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LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the fourth volume of the *Academy of Managerial Communications Journal.* The Academy of Managerial Communications is an affiliate of the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The *AMCJ* is a principal vehicle for achieving the objectives of the organization. The editorial mission of this journal is to publish empirical and theoretical manuscripts which advance the discipline, and applied, educational and pedagogic papers of practical value to practitioners and educators. We look forward to a long and successful career in publishing articles which will be of value to the many communications scholars around the world.

The articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed. The acceptance rate for manuscripts in this issue, 25%, conforms to our editorial policies.

We intend to foster a supportive, mentoring effort on the part of the referees which will result in encouraging and supporting writers. We welcome different viewpoints because in differences we find learning; in differences we develop understanding; in differences we gain knowledge; and, in differences we develop the discipline into a more comprehensive, less esoteric, and dynamic metier.

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Maryanne Brandenburg
Editor
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

COMMUNICATION ARTICLES

DISTANCE LEARNING: BUSINESS STUDENT EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Technology mediated distance learning is changing the pedagogical environment for business schools. Two major factors that have spurred the growth of distance learning are the exponentially increasing power of informational technology and a dramatic increase in the ranks of non-traditional students. An increasing number of universities, both large and small, currently offer entire degree programs in a distance learning environment. Distance learning allows the sharing of information and costs among multiple sites, provides educational opportunities for distant or disadvantaged locations, and introduces students to the use of information technology used by businesses.

While distance learning may be a growing trend, there is limited evidence regarding student experiences and perceptions of distance learning courses and the effectiveness of this method. This paper examines 565 business student responses, enrolled in a variety of distance learning business courses at a regional university, to a questionnaire administered in a distance learning course.

The results indicate that remote students tend to be non-traditional students that outperform the traditional on-site students, as indicated by their course grades. Remote students perceive the effectiveness of class discussions and group projects to be higher than the on-site students. There is no significant difference between remote and on-site students' perception about the quality of instruction and technology, with both groups rating these criteria high. An overwhelming majority of both remote and on-site students indicate that they feel this is an appropriate course to be offered in the future and will be willing to enroll in another distance learning course.

In conclusion, the positive perceptions and experiences of business students, both remote and on-site, are a clear indication that effective use of this media of instruction can create a pedagogically effective learning environment. These results have implications for school administrators and policy makers who are either considering expanding the number and range of courses offered in a distance learning format or are getting ready to offer these courses for the first time. Also, instructors of distance learning courses can benefit tremendously from feedback about students' perceptions of these courses.

INTRODUCTION

Technology mediated distance learning is changing the pedagogical environment for business schools. Two major factors that have spurred the growth of distance learning are the exponentially increasing power of informational technology and a dramatic increase in the ranks of non-traditional students. Compression technologies, increased computing power and speed, reduced costs, and an increased comfort level with technology have all combined to contribute to the growth in distance learning. In addition, the remarkable growth of part-time, non-residential, non-traditional students has further increased the demand for distance learning (Hubbard, 1997; Green, 1996).

An increasing number of universities, both large and small, currently offer entire degree programs in a distance learning environment. A recent survey indicated that more than half of the 2,215 four-year colleges and universities in the U.S. offer distance learning courses (Gubernick & Ebeling, 1997; Vasarhelyi & Graham, 1997). The trend toward distance education has been so strong that Peter Drucker, in a recent issue of Forbes, commented that the demise of university campuses was inevitable.

Distance learning offers a number of benefits. First, it allows the sharing of information and costs among multiple sites, giving schools that implement distance learning programs a competitive advantage (Webster & Hackley, 1997). Second, it provides educational opportunities for distant or disadvantaged locations, giving schools that offer this program the opportunity to tap new market segments (Walsh & Reese, 1995). Third, it introduces students to the use of information technology used by businesses (Leidner & Jarvenpaa, 1993).

While distance learning may be a growing trend, there is limited evidence regarding student experiences and perceptions of distance learning courses and the effectiveness of this method. This paper examines student responses to a questionnaire administered in a distance learning course. 565 business students, enrolled in a variety of distance learning business courses at a regional university are surveyed. The purpose of this study is to examine demographic differences between on-site and remote students and investigate differences between on-site and remote students' perceptions regarding quality of instruction, effectiveness of class discussions, group projects, quality of technology, and support services. Also, student willingness to enroll in future distance learning courses and comments about the advantages and disadvantages of enrolling in a distance learning course are examined. These results have implications for school administrators and policy makers who are either considering expanding the number and range of courses offered in a distance learning format or are getting ready to offer these courses for the first time. Also, instructors of distance learning courses can benefit tremendously from feedback about students' perceptions of these courses.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. First, various distance learning delivery formats are reviewed. Next, the class environment in which distance learning courses are offered at a regional university is described. The following section provides a review of prior research and the development of hypotheses to be tested in this study. Then, the data collection process and research methodology is discussed. This is followed by the results of the test of the hypotheses. The final section summarizes the results of the study and provides conclusions and implications.

DELIVERY FORMATS

A wide variety of delivery formats are used in distance learning courses. Traditionally, print-based correspondence courses have been the dominant delivery mechanism, primarily due to affordability (Potashnik, 1998). More recently, however, delivery tools have expanded to include interactive videos, television, Internet based-courses, compressed video, cable television, and satellite broadcasting (Potashnik, 1998; Chadwick, 1995). While some formats have some direct one-on-one interaction between instructor and student (e.g. interactive videos, television, and satellite broadcasting), others offer virtually no interaction (e.g. Internet based courses, print media based courses, and complete on-line courses). Each format offers and presents unique advantages and disadvantages. This paper focuses on distance learning courses offered in an interactive television format via satellite-broadcasting at a regional state university of approximately 10,000 students. Instructors present course material to on-site students in a traditional setting which is simultaneously broadcast to remote students at one or more distant location.

CLASS ENVIRONMENT

Distance learning courses are offered in a special classroom equipped with the necessary technology to facilitate this medium of instruction. Four big-screen TV's are located in each of the four-corners of the classroom. Two monitors focus on the instructor while the other two focus on the students. Instructors teaching distance learning classes are provided with on-site and off-site facilitators who manage the equipment. Instructors wear a microphone and have to restrict movement in the class in order to avoid being out of camera range. Instructors have the choice of either writing on the regular "blackboard" or the "whiteboard". The whiteboard is similar to an overhead transparency machine and has a surface area large enough to hold a regular 8.50 X 110 sheet of paper. Most instructors preferred the whiteboard since they could use pre-prepared notes. The on-site facilitator moves the camera between the instructor and the whiteboard. The remote-site facilitator focuses the camera on students who have comments or questions. The class is equipped with a telephone and a fax machine.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The non-traditional student is rapidly making up the new majority in college education [1] (Hubbard, 1997; Green, 1996). According to the U.S. Department of Education, the percentage of non-traditional students enrolled in universities has increased by nearly a third between 1972 and 1994. The changing student demographic has direct implications for the continued growth in distance learning. Since residency requirements are either minimal or non-existent for distance learning courses, it provides an ideal opportunity for the non-traditional students to enroll in courses which they otherwise may not have been able to take. If a majority of the remote site students are non-traditional and this student segment is growing rapidly, this is a direct indication to universities, who are currently offering distance learning programs, to expand the number and range of these courses. It is also a reminder to universities, who currently do not offer distance learning courses,

that they can no longer afford the luxury of ignoring the growth in the non-traditional student population. This led to the development of the following hypotheses.

H1a: A greater proportion of remote students will be part-time students as compared to on-site students.

H1b: The average age of the remote students will be greater than the average age of the on-site students.

One way to measure the effectiveness of a distance learning program is by student performance, as measured by the course grade. Recent research has indicated mixed results. Some researchers have found little or no significant difference between the performance of students given face-to-face interaction (on-site students) and interactive television interaction (remote students) (Alavi, Yoo & Vogel, 1997; Storck & Sproull, 1995; Wetzel, Radtke & Stern, 1994). However, Seay and Milkman (1994), who examined 75 students enrolled in an interactive television distance learning cost accounting course, found that remote students outperformed on-site students. This led to the second hypothesis.

H2: There will be no significant difference between the average grades of the remote and on-site students.

Continued growth in distance learning will, to a large extent, be driven by student perception of the quality of instruction in these courses as compared to the conventional course. If students perceive the quality of distance learning courses lower than conventional courses, instructors and administrators will want to know the reasons and formulate strategies to overcome these perceptions. On-site students are expected to have a more positive perception of the quality of instruction since they have the benefit of face-to-face interaction with the instructor and have better access to information about the material and the instructor (Storck & Sproull, 1995). This led to the third hypothesis.

H3: On-site students will have a more positive perception of the quality of instruction as compared to remote students.

Educators have consistently indicated that learning outcomes are best achieved through the active involvement of students beyond passive note taking (Alavi, Wheeler & Valacich, 1995; Catchpole, 1993). A common problem associated with distance learning is the difficulty in eliciting

active student involvement in class discussions. In order to examine whether remote students perceive the effectiveness of class discussions to be lower than on-site students, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H4: On-site students will perceive the effectiveness of class discussions to be higher than remote students.

Most instructors teaching the distance learning courses either assigned in-class group assignments, out-of-class group assignments, or a combination of both. While the absence of personal interaction with the instructor may be a disadvantage for the remote students as far as the effectiveness of class discussions were concerned, this is not a factor for group assignments. Remote students had an equal opportunity to interact with their group members as the on-site students had to interact with their group members. This led to the fifth hypothesis.

H5: There will be no significant difference between remote and on-site students' perceptions of the effectiveness of group projects.

The quality and reliability of the technology used is an important attribute for the successful implementation of distance learning courses (Goodhue &Thompson, 1995), especially when instruction is centered around the technology (Sandholtz, Ringstaff & Dwyer, 1992). The successful implementation of distance learning courses will depend on students' perception of the quality of technology used (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989). It is expected that there will be no significant difference between on-site and remote students' perception of the quality of technology used. However, the perceived quality of technology is expected to influence students' willingness to enroll in future distance learning courses. This led to the sixth and seventh hypotheses.

H6: There will be no significant difference between remote and on-site students' perception of the quality of technology used.

H7: The perception of the quality of technology used will be positively correlated to the students' willingness to enroll in a future distance learning course.

In addition to the perceived quality of instruction and technology, the success of the distance learning program will also depend, to a large extent, on the support services provided by the institution. The support services specifically examined in this study relate to registration,

quality/reliability of site facilitators, turnaround time for receiving materials from the professor, and library services provided.

A majority of students, both on-site and remote, registered for classes either by using the on-line Web registration system or the automated telephone registration system. Since location is not an influencing factor in this regard, it is hypothesized that there will be no significant difference between on-site and remote students with respect to registration.

Both on-site and remote locations had facilitators available to handle the distance learning equipment. Both facilitators received similar training sessions on handling the equipment. For this reason, it is hypothesized that there will be no significant difference between on-site and remote students' perceived quality/reliability of site facilitators.

Due to geographical reasons, on-site students are expected to rate the turnaround time for receiving materials back from the instructor more favorably than the remote students (Alavi et al., 1995).

And finally, it is expected that on-site students will have access to better library facilities as compared to remote students since off-campus/branch location library facilities are typically not as extensive as those available to students at the major campus. Based on the above, the following hypotheses are proposed with respect to the support services.

H8a: There will be no significant difference between on-site and remote students with respect to registration.

H8b: There will be no significant difference between on-site and remote students' perception of the quality/reliability of site facilitators.

H8c: On-site students will rate the turnaround time for receiving materials back from the instructor more favorably than the remote students.

H8d: On-site students will rate the library services more favorably than the remote students.

Finally, the likelihood of on-site and remote students enrolling in future distance learning courses is examined. Because of the several advantages available to the on-site students, with respect to greater personal interaction and better support services, it is logical to expect that they should be more likely to enroll in future distance learning courses as compared to the remote students. However, remote students' judgments may be biased by the fact that if the distance learning course were not offered, they would have had no other options available to them to enroll

in these courses. Remote students therefore may be more likely to state that they are willing to enroll in these courses in future and that these courses continue to be offered in future. Also, based on informal conversations with students, it was apparent that on-site students enrolled in distance learning courses primarily because of a lack of any other option [2]. It is expected that remote students' judgment bias will override any potential advantages available to the on-site students with respect to greater personal interaction and better support services.

H9a: A higher proportion of remote students will be likely to feel that the course they are enrolled in is an appropriate course to be offered in future in a distance learning environment as compared to on-site students.

H9b: A higher proportion of remote students will be willing to enroll in another distance learning course in the future as compared to on-site students.

DATA COLLECTION AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Business students (both on-site and remote) enrolled in distance learning courses at a regional state university were required to complete a "Distance Learning Student Evaluation" questionnaire at the end of the semester. This questionnaire contained 20 questions, some of which were required to be answered on a 5-point Likert scale, some on a yes/no/undecided category, while others required a narrative response. Questions included, but were not limited to, student perception of the quality of instruction and technology, effectiveness of group interactions and class discussions, support services provided, appropriateness of offering similar courses in future, willingness to enroll in a distance learning course in future, and advantages and disadvantages of enrolling in a distance learning course. Responses of 565 students enrolled in a wide variety of business courses over a two-year time period, Fall 1996 to Spring 1998, are examined.

Data is analyzed using either a two-sample t-test to compare differences between on-site and remote student responses to the Likert scale questions or a Chi-square test to compare differences between on-site and remote student responses requiring a yes/no/undecided response.

TABLE 1

Course	Semester	Number of Students Enrolled		
		On-Site	Remote	Total
1. Principles of Financial Accounting	Spring 98	26	8	34
2. Principles of Managerial Accounting	Summer 98	22	4	26
3. Principles of Microeconomics	Summer 98	19	3	22
4. Principles of Macroeconomics	Spring 98	25	7	32
5. Financial Management	Fall 97	19	11	30
6. Organizational Behavior & Mgt.	Fall 96	23	25	48
7. Production & Operations Mgt.	Summer 97	26	16	42
8. Small Business Mgt.	Winter 97	25	18	43
9. Human Resources Mgt.	Summer 97	33	16	49
10. Organizational Analysis & Design	Fall 97	25	15	40
11. International Mgt.	Spring 97	25	16	41
12. Fundamentals of Information Sys.	Winter 97	21	16	37
13. Adm.of Business Information Sys.	Spring 98	26	14	40
14. Introduction to Marketing	Fall 96	17	19	36
15. Marketing & Behavioral Sciences	Winter 98	15	8	23
16. International Marketing	Spring 98	13	9	22
TOTAL		360	205	565

RESULTS

Consistent with expectations, a significantly greater proportion of remote students (82%) are part-time students as compared to on-site students (42%) ($P = 131.41$, $p = 0.0000$).

TABLE 2			
	On-site	**Remote**	**Total**
# of full-time students	208 (58%)	36 (18%)	244
# of part-time students	152 (42%)	169 (82%)	321
Totals	**360**	**205**	**565**

Also, the average age of the remote students (31 years) is significantly higher than the average age of the on-site students (27 years) ($t = 6.42$, $p = 0.00$). These results indicate that remote students are typically non-traditional, i.e. older, part-time students as compared to on-site students who are typically traditional, i.e. younger and attending school full-time.

Consistent with Seay and Milkman (1994) but contrary to Alavi et. al (1997), Storck and Sproull (1995), and Wetzel et. al (1994), the performance of the remote students, as indicated by their course grades, is significantly better than the on-site students ($t = 4.39$, $p = 0.00$). The average grade of the remote students is 3.216 (on a scale of 4) whereas the average grade of the on-site students is 2.826.

On-site students were expected to have a more positive perception of the quality of instruction since they have the benefit of face-to-face interaction with the instructor and have better access to information about the material and the instructor. However, contrary to expectations, remote students did *not* differ from the on-site students in their perception about the quality of instruction received ($t = .41$, $p = .34$). The more important finding, however, was that *both* groups of students had a perception of high quality instruction (mean score of 4.2 for the remote students and 4.1 for the on-site students, on a scale of 5).

It was expected that on-site students would perceive the effectiveness of class discussions to be higher than remote students since a common problem associated with distance learning is the difficulty in eliciting active student involvement in class discussions. Contrary to expectations, however, remote students felt that the effectiveness of class discussions in a distance learning environment was significantly higher as compared to the on-site students ($t = 4.67$, $p = 0.00$).

