organization as a whole, as well as to individual group members.

According to Hitt (1988), a clear vision assists leaders in carrying out the basic functions of management. Vision aids in (a) planning, (b) organizing, (c) staffing and development, (d) directing and leading, and (e) evaluating and controlling. First, a clear vision aids in planning; it provides a road map

for getting from the organization's current state to its desired future state. Organizations with a clear vision are better equipped to establish goals, objectives, and priorities for the coming year. For example, BCDs who anticipate changes in enrollment in the basic course, who keep up-to-date on innovative technologies that might be incorporated into the course, who regularly update course content, and who keep abreast of pedagogical innovations will be more effective than those who never question the status quo. Second, a clear vision aids in the development of an organizational structure that identifies roles and responsibilities and promotes decision making consistent with the organization's mission. In the basic course, this vision would entail writing job descriptions for instructors and assistant directors, establishing means of organizing and disseminating information, and creating resources for the basic course. Third, a clear vision aids in candidate selection and promotion as well as training and development programs. Here, the vision allows BCDs to prepare teaching staff to do their most effective job in the classroom, perhaps through training and supervision. Fourth, a clear vision satisfies a basic need of group members by identifying where the organization is going, how the organization plans to get there, and the role each individual is expected to play. This information acts as a motivational force for group members and provides the necessary information to guide decisions and behaviors. For BCDs, this function entails group team-building and developing effective ways for group members to work together to accomplish group goals. Fifth, and finally, a clear vision provides a measure against which performance can be evaluated and necessary changes can be made. For BCDs, the vision presents the desired end state and allows for evaluation of the course in relation to that ideal. If the vision entails increasing satisfaction with the course, then increased enrollments, improved course evaluations, and higher overall instructor satisfaction all may indicate movement toward that goal.

In their study of transformative leaders, Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that when the organization has a clear sense of its purpose, direction and desired future state and when this vision is widely shared, individuals are able to identify their respective roles in the organization and in society. Knowing the organization's central purpose and objectives helps people determine what is and is not important, thus achieving consistency with organizational goals. In turn, a clear vision adds meaningfulness to work and thus appeals to a fundamental human need to be important, to feel useful, and to belong to a worthwhile enterprise.

Vision, then, may be a key variable in predicting the success or failure of a BCD. In many cases, a new BCD will be hired into an environment in which a vision is known, if not articulated. Perhaps the faculty in the department are committed to keeping class size small, content rigorous, and instruction personalized in the basic course. As a consequence, the vision may result in recruitment of a highly qualified BCD who is given considerable support and funding to run the course. Perhaps, on the other hand, the faculty see the basic course as a money-draining aspect of their program and not really central to the function of the department. In that case the vision may involve keeping the course as inexpensive and cost-efficient as possible. When a new BCD enters either environment, whether recruited to fit that job description or volunteered into the position as the person with lowest seniority in the department, that individual may feel the need to assume a leadership role. If that BCD's vision of how the basic course should run includes an expectation that TAs should be hired to facilitate a mass lecture of 1500 students, the incongruence between that vision and the expectations set forth in the first department may make for many painful years of impossible negotiations. Even if the disparity between the department's vision and the BCD's vision is not that large, subtle resistance in the system may subvert the BCD's attempts to institute such a change. In contrast, the same

BCD may function extremely well in the second environment, in which the two visions of how the course should be run and the purpose it should serve are more congruent.

Of course, congruence of vision is not limited to the relationship between the department (e.g., chair/head and faculty) and the BCD. Instructors in the course will have an image of how the basic course should function, what should be taught, what should be accomplished, and what their role should be as basic course instructors. These expectations form a sort of vision that is brought to the course by those teaching personnel. For TAs who hope to function as friends with their students and who see the basic course as a comfortable sanctuary where freshmen can learn about themselves and about their capabilities, working with a BCD who sees the basic course as something that must be strictly standardized and rule-based may prove to be an impossible challenge. While the TAs and the BCD may feud over what they perceive to be differences in attitudes toward students, the true underlying cause may be a broader orientation to the role of the basic course in the department: the vision.

This same logic carries over to the instructor-student relationship, as well. As an instructor, it may be the TA's role to lead the students to accept the vision behind the course and work toward accomplishing those goals. For a skills-based basic course in public speaking, the vision may include building a comfortable classroom climate so that students will feel relaxed in front of their peers. Some students may resist this goal, in part because they resist the entire vision that places them at the podium. Similarly, an instructor may visualize the classroom as an environment in which students actively discuss ideas, challenge each other, and arrive at new understandings together. For students who see learning as something that happens while sitting quietly in the back of the classroom, this vision may be too incongruent to make completion of the course possible.

Of course, as detailed previously, it is possible to change the existing vision or create a new vision. However, a necessary step in doing either is the ability to identify existing visions. Therefore, whether it be seeking situations with congruence of perception of the basic course or changing/creating commonalities of perceptions, the concept of vision may be central to the effectiveness of a BCD.

Thus, it is clear that leadership theory relates to the role of BCD. BCDs function in organizational environments in which they are expected to assume leadership roles. When the environment supports their vision, getting commitment and moving people to accomplish the desired goals may be easy. When their vision is incongruent with that of their department chairs/heads, colleagues, teaching staff (tenure-track faculty, temporary instructors, and/or TAs), and the students enrolled in that basic course, demonstrating leadership may be a formidable challenge. In either case, implementation of transformational leadership requires a variety of skills or competencies. Although the labels and degree of specificity differ somewhat from one study to the next, the commonalties across studies suggest strong support for this approach.

Transformational Leadership Competencies

In 1985, Bennis and Nanus conducted a five-year study with 90 effective leaders, including 60 corporate leaders and 30 leaders of public-sector organizations in an effort to understand what successful leaders had in common. Effective leadership (transformational leadership) was defined as having the ability to "move organizations from current to future states, create visions of potential opportunities for organizations, instill within employees commitment to change and instill new cultures and strategies in organizations that mobilize and focus energy sources" (p. 17). Four common themes, or competencies, emerged as prevalent in the way all 90 leaders reshaped organizational practices to adapt to envi-

ronmental changes and how they empowered people with the confidence and ability to achieve new things.

The first leadership competency is the *management of attention:* the ability to draw others to them by communicating an extraordinary focus of commitment. Transformative leaders manage attention through the creation of a compelling vision that leads others to a desired outcome or goal. This skill may be difficult for many BCDs to attain, because many BCDs do not seek out the job, they are placed into it. Developing a passionate vision that will attract subordinates is difficult to manage when the leader's enthusiasm for the task is fairly low. Even BCDs who truly surge with pride over their courses may not realize that communicating that commitment to others is central to effective directing/leading. Whether the BCD's passion for the vision of the basic course is natural or has to be more "forced," the effective transformative leader must create an excitement about the worth of the BCD's vision of the course in order to get others to commit time and energy to this vision.

The second competency of effective leaders is *management of meaning* through communication. Organizational success depends upon the existence of shared meaning and interpretations of events at all levels in the organization. A shared interpretation of organizational events leads to coordinated action; group members speak and act in a manner that is consistent with organizational values and philosophy. Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that excellent leaders were concerned not only with what should be done but with how to develop messages that will convey the vision. Because the leader's goal is not merely explanation or clarification but the creation of meaning, transformative leaders used metaphors, models, and analogies as a way of making the meaning clear and tangible. Clearly, the management of meaning is central to being an effective BCD. "Selling" the basic course is a large part of the BCDs' and the course instructors' task, and helping course instructors see the direct application of this course to stu-

dents' lives may be one way to attain that goal. Metaphors like "the heart of the department offerings," "the foundation of the discipline" and "the starting block" are all common phrases that help to convey the centrality of the basic course's position in the department.

Essential to all organizations, *management of trust* is the third leadership competency possessed by transformative leaders. *Trust* as a strategy is difficult to define. Bennis and Nanus (1985) described trust as the "glue that maintains organizational integrity" (p. 44). The leaders in the Bennis and Nanus study generated and sustained followers' trust by exemplifying predictability, constancy. congruity between actions and words, and reliability. BCDs could manage trust by providing constructive feedback after observations, by showing support for course instructors, by representing their interests fairly in the department, and by setting standards that provide for equal treatment of everyone involved with the course.

Finally, the fourth competency possessed by transformative leaders is *management of self.* The leaders in Bennis' and Nanus' study reported that understanding one's strengths and weaknesses is critical to effective leadership. They did not dwell on mistakes, but focused on a willingness to take risks and accept losses. They talked about commitment, consistency, and challenge. Above all, they talked about leaders as perpetual learners. These transformative leaders regarded themselves as "stretching," "growing," and "breaking new ground." In the management of self, learning is viewed as indispensable in today's rapidly changing environment. BCDs who recognize the need for incorporation of new materials into the course, who seek out self-improvement opportunities, who listen nondefensively to feedback from TAs and other course instructors probably would be considered competent in their ability to manage self. BCDs who have used the same text for many years, whose standardized courses persist without

much change, and who surround themselves with people who will comply without question may not rank high on this skill.