It was hypothesized that there will be no significant difference between remote and on-site students' perceptions of the effectiveness of group projects since both groups of students had similar opportunities for interaction with their respective group members. However, the results indicate that remote students had a significantly higher perception of the effectiveness of group projects than on-site students ($t = 3.90$, $p = 0.00$).

It was expected that there will be no significant difference between remote and on-site students' perception of the quality of technology used. Consistent with expectations, the results indicate that there is no significant difference between on-site and remote students with respect to the perception of quality of technology used ($t = 0.91$, $p = 0.18$). Also reassuring is the fact that both groups of students had a perception of high quality of technology being used (4.20 for the on-site and 4.28 for the remote students, on a scale of 5). Also, consistent with expectations, the perception

of the quality of technology used is significantly and positively correlated to the students' willingness to enroll in a future distance learning course ($t = 5.95$, $p = 0.00$).

Next, student responses to the support services provided were examined. Contrary to expectations, remote students rated the registration facility and the quality/reliability of the site facilitator significantly higher than the on-site students ($t = 2.25$, $p = 0.01$ and $t = 7.32$, $p = 0.00$) respectively. Due to geographical reasons, on-site students were expected to rate the turnaround time for receiving materials back from the instructor more favorably than the remote students. The results were consistent with expectations, with the on-site students rating the turnaround time for receiving materials back from the instructor marginally higher than the remote students ($t = 1.39$, $p = 0.08$). Finally, it was expected that on-site students would rate the library services more favorably than the remote students. However, the results indicate that there was no significant difference in this regard ($t = 0.66$, $p = 0.26$).

Consistent with expectations, a significantly higher proportion of remote students ($P = 12.57$, $0.0025 < p > 0.005$) felt that the course they were enrolled in was an appropriate course to be offered in future in a distance learning environment. A more interesting finding, however, was the fact that an overwhelming majority of *both* remote (90%) and on-site students (76%) were of the opinion that it was appropriate to offer the distance learning course in future.

TABLE 3

"Do you feel that this is an appropriate course to be offered in the future via distance learning"

	On-site	**Remote**	**Total**
Yes	178 (76%)	136 (90%)	314
No	34 (14%)	8 (05%)	42
Undecided	23 (10%)	7 (05%)	30
Total	**235**	**151**	**386**

Also consistent with expectations, a significantly higher proportion of remote students ($P = 47.74$, $p < 0.005$) stated that they would be willing to enroll in another distance learning course in future. A more interesting finding, however, was the fact that an overwhelming majority of *both* remote (95%) and on-site students (65%) were in favor of this medium of instruction.

TABLE 4			
"Would you be willing to enroll in another distance learning course in the future"			
	On-site	**Remote**	**Total**
Yes	153 (65%)	144 (95%)	297
No	51 (22%)	3 (02%)	54
Undecided	31(13%)	4 (03%)	35
Total	**235**	**151**	**386**

Students were also asked to comment on the advantages and disadvantages experienced from enrolling in a distance learning course. The most frequently cited advantage by remote students was not having to travel long distances to take the course (89%). The most frequently cited advantages by on-site students were the opportunity to register for a course that they may not otherwise have been able to take (12%) and exposure to a new method of instruction (10%). The most frequently cited disadvantages by remote students were lack of personal rapport (38%), technical problems (24%), and distractions caused by simultaneous interactions by students from more than one site (22%). The most frequently cited disadvantages by on-site students were technical problems (34%) and distractions for the same reason as mentioned above (19%).

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Distance learning is rapidly changing the pedagogical environment for most educational institutions. Business schools are attempting to integrate the use of information technology to harness the varied advantages of offering courses in a distance learning environment. However, little research has addressed the efficacy of this medium of instruction. An attempt is made in this paper to develop an initial conceptualization regarding student demographics, teaching effectiveness, quality of support services, and learning outcomes utilizing student reactions to distance learning courses.

The results indicate that remote students who enroll in distance learning courses tend to be non-traditional, part-time students as compared to on-site students who are typically traditional, full-time students. This finding, combined with the fact that the non-traditional student segment is growing rapidly, has direct implications for universities. It should encourage universities that are currently offering distance learning programs, to expand the number and range of these courses. It is also a reminder to universities, who currently do not offer distance learning courses, that they can no longer afford the luxury of ignoring the growth in this medium of instruction.

The results indicate that remote students tend to perform significantly better than the on-site students, as indicated by their course grades. To the extent that student performance is an indicator of the effectiveness of a distance learning program, this is a positive result. This finding may be due,

however, to the fact that non-traditional students generally outperform traditional students (Ely, 1997) because of greater self-discipline and superior study ethics.

Remote students rate the effectiveness of class discussions and group projects significantly higher than the on-site students. If, as indicated by recent research, learning outcomes are best achieved through the active involvement of students, this bodes well for the future of distance learning programs. Anecdotal evidence suggests that lower on-site student ratings on these criteria may be driven by their perception of distractions caused by remote students intervening in class discussions.

There was no significant difference between the remote and on-site students' perception of the quality of technology used in the distance learning classroom, with both group of students having a perception oh high quality. Also, as expected, the perception of the quality of technology used is significantly and positively correlated to the students' willingness to enroll in a future distance learning course. These findings are important since the quality and reliability of the technology used is an important attribute for the successful implementation of distance learning courses.

Examination of student responses to the quality of the support services indicated that the remote students rated the registration facility and the quality/reliability of the site facilitator significantly higher than the on-site students, whereas the on-site students rated the turnaround time for feedback provided by the instructor marginally higher than the remote students. There was no difference between the two groups of students with respect to library services.

An interesting finding, however, was that in spite of significantly higher ratings by remote students on several criteria, there was *no* significant difference between remote and on-site students with respect to the perceived quality of instruction. Both groups of students rated the quality of instruction very highly. This result, combined with the finding that an overwhelming majority of *both* remote and on-site students indicated that they would be willing to enroll in another distance learning course, has positive implications for the continued growth in distance learning.

In conclusion, the positive perceptions of students, both remote and on-site, with respect to quality of instruction, effectiveness of class discussions, group projects, quality of technology, and support services, are a clear indication that effective use of this media of instruction can create a pedagogically effective learning environment.

ENDNOTES

1 The non-traditional student is defined as an adult, age 25 or older, working full-time, and returning to school, usually as a part-time student.

2 Typically, most distance learning courses were offered in the late evening hours and on-site students registered for these courses simply because all other classes were full.

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DOING THINGS WITH WORDS: ANALYZING CONVERSATIONS ON PRIVACY NEWSGROUPS

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ABSTRACT

Strategic uses of information technology based on personal information may raise privacy concerns among consumers. More and more people are aware of the fact that computer misuse and information privacy has become an important ethical issue. Much literature in this area investigates organization practices, or interview people to understand their attitude toward privacy. Recently, research has been focused on individuals' perceptions of organizational information privacy practices through questionnaires (Culna, 1993; Milberg, et al., 1995; Smith, 1994; Stone, 1990). Qualitative methodology, however, provides another solution because qualitative data is a source of rich descriptions and explanations of processes in identifiable local contexts. This study adopts the speech act theory (SAT) to understand people's intention for privacy behind their speech. Based on the concept of speech act theory, each speech corresponds to a sort of action and this action reveals the speaker's intention. SAT provides a framework to analyze one's privacy concerns. We collected and analyzed several complete posts on the privacy board of a newsgroup (alt.private.investigator). The results show that a consensus can be made using constative and directive forces when the participants have a shared pre-understanding. In contrast, if there is no shared pre-understanding between the participants, they will spend much time clarifying questions rather than solving problems. Furthermore, the gaps among the speaker assumptions are another factor that will cause the discussion to fail.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, more and more corporations use information technology to collect, store and analyze their consumers' personal information. This causes people to pay more attention to the issues of privacy invasion and how their personal data is used. Much of the literatures has investigated consumers attitudes toward privacy through exploring organizational practices, interviewing people or questionnaire surveys (Culna, 1993; Smith, et al, 1995; Smith, 1996). These approaches lack of a depth understanding for measuring individuals' concerns about information privacy. Qualitative methodology provides another solution because qualitative data is a source of

rich descriptions and explanations of processes identifiable in local contexts. Qualitative research can be conducted in dozens of ways and one of these methodologies is to analyze human discourses about privacy. Discourse analysis concerns speakers utterances in a social context. It emphasizes the latent meaning of utterances, such as implication, metaphor, and analog. In this area, the speech act theory is a well-known theory. It is a useful tool for revealing the privacy intention behind a speaker's utterance (Searle, 1979; 1992). A person has an intention to communicate something with others when he or she says something. This communication is successful only when the hearer recognizes the speaker's intention (Bach & Harnish, 1979). In other words, there are actions behind the utterances. These actions can be analyzed into different illocutionary forces. Many studies have discussed the issue of speech acts (Austin;1962; Searle, et al.,1969;1985;1992; Bach, et al.,1979). Among these , Austin and Searle produced critical contributions to the speech act theory. Austin (1962) produced the successful performance of an illocutionary. Searle (1979) extended illocutionary acts into linguistic structure.

This study is an exploratory study that investigated the privacy concerns of people by observing and analyzing discussions on a privacy board in a newsgroup. The objectives of this study are several. First, we hope to provide another way to analyze human attitudes or intentions toward privacy issues. Privacy is too sensitive to measure human attitudes, intentions and value judgments directly through a questionnaire or field study. The discourse analysis and speech act theory provides an opportunity to explore the underlying concerns of privacy through analyzing human discourses and conversations. Second, what factors bring a consensus is an interesting question. The illocutionary forces involved in discussions may result in different communication consequences. It is important to explore if some specific illocutionary forces would facilitate creating a consensus. Third, the different assumptions or background knowledge of the speakers and hearers will degrade the discussion. People in different areas hold various assumptions toward privacy issues. For example, in the United States, the pre-understanding of privacy is as a fundamental right . These diverse definitions of information privacy will influence human interaction in consensus-making conversation.

Our study is organized as follows. The next section provides a brief review of privacy studies and speech act theory. Austin and Searle's taxonomies of illocutionary forces are then introduced. The third section discusses the data analysis. In the fourth section, the discourse and the illocutionary acts are examined. The final section is the conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Privacy

Information systems (IS) are an integral part of business today. However, the ease of accessing data by IS poses some problems. Information privacy is one of the most significant issues. Many researches are concerned with information privacy (HEW, 1973; PPSC, 1977; Westin, 1967; Westin, et al., 1972). Stone (1983) defines information privacy as the ability of the individual to personally control information about one's self. Recently researches have focused on

individuals' perceptions and organizational information privacy practices (Culna, 1993; Milberg, et al., 1995; Smith, 1994; Stone, 1990). For example, Stone (1990) developed a model for information flows and physical/social structures in the work environment. Culna (1993) tested an exploratory model and Smith (1994) developed a model that explains corporate approaches to information privacy policymaking.

Information privacy has also become a major issue across nations. In the United States, privacy laws are aimed primarily to protect citizens from the government. Protecting individuals from abuses by private sector or record-holders has been legislated in a very targeted manner (Reidenberg, 1992). In contract to the U.S., the European Community has issued a draft directive on data protection. Thus, the approach in the United States is different from the European approach where omnibus data protection laws have been enacted to provide a basis for the government to protect citizens from abuses in the private sector and supply individuals with a set of rights related to private sector record-keeping practices.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to assess the significance of any particular study (Straub, 1990) and this becomes particularly problematic in developing a research stream (Smith, 1996). It is difficult to compare or accumulate findings from quantitative studies if they do not consider the differences among privacy assumptions. Another way to build a holistic picture of the privacy issue is needed.

Speech Act Theory

The Speech Act Theory was proposed by Austin (1962). He suggested that people speak not merely to exercise their vocal cords but to communicate something to the hearer. When a speaker says something, that person has a certain intention and the communication succeeds only when the listener recognizes that intention (Bach & Harnish, 1979). There are certain actions inferred behind an utterance. Each speech act corresponds to a sort of action, so that a principled way of organizing speech acts provides a framework for full and fully illuminating accounts of speech actions (Tsohatzidis, 1994).

There are different kinds of speech. They are elocutionary acts, illocutionary act and prelocutionary act. We introduce the meaning of these acts as follows. (1) Austin (1962) distinguishes three aspects of the locutionary act as follows:"To say something is (A. a) always to perform the act of uttering certain noises (a "phonetic" act), and the utterance is a phone. (A. b) to always perform the act of uttering certain vocalizations or words, i.e. noises of certain types belonging to and as belonging to a certain vocabulary, in a certain construction … This act we may call a "phatic" act, and the utterance is the act of uttering a "pheme" … ; and (A.c) generally, to perform the act of using a [sentence] or its constituents with a certain more or less definite " sense" and a more or less definite "reference" (which together are equivalent to "meaning") (p. 92-93). (2) Austin (1962) explains the illocutionary act as "performance of an act in saying something as opposed to performance of an act of saying something" (p. 100). Sometimes people say something with an intention to do it in the future, and this kind of speech is called an illocutionary act. An illocutionary act is successful in communication only when the speaker's illocutionary intention is

recognized by the hearer (Bach & Harnish, 1979). (3) Austin (1962) introduced the notion of a perlocutionary act as follows:

> "Saying something will often, or even normally, produce certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of the audience, or of the speaker, or of persons: and this may be done with the design, intention, or purpose of producing consequences … . We shall call the performance of an act of this kind of performance of a perlocutionary act" (p. 101).

Bach & Harnish (1979) suggested a representation of these kinds of speech as follows. If S is the speaker, H is the hearer, e is an expression in language L, and C means the context of the utterance, the main constituents of S's speech act can be represented as follows. Utterance act means that S utters from L to H in C; elocutionary act means an action in which S says something to H in C; an illocutionary act means that S has an intention to do something in C and a prelocutionary act is S affects H in a certain way by saying something.

Austin (1962) addresses the differences between illocutionary and perlocutionary. First, it is a distinction between things done in performing an elocutionary act and things done by performing an elocutionary act. A perlocutionary effect is a change in the state of the behavior of a hearer over and above mere understanding the utterance. Perlocutionary effects are produced only in persons , but the objects of illocutionary effects are not limited to the states of persons (Nussbaum, 1998). Second, this corresponds to a distinction between what is essentially conventional illocutionary and what is not perlocutionary. The sorts of effects produced by illocutionary speech acts are brought about by conventional means (Nussbaum, 1998). Austin's other main criteria for making the illocutionary-perlocutionary distinction have seemed to come into their own . Illocutionary acts are "essentially conventional" and according to perlocutionary acts "bring in consequences." Third, this corresponds to distinctions between acts, which essentially introduce consequence perlocutionary and acts, which are not illocutionary. The hearer of a successful perlocutionary act must take what the speaker says to mean something, but not necessarily what the speaker means in saying it. However, a successful illocutionary act requires the hearer to understand what the speaker is saying and to understand that the speaker intends to produce a certain effect in speaking that utterance (Nussbaum, 1998).

Taxonomy of Illocutionary Force in Speech Act Theory

Austin (1962) and Searle (1979,1992) suggested different classifications for illocutionary forces and we will go over them in the following sections. Austin (1962) proposed that three acts are involved: the phonetic act, phatic act and rhetic act. That is, we can understand the meaning of the utterance by the tone of the speech, or by the vocabulary or words that are used, or by rhetoric,

such as implication and metaphor, etc. In addition, Austin distinguished five general classes of illocutionary forces: verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives, and expositives. Verictives are typified by the giving of a verdict, as the name implies, by a jury or umpire. It is essentially giving a finding as to fact, which is for different reasons difficult to be certain. Exercitives are the exercising of powers, rights, or influence. For example, these acts are appointing, voting, ordering, and so on. Commissives are typified by promising. Speakers commit you to doing something but also include a declaration or announcement of intention. However, commissive acts are not promises and rather vague things that may be called espousals. They have obvious connections with verdictives and exercitives. Behabitives have to do with attitudes and social behavior and are assigned to a miscellaneous group. Examples of this sort of act are apologizing, congratulating, commending, condoling, cursing, and challenging. The expositive makes plain how we are using words in general, and how our utterance fits into the course of an argument or conversion.