In an effort similar to Bennis and Nanus, Tichy and Devanna (1986) interviewed twelve CEOs from a variety of organizations. The purpose of this study was to describe the behaviors of leaders faced with transforming organizations to adapt successfully to a changing and increasingly competitive environment. which certainly could be a description of a college or university campus in the 1990s. Based on their findings, Tichy and Devanna developed a four-stage process that characterizes the behaviors of transformative leaders. First, transformative leaders *recognize the need for change* (e.g., they see that the current policy of not hiring TAs is creating problems for the department). Second, transformative leaders *facilitate a transitional process* by helping people accept the need for change and increasing followers' self confidence and optimism about making a successful transition (e.g., BCDs may collect data that reinforce the assertion that TAs are good teachers, they may give current TAs a "pep talk" about their ability to teach, etc.). Third, with the assistance of other organizational members, transformative leaders *create a vision of a desired future state* (e.g., BCDs may map out a course description that will make it clear that the incorporation of TAs as instructors will be "an exciting challenge," "a big step forward," and other positive metaphors). Finally, change is institutionalized by *developing a new coalition of people.* both inside and outside the organization, who are committed to the vision (e.g., BCDs may assess the degree to which other faculty support the incorporation of TAs into the basic course and muster their support to help with the transition). During periods of organizational change an analysis should be made to determine whose commitment is necessary. Leaders depend upon their network of relationships with key people in the organization. As a result, the network may need to be expanded to include other individuals critical in forming and implementing policies and strategies. Similarly, leaders

may have to replace individuals in key positions with others who have the skills and dedication necessary to implement change successfully.

In a similar study, data collected from participants in an international program in management, representing some 10 or 12 different cultures, led Hitt (1988) to the development of a model of effective leadership. With the leader as a "change agent" at the core, transformative leaders were defined as exhibiting eight basic functions of leadership. First, leaders *create a vision* of a desired future state and then translate the vision to the minds of others. Second, leaders *develop a team* of individuals who share responsibility for achieving the group's goals. Third, transformative leaders *clarify organizational values* and communicate those values through words and actions. Fourth, effective leaders develop a strategy for moving a group from its present position toward the vision, called *positioning*. Fifth, leaders create a common understanding of the vision through effective *communication*. Sixth, transformative leaders *empower* their people by increasing their capabilities for doing or accomplishing something. *Coaching*, helping others develop skills necessary for achieving excellence, is the seventh function. Eighth, and finally, transformative leaders exhibit a *measuring* function through the identification of critical success factors associated with the group's operation and gauging progress on the basis of these factors. In other words, successful leaders collect feedback information and use that feedback to assess progress toward the vision. The example about shifting from temporary faculty to TAs in the basic course is further expanded by this perspective. The BCD first creates a vision that describes the positive aspects of the new basic course, perhaps drawing parallels between the envisioned improvements and other "model" basic courses (vision creation). Then, the BCD identifies those faculty who support the change and works with them to develop an action plan that will be acceptable to more resistant colleagues and/or administrators (team develop-

ment). This action plan should be fully articulated and clearly related to organizational values and goals so that the advantages of the change are clear (values clarification). Next, the BCD creates a "game plan" for moving toward the new program: a new syllabus that incorporates TA instructors, a training program for helping TAs understand the demands of their new tasks, a mentoring system to provide support for the new TAs, a strategy for observing and critiquing TA teaching, and so on (positioning). Thus, the vision is communicated to others in the system; in the process, input is solicited which helps others see themselves as instrumental in incorporating this change (communication). The BCD further reinforces the movement toward change by helping TAs and others involved see themselves as capable of making the change and by helping them to develop whatever new skills might be needed, perhaps through training programs (empowering and coaching). Finally, the effective BCD establishes criteria for evaluating the change and monitors the group's progress toward (or away from) the desired outcomes (measuring).

Research by Bennis and Nanus (1985), Tichy and Devanna (1986), and Hitt (1988) provides a first step toward a better understanding of how transformative leaders institutionalize change within an organizational system. In general, transformative leaders recognize the need for change, formulate a vision, develop a commitment to the vision among followers, implement strategies to accomplish the vision, and implant new values and assumptions into the culture of the organization.

Clearly, there are many variables to consider when approaching leadership from a transformational perspective. Also evident is the consistency among the various typologies just described, suggesting validity of the approach. The applications to change in the basic course are both interesting and direct.

It should be noted that change in the basic course doesn't have to be on a large scale. BCDs as leaders could engage in various types of change: developing ways to better train TAs, switching to alternative pedagogical models for delivering instruction in the basic course (e.g., changing textbooks, adopting the Personalized System of Instruction, changing from self-contained sections to a lecture-recitation model, altering course assignments). Simply adapting to the changes imposed from the outside environment (e.g., budget cuts, expectations for the course specified by the institution itself, integration of various technologies into instruction) may force a BCD to deal with considerable change.

Having established the linkages between organizational and leadership theories and applications in the basic course, we turn now to a compilation of variables that may prove important for increasing our understanding of this important instructional context. Our discussion focuses on functional variables only, because these are the variables that relate to a transformational view of leadership in the basic course.

APPLICATION OF THE TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH TO RESEARCH IN THE BASIC COURSE

Table 1 presents a list of functional variables related to the basic course. These variables refer to the relational and communication aspects of basic course leadership: relationships with others in the institutional hierarchy, clarity and feasibility of the basic course vision, leadership characteristics of the BCD, relationship of course policies/procedures to the broader institutional vision, and congruence of the BCD's vision with visions held by others in the institution (basic course instructors, departmental faculty, the department chair/head, other faculty, other administrators, and students). The functional variables describe the thinking. acting and interacting components of being a BCD and the degree to

Table 1
Functional Variables Relevant
to Leadership in the Basic Course

FUNCTIONAL VARIABLES
Relationships:
The basic course director's relationship with...
... the department chair/head
... faculty teaching the basic course, if applicable
... faculty not teaching the basic course
... TAs teaching the basic course, if applicable
... part-time faculty teaching the course
... undergraduate facilitators in the basic course, if applicable
... students enrolled in the course
... people outside of the department
the dean of the school/college
the dean of the graduate school, if applicable
the provost
other administrators
the president of the institution
faculty in other departments
trustees
alumni
parents
The BCD's Vision for the Basic Course
Clarity of the BCD's vision
Feasibility of the BCD's vision
Leadership characteristics of the BCD
ability to manage attention
ability to manage meaning
ability to manage trust
ability to manage self
ability to recognize a need for change

- ability to facilitate a transitional process
- ability to visualize a future state
- ability to position basic course within the institution and nation wide
- ability to develop a coalition of supporters/team-building
- ability to clarify organizational values
- ability to help others develop skills
- ability to mesh goals with follower's needs/motivations ability to raise followers' levels of consciousness
- ability to help followers transcend self-interests
- ability to help followers recognize and fulfill personal needs
- ability to empower others
- ability to evaluate progress toward and away from goals

Relationship of course policies/procedures to the vision

Congruence of the BCD's vision...

- ...with that of the institution's various administrators
- ...with that of the dean of the school/college
- ...with that of the department chair/head
- ...with that of other departmental faculty
- ...with that of the various people teaching the basic course:
  - other tenure-track faculty
  - part time faculty
  - graduate teaching assistants
  - undergraduate teaching assistants
- ...with students enrolled in the course
- ...with faculty outside of the department whose students are served by the basic course

which the BCD's actions are supported or resisted by others in the institutional system.

These variables provide a basis from which those of us interested in basic course research may draw a wealth of research questions: What sorts of relationships between the BCD and other faculty facilitate change? What sorts of rela-

tionships subvert such change attempts? What happens when the BCD's vision is incongruent with that of the other faculty in the department? What happens when the BCD's vision is incongruent with that held by the basic course instructors? What communication strategies work best in such incongruent situations? Which leadership characteristics seem most important for BCDs? Which are easiest to achieve? Which are most elusive? The list goes on and on.

Clearly a laundry list of variables cannot create more significant, more applicable, or more far-reaching research in the basic course. What this list can do is begin to identify the complexity that underlies any systems analysis and point to some areas in which we can begin to apply transformational leadership theory to the basic course. We know that leadership is important in organizations. We know that BCDs are in a position to be leaders. What we do not yet know is how to advise BCDs to build upon and expand their leadership abilities, to negotiate their environments to bring others' visions into line with their own, and to promote support for the ever-changing process that we call "directing the basic course." Here is a place to start that learning/intervention process; steps BCDs can take as effective transformative leaders is a future goal to which basic course researchers/educators should aspire.