There are some criticisms against Austin's classification of illocutionary acts. Austin's speech act theory is largely confined to single speech acts, but speech consists of longer sequences of speech acts in real life. Searle pointed out that there is no clear or consistent principle on the basis of which the taxonomy is constructed and there is a great deal of overlap from one category to another and a great deal of heterogeneity within some of the categories (Searle, 1979). For example, the act of exposition involves the expounding view. It could be the "delivering of a finding" in the verictive class. Furthermore, Austin assumes that the hearer recognizes the illocutionary force of the speakers' intended act but it is very unlikely that this will be achieved unless the hearers can relate to the speakers' utterance (Searle, et al., 1992). There is a persistent confusion between verbs and acts in Austin's taxonomy of illocutionary acts, which could provide a satisfactory definition given the categories. This is a proper way to analyze discourse using Searl's taxonomy of illocutionary acts after he reconsidered the disadvantage of the traditional speech act theory.

This is a proper way to analyze discourse using Searl's taxonomy of illocutionary acts because Searle considered the syntactical features of conversation by analyzing the illocutionary forces. He defined five basic illocutionary acts (Searle, 1979):

(1)	The assertive class commits the speaker to something , to the truth of the expressed proposition. The words such as "belief" and "commitment" here are intended to mark dimensions, they speak to determinables rather than determinates. The members of the assertive class are assessments, which include true and false. Austin's expositives and many of his verdictives are included in the assertives class.
(2)	In *the directive acts*, the illocutionary points out that they are attempts by the speaker to get the hearer to do something. These acts may be very modest "attempts". For example, I suggest that you do it. Austin lists behabitives in this class.
(3)	*Commissives illocutionary acts* whose point is to commit the speaker to some future course of action, such as "shall", "intend", and "favor".

(4)	*The expressive illocutionary* expresses the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the prepositional content. In performing an expressive, the speaker is neither trying to get the world to match the words nor the words to match the world. For example, I congratulate you on winning money on the race.
(5)	In *the declaration class,* the successful performance of its members brings about the correspondence between the prepositional content reality, and successful performance guarantees. Declarations refer to objects solely on virtue and bring about some alteration in the status or condition. This feature of declarations has not been properly understood in Austin's first introduction of the difference between performative and constative forces. Some members of the declaration class overlap with members of the assertive class because the facts could not be ascertained without an authority to lay down a decision.

This study contrasts the classifications of Austin and Searle based on the semantics of these categories. Table 1 represents the comparison results.

Table 1
A Comprehensive Framework of Illocutionary Force

Searle	Austin
Assertion	Verdictive
Directive	Exercitive, Behabitive
Commisive	Commissive
Expressive	-
Declaration	
	Expositive

-: distribute items to other categories

Many illocutionary verbs are not illocutionary point markers but do contain some of the features of illocutionary acts. Searle considered the features of conversation by analyzing the illocutionary forces (Searle, et al., 1969; 1985). It would be economical if we could include all of the illocutionary acts in these classes, which would lend some support to the general pattern of

analysis adopted in speech acts (Searle, 1979). In previous discussions, we found that Austin's classification emphasizes the relationship between the vocabularies used within utterance more than the illocutionary forces. On the other hand, Searle's study focused on defining the related illocutionary acts to the structure of the sentence. We believe that Searle's model is more comprehensive and would be a useful way to analyze the speech acts in an utterance using the sentence structure.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data Acquisition

We collected 203 posts that were all about privacy topics in a newsgroup of the Usenet Info Center. These discussions were divided into 72 threads, which means there were 72 privacy topics proposed on this board. The members shared their opinions on these topics with each other. Each member could join each topic or create a new topic. Threads from first post to the last post between 14 June 2000 to 21 June 2000 were collected. Table 2 shows the top ten issues in these discussions. The privacy discussion board was selected for the following reasons:

a The *privacy* topic is a sensitive issue that often attracts diverse debates. For example, someone uses government law to analyze a privacy question and someone else uses a high technique to answer a privacy question.

b There are certain kinds of formal or institutional speech act sequences where there are rules that constrain the sequencing.

c Many people attended the newsgroup and shared information. This study applied the speech act theory to examine the discussions on information privacy in the newsgroups. Each topic thread represents one data point in this study. To obtain a large number of threads would be very demanding for any single research group.

We collected data from a newsgroup, alt.private.investigator.

Table 2
Top Twenty Discussion Issues

Issue	Number of Discussion
Evidence Eliminator Dis-Information Center	15
Is Gretchen down?	13
Black Ice vs. Freedom Net (ZeroKnowledge)	12
Evidence Eliminator Dis-Information Center - More LIES!	9
EE concerns	9
Conseal*(sic.)* and Atguard uploads for the taking	9
Favicon in MSIE 5.x	7
Is there a group alt.unsatisfied.customers dejanews?	6
Employee NT Client: safe from boss' monitoring?	6
Eisner - what does this son of a bitch want?	6

One thread contains several discussions on the same issue but many of these threads were not complete because of the limited time frame. During 14 Jun 2000 to 21 Jun 2000, some parts of the posts were lost, so we just selected two threads that included all posts for analysis. These topics were (1) Favicon in MSIE 5.; (2) Employee NT Client: safe from boss monitoring? There were thirteen posts involved in these topics. Five posts involved the topic "Favicon in MSIE 5.x". One entrant wanted to know about the audience in this privacy board and talked about the file "Favicon.ico" used in Microsoft IE version 5.x. After several diverse discussions, (s)he clarified the question and asked for others who were interested in this issue to make contact through E-mail. In the topic "Employee NT Client: safe from boss' monitoring," someone asked for a solution to maintain privacy from the company. Most of the responses advised him (her) not to express private matters on the company's computer because the company owned the computers and it had the right to check these computers.

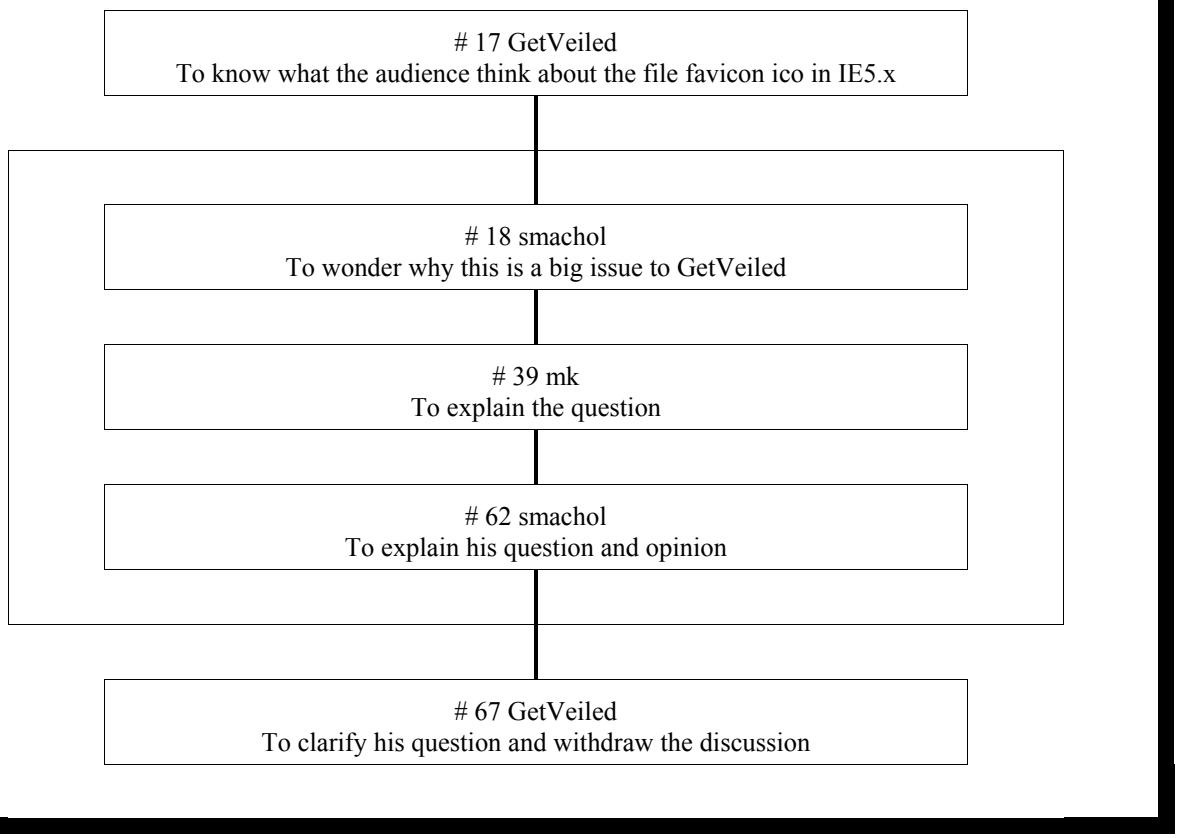
This research investigated discussions on information privacy in the newsgroup (alt.private.investigator) using the speech act theory. The narrative data in the newsgroups presented features that are useful for description and explanatory ontology. To address the research question of privacy information protection, this study used a comprehensive framework integrated in previous studies in the area of speech act theory to analyze the narrative data.

Data Descriptions

(1) Favicon in MSIE 5.x

There were five posts involved in this thread. Initially, one proposed an interesting question to determine what people think about the file "Favicon.ico" used in Microsoft IE version 5.x. Two people responded. One of them challenged the importance of this issue. The other one answered this challenge and started the discussion . This discussion ended quickly . The person who proposed the original question clarified his question and asked for anyone interested in this issue to send an e-mail to him. The relationship between the responses is represented as Figure 1.

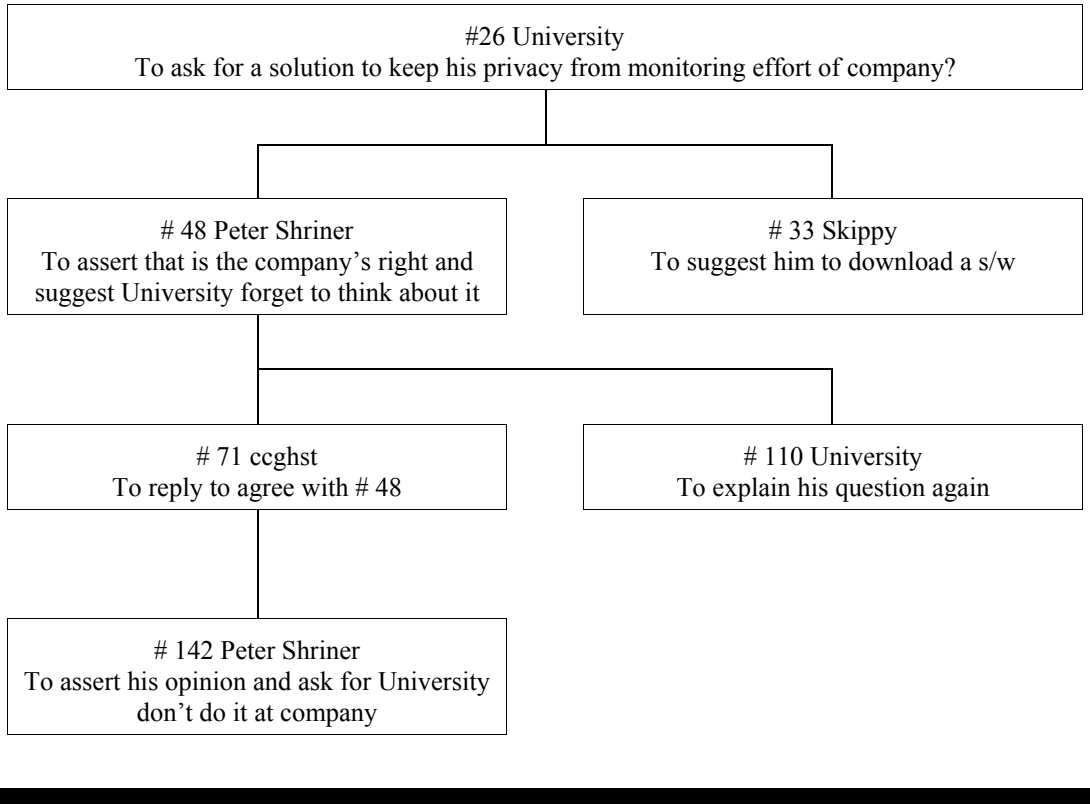
Figure 1: Relationship of Responses in Topic "Favicon in MSIE 5.x"



(2) Employee NT Client: safe from boss' monitoring?

A participant who asked how to keep his Internet communications private in the office initiated this thread. Most of the responses warned him that his company owned the computers and had a right to check these computers. They asked him not to put out private data from the company's computer. The relationship between the responses and the author is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Relationship of Responses in Topic "Employee NT Client Safe from Boss' Monitoring?"



Data Analysis

This section places emphasis on the content of these threads. We represent the content of each sentence in these discussions with the examined intention as well as the illocutionary forces.

(1) Favicon in MSIE 5.x		
#17 (from "Participant A")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
I'm involved in a discussion over what I see is a minor issue but I'd be curious to know what the audience here thinks.	To ask for responses	Directives
If you aren't aware of it when you are using M$ *(sic.)* Internet Explorer version 5 or above the action of saving a page to your Favorites Folder sends a request to the Web server for a file called favicon.ico. If it exists Explorer loads the little icon so that it should display in the client's browser wherever that blue Explorer 'e' would have been (in the Favorites list in the address window on the custom LINK tool bar). However even if the Web site doesn't have a favicon available the log will still reflect the request for one. What this does is let the site know that that particular visitor bookmarked the site (and by definition is using MSIE 5.x). Since this bit of data collection is totally transparent and undisclosed to the user do you consider it intrusive?	To describe something	Assertive
Since there is no way to disable it other than [to] avoid using the Favorites function in the browser is this a problem? It is unlikely but not impossible for a networked profiling agency like Doubleclick to get the coordination of its clients to extract the favicon requests [and] associate them with cookie data and over time generate a partial profile of [the] users' Favorites Folder.	To deduct and describe	Assertive
The odds of this happening are long but what does the readership here think. A non-issue? Or one that ought to at least be advertised to users of MSIE ver.5? Should we ask Microsoft to provide a disabling function in future versions?	To ask questions and hope someone could express his or her opinion	Directives

#18 (reply #17 form "participant B")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
I'm confused.	To express his feeling	Expressive
Why would a request for a favicon.ico file be any different than a request for a web page on your site? Both are logged. I guess I don't understand why this is a big issue for you. Steve.	To ask for further explanation, as well as to state his opinion	Directives Assertive

#39 (reply #18 from "participant C")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
Well steve *(sic.)* if your box is making a connection to some URL without your knowledge then your privacy is compromised and (by the looks of what this Java *(sic.)* Crap does your box's security is compromised as well).	To object to what #18 says and try to persuade him	Assertive
Therefore if you r using IE you, basically have NO SECURITY. hrmm I bet that' s why I don't use IE.	To make a judgment	Declaration

#62 (reply for #39 from "participant B")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
I must be dense but I still don't get it.	To be polite and express his confusion	Expressive
You go to a web site - your IP is logged that you dowloaded this page. You[r] *(sic.)* then decide to mark this site as one of your favorites – you[r] *(sic.)* IP is again logged as downloading the favicon.ico file. How do these two scenarios differ?	To assert his opinion	Assertive
I do agree that if you[r] *(sic.)* machine is making some connection without your knowledge then this would be an issue. However I don't see how that's the case here.	To argue with #39	Assertive
>Therefore if you[r] using IE, you basically have NO SECURITY. I wouldn't quite say that - but IE certainly does have piss-poor security. In fact so does Windows for that matter.	To express his agreement	Expressive
>hrmm I bet that' s why I don't use IE. The only time I use IE is to test how my pages look with it.	To express he doesn't trust IE, either	Expressive

#67 (from "Participant A"		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
The stink of it is that yes the favicon.ico file is just another file downloaded like any other but the fact that it was accessed reveals a normally private action on the part of the user. Unlike all the other files that automatically come with the source document the favicon.ico file adds another data point for the dataminer that otherwise wouldn't have existed. While the more savvy surfers are aware of cookies scripts objects and images (including "Web bugs") I wonder how many are actually of aware that bookmarking a site with Explorer 5.x is a piece of information known to anyone other than the user himself.	To clarify favicon is different from cookies	Assertive
Personally it doesn't bother me.	To assert about feeling	Expressive
The implication made at http://www.favicon.com and by my opponents in this debate is that it might be possible to collect a list of sites that a particular cookied browser has Saved to Favorites and add that to a profile.	To describe something	Assertive
Would that bother you? Does anyone care? Does anyone care that no notice of this fact is given or that the feature can't be disabled?	To ask for thinking and to arouse the emotion	Directives Expressive
If you still don't get it I guess that means it's a non-issue for you and that's fine.	To assert his belief	Assertive
The other response (from participant C) indicated some cause for concern.	To assert his opinion	Assertive
If anyone would care to add a private comment feel free to email me. Thanks.	To ask for another message and mail to him	Directives