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Communication Competence: A Commentary

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During the 1992 SCA Convention, the "Competent Speaker Speech Evaluation Form" was distributed to participants during a Short Course (Morreale, *et. al.*, 1992). Other evaluation forms such as the CAAI form (Rubin, 1982; 1985) reflect ongoing efforts to define and measure communication competence. Morreale, *et. al.* (1992) conclude that "communication competence has become the significant referent with respect to the goal of communication instruction" (23). Indeed, most assessments of basic communication courses include evaluating students' communication competence as a measure of course effectiveness. The centrality of the competence construct in current pedagogical practices and course design is undeniable.

However, scholars seem to be in considerable disagreement concerning the definition of competence, its theoretical foundations, its behavioral manifestations, and its measurement. For example, some definitions focus on knowledge as the essential requirement for competence (McCroskey, 1982). Other scholars require the performance of communication skills (Bochner and Kelly, 1974; Buerkel-Rothfuss, Gray, and Yerby, 1993). Pavitt and Haight (1986), Duran (1983), and others require competent communicators to be able to adapt to differing social constraints and meet other's expectations. Some scholars suggest that competent communicators must be able to formalize and achieve communication goals

(Wiemann, 1977). Most writers combine one or more of these criteria (Rubin 1982; Spitzberg, 1983; Rosenfeld and Berko, 1990).

The different conceptualizations of competence have resulted in a conceptual quagmire which is neither enlightening nor pragmatically useful. Rubin and Henzl (1984) argue, "Teachers and researchers alike have found the literature [on communication competence] confusing since these varying perspectives are often treated as definitive statements on competence rather than the perspectives they are" (263). Defining and measuring competence first requires an analysis of the validity of the underlying perspectives. We argue that the transactional approach to communication obviates the current definitions of competence and its measurement.

ACTION AND REACTION APPROACHES TO COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

Competence is most commonly defined from the action perspective which focuses on the performance of specific communication skills. For example, McCroskey (1982) states that many definitions of competence require performance of communication skills. "Clearly, having the ability to behave in the appropriate manner is not sufficient to be judged competent, the ability must be manifest behaviorally.... To be judged competent, in other words, the person must perform competent behaviors" (2). The performance of skills by one person are evaluatively placed along a continuum of competence (Rosenfeld and Berko, 1990; Spitzberg, 1983). The more skillfully the message is encoded or decoded, the more competent the communicator. Competent communicators are those who can skillfully construct *and* deliver a message which is appropriate to the context and listener, or who can effectively listen and decipher a message.

The reaction approach focuses on the perceptions of the listener who makes the ultimate judgment of competence.

Competence is determined by whether or not the listener perceives the speaker to be competent. For example, Rubin (1985) states "One goal of the communication scholar is to understand how impressions about communication competence are formed, and to determine how knowledge, skill, and motivation lead to perceptions of competence in various context" (173). Similarly, Pavitt and Haight (1985) suggest that competence is a template by which receivers judge the appropriateness of other people's communication behaviors.

Whether viewed as a property of the speaker or a characteristic of the listener, the action and reaction approaches lead to inappropriate and/or incomplete criteria for evaluating competence. Focusing on only one element of the communication context in isolation provides a distorted picture of the complexities of communication. Separation of competence into either communicator's separate behaviors suggests that one person's behavior can be judged apart from another person's reaction. These approaches lead to three common, but problematic, methods for assessing competence: as skills, as goal attainment, and as appropriateness.

Competence as Communication Skills

The action approach, for example, suggests that competence can be determined by measuring the person's performance of specific effective communicative skills. Such assessment necessarily assumes that an ideal model of competent skills exists. Competence becomes a judgment of the closeness of fit between a person's behavioral performance and that ideal model of communication behavior. The difficulty is in determining an appropriate model that can be universally applied beyond the specific communicative event. Even in the public speaking classroom, criteria and level of competence change from assignment to assignment, from first speech to last, from beginning classes to advanced. The same performance of communicative behaviors judged as competent for

one assignment in one class are evaluated as less competent for another class or assignment. Behavior judged as competent in the classroom may be judged as incompetent in a business context.

The notion that competence is context specific (Bochner and Kelly, 1974; Spitzberg, 1983) inherently implies that different behaviors are required by different contexts. Thus, assessment of competence would require an analysis of the specific context (Spitzberg, 1991; Spitzberg and Brunner, 1991). It would also assume that different ideal models would be applicable to different contexts, such that learning one model would be insufficient to create generalized competence. Hence, Morreale, *et al.* (1992) conclude, "Given the impracticality of developing a single instrument to assess communication competence, the focus must be on developing multiple instruments or procedures for assessing competence within specific contexts" (27). Because contexts are infinitely variable, competence assessment becomes problematic.

Competence as Goal Achievement

From the action approach, competence can also be viewed in terms of "effectiveness" or achievement of goals. Although goals appear inherently measurable, they arc not. In many eases goals are ill-defined, nebulous constructs. Communicators cannot judge whether goals were attained because the goals are unknown. In other eases, goals change over time (Rosenfeld & Berko, 1990). The goals formulated prior to interaction are not necessarily the same goals created during the actual communication, or the goals realized during retrospective sense making. In most cases, multiple goals operate simultaneously to guide communicator behaviors. These goals include content and relationship objectives, short-term and long-term outcomes, and goals for self and others. Indeed, the communication goal may be to intentionally confuse the other, that is, to intentionally communicate ineffectively.

When some goals are met and not others, when short-term goals are achieved while long-term goals are not (and vice versa) or when personal goals are met while others' goals are thwarted, determining the level of competence is problematic. Similarly, communication goals cannot be ascertained by simply observing communicators' behaviors. For example, many persuasive messages achieve their effects only after time has passed (the sleeper effect) or upon repetition of messages. Conversely, competence cannot be inferred simply by measuring goal attainment. Goals are often achieved due to factors totally unrelated to the communicators' efforts such as chance, historical events, other people's communication, or changes in the receiver's experiences. Defining competence as the achievement of goals provides little constructive help in determining communication competence.

Competence as Appropriateness

The reaction view suggests that competence is judged by the receiver of the message. Regardless of the intent of the speaker, or the speaker's own assessment of communication competency, the receiver ultimately determines the effectiveness of the message. Even action definitions of competence which require "adaptation to the listener" imply that the listener is the judge of speaker ability to adapt. Just as skills are context specific, so must assessments of appropriateness. While "Valley talk" and vocalized pauses may be abhorred in the classroom and other formal situations, they are the accepted norm and required in some contexts. Direct and frequent eye contact may be appropriate for the Westernized speech classroom, it would be counterproductive in many Oriental and Native American interactions.

While, theoretically, skill performance and goal attainment may be observable phenomena, appropriateness is inherently a judgment, an inference made from a behavior or a lack of behavior. From this perspective, competence becomes

an art of rhetorical criticism rather than a empirical observation of communication behavior (Phillips, 1983). From the reaction approach, assessment of competence changes depending on the specific person evaluating it and that person's critical, analytical abilities. Measuring competence, therefore, depends on determining which person's judgment is valid. The appropriateness criteria places competence in the receiver's skills, knowledge, and acumen rather than on the speaker's communicative ability.

A TRANSACTIONAL APPROACH TO COMPETENCE

Most basic communication textbooks and communication scholars accede that communication is a transactional process, that is, communication involves the simultaneous sending and receiving of messages by all communication interactants. The transaction approach, however, is more than simultaneity of message exchange. It implies that people mutually create communication through their joint behaviors. The approach changes the focus of communication from the message (action) and subsequent feedback (reaction) to the creation of shared meaning. Meanings for extant communicative behaviors is derived from the communicators' private experiences, emotional and physiological states, and perceptual constraints as modified by the social and physical contexts. Communication, therefore, is a mutually created, nonlinear, socially constructed event among interdependent interactants.

If communication is transactional then communication competence is also mutually created (Yoder, *et al.,* 1993). Competence is not a judgment about what a speaker OR a listener does in isolation, but what both people simultaneously and mutually create. For example, a good listener can compensate for a poorly constructed message or can help the other person clarify their message. Conversely, a message which

meets all *a priori* requirements of an ideal speech may be negated by a receiver's inadequate listening skills or perceptual biases. Similarly, a person can construct a message which overcomes listening barriers. Relational partners may implicitly understand messages which are indecipherable to anyone outside the relationship.