(2) Employee NT Client: safe from boss' monitoring?		
#26 (form "Participant D")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
Is there any way to keep my Internet communications private from network/Internet monitoring efforts my company might be employing?	To ask for solution	Directives

#33 (reply #26 from "Participant E")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
Pretty Good Privacy. Period. You can get a version here: http://irfaiad.virtualave.net/	To suggest to download a s/w	Directives

#48 (reply #26 from "Participant F")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
The best way to keep your communications "private" is to do them from home not at work.	To suggest a solution	Assertives, Directives
Like it or not your company is responsible for any usage of the company network and all client machines attached to it, yours included. It's *their* computer not yours and they can examine it at any time without your approval or knowledge.	To declare that it is a right of company to check their computers	Declaration
Even routine in-house maintenance -- usually scheduled when you're not there -- can turn up things you don't want them to see. Although suggested elsewhere in this thread the unauthorized installation of an encryption program by an employee onto a company computer would be an immediate red flag to any system administrator.	To assert his opinion	Assertives
If you do this, expect to have a little talk with company management. Do your personal stuff from home not from a company computer. Why take the risk?	To ask him not to do something	Directives

#71 (reply #48 from "Participant G")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
Good point. Under the law email and other information on the computer belongs to the company.	To make some evidence to support his agreement with #48	Assertives
The courts have ruled repeatedly that you have no legal expectation of privacy when using a company computer or email facilities. Even if you did use PGP (as someone else suggested) the company could demand the key to decrypt the info and the courts would probably back the company not you if they fired or disciplined you for refusing.	To ask Participant D not to do something	Directives

#110 (reply #48 from Participant D)		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
Granted. But throughout the day I'm on the Internet for various-- including work-related-- easons. But during lunchtime I might sometimes visit a site I'd rather no one know I had which is the reason for my inquiry.	To clarify his question and ask for help	Directives

#142 (reply #71 from "Participant F")		
Content	**Intention**	**Act**
Even with the best technical cover-up there are many ways beyond your control where you could be discovered pursuing your "private" activity on a company PC: - Your boss walks around the corner. - Another employee notices your actions is offended by them and reports you. - Another employee uses your PC when you're sick or on vacation. - Your company's IS department when you're gone uncovers something objectionable on your machine during routine network maintenance upgrades or hardware replacement. This includes bookmarks/ favorites cookies history files or any software you install to try and cover your tracks. - Maybe your company already monitors Web activity: it's within their rights to do so. Perhaps the company network uses a firewall to access the Internet and it logs all Web sites visited. Even though you've cleaned stuff off your PC traces of your activity could remain on the network servers. - Your company SysAdmins read newsgroups (like this one).	To assert his opinion and try to persuade Participant D	Assertives
If you have signed a company policy about computer/email/Internet usage is what you're doing in violation of that policy? If your activity is objectionable enough that you must hide it from the company then it's foolish to do it at work. It's not worth the risks of raising suspicions; losing Internet access altogether; getting disciplined; or getting fired.	To try to persuade	Assertives
Do it at home instead.	To ask him to do something	Directives

All of these sentences can be included into one or more categories. This shows that we can apply the speech act theory to analyze the discourse in a newsgroup, thus discussions on a privacy board are speck act discourses. The illocutionary acts in these two topics are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3
Illocutionary Acts in Two Topics

Illocutionary forces	Topic I: Favicon	Topic II: Employee
Assertives	10	5
Declaration	1	1
Commissives	0	0
Directives	4	7
Expressive	6	0

It is interesting to understand how consensus is caused. This study focused on the impact of the illocutionary forces of speech acts to elicit consensus. The discussions in topic I did not result in consensus but topic II did. Combining directive and assertive forces may cause a consensus. And the major forces involves in topic II are directives and assertives. Thus, a consensus may be caused by combining directive and assertive forces. As stated earlier, assertive forces express one's opinion toward something while directives imply a suggestion for the others to do something. Assertive forces are important to emphasize "belief" and "commitment". All of the members of the assertive class include the elements "true" and "false" (Searle, 1979). In topic II, the speech acts in most of the posts involved at lease one directive as well as one assertive force. A directive illocutionary points out the fact that the speakers attempt to get the hearers to do something. One provides not only a suggestion to do something but the deduction for his or her suggestion. This makes the discussions evoked at a deeper level that involves arguments for the assumptions.

The forces that involve topic I are assertives and expressives. The expressives, as stated earlier, express one's psychological states. In this case, people assert what they think but fail to genuinely understand the others' meaning. Their emotion is aroused as well, which causes a failure to communicate rationally. For example, after several rounds of debate the difference between Favicon.ico and cookies, Participant A writes "would that bother you? Does anyone care? Does anyone care that no notice of this fact is given or that the feature can't be disabled? If you still don't get it, I guess that means it's a non-issue for you and that's fine." Effective communication facilitates the smooth exchange of mutual knowledge to each party. It may involve directives as well as assertive speech act forces. We thus propose the following proposition:

Proposition I: *Consensus can be reached using specific illocutionary forces.*

However, both of these topics used a lot of assertive force but resulted in different consequences. This shows that the research is not complete if we only analyze illocutionary forces.

We should explore in some depth to reveal the assumptions of the speakers. The people involved in the first topic argued about the differences between automatic personal data collection and notification. Within the conversation, we find that these people hold different perceptions about privacy. They spend much times discussing the difference between Favicon.ico and cookies. These arguments arose because of their unfamiliarity with that file function. The participants asserted what they thought about this file but failed to think further into the others' speech. That might be why the participants ignored solving the original problem and instead addressed the definition of the problem. According to the information provided in the data, a consensus was reached by the participants, i.e., "the company has the right to check it's own computers" and "don't put personal data into the company's computers". It was not spoken, but the participants did reach a consensus on privacy regarding the employees right to privacy on the company's computer.

To summarize the previous finding, we can propose that no consensus was reached because of the different definitions and assumptions about privacy. The differences in assumptions regarding information privacy influenced a value manifestation and artifact realization, which makes it difficult to reach a consensus. Thus we propose a proposition as follows:

Proposition II:	*No consensus can be reached because of the different definitions of privacy.*

CONCLUSION

This study adopted the speech act theory to analyze the latent intention and speech acts behind a speaker's discourse. We analyzed the illocutionary forces in posts, sentence-by-sentence based on Searle's taxonomy of illocutionary acts. The major findings of this study are summarized as follows. First, posts in a newsgroup can be seen as discourses and analyzed using the speech act theory. Second, a consensus can be reached by using specific illocutionary forces. When the members have shared assumptions about the discussed privacy issue, the assertive and directive forces are more likely to form a consensus. Third, the gap among different assumptions will interfere with consensus building. In the discussions in topic I, we can see that the members do not have a shared assumption. They spent much time clarifying the problem using expressive and assertive forces. These forces aroused emotional reactions, divided the discussion and interfered with consensus building.

The contributions of this study are several. First of all, it shows how a person's discourses can offer insights toward privacy issues. Second, we suggest that specific illocutionary forces produce a consensus under some conditions. Third, the different privacy concerns of different people were revealed after analyzing these discussions. There are, however, several limitations of this study. We only collected posts in a newsgroup for one week. This may not be long enough to capture a complete discussion during this short time frame. In addition, the limited data also restricts the diversity of cross topic discussions. Further researches should explore a broader sample

using longitudinal observation and analyzing the interactions on the newsgroup. Furthermore, they can perform a deeper interpretation about the assumptions or frame of reference of the participants based on their discourse to reflect the complexity of the communication.

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THE INFLUENCE OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION VARIABLES ON GROUP COMMUNICATION SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

This investigation explored the effects of the interpersonal communication concepts of willingness to communicate, self-monitoring, and loneliness on the group outcome group communication satisfaction. Using the Willingness to Communicate Scale (McCroskey, & Richmond, 1990), Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) Revised Self-monitoring Scale, the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980), and an adaptation of Hecht's (1978) Communication Satisfaction Inventory, communication dispositions were analyzed in relationship to group communication satisfaction.

Consistent with expectations, the results show that loneliness mediated reported group communication satisfaction. Individuals who view themselves as lonely are less satisfied with group communication. Inconsistent with expectations, results show that willingness to communicate is not associated with group communication satisfaction. Surprisingly, the results also show that self-monitoring is not associated with the group outcome. Additionally, non-U.S. citizens are less attracted to their groups than U.S. citizens. Finally, the implications of these findings for future research and application are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the effects of the interpersonal communication concepts of willingness to communicate, self-monitoring, and loneliness on the group outcome of communication satisfaction. Although a significant body of research exists in the communication literature on communication satisfaction, comparatively little attention has been given to the effects of communication behavior on this group outcome.

It is intuitively obvious that communication behavior would have a major impact on satisfaction. Researchers frequently assume that effective communication skills facilitate the development and maintenance of successful, satisfying relationships (McCroskey, Daly, Richmond & Cox, 1975). People engaging in interactions look for cues/feedback from others to let them know what kind of impression they are making (Bandura, 1977; Carver, 1979). For instance, if a conversational partner looks involved and attentive, a person is likely to infer the partner finds the

conversation interesting, which would increase the satisfaction with the interaction. On the other hand, if the partner seems uninvolved and inattentive, a person is likely to infer the partner finds the conversation uninteresting, which may promote a lack of satisfaction.

The group outcome in this study--communication satisfaction-- is grounded theoretically. It has been associated with mental health (Rogers, 1961), feelings of competence and efficiency (Bochner & Kelly, 1974), and successful interaction (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Satisfaction is an emotion people experience when they are successful in their pursuits, and it plays a central role in humanistic (Rogers, 1961), social exchange (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), and physiological (Clynes, 1978) approaches to communication. These theorists are united in their belief that effective communicators experience greater satisfaction.

WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

In American culture, interpersonal communication is highly valued. Individuals are evaluated in large part on the basis of their communication behavior. Although talk is a vital component in interpersonal communication and the development of interpersonal relationships, people differ greatly in the degree to which they communicate. Some individuals tend to speak only when they are spoken to; others speak constantly.

The concept of an individual's tendency and frequency of communication has been reported in the research in the social sciences for over half a century (Borgatta & Bales, 1953; Goldman-Eisler, 1951). More recently, this variability in talking behavior has been linked to a personality-based predisposition termed "Willingness to Communicate" (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987; Richmond & McCroskey, 1989).

Underlying the willingness to communicate construct is the assumption that it is relatively consistent across a variety of communication contexts and types of receivers (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). Thus, it is presumed that the level of a person's willingness to communicate in one communication context (like talking in a small group) is correlated with the person's willingness to communicate in other communication contexts (such as giving a speech, talking in meetings, and talking in dyads). It is also presumed that the level of a person's willingness to communicate with one type of receiver (like friends) is correlated with the person's willingness to communicate with other types of receivers (such as acquaintances and strangers) (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990).

Empirical data indicates that willingness to communicate is a personality-type characteristic that often has a major impact on interpersonal communication in a wide variety of environments (Richmond & Roach, 1992). High willingness to communicate is associated with increased frequency and amount of communication, which are, in turn, associated with a wide variety of positive communication outcomes. Low willingness to communicate is associated with decreased frequency and amount of communication, which are then associated with a wide variety of negative communication outcomes.

In fact, the relationship between willingness to communicate and communication apprehension is direct (Richmond & Roach, 1992). Communication apprehension is an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person

or persons (McCroskey, 1977). The more apprehensive individuals are, the less willing they are to communicate.

McCroskey and Richmond (1976) postulated that a person's communication behavior has a major impact on the way that a person is perceived by the other communicators involved. The researchers concluded that behaviors characteristic of the low willingness to communicate have a significant negative impact on interpersonal perceptions and will probably lead to negative perceptions on the part of others.

In the small group context, Daly, McCroskey, and Richmond (1977) studied whether the degree of an individual's vocal activity (the frequency and duration of an individual's interaction) was an important mediating factor in dyadic and small group interaction. The results indicated that communicators are perceived in an increasingly positive manner as their vocal activity level increases. Hence, there is a positive, linear relationship between vocal activity and desirable perceptions of communicators in small group interactions. The research also suggests that the optimal willingness to communicate level for interpersonal influence is a point slightly above the vocal activity of the other communicators in a group.

A four-part, landmark study conducted by Hayes and Meltzer (1972) found that persons who talked more were perceived as more likely to hold leadership positions than persons who talked less were. Allgeier (as cited in Richmond & Roach, 1992) replicated much of the Hayes and Meltzer's research, except that Allgeier used female subjects instead of male. The results were similar: persons who talked more were perceived as more attractive and better adjusted than persons who talked less.

McCroskey and Richmond (1990) also make assertions about willingness to communicate in the school environment. They state that students with high willingness to communicate characteristics have all of the advantages. Teachers have high expectations for students who are highly willing to communicate and negative expectations for those less willing. Student achievement, as measured by teacher made tests, teacher assigned grades, and standardized tests, is also consistent with these expectations. Students who are willingness to communicate have more friends, report being more satisfied with their school experiences, and are more likely to remain in school and graduate.

Students with high willingness to communicate characteristics see students who are low in willingness to communicate in negative ways. Such negative perceptions have been observed all the way from the lower elementary level through graduate school. Studies indicate that low willingness to communicate persons are perceived less positively than persons exhibiting high willingness behaviors in terms of desirability as an opinion leader, and projection of academic success in the areas of humanities, public speaking, and business (McCroskey & Richmond, 1976). Persons low in willingness to communicate are perceived more positively in character and projection of academic success in math, lab sciences, and agriculture.

Persons high in willingness to communicate have a significant positive impact on interpersonal perceptions, which will most likely lead to positive perceptions on the part of others. Based on the research, it seems likely that persons high in willingness to communicate will be more attracted to their group members and more satisfied with group communication than persons low in willingness to communicate.

SELF MONITORING

The theory of self-monitoring presumes consistent patterns of individual differences in the extent to which people regulate their self-presentation by tailoring their actions in accordance with immediate situational cues (Snyder, 1974, 1979). Snyder (1974) explored the varying tendencies of people to adapt to others in social interaction. He observed that some people are quite adaptive in their willingness to change their behaviors depending upon the situation, whereas others are far less willing to adapt and instead display a "take me as I am" attitude. Snyder labeled this difference as the degree of "self-monitoring" individuals display (Snyder, 1974).

Empirical evidence supports the notion that people differ in the extent to which they monitor their own behavior in a given situation. For example, Snyder and Monson (1975) found that individuals who were high self-monitors reported more situational variance than individuals who were low self-monitors. Along the same vein, Tardy and Hosman (1982) found that high self-monitors engage in self-disclosure flexibility whereas low self-monitors engage in self-disclosure rigidity.

Recent research has examined the characteristics that differentiate those who score high on self-monitoring scales and those who score low. Howells (1993) found that high self-monitors are positively evaluated on characteristics such as openness, self-criticism, warmth, sensitivity, and curiosity. Low self-monitors are more likely to be described as lacking confidence and having difficulty in social situations. In addition to personality differences, Bryan, Dodson, and Cullari (1997) found significant gender effects between high and low self-monitors. Males tend to score higher on the self-monitoring scale than females.

Ickes and Barnes (1977) also explored the role of sex and self-monitoring in unstructured dyadic interactions. The results indicated that high self-monitors may enhance the expression of behaviors that are seen as appropriate to one's sex role but may inhibit the expression of behaviors that are seen as inappropriate to one's sex role. In general, the high self monitors were perceived by themselves and by their partners as talking more, initiating conversations more frequently, guided by the other's behavior to a greater degree, more directive, and more concerned about behaving in a socially acceptable manner.

Research focusing on group dynamics also indicates an association between self-monitoring and communication style. Garland and Beard (1979) examined the group brainstorming process and found that members who emerged as leaders were often high self-monitors. These results can be explained by research showing that high self-monitors tend to motivate others by showing them that their efforts will be rewarded. They accomplish this by encouraging others to cooperate, by setting clear goals and emphasizing deadlines, by being supportive and putting others at ease, by listening to others' suggestions, and by allowing others to use their own judgment (Snyder, 1987).

In the classroom environment, Lan (1996) studied the relationship between self-monitoring and academic performance. Self-monitoring students were found to be more actively involved in their learning activities and performed better academically. Self-monitoring in this study was depicted as a process in which a learner evaluates the effectiveness of a particular cognitive strategy by using criteria such as: (1) how the strategy helps them make progress toward a goal, and (2) how

much expenditure of time and effort the strategy requires. Applying these two criteria enables the learner to determine whether the strategy should be continued or abandoned in favor of another strategy (Lan, 1996).

Specifically, the construct of self-monitoring appears to have a strong influence on communication processes. The ability to control one's presentation of self should be a valuable asset in relationship development and group communication. The absence of such skills may lead to low attraction, unsuccessful relationships, and ultimately dissatisfaction with the group communication.

LONELINESS

Loneliness has received much attention from communication researchers and Bell (1985) states it is justified. Recognition is emerging that loneliness is usefully conceptualized as an outcome of deficiencies in social-communicative competence--lonely people communicate differently and less skillfully than others. Bell (1985) concludes that studies of communication and loneliness may advance our understanding of relational communication.

Research has been conducted to explore the relationship of interpersonal communication to loneliness. Jones (1982) states that the "available evidence does suggest that loneliness frequently involves an inability or disruption in the ability to relate to others in an effective and mutually satisfying manner" (p. 238). Lonely individuals perceive themselves to be less socially skilled compared to others (Horowitz, French, & Anderson, 1982); they score lower on general measures of social and communicative competence (Jones, 1982; Zakahi & Duran, 1982); and they self-disclose less often and less intimately to others (Solano, Batten, & Parrish, 1982).

Jones, Hobbs, and Hockenbury (1982) examined the relationship between loneliness and self-absorption and involvement in conversations. People in the high-lonely group made fewer partner references, made fewer topic continuations, asked fewer questions, and made fewer partner attention statements than did non-lonely individuals.

Bell and Daly (1985) explored the relationship between communicator characteristics and loneliness. Lonely people were found to be apprehensive and anxious about communication and social interactions, they reported difficulty being responsive to the conversational contributions of others, they had problems with self-assertion, they tended to be nondisclosive, they were sometimes constrained and unfriendly in interactions, and they tended to evaluate their abilities as communicators negatively (Bell & Daly, 1985). This research paralleled previous research, which demonstrated the difficulties lonely people have with various interpersonal communication skills.

In a similar study, Bell (1985) sought to determine the relationship of chronic loneliness to conversational involvement. Based on past research, Bell predicted that lonely individuals would be less involved in their interactions, perceived as uninvolved, and evaluated less positively by others. His results confirmed the hypotheses. The study found that lonely people were passive, restrained communicators. In terms of their overt behaviors, lonely persons were less talkative and had lower rates of interruptions.

Another interesting finding is that lonely people expect to be seen in a negative light. Bell's (1985) study found that lonely people believe their partners will report less desire for future interaction, an expectation that proved correct. The significance of Bell's study is that it

demonstrated that the actual conversational behaviors of lonely and non-lonely individuals are consistent with their reports. Lonely people repeatedly describe themselves as socially inhibited and detached, and exhibited social inhibition and detachment in their behaviors. Overall, Bell's study (1985) provided behavioral confirmation of results from numerous self-reported studies.

In the organizational arena, research suggests that lonely people are less assertive than non-lonely people (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980; Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981); they tend to take fewer social risks (Russell, et al., 1980); they are less confident in their viewpoints (Hansson & Jones, 1981); and they are less likely to be chosen as leaders compared to others (Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981). Overall, lonely individuals seem to have an indirect approach in interactions with others.

COMMUNICATION SATISFACTION

Communication satisfaction is an effect crucial to concepts of psychological health; and therefore is a construct which is useful in the study of communication behavior (Hecht, 1978a). The construct refers to satisfaction and dissatisfaction derived from social interaction. Satisfaction has been associated with mental health (Rogers, 1961), feelings of competence and efficiency (Bochner & Kelly, 1974), and successful interaction (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Satisfaction is an emotion people experience when they are successful in their pursuits, and it plays a central role in humanistic (Rogers, 1961), social exchange (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), and physiological (Clynes, 1978) approaches to communication. These theorists are united in their beliefs that effective communicators experience greater satisfaction.

Rubin and Rubin (1989) investigated the relationship between communication apprehension and communication satisfaction. Communication apprehension is an affective state of fear or anxiety experienced by an individual when anticipating communication outcomes and it has been found to influence a person's abilities to effect positive outcomes in social settings (McCroskey & Richmond, 1976). The results indicated that higher levels of communication apprehension are linked to lower levels of communication satisfaction (Rubin & Rubin, 1989).

Duran and Zakahi (1987) investigated the relationship of communication skills to communication satisfaction. They found that the attentive communication style is significantly related to communication satisfaction. The attentive style includes behaviors such as listening, eye gazing, and empathy. Acknowledging the other's communication also appears to be a strong predictor of communication satisfaction. In other words, social confirmation is typically accomplished by demonstrating attentive and friendly behaviors. Perceptions of attentiveness are generally created by overtly acknowledging the other's communication, while perceptions of friendliness are generally created by encouraging the communication of the other. In summary, friendliness, attentiveness, and other-confirming communication behavior seem most responsible for the positive outcomes of a social encounter.

Spitzberg and Hecht (1984) investigated dyadic perceptions of social performance in naturally occurring conversations. Specifically the researchers assessed the perceptions of both interactants' competence upon each person's communication satisfaction. Results indicated that the conversational skills of the other were the most influential predictors of one's communication

satisfaction with an interaction. The skills most responsible for satisfaction were other orientation and immediacy. Spitzberg and Hecht (1984) state, "If satisfying communication is a conversational objective, then being other-oriented is probably the best strategy" (p.588).

Rubin, Pearse, and Barbato (1988) conducted a study to explore interpersonal communication motives and their relationship with global communication satisfaction. The researchers found that the interpersonal motives of talking to others for pleasure, relaxation, and expressing affection were related to high levels of communication satisfaction. Communicating for control was not related to communication satisfaction. The researchers also found that global communication satisfaction was dependent to some extent on low communication apprehension of the participants.

Prisbell (1985) found a positive relationship between communication satisfaction, affective learning, behavioral commitment, course evaluations, and instructor evaluation. Altogether, the results suggest that students who perceive satisfying communication with their instructor also report a positive attitude towards communication practices recommended in the course. The students who perceive satisfying communication with their instructor also report the likelihood of actually engaging in the communication practices suggested in the course, the likelihood of actually enrolling in another course of related content, and taking another class from the same instructor. Last, those students who were satisfied with the communication with their instructor also responded positively in the areas of classroom learning and course evaluations.

HYPOTHESES

The existing theory and research suggests that individuals will be satisfied with group communication in a manner consistent with their individual dispositions. Individuals high in willingness to communicate tend to be competent communicators who are assertive, expressive, confident, and friendly. Research shows that persons high in willingness to communicate have a significant positive impact on interpersonal perceptions. As a result, the following prediction can be made:

H1: Individuals high in Willingness to Communicate will be positively satisfied with their group's communication.

Individuals high in self-monitoring tend to be expressive, flexible, and confident communicators who have a repertoire of skills to emerge as leaders of groups and organizations. Researchers have suggested that the same social style prompting high self-monitors to initiate conversations in one-to-one situations may lead to rewarding interactions in group situations (Snyder, 1987). As a result, the following prediction can be made:

H2: Individuals high in Self-monitoring will be positively satisfied with their group's communication.

Lonely people seem to be apprehensive and anxious about their communication and social interactions. They have difficulty being confident and responsive to the conversational contributions of others. They tend to be nondisclosive, inattentive, restrained, and unfriendly in interactions. As a result, the following prediction can be made:

H3: Individuals high in Loneliness will be negatively satisfied with their group's communication.

METHOD

Subjects

Female (n=68) and male (n=61) undergraduates at Loyola University New Orleans participated in the study. The majority of the respondents were freshmen (61%) enrolled in an introductory business class that is a curriculum requirement for all business majors; others were enrolled in management classes (39%) (see Table 1 for complete demographic details). Data were collected during the spring 1999 academic semester before team concepts were discussed in the course.

Table I
Participant Demographics

Gender	Age	Year	Ethnic Origin
47% Male 52% Female	.8%<18 Years 49%=18 Years 16% =19 Years 8.7%=20 Years 11%=21 Years 5.6%=22 Years 1.6%=23 Years	60.5%=Freshman 8.5%=Sophomores 10.9%=Juniors 20%=Seniors	3.1%=Asian 63.5%=Caucasian/Non-Hispanic 12.4%=African American 15.5%=Hispanic 5.4%=Other

DATA COLLECTION

All testing took place during regular class periods and involved five separate classes. Instructors asked for voluntary cooperation from students for the purpose of filling out an anonymous questionnaire. Their names were not on the questionnaire, but they were asked to keep a record of the number that was computer generated on the bottom of their questionnaire for future matching purposes. Participants recorded their responses on a computer scan form.

During the first week of class, before the students had time to get to know each other, the instructor arranged each class into groups of four or five people. The instructor then asked the students to introduce themselves and exchange phone numbers for the purpose of a group project later in the course. After this initial interaction, the students filled out a questionnaire assessing the predictor variables of willingness to communicate, loneliness, self-monitoring, and demographic variables.

Approximately one month later, the students engaged in two group activities during a class period, working in the same groups as were assigned during the first week. These activities were: "Blindfolded Triangle," and "Paper and Tape Building" (see Appendix A for description of exercises). These exercises were chosen because they rely on group communication to reach the desired goal. Each activity was set up and debriefed by the researcher.

After completing the group exercises, the participants then completed a second questionnaire assessing the dependent variables of group communication satisfaction.

Willingness to Communicate

The first twenty items of the first questionnaire assessed willingness to communicate using the scale developed by McCroskey and Richmond (1990) (Appendix B). The willingness to communicate scale includes items related to four communication contexts--public speaking, talking in meetings, talking in small groups, and talking in dyads--with three types of receivers--strangers, acquaintances, and friends. The scale includes 12 scored items and eight filler items. Participants responded to twenty situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. They indicated the percentage of time they would choose to communicate in each type of situation, on a scale from 1 (never) to 100 (always). The internal reliability of the total willingness to communicate scale from previous studies was .87 and for the current study was .75 using Cronbach's alpha.

Loneliness

Items 21 to 40 assessed loneliness. The most commonly used measure to assess loneliness is the 20-item revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980) (Appendix B). With an equal number of positively and negatively stated items, students responded by filling in on the scantron whether they "strongly agree", "agree", "are undecided", "disagree" or "strongly disagree" with the state described by the item. Examples of the items include "There is no one I can turn to" (LONE3) and "There are people who really understand me" (LONE16). Previous studies

demonstrated a reliability of .87 using Cronbach's alpha. Internal reliability for loneliness in the current study was .90 using Cronbach's alpha.

Self-monitoring

Items 41 to 53 assessed self-monitoring using Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) revised self-monitoring scale (Appendix B). This revised 13-item scale was based on the initial work of Snyder (1974). Lennox and Wolfe, however, state that Synder's (1974) self-monitoring scale exhibits a stable factor structure that does not correspond to the five-component theoretical structure that is presented. Based on Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) research, the scale used in the current study measures two dimensions: the ability to modify self-presentation and sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others. As proposed by Lennox and Wolfe (1984), these two subdimensions are analyzed separately and are not collapsed into one measure. Using Cronbach's alpha, previous research found the reliability for ability to modify self-presentation was .75 and the reliability for sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others was .72. For the current study, internal reliability for ability to modify self-presentation was .78 and .79 for sensitivity to expressive behavior.

Students responded to such questions as "I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly" (SMB4) and "Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly" (SMA7). They assessed each question based on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "always" to "never."

Demographics And Control Variables

Items 58 through 65 assessed the demographic variables of sex, age, year in college, and ethnic origin (Appendix B). In order to control for past communication and group experiences items 62 through 64 asked the students whether they had participated in group exercises before, what their group exercise experience was (excellent, good, average, bad, horrible), and whether they had formal communication training before. To control for the fact that many of the subjects were not from the United States, Item 65 asked whether they were U.S. Citizens.

The demographic and control variables were first analyzed in relationship to group attraction and group communication satisfaction using analysis of variance. The significant control variables were then placed first in the regression models before any other variables were added.

Communication Satisfaction

The first 19 items on the second questionnaire assessed the variable of group communication satisfaction. This scale was adapted from a modified version of Hecht's (1978) interpersonal communication satisfaction scale by substituting the words "group members" or "group exercises" where appropriate (Appendix C). Other researchers have used Hecht's (1978) 16-item Communication Satisfaction Inventory and substituted the words "group members" where appropriate (Anderson & Martin, 1995).

Examples of questions include "I was very satisfied with the group exercises" (COMSAT9) and "The other group members genuinely wanted to hear my point of view" (COMSAT8). The students answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Previous research has shown the reliability score to be approximately .95 using Cronbach's alpha. The current study's internal reliability for group communication satisfaction was .89 using Cronbach's alpha.

RESULTS

Hypothesis one predicted a positive relationship between willingness to communicate and group communication satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation failed to reveal a significant relationship (r=.10, p =.30). In the regression analysis, willingness to communicate was not a significant predictor for group communication satisfaction.

Hypothesis two predicted a positive relationship between self-monitoring and group communication satisfaction. Specifically, the Pearson correlation revealed a non-significant negative relationship (r=-.06, p=.51) between group communication satisfaction and the self-monitoring dimension of "ability to modify self presentation." Subsequently, in the regression analysis, "ability to modify self-presentation" was not a significant predictor. Hypothesis two was not supported for the ability to modify self presentation dimension of self-monitoring.

The Pearson correlation revealed a non-significant negative relationship (r=-.02, p=.81) between group communication satisfaction and the self-monitoring dimension of "sensitivity to expressive behavior." Subsequently in the regression analysis, "sensitivity to expressive behavior" was not a significant predictor. Hypothesis two was not supported for the sensitivity to expressive behavior dimension of self-monitoring.

Hypothesis three predicted a negative relationship between loneliness and group communication satisfaction. The Pearson correlation revealed a significant negative relationship (r=-.17, p<.05) between group communication satisfaction and loneliness.

The regression model also found significance, as seen in Table 2 . The control variables of citizenship (CIT) and whether the subjects had received formal communication training (TRAIN) were entered into the regression model first. No significant links were found between citizenship or previous training with group communication satisfaction.

Loneliness was then added to the model, and even with the two control variables loneliness still emerged as a significant predictor, explained with 7% of the variance (R^2 = 0.07; F(3, 121) = 2.91; p <.05). As predicted, loneliness yielded a negative (b = -.13) relationship, as shown in Table 2. The model was Satisfaction with Group Communication = Citizenship (b=-.20) + Training (b=-.13) + Loneliness (b=-.13), with R^2=.07. Therefore, hypothesis three was supported.

Table 2
Regression Model for Loneliness and Group Communication Satisfaction

Item	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p
CITIZENSHIP	-.20	.14	.16
TRAINING	-.13	.08	.12
LONELINESS	-.13	.08	.09
Intercept	4.78	.24	.00
Model R^2=.07; F=3.00			

DISCUSSION

The current study proposed that individual dispositions predict group outcomes. One out of the three hypotheses were supported. Given the previous research (Richmond & McCroskey, 1989; Richmond & Roach, 1992), perhaps the most surprising finding of this study is that the willingness to communicate orientation did not predict group communication satisfaction. Individuals who possess these communication dispositions are perceived as talkative, gregarious, friendly, and confident. In essence, the amount of communication and communication satisfaction should be positively related. The current research did not support this theoretical perspective.

Also contrary to predictions, the interpersonal variable of self-monitoring did not positively predict group communication satisfaction. During group exercises, the more these individuals work at altering their images, the less they like their group.

As predicted, the interpersonal communication variable of loneliness mediated self-reported group communication satisfaction. The lonelier the individuals were, the less they were satisfied with the group communication. This finding supports previous research that found group members are likely to be satisfied if they are not lonely (Anderson & Martin, 1995). This finding also supports previous research that states lonely people are apprehensive and anxious about their communication and social interactions (Bell & Daly, 1985). They are less involved during interactions, and they tend to evaluate their abilities as communicators negatively (Bell & Daly, 1985). The current research broadens our understanding of how individuals who are lonely interact with others in group situations. It seems their communication orientation negatively affects their satisfaction when engaging in teamwork.