In each of these cases, mutual understanding was created but it is impossible to assess that one person alone is a competent communicator. Rather, the assessment must be on whether the communication is more or less competent. If people develop mutual agreement on the meaning of their communication, the communication was competent regardless of the adequacy of the individual communicators' skills. If people cannot or do not create shared meaning, then it seems contradictory to suggest either was a competent communicator.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE BASIC COMMUNICATION COURSE

We have argued that most definitions and measurements of communication competence are based on the action or reaction approaches to communication. Assessing the adequacy of communication behaviors apart from the context and relationship of the participants is at best arbitrary and inherently biased. Determining an ideal model by which to compare individuals' performances of communication skills is counterproductive since no model can generalize to all communication contexts and development of models for each context becomes infinitely complex. Measuring goal achievement as an indicator of competent communication requires an unwarranted assumption that goals can be reliably and validly defined and that a person's communication behavior was a sufficient and necessary cause of the actual outcome. Yet measuring instruments based on the action and reaction approaches continue to be developed.

Indeed, communication competence may not even be observable to an outside viewer. One reason for this is that judgments about communication competence (from the transactional approach) are dependent upon the shared histories ***and*** the relationship of the communicators. For an outside observer to judge communication competence in a long term relationship would be as difficult for someone to assess communication competence in a newly-formed relationship. In addition, participants may alter their judgments of communication competence over time. That is, with additional information about their communication, participants may retroactively adjust their judgments of competence from a particular situation.

The Competent Speaker Form

Morreale, *et al.* state, "***The Competent Speaker*** speech evaluation form is an assessment instrument designed to evaluate/rate observable public speaking skills/behaviors of college students. ... The instrument can be used to evaluate skills/behaviors as opposed to knowledge or motivation. It assesses both verbal and nonverbal behavior and remote preparation skills" (3). The ***Competent Speaker Form*** consists of eight competencies, four related to delivery and four related to speech preparation

The eight competencies identified are (Morreale, *et al.*, 8-15):

COMPETENCY 1: Chooses and Narrows a Topic Appropriately for the Audience and Occasion.

COMPETENCY 2: Communicates the Thesis/Specific Purpose in a manner Appropriate for the Audience and Occasion.

COMPETENCY 3: Provides Supporting Material Appropriate to the Audience and Occasion.

COMPETENCY 4: Uses an Organizational Pattern Appropriate to the Topic, Audience, Occasion, and Purpose.

COMPETENCY 5: Uses Language Appropriate to the Audience and Occasion.

COMPETENCY 6: Uses Vocal Variety in Rate, Pitch, and Intensity (Volume) to Heighten and Maintain Interest Appropriate to the Audience and Occasion.

COMPETENCY 7: Uses Pronunciation, Grammar, and Articulation Appropriate to the Audience and Occasion.

COMPETENCY 8: Uses Physical Behaviors That Support the Verbal Message.

Criticism of the Form. We have three general criticisms of ***The Competent Speaker*** evaluation form. These include: (1) the ability to discriminate the levels of competence, (2) the generalizations from the teacher's point of view to the audience as a whole, and (3) the cultural narrowness of the competencies.

First, the discriminations needed to determine "above average," "high," "very high," "appropriate," and "exceptional" levels of competence are not clearly defined or adequately defended. These discriminations call for subjective judgments of quality of "ideal" behaviors as opposed to relational dimensions which impact understanding and the degree of communication competence achieved. The differences between these gradations are vague and not universally accepted. For example, Morreale, *et al.* suggest it is important a speaker demonstrate "insightful audience analysis" (8). There are no universal standards for appropriateness, much less "exceptional" appropriateness. In ***Competency 3,*** the authors expect speakers to use "supporting material that is exceptional in quality and variety" (10). There are recognized difficulties in

determining the differences between "exceptional quality" and "quality" sources as well as "exceptional variety" and "variety." Unless we are willing and able to designate what exceptional quality sources are and what exceptional variety means, this competency will be difficult to apply in any communication situation.

Second, these competencies are based on generalizations from the teacher's point of view to the audience as a whole. This leap to criteria application is diametrically opposed to the transactional view of communication competence. Each relationship between speaker and member of the audience is important. Competence will be determined by the understanding developed between the speaker and *each* listener. In assessing skills for appropriateness to audience and occasion, it is difficult to know if the skills are "appropriate" to *each* member of the audience. It is difficult to believe that we, as communication educators, want to place ourselves in the position of determining for an audience, whether in a classroom of 20 students or for an audience of 200, 2000, or 20000 people that a speaker is competent — a reactional view of communication competence.

Third, these competencies *are* culturally narrow. Even though Morreale, *et al.* claim, "Each competency is assessed with respect to appropriateness for the audience and the occasion; thus cultural and other biases are avoided" (3); there are cultural issues remaining when the competencies are applied in a specific communication situation. For example, ***Competency 2*** calls for the speaker to communicate "a thesis/specific purpose that is exceptionally clear and identifiable" (Morreale *et al.*, 9). This is a culturally biased, Western model of speech development. In addition, it does *not* account for the use of the Motivated Sequence (where the speaker's specific purpose is revealed after the Need Step) or climactic or unfolding speech organization patterns. Another example is evident in Competency 7, which calls for "exceptional articulation, pronunciation, and grammar" (14). The problem with this compe-

tency is clear. Obvious problems arise for English-as-a-Second Language students. These students have different articulation, pronunciation, and grammar practices. If we apply our Western (American) rules to these students' speeches, they will have difficulties meeting the standards for exceptional performance in these three categories from ***The Competent Speaker*** form. The problems with this competency are not only intercultural in nature, there are problems within communication classes at U.S. colleges and universities, too. For example, does a person with a Southern or New York accent have to change if talking to a Midwestern audience? Does a person with a Midwestern accent have to change when talking to a Southern audience? Finally, in ***Competency 8***, which calls for speakers to use "exceptional posture, gestures, bodily movements, facial expressions, eye contact, and use of dress" (15). In some cultures, eye contact is inappropriate. In some cultures, some common American gestures are offensive. There are many different views of appropriate dress (Molloy, 1975 & 1977).

CONCLUSION

The transactional approach to communication competence requires that our discipline escape from the pedagogical trap of professing to teach people to be competent communicators. At best, we can teach a few specific communication skills. We can demonstrate students' abilities to perform these skills, and we can demonstrate improvement in their performance as a result of a basic communication course. We cannot, and should not, claim that we have created competent or incompetent communicators. The skills and knowledge taught in the basic course do not guarantee goal attainment nor are they necessarily applicable to non-classroom cultures and situations. Indeed, many of the skills taught in the basic course are inapplicable, inappropriate, and even unnecessary to many relationships and contexts.

The basic course barely scratches the surface of the knowledge necessary to understand the intricacies of human communication. By necessity, the basic course can examine only a minute number of contexts and situations. Evaluation of students' communication abilities are based on a few minutes of observation as they perform arbitrary assignments in an artificial environment. That is very little on which to base an assessment that the student is a competent communicator.

What we can, and should, profess to teach is a knowledge base which can help students make informed analysis and judgments about their past, present, and future communication interactions. We can, and should, teach skills that students can use in a variety of communication contexts. We can, and should, discuss and demonstrate communication strategies that might be helpful in future interactions. In essence, the basic course can, and should, create an awareness of the processes of communication and development of a repertoire of communication skills and strategies that increase the students' chances of creating competent communication with others.

Communication competence is a judgment made by the participants in a specific communication transaction. It is neither a characteristic of an individual communicator nor a simple aggregate of observable communication behaviors. To label a student as a competent or incompetent communicator is a misrepresentation of the tenets of transactional communication. The basic communication course should focus on increasing students' proficiency in communication skills, improving students' ability to make informed analyses of communication situations, and enhancing students' capability to adapt to diverse communication contexts. Let's get out of the business of proclaiming a student as competent or incompetent based on a few weeks of lessons and a limited number of performances in an artificial environment.

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Call for Papers

The Basic Course Commission of the Speech Communication Association welcomes submissions to be considered for *The Basic Communication Course Annual VI* to be published in 1994. All submissions must follow the latest APA Publication Manual or they will be returned to the author. Manuscripts will be reviewed competitively by at least three reviewers.

Include a 75- to 100-word abstract of the article with the manuscript. In addition, be sure to submit an author identification paragraph following the format used in this volume. Both the abstract and author identification paragraph must accompany your submission. Each manuscript will be sent out for blind review upon receipt. Please make sure all author and institutional identification are removed from the text of the manuscript. Send four (4) copies of your manuscript *and* all accompanying materials to:

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All submissions must be complete and postmarked no later than January 1, 1994. Late submissions run the risk of not being considered for publication in the *Basic Communication Course Annual VI.*

Editorial Philosophy

The Basic Communication Course Annual examines current introductory communication course research and pedagogical issues. Articles may be experimental, theoretical, or applied in nature. Each submission will be initially reviewed blindly by three manuscript reviewers. Additionally, the top competitive papers (one from the "research" program, the other from the "pedagogy" program) presented at SCA and sponsored by the Basic Course Commission will be published each year. Following established editorial policy, these papers will be published only after going through the professional review process that may require substantive revisions.