All in all, perhaps too many other confounding variables exist with groups that cloud the relationship between communication orientation and satisfaction. For example, high talkers in the group might have a negative effect on communication satisfaction. It could be that the talkers bear the burden in most group projects, and therefore do not enjoy group work as much as the other group members do. Or perhaps those individuals who talk the most during group exercises do not have a chance to get to know the other group members. They aren't the listeners in the group, and therefore do not walk away with any sense of group cohesion or involvement. The person who dominates the communication process, in turn, may be less satisfied with the experience and less

attracted to the group in general. Perhaps the talkers don't get much out of group work, and it is the listeners who enjoy and benefit more.

This talkative behavior could also negatively affect the group experience for other group members. If there were a person who dominated the group exercises and controlled the process without allowing others to feel a part, then the whole experience could be tainted in the other group members' evaluations.

The findings in this study can be beneficial to pedagogical research. The first finding, that lonely individuals were less satisfied with group communication, can have profound effects in the university environment. In order to become part of the university community, students should become involved with campus and student organizations. Being a part of a club or organization requires effective team and communication skills. If lonely individuals fail to become actively involved, they could become even more isolated and frustrated with the quality of their relationships. In the classroom, if lonely students continually have to engage in team projects with fellow classmates, they might become discouraged and develop a dislike for attending class. This could ultimately lead to poor grades and/or dropping out of school.

Characteristics that define lonely individuals can also have significant negative impacts in the business world. If people who are lonely enter into jobs that require teamwork, they could prohibit the company's success because of their dislike and lack of satisfaction with working with others. The other group members could be negatively affected as well. An unwilling or negative attitude can be detrimental to reaching goals, especially if other team members are dependent upon the lonely person. Conflict could be a result if other people's performance appraisals are contingent upon reaching team goals.

This finding can also benefit areas such as human resources and recruiting. If a battery of communication tests is given to job applicants and lonely characteristics are identified, the company could better match personality types with job positions. For example, as a result of advancements in technology, more opportunities exist for people to work out of their homes. Individuals who find it difficult to work in a team environment might be better fit for home-office jobs versus corporate America jobs.

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Appendix A

Description of Group Exercises

Exercise 1: Blindfolded Triangle

Steps for Researcher:

- Divide the class into the groups they have been assigned to work on their group projects. (4-5 people each)
- Give blindfolds and one long piece of rope to each group.
- Ask each group to help each other put the blindfolds on.
- Ask the groups to make an equilateral triangle.
- When a team verbally comes to consensus that they have made an equilateral triangle, they may take off their blindfolds and observe other groups.
- Hold a discussion on how each team communicated to reach the goal.

Exercise 2: Paper and Tape Building

Steps for Researcher:

- Hand each team a roll of tape (any kind) and 50 pieces of paper.
- Tell each group to make the best building possible with the resources allocated to them.
- Give a time limit of 15-20 minutes.
- After time is up, go around the room and ask each group how they defined “best building.”
- Lead a discussion on the importance of setting goals and communicating them before you begin a project.

Appendix B
Survey of Communication

Please use a #2 pencil to record your answers to the following questions.
Your answers on this questionnaire are private and anonymous. Please record the survey number from this questionnaire for future purposes.

SECTION I

Below are twenty situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice. Please circle on your scantron the number that represents the percentage of time you would choose to communicate in each type of situation.

You may choose a number anywhere between 0 and 100.
0 = NEVER 100 = ALWAYS

____1. Talk with a service station attendant.

____2. Talk with a physician.

____3. Present a talk to a group of strangers

____4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.

____5. Talk with a salesperson in a store.

____6. Talk in a large meeting of friends.

____7. Talk with a police officer.

____8. Talk in a small group of strangers.

____9. Talk with a friend while standing in line.

____10. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.

____11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.

____12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.

____13. Talk with a secretary

____14. Present a talk to a group of friends.

____15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.

____16. Talk with a garbage collector.

____17. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.

____18. Talk with a spouse or significant other.

____19. Talk in a small group of friends.

____20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

SECTION II
Please use the following scale for the next items:
(1) Often (2) Fairly often (3) Sometimes (4) Rarely (5) Never

	Often	Fairly often	Some-times	Rarely	Never
21. I feel in tune with the people around me.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I lack companionship.	1	2	3	4	5
23. There is no one I can turn to.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I do not feel alone.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I feel part of a group of friends	1	2	3	4	5
26. I have a lot in common with the people around me.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I am no longer close to anyone.	1	2	3	4	5
28. My interests and ideas are not shared by those around me.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I am an outgoing person.	1	2	3	4	5
30. There are people I feel close to.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I feel left out.	1	2	3	4	5
32. My social relationships are superficial.	1	2	3	4	5
33. No one really knows me well.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I feel isolated from others.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I can find companionship when I want it.	1	2	3	4	5
36. There are people who really understand me.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I am unhappy being so withdrawn.	1	2	3	4	5
38. People are around me but not with me.	1	2	3	4	5
39. There are people I can talk to.	1	2	3	4	5
40. There are people I can turn to.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III

Please use the following scale for the following questions:
(1) Always (2) Almost always (3) Sometimes (4) Not very often (5) Never

		Always	Almost always	Sometimes	Not very often	Never
41	In social situations I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.	1	2	3	4	5
44	In conversations I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I am conversing with.	1	2	3	4	5
45	My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives	1	2	3	4	5
46	I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.	1	2	3	4	5
47	When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listeners' eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.	1	2	3	4	5
50	I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.	1	2	3	4	5
51	If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from the person's manner of expression.	1	2	3	4	5
52	Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.	1	2	3	4	5
53	Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.	1	2	3	4	5
54	I feel that I like this group.	1	2	3	4	5
55	I believe that I will like working with this group.	1	2	3	4	5
56	I could get something accomplished with this group.	1	2	3	4	5
57	I have confidence in the group's ability to get the job done.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION IV Demographic Information Please mark the appropriate response:		
58. Sex:	1 = Male	
	2 = Female	
59. Age:	____	
60. Year in College	1=Freshman	
	2=Sophomore	
	3=Junior	
	4=Senior	
	5=Graduate	
61. Ethnic Origin:	1 = Asian	
	2 = Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	
	3 = African-American	
	4 = Hispanic	
	5 = Other	
62. Have you ever participated in team activities before?	1 = Yes	2 = No
63. If you've participated in team activities before, describe your experience:	1=Excellent	
	2=Good	
	3=Average	
	4=Bad	
	5=Horrible	
64. Have you had formal communication training before?	1 = Yes	2 = No
65. Are you a U.S. Citizen?	1 = Yes	2 = No

Appendix C
Survey of Group Communication

Please use a #2 pencil to record your answers to the following questions. Your answers on this questionnaire are private and anonymous. Please use the following scale to answer the questions.
(1) Strongly agree (2) Agree (3) Undecided (4) Disagree (5) Strongly Disagree

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	The other group members seemed to enjoy the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Nothing was accomplished in the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I would like to participate in more group exercises like these.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The other group members genuinely wanted to hear my point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I was very dissatisfied with the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I had something else to do.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I felt that during the group exercises I was able to present myself as I wanted the other group members to view me.	1	2	3	4	5
8	The other group members showed me that they understood what I said.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I was very satisfied with the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The other group members expressed a lot of interest in what I had to say.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I did not enjoy the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
12	The other group members did not provide support for what they were saying.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I felt I could talk about anything with the other group members.	1	2	3	4	5
14	We each got to say what we wanted.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I felt that we could laugh easily together.	1	2	3	4	5
16	The group exercises flowed smoothly.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The other group members changed the topic when their feelings were brought into the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The other group members frequently said things which added little to the group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
19	We talked about something I was not interested in.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I liked this group.					
21	I enjoyed working with this group in group exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I have confidence in the group's ability to get the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I got something accomplished with this group.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Please indicate your number from the first questionnaire.	1	2	3	4	5

DEVELOPING WINNING RÉSUMÉS: A REGIONAL VIEW OF CAREER FAIR RECRUITERS' PREFERENCES

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ABSTRACT

What results in an interview-winning résumé? An examination of the current literature can offer some suggestions as to important information to include, in addition to design concepts and formats. However, one concern is the currency of this information and another is the type of organization(s) to which it applies. In essence, do all recruiters scrutinize résumés in the same manner? To examine these issues, we questioned recruiters from three career fairs in Western Pennsylvania about their preferences for résumé content and design.

INTRODUCTION

Drafting a résumé is a difficult task. What should I include? How long should it be? What kind of design should I use? These are the types of questions instructors, career services personnel, and recruiters are required to respond. Web sites have sprung up across the Internet offering advice on the development of personal résumés. In addition, Fortune 500 companies have been surveyed concerning résumé content and design, and these findings have been published in journals or presented at conferences geared toward college educators and private sector trainers. A plethora of books have been published in the area of résumé content and design with tips ranging from the elementary (be sure to type your résumé) to the inane (be sure to include your college courses and your references on your résumé). The "dummy" text series has evolved into the career area with *Résumés for Dummies* and *Interviewing Skills for Dummies*. What's next–*The Idiot's Guide to Finding and Obtaining a Job*?

The sensible alternative to the text dilemma is to ask recruiters about résumé content and design and then to use the information to educate public school teachers and students, adults focusing on career changes, university/college professors and career services personnel and soon-to-be college graduates, as well as the ordinary person who works outside the human resource department.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

What results in an interview-winning résumé? An examination of the current literature can offer some suggestions as to important information to include, in addition to design concepts and

formats. However, one concern is the currency of this information and another is the type of organization(s) to which it applies. In essence, do all recruiters/human resource personnel scrutinize résumés in the same manner?

The purpose of this study was three-fold: (1) to elicit information from recruiters concerning résumé content and design; (2) to determine if differences exist on the basis of business type; and (3) to ascertain whether recruiters' preferences vary based on their educational level completed.

The questions which guided the study were as follows:

1. What are characteristics of a "good" résumé in terms of format and appearance? Recruiters spend an average of five minutes reviewing résumés, experienced recruiters spend less time (McNeilly & Barr, 1997). What formats do recruiters prefer and why do they choose that type of résumé?
2. Are there differences in preferences of résumé format and appearance among recruiters of different industry categories?
3. Do recruiters' preferences vary based on the educational level of the recruiter?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The single most important tool in introducing oneself to a prospective employer is the résumé (Kraft, 1998). With this fact in mind, educators have the duty and responsibility to teach students to prepare a résumé that attracts potential employers and recruiters, one which piques their curiosity to delve further into the background, education, and skills of the student/applicant.

In developing a winning résumé, a fine balance exists between style and substance. As important as style can be, résumé content that lacks "teeth" or strong, action language can hinder employment (Lyons, 1997). Using general terms can make a job applicant appear aimless. "Lack of specificity usually means lack of commitment. Nobody can be equally skilled at everything" (Kennedy, 1998, p. 1). Also, the use of an infantile vocabulary and/or repeated words, along with spelling and grammatical mistakes, can doom a candidate immediately (Marshall, 1996).

Prior research (McNeilly & Barr, 1997) has indicated that a national study of recruiters' résumé design preferences revealed that "when more detail was provided about work-related experiences, recruiters considered the candidate more employable than when more detail was provided about education or campus activities" (p. 359). Even though recruiters urge that students be well rounded and provide explanations of work-related experience, honors, and activities, most academics insist that students focus on their educational accomplishments and skills and knowledge obtained in the classroom, specifically written and oral projects. When differences exist between what students are taught (what needs to be included in the development of a résumé) and what the actual marketplace dictates constitutes a winning résumé, problems arise which have significant consequences. In the McNeilly and Barr study, 220 national college recruiters at a large midwestern

university were asked to review six résumés and to indicate their reactions by completing a ratings questionnaire. The researchers utilized an analysis of variance with two treatment variables: type of format (detailed information about education, activities, and work), and candidate gender. Recruiters provided scores indicating the employability rating of the candidate. Résumés which emphasized work experience received the highest employability score. Education-focused résumés received the lowest employability score.

A second study lending support to McNeilly and Barr was conducted by Marilyn Kennedy (1998). Kennedy talked to corporate recruiters and search-firm executives to ascertain what they looked for on résumés. All recruiters agreed that they wanted to see as many facts and figures as possible, even if they had to read through as many as five pages filled with specifics. Most important to them was that they be able to see "how a candidate made a contribution, exhibited entrepreneurial zeal, or treated the business as if he owned a piece of it" (p. 52).

Unfortunately, most instructors, career counselors, and students rely on textbooks for appropriate résumé design and content. Many texts are reporting findings of a study involving content preferences of Fortune 500 companies published in 1989 (Harcourt, Krizan, & Gordon). The findings from the Harcourt et al. study indicated that human resource representatives in these Fortune 500 companies felt that students' college education was the most important element of their résumé. A follow-up study was conducted ten years later by Hutchinson and Brefka (1997) again eliciting responses from Fortune 500 companies' personnel administrators concerning their preferred résumé content. The researchers reported that the findings in this study were comparable to the previous one in that "educational qualifications received the highest ratings for the areas surveyed" (p. 69). However, one should not generalize these findings since the survey return rate was 24% (122 of 500 surveys returned).

Other texts (Galle, Nelson, Luse, & Villere, 1996; Ober, 1998; Thill & Bovee, 1999) also state that "your education is probably a stronger job qualification than your work experience and should therefore come first on the résumé" (Ober, p. 468). In essence, the classroom materials that are being utilized indicate that one's work experience is important only "after you've worked in your chosen field for a year or more" (Thill & Bovee, 1999, p. 377). Is this what career fair recruiters expect to see on a résumé, or are we neglecting an enormous segment of the employment arena by failing to ask them what is most important in developing interview- winning résumés?

METHODOLOGY

We attended three regional career fairs in Western Pennsylvania. Approximately 400 recruiters attended these career fairs. Each recruiter was hand delivered a packet including a cover letter with directions for completing the accompanying questionnaire/survey as well as a ranking sheet for the five attached résumés. Recruiters were asked to list their criteria in ranking the résumés as well as to supply comments concerning their choices. We encouraged the recruiters to complete the survey packet at the career fair. Follow-up was accomplished by visiting the recruiters' booths and encouraging them to complete the packets. We then collected completed packets from the recruiters at the conclusion of the career fairs. Statistical analysis of the data included descriptive analysis as well as ANOVA.

Instrument Design

The five résumé designs (Appendix A) were loosely based on popular guides such as *Résumés That Knock 'em Dead* by Yate, *Trashproof Résumés* by the Princeton Review, and *101 Best Résumés* by Block and Betrus. One résumé was created using a Microsoft Word template, a feat many students find most appealing when creating their individual résumés. Two of the résumés were identical except for the objective and the layout. The names given on each résumé were not reflective of gender, and each résumé was designed to seek entry-level employment with a minimal amount of work experience. We also created typographical and grammatical errors on all résumés.

The questionnaire (Appendix B) consisted of demographic information such as company name, gender and educational level of recruiter and a quick survey composed of nine questions on a five-point Likert scale concerning résumés and their impact on employment decisions. Recruiters were asked to rank order the résumés (1 being the best; 5 being the worst) and were asked to respond to an open-ended question concerning their choice for "best" résumé and the qualities that made it number one.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data for the study was analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows. Collection of the completed packages numbered 183. From these surveys, the researchers identified 13 categories representative of the variety of industries present:

1. Hospitality/Tourism	6. Insurance	11. Health Care
2. Social Services/Temp Staff	7. Technology	12. Other
3. Governmental Agencies	8. Retail	13. Manufacturing
4. Criminal Justice/Protection	9. Accounting	
5. Financial Institutions	10. Education	

Demographic information collected indicated 40.9 percent of the recruiters were male while 58.6 percent were female. Under education, 60 percent had completed a college degree with 25.7 percent completing an advanced college degree.

Résumé Ranking

Résumé C was the résumé most often ranked number one (best) by the recruiters. Resume rankings were based on recruiters' perceptions of which should be ranked number one. Written

comments included "nice use of white space," "just enough information," and "easy to scan." Résumé D was ranked number two, followed in rank order by Résumé B, A, and finally E (Table 1). Worth noting is that the least favorite résumé (E) was the Microsoft Word template.

Table 1
Recruiter Mean for Each Résumé

Résumé	Recruiter Mean (n = 183)
A	3.07
B	2.81
C	2.33
D	2.48
E	3.66

By industry category, significant differences were found in the ranking of Résumés B ($p<.01$) and E ($p<.05$). Post hoc testing found significant differences between industry categories Social Services/Temp Staff and Government Agencies ($p<.05$) and Social Services/Temp Staff and Criminal Justice/Protection ($p<.01$) concerning these two résumé formats. Also, Criminal Justice and Insurance differed in their rankings significantly ($p<.05$) between Résumés B and E.

For Résumé E, significant differences existed between industry categories, Social Services/Temp Staff and Governmental Agencies ($p<.05$) and Social Services/Temp Staff and Technology ($p<.05$).

Employment Decision Factors

Recruiters across industry categories responded in like manner to employment decision factors. Table 2 provides the aggregate scores of the industry categories. In examining recruiters" responses to survey questions relating to employment decision factors, only question nine was found to be significantly different in answers among categories.

Significance was found upon running an ANOVA. Post hoc testing indicated that significance was attributed to the difference in retail's mean answer and technology's mean answer. The mean answer for the retail category was 3.3 while the mean answer for technology was 2, indicating that retailing valued colored paper more than the technology industry. In addition, recruiters (74.4%) overwhelmingly indicated that they accept electronic résumés as a form of application.

Table 2
Résumé Rankings by Industry Category (not percentages)

	Résumé Selections				
Industry Category	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
Social Services/Temp Staff	4	3	6	7	6
Education	1	2	1	2	2
Criminal Justice/Protection	0	5	0	1	2
Retail	2	2	2	3	2
Medical	0	2	4	2	1
Manufacturing	1	3	8	2	2
Insurance	5	1	5	4	2
Accounting	3	1	2	1	0
Government Agency	1	4	3	3	1
Hospitality	5	7	4	2	4
Banks/Financial Institutions	4	3	8	6	3
Technology	3	5	3	7	1
TOTALS	29	38	46	40	26

Educational Levels of Recruiters and Preferences

The highest level of education of recruiters among industry categories was "Education," followed by recruiters from Social Services Agencies. The lowest educational level occurred in the Insurance category. Educational categories were identified by the following: 1 = completion of high school; 2 = some college; 3 = completion of college degree; and 4 = advanced college degree. Significant differences in educational levels were found between Insurance (mean was 2.55) and Social Services (mean was 3.29) categories, and between Insurance (mean was 2.55) and Education (mean was 3.71) categories. We found no significant differences in résumé preferences among educational categories.

CONCLUSIONS

In retrospect, while the findings in this study are enlightening, one should not generalize them beyond the scope of the study. The sample represents Western Pennsylvania's industries. The following conclusions were reached:

1	Recruiters preferred simple, uncluttered résumés (Appendix A, Résumé C)
2	Templates were not acceptable formats for résumés;
3	Industries valued the same characteristics of résumés (i.e., correct grammar, punctuation, spelling, and physical appearance); and
4	Specific industries placed greater importance on certain résumé qualities than others (i.e., colored paper was important to the Retailing industry).
5	Recruiters' level of education had no bearing on their preferences or answers to survey questions.

The focus of previous studies involved human resource managers who worked inside the corporate building and had responsibilities other than hiring. More and more, students' initial screenings are conducted at job fairs and other "shopping mall" type functions. Research must be performed to insure that students present résumés that can be screened quickly by persons whose main responsibility is the scanning and reviewing of résumés.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The limited scope of the study strengthens the need for further research. Additional studies should include other regions of the United States as well as a comparison of the results of each region. As we continue our momentum toward a global society, our students need to be prepared to produce résumés acceptable to recruiters in all regions. Another geographic focus would be to examine urban versus rural recruiters' preferences.

Another focus would be surveying students to determine what they are being taught in classrooms. If student responses vary greatly from recruiter responses, then educators would need to adjust teaching résumé development to coincide with the research findings.

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Appendix B: Sample Recruiter Cover Letter and Survey

DEPARTMENT OF TECHNOLOGY SUPPORT & TRAINING
Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, PA 15705 • (724) 357-5737 • Fax: (724) 357-3013

Dear Recruiter:

As faculty members in the Department of Technology Support and Training at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, we are responsible for teaching Business and Interpersonal Communication to all College of Business majors. One component of this course involves résumé development. One of our objectives when teaching students how to draft a résumé is to insure that the résumé design and content meets or exceeds current employer expectations. Since a major part of our teaching responsibility is to remain up to date, we would like to secure your assistance in completing a short survey related to résumés.

This study will take approximately 10 minutes of your time. You will be asked to review and rank five (5) complete résumés, giving the same amount of attention to each one that you would have given had you received these five résumés in the mail on the same day. If you are willing to assist us in our research, please complete the information section below. Feel free to add any comments that you desire on the résumés or in the space provided on the Résumé Ranking Sheet. If you would like to know the results of this survey, please contact one of us at the address or telephone number above. We thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

K. Virginia Hemby, Ph.D. Kelly S. Wilkinson, Ph.D.

Company Name: Your Position:
Gender: ___ Male, ___ Female Highest Level of Education Completed: (Check one)

_____ High School
_____ Some College
_____ College Degree
_____ Advanced College Degree

Degree Earned and Major (If applicable): Years of Experience:
Does your company accept electronic résumés (résumés sent through e-mail)? Yes No

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Please rank each of the résumés (from 1 = best, to 5 = worst) in order of preference.

Résumé A _____
Résumé B _____
Résumé C _____
Résumé D _____
Résumé E _____

Why did you select your Number 1 résumé? What qualities made it the best of the five? Additional Comments can be made on the back of this page.

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Circle one response for each statement which most closely reflects your position on that statement: 5 = Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly disagree

The physical appearance of the résumé influences my employment decision.	5	4	3	2	1
Content is the only factor that influences my employment decision.	5	4	3	2	1
Grammar usage is a factor that influences my employment decision.	5	4	3	2	1
Mistakes found on the résumé influence my employment decision.	5	4	3	2	1
Complete references should be listed on résumés.	5	4	3	2	1
Course listing should be a part of the résumé.	5	4	3	2	1
All Grade Point Averages (GPA) (regardless whether 3.0 or better) should be listed on the résumé.	5	4	3	2	1
An email address should be listed on the résumé.	5	4	3	2	1
Résumés on colored paper (i.e., egg shell, cream, dove colors) influence my employment decision.	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix A: Sample Résumés

Resume A

KELLY WILLIAMS

School Address: 9 Central Avenue
Indiana, PA 15701
(724) 463-5555

Permanent Address: 444 Oak Street
Clymer, PA 15707
(724) 555-1212

OBJECTIVE: Seeking a entry level position

QUALIFICATIONS:

- Computer knowledge: Windows '95 Lotus 1-2-3
- education in business management and finance
- Hands on market research experience, including planning and conducting surveys
- Superior interpersonal skills
- Deadline oriented; able to handle pressure and hectic environment
- Work will independently
- Experience with accounts receivable
- Organized. . . Reliable . . .Enthusiastic. . . Intelligent

EDUCATION

INDIANA UNIVERSITY OF PA, INDIANA PA
Bachelor of Science- Business Management
Anticipated Graduation: May 1999

ACTIVITIES

BUSINESS LEADERSHIP ASSOCIATION
Vice President
Initiated and planned membership recruiting. Scheduled, planned and directed meetings. Set up trips with local companies to tour their firm.

MARKETING RESEARCH TEAM
Conducted surveys, made calls to marketing reps for information, and initiated research plans.

BEST MOTOR AUTO SALES
Intern
Performed clerical work, including answering phones, filing, sending collections notices, and collecting payments.

REFERENCES Available Upon Request

Resume B

KERRY S. SMITH

Permanent Address:
930 Archibald Terrace
Cherry Hill, NJ 08002
(609) 555-1210

University Address:
105 Main Street
Springfield, MA 01102
(413) 555-3476

"... I have rarely, in my ten years in the hospitality industry, encountered an individual who has shown as much promise as Kerry Smith."
–Former Supervisor

Highlights:

- Expect to graduate in May 1999 from well-respected HRTA program
- Proven self-starter who does what needs to be done without being asked
- Team player with track record of establishing productive work relationships
- Friendly, outgoing, excellent customer relations abilities
- Computer skills: WordPerfect, Lotus 1-2-3, Q&A, Delphi space management software

Education:

Western New England College, Springfield, MA
Bachelor of Science, Hotel, Restaurant, and Travel Administration (expected 5/99)
Area of Concentration: **Food Service Management**

Hospitality Experience:

CENTER CITY HILTON HOTEL, Philadelphia, PA
Intern (Summer 1998)
Received a highly complimentary, **unsolicited** letter of recommendation from the Director of Conference Services specifically praising my initiative and interpersonal skills.
CONFERENCE SERVICES (7 Weeks): Responsible for preparation of meeting rooms, audiovisual equipment, internal accounting documents, distribution of reports concerning incoming conference groups, and coordination with group representatives.
FOOD AND BEVERAGE DEPARTMENT (5 weeks): Management of dining room, including hospitality, guest check reconciliation, floor plan preparation, beverage control, and waitstaff supervision.

PIZZA HUT, Cherry Hill, NJ
Cook (Summer 1997)
Responsible for daily setup of kitchen before opening and food preparation for lunch. Waited and bussed tables. Operated computerized cash register and serviced credit card receipts.

Volunteer Activities:

SIGMA ALPHA MU FRATERNITY, Western New England College, Springfield, MA
Caterer (Fall 1996, 1997, and 1998)
Sole responsibility for planning, purchasing, cooking, and serving food for the fraternity's Alumni Weekend (twice) and Parents Weekend (twice). Average attendance was roughly 125 at these events. Made all burgers, salads, etc., from scratch.

SIGMA ALPHA MU FRATERNITY, Western New England College, Springfield, MA
Kitchen Steward (January to December 1996)
Established kitchen procedures, many still in use, for newly chartered chapter of this fraternity. Responsible for food budget, purchasing food and supplies, interviewing and hiring kitchen personnel, supervising kitchen and dining room operations, and preparing food. Also held positions of Scholarship Chairman and Fundraising Chairman.

Other Experience:

FIRST AID UNIT, WESTERN NEW ENGLAND COLLEGE, Springfield, MA
EMT/CPR Coordinator (1997 to Present)
Responsible for first aid at all athletic events, concerts, and Fine Arts Center activities. Coordinated and instructed CPR program sponsored by the College's Environmental Health and Safety Office.
Other positions include Head Instructor and Lifeguard (Summers 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996)

Resume C

Kelly Williams

School Address: 9 Central Avenue
Indiana, PA 15701
724.463.5555

Permanent Address: 444 Oak Street
Clymer, PA 15707
724.555.1212

Objective: Seeking a Management Trainee Position

Qualifications:
- Computer knowledge: Windows '95 Lotus 1-2-3
- Education in business management and finance
- Hands on market research experience, including planning and conducting surveys
- Superior interpersonal skills
- Deadline oriented; able to handle pressure and hectic environment
- Work well independently
- Experience with accounts receivable
- Organized. . . Reliable . . .Enthusiastic. . . Intelligent

Education: INDIANA UNIVERSITY OF PA, INDIANA PA
Bachelor of Science- Business Management
Anticipated Graduation: May 1999

Activities: BUSINESS LEADERSHIP ASSOCIATION 1998-current
Vice President
Initiated and planned membership recruiting. Scheduled, planned and directed meetings. Set up trips with local companies to tour their firm.

MARKETING RESEARCH TEAM Summer 1998
Conducted surveys, made calls to marketing reps for information, and initiated research plans.

BEST MOTOR AUTO SALES Summer 1997
Intern
Performed clerical work, including answering phones, filing, sending collections notices, and collecting payments.

References: Available Upon Request

Resume D

Kerry S. Smith

123 East 100th Street, Durango, Colorado 81301 **(303) 555-1234**

OBJECTIVE: To obtain a career-oriented, entry-level position

EDUCATION:

BACHELOR OF ARTS **May 1999**
Fort Lewis College, Durango, Colorado
Major: Political Science
Concentration: Business Administration

WORK EXPERIENCE:

BARBACK AND BOUNCER **1998-1999**
Shooters Tequila Bar, Durango, Colorado
Provided security for a 200-person capacity night club, including compliance with federal regulations. Assisted bartenders with drink preparation and distribution of bar supplies.

DISC JOCKEY **1997-1998**
KDUR Radio Station, Durango, Colorado
Involved in all aspects of a federally licensed and regulated radio station. Sole on-air personality for three-hour music and information program. Chose format, completed all Federal Communication Commission (FCC) documentation, and maintained music library.

MANUFACTURING STATION WORKER **Summer 1996**
Rubbermaid, Incorporated, Greenville, Texas
Worked thirty-person third shift in Just-In-Time Workshop producing molded plastic piecewear. Operated molding machines and assisted supply room manager.

COURIER **1994-1996**
First National Bank of Trenton, Texas
Delivered documents, daily transactions, and large sums of cash to branch offices and vendors.

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA: Nine years involvement in all aspects of program
Member of the National **Eagle Scout** Association
Member of the Order of the Arrow
Attended Philmont Scout Ranch, 1988
Attended National Jamboree, Fort A. P. Hill, 1985
Selected to attend Council-Wide Youth Leadership Training

COMPUTER SKILLS: WordPerfect, Lotus 1-2-3, First Choice, MS-DOS, and GW BASIC

Resume E

Robin Taylor

341 Main Street Apt. 34B
Fox Hills, CA 90230
Phone 310-555-1212

Objective

Seeking an Internship

Education

1995 - 1999 Indiana University of PA Indiana, PA 15705
Bachelor of Science in Finance

Work experience

1997 - 1999 Indiana University of PA Indiana, PA 15705
Tutor
- Assist students in sharpening their math skills.

1996 - 1998 Steven M. Hoefflin, M.D. Indiana, PA 15701
File Clerk
- Filed medical Records and insurance forms.

1995 - 1997 Family YMCA Indiana, PA 15701
Assistant Manager
- Tutored and supervised children and assisted the Director.

1992 - 1995 Sears Indiana, PA 15701
Sales Person
- Assisted customers, handled complaints and problems.

References

Available upon request

AN ANALYSIS OF MISSION STATEMENTS FROM TOP COMPANIES: CONTENT AND STYLE

Lynn Godkin, Lamar University
Sean Valentine, University of Wyoming
Heather Boler, Christus Health
Tahwanda Lambert, Jefferson County, Texas

ABSTRACT

A convenience sample of 300 corporate mission statements from America's top companies was analyzed. Results of word, paragraph, and sentence counts were compiled along with the use of passive sentences. The Flesch Reading Ease percentage and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level measures were calculated. The majority of the statements sampled were active in voice, 8% held 15 keywords in common, and mission statements in some industries were longer and more difficult to understand than other. Recommendations for future study include tying the variables examined in this study to company performance and analyzing mission statements from certain industries for content and clarity.

INTRODUCTION

Interest in the development of mission statements has intensified over the last decade (Fairhurst, Jordan, & Neuwirth, 1997; Stone, 1996). They are one of the most widely used tools in organizational development, a process that involves teaching organizational members to solve problems and to seize opportunities (Bart, 1999; French & Bell, 1995). A well-documented mission statement can enable an organization to transform broad aims into specific strategic plans and long-term objectives (Cheng, 1999; Sunoo, 1996).

Mission statements tend to positively influence the performance of organizations in several notable ways. Mission statements frame and motivate the work of individuals within the corporation by outlining and communicating explicit organizational goals and priorities (Chubb, 1990; Weiss, 1996). Communication tends to flow much more efficiently in organizations that have well written mission statements because employees share a common frame of reference (Chubb, 1990). Since communication flows more efficiently, mission statements can articulate needed values to employees, thereby prompting increased commitment and identity with the organization (Campbell & Nash, 1992; Weiss, 1996). Mission statements affirm organizational distinctiveness, outline the firm's contributions to the public, and invite external stakeholder support by encouraging shared

ownership of goals. Communication of the mission can also ease the reliance on currently held sources of competitive differentiation by facilitating the procurement of new external resources (Chubb, 1990; Drucker, 1992). Since mission statements prompt organizational activity in response to environmental changes and pressures (Harvey, 1998), they must change as the environment changes, or the firm will not grow strategically (Rigby, 1998; Stone, 1996; Weiss, 1996).

A variety of issues have been considered in previous mission statement research. Some studies describe how to effectively generate the statement itself through strategic planning efforts (Stone, 1996), while others have prescribed the essential features and characteristics of the mission statement (Stone, 1996). Others have sought to identify the content of well-written mission statements from successful companies, and there are several reasons why these content analyses are needed (Abrahams, 1995; Bart, 1999; Rarick & Vitton, 1995). Generally, speaking, there is limited consensus regarding what should be stated in the mission statement itself (Bart, 1999; Rarick & Vitton, 1995). Also, mission statements often "lack clarity, relevance, salience, veridicality (truthfulness or representativeness), inspiration and/or engagement by management" (Fairhurst et al., 1997, p. 244).

Using a convenience sample of 300 mission statements, the purpose of this investigation is to describe mission statement content. The research objectives of this study include describing the average length of mission statements, highlighting their typical characteristics such as voice (passive or active) and readability, and determining the number of keywords as cited by Abrahams (1995) that appear in the mission statements sampled. Based on an assessment of current literature on mission statements, it was predicted that the mission statements sampled would be on average one to two paragraphs, be of active voice, have a high degree of readability, and be written on a high reading grade level. It was also expected that the fifteen keywords cited by Abrahams (1995) would appear frequently throughout the 300 mission statements sampled.

EFFECTIVE MISSION STATEMENT CONTENT AND STYLE

Companies compose, present and distribute their missions in many different ways. The differences become apparent when you examine the basic elements that comprise and distinguish a mission statement. One dimension of evaluation is found in the language or style with which the mission is expressed. Clarity/readability and activist tone are two dimensions of rhetorical style that have been linked to corporate results. The mission statement should be clear if the objective is to clarify goals and priorities, since it becomes the basis for shared expectancies and action plans. The mission statement needs to be action and value oriented, and should precipitate 'emotional energy' among employees by highlighting an organization's direction and leadership philosophy (Porter, 1997).

According to Stone (1996), there appears to be no standardization with regard to length of mission statements. For some companies, a single-sentence mission statement appears to be sufficient, while others generate grand, lengthy documents that begin with the basic mission but also include vision statements, values, philosophies, objectives, plans, and strategies. And still others are somewhere in between, longer than one sentence, but no longer than one page. A general 'rule of thumb' is that a mission should be long enough to reach the target audience (Abrahams, 1995). A

mission statement should ultimately describe what would be accomplished in a concise and succinct manner, preferably in one to two paragraphs that are clearly written and simple to interpret. According to Drohan (1999), mission statements that are longer than 30-40 words may unnecessarily highlight topics that are usually documented in other elements of the strategic plan. A mission statement should inform organization stakeholders about the company's purpose and position in the market. To do this effectively, the statement should be adapted to a wide target audience, but should avoid the use of highly technical terminology and unfamiliar words (Drohan, 1999; Stone, 1996). Certainly, organizational values needed to carry out the firm's vision should be briefly presented. Stakeholders will more likely incorporate stated values and vision into short-range planning and daily activities (Drohan, 1999).

The tone of a mission statement is a crucial part of its makeup. "If the language used is lofty or ponderous, even the most on-target mission statement will not be taken seriously" (Drohan, 1999, p. 117). Establishing the right tone requires the deliberate choice of pointed but easily understood words that give a statement character and uniqueness. Even though the statement should be easily understood, it should speak convincingly to the target audience (Abrahams, 1995).

Many scholars and practitioners suggest that mission statements be inspirational and challenging to organizational members. They also recommend that statements be written in future tense because such language sets an agenda. Mission statements should also use first person language because this promotes employees' identification with the mission more so than third person. Finally, it is recommended that statements be written in the active voice, since this style is more likely to motivate than the passive voice. According to Porter (1997), the statement should be both active and outcome oriented.

Another dimension for evaluation is the substantive content of the mission statement. The content of the mission is usually driven by several elements such as an organization's role, the way an organization satisfies its objectives, and an organization's environmental conditions (Fawcett, 1997). According to Rarick and Vitton (1995), mission statements commonly refer to several distinct operational elements that include *concern for company image*, *concern for quality*, *commitment to survivability*, *growth, and profitability*, *identity of customers and products*, and *statement of company philosophy*. These basic elements may be expressed with keywords and phrases that set a mission statement's tone and generally highlight ideas regarding operations, key values and principles, company objectives. According to Abrahams (1995), the most often-cited words in mission statements are *best*, *commitment*, *communities*, *customers*, *employees*, *environment*, *growth*, *leader*, *mission*, *quality*, *respect*, *service*, *success*, *team*, and *values*.

An element that shapes mission statements is the target audience, or the select group of stakeholders for which the mission statement is intended. While some companies provide mission statements that are intended for the general public, others target the mission specifically at employees. Still others target their mission statements toward stockholders and potential investors by incorporating such communication into annual reports and other investment literature (Abrahams, 1995). Overall, the target audience has a significant impact on the length, tone, and visibility of the mission statement. Since the tone of the mission statement may vary, knowing the target audience enables the mission to be customized to the preferences of a certain focal group (Drohan, 1999).

Format influences how the mission statement is distributed to a variety of target audiences (Abrahams, 1995). The manner in which the mission is presented to stakeholders also influences how the statement may be perceived. For instance, some statements appear primarily in an organization's annual report, while others surface in other mediums so they can be easily dispersed in published brochures, booklets, and handbooks (Fairhurst, Jordan, & Neuwirth, 1997). Some companies that are formal in nature publish mission statements that can be publicly framed for display in high traffic areas (see Morris, 1997). Other companies reproduce their mission statements in small wallet-size formats for ease of distribution to employees and other interested parties (Rigby, 1998).

In summary, an exceptional mission statement expresses a firm's aim, conveys the organization's identity, and considers the organization's strategic direction. Such a statement should add meaning and stability to a company's purpose, especially when a firm must deal with transitions and instability. Besides providing such security, mission statements challenge organizations to accomplish realistic goals.

METHOD

A convenience sample of 300 corporate mission statements was taken from *The Mission Statement Book: 301 Corporate Mission Statements from America's Top Companies* (Abrahams, 1995), which considers the mission statements of 301 highly successful companies. Each statement was analyzed individually, and results from a grammatical check produced information about word, paragraph, and sentence count. The average number of sentences per paragraph, percentage of passive sentences, and statement readability, as measured with the Flesch Reading Ease percentage and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, were also calculated. The results of these analyses along with the industry classification of each statement, which provided additional interpretive information, were then coded, and descriptive statistics were produced.

The grammatical analysis of the mission statements provided valuable content information. The passive sentence analysis indicated the percentage of sentences in the document that used passive instead of active voice. Sentences in the active voice are considered more direct and, therefore, easier to understand. The Flesch Reading Ease analysis displayed statistics based on the average number of words per sentence and the average number of syllables per 100 words (Note: Standard writing averages 17 words per sentence and 147 syllables per 100 words.). Flesch Reading Ease Level of difficulty is quantified in the following manner: 90-100 very easy, 80-90 easy, 70-80 fairly easy, 60-70 standard, 50-60 fairly difficult, 30-50 difficult, and 0-30 very difficult. The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level is another readability index, also based on the number of syllables per word and the number of words per sentence. The Flesch-Kincaid number specified the approximate level of education required to easily read and understand the document. A score of 7 or 8 is approximately equivalent to a Flesch Reading Ease Score of 60-70, the range for standard writing. The higher the score, the more difficult the material is to read (Alki Software Corporation, 1995-96).

RESULTS

The results of the descriptive analyses are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The shortest mission statement sampled was 3 words, and the longest was 484 words. The mean mission statement word count was 77.68 words with a standard deviation of approximately 68 words. The median number of words in the sample of mission statements was 56 words, which implies that 50% of the 300 mission statements had word counts between 3 and 56 words and 50% had between 56 and 484 words. The mode was 29 words, corresponding to 9 mission statements or 3% of the 300 statements. The shortest mission statement sampled was 1 paragraph, and the longest was 20 paragraphs. The mean paragraph count per mission statement was 2.54 paragraphs with a standard deviation of 2.72 paragraphs. The mode is 1 paragraph, corresponding to 175 mission statements or 58.3% of the 300 statements. With regard to sentence count, the mean value was 3.73 sentences with a standard deviation of 3.81 sentences. The mission statements that had the fewest number of sentences had 1, while the statements that had the most had 22 sentences. The mission statement mode was 1 sentence, corresponding to 113 mission statements or 37.7% of the 300 statements.

With regard to sentence structure and readability, 248 or 82.7 % of the 300 mission statements sampled had passive sentence percentages of zero. Therefore, the majority of the statements sampled are considered direct and easy to understand. The average mission statement sampled has a Flesch Reading Ease score of 25.17, which corresponded to very difficult reading. A frequency distribution completed on the basis of the Flesch Reading Ease Scale determined that 169 or 56.3 % of the mission statements sampled fell into the very difficult reading scale, 108 or 36 % of the mission statements sampled fell into the difficult reading scale, 11 or 3.7 % of the mission statements sampled fell into the fairly difficult reading scale, only 8 or 2.7 % fell into the standard scale, and 4 or 1.3 % fell into the fairly easy to very easy scales. The average mission statement sampled had a Flesch-Kincaid Grade level of 11.56. Of the 300 statements sampled, 235 or 78.3 % have a grade level score of 12, which confirmed that many of the mission statements were difficult to read.

Since keywords and phrases frequently set mission statement tone, word counts on the fifteen most often cited keywords identified by Abrahams (1995) were executed for the 300 mission statements sampled. The most widely used keywords included *customers* (310), *service* (308), *quality* (201), *employees* (161), *values* (161), *mission* (132), and *growth* (99). The least extensively used keywords included *best* (88), *communities* (63), *commitment* (62), *environment* (56), *success* (54), *leader* (42), *respect* (41), and *team* (35). The word counts comprised 8% of the total word count of the 300 mission statements sampled.

An assessment of the mission statements sampled with regard to the thirty-five industry classifications identified by Abrahams (1995) was also conducted. After carefully considering the outliers, five industries that have mission statements with average word counts above 100 can be identified, which include banking, chemicals, electronics, food and beverage, and media/printing/publishing. Four industries had the highest mission statement word count in the sample, including *banking* (Meridian Bancorp, Inc. 319 words), *chemicals* (Olin Corporation 300 words), *food & beverage* (Anheuser-Busch Companies, Inc. 484 words), and *media/printing/publishing* (Banta Corporation 388 words). Conversely, four industries were found

with average word counts less than 50, which included *advertising*, *agriculture*, *oil & gas*, and *real estate*. All other industry word counts fell between a range of 51 to 99 words.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Median	Mode	Minimum	Maximum
Word Count	77.68	68.00	56	29	3	484
Paragraph Count	2.54	2.72	1	1	1	20
Sentence Count	3.73	3.81	2	1	1	22
Passive Sentence Percentage	3.90	10.82	0	0	0	100
Flesch Reading Ease	25.17	18.32	24.5	0	0	100
Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	11.56	1.28	12	12	.6	12

Table 2
Reading Range

Range	Frequency	Valid Percent
0-30	169	56.3
30-50	108	36.0
50-60	11	3.7
60-70	8	2.7
70-80	2	0.7
80-90	1	0.3
90-100	1	0.3

In addition to word count reading ease between industries was considered. It was found that 8 of the 35 industries sampled had a Flesch Reading Ease score above 30, and these industries included *advertising*, *agriculture*, *business products*, *construction*, *consumer goods & services*, *media/printing/publishing*, *motor vehicle & related*, and *retail*. As stated above, the reading ease score above 30 is still difficult reading. The other 27 industries fell on average below 30 on the

Flesch Reading Ease scale, therefore indicating very difficult reading. All 35 industries had an average grade reading level of 10.07 and above, indicating an education level of tenth grade necessary to read and understand the statements.

OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Overall, the average mission statement sampled was one to two paragraphs, three to four sentences, and 78 words in length. The majority of the statements sampled were active in voice, which could easily lead to the conclusion that the missions were direct and easy to understand. However, the reading ease of the statements was found to be very difficult, and a twelfth grade reading level is necessary in order to comprehend the majority of mission statements sampled. Furthermore, the mission statements were made up of several keywords that expressed the tone and spirit of the statements, and 8% of the total word count of all the mission statements sampled were comprised of 15 of these keywords. Looking at the industry classifications, the mission statements in several industries were much lengthier and more difficult to understand than in other industries.

Analysis suggest that many successful companies rely on brief but concisely written mission statements that incorporate a preferred group of keywords that enrich the communication itself. According to Rarick and Vitton (1995), high content or enriched mission statements tend to increase the average return for firms. Unfortunately, many of the statements in the sample required a high reading level for adequate comprehension, and this raises some concerns regarding effectiveness. If stakeholders cannot completely understand the mission statement, the mission will tend to lose its effectiveness and credibility. There is already a perception among many managers and scholars that mission statements are not as essential as many organizational leaders have implied in the past (Goett, 1997; O'Gorman & Doran, 1999). Even if the stakeholders understand the message, wispy statements of lofty goals that do not communicate the company's genuine purpose are not usable.

Based on the results, strategic planners must remember to target their stakeholders when writing mission statements instead of their fellow managers and coworkers. The mission must articulately convey the company's purpose, direction, and aim, but it must do so in a competent manner using language and terminology that is familiar to the target audience. With regard to word choice, using the enriched vocabulary highlighted by Abraham (1995) appears to enhance mission statement effectiveness, especially since many of these words are utilized throughout many business literatures. Clearly, establishing the correct resonance requires a careful selection of widely used words that convey a specific identity, character, or value. However, Abraham's (1995) list of key terms is by no means comprehensive, and other words that reflect new trends in business and organizational management should be incorporated. For instance, Rarick and Vitton (1995) found that few companies mention diversity in their mission statements. Global trade, diversity, business ethics, social responsibility, and information technology are all vital sources of competitive differentiation and strategic advantage in today's business environment, and these concepts deserve more attention in mission statements.

Some recommendations for future study include tying the variables examined in this study to company performance and analyzing mission statements from certain industries for content and

clarity. These analyses would aid in the development of industry-specific recommendations regarding what enriched words should be used to enhance organizational achievement.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATORS

Analyzing the content of mission statements is a productive endeavor that deserves richer attention in class. Since such statements provide valuable insight into strategic planning, for example, much can be learned from mission statements that are used by successful companies. Consideration of the Mission Statement in the context of case analysis might be considered in light of these findings.

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COMPARISON OF PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION STUDENTS AND BUSINESS PROFESSIONALS TOWARDS GAYS AND LESBIANS IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Business communication curriculums are provide extensive literature on how work successfully with various groups of people in the workplace, examples of such groups that receive attention in most business curriculums are: (1) Asians; (2) Afro-Americans; (3) Women; and (4) Handicapped. Although this is not an exhaustive list, one culture that there appears to be a dearth of literature in business communication textbooks are preparing future students to work with gays and lesbians as a culture in corporate America. This research will focus asking employers and students about their perceptions and attitudes towards gays and lesbians in the workplace. In addition, the study ascertained what the current climate in the workplace is towards gay and lesbian employees.

INTRODUCTION

In preparing future employees for work in business, many business communication courses discuss corporate cultures. Many business communication authors have stressed in order for students to be successful in today's workplace they must understand corporate culture (Boone & Kurtz, 1995; Bell, 1994; and Bovee and Thill, 1999). When discussing corporate culture, many business communication textbooks offered specific guidelines for dealing with various groups that make up the culture of the organization. Business communication curriculums provide extensive literature on how to work successfully with various groups of people in the workplace. Examples of such groups that receive attention in most business curriculums: (1) Asians; (2) Afro-Americans; (3) Women; and (4) Handicapped. Although this is not an exhaustive list, one area that does not appear to be addressed in business communication textbooks is the preparation of future employees to work with gays and lesbians as a culture in corporate America.

Most workplaces have programs in place to increase the awareness of issues particular to minorities and the physically challenged. Unfortunately few programs exist which address the issues pertinent to gays and lesbians. While programs designed to increase awareness of minorities exist, the issues that face gays and lesbians in the workplace are not one of numbers. James Woods, author of "The Corporate Closet," estimates that as a group, lesbians and gay men probably outnumber Hispanics, Asian-Pacific Islanders, the disabled and others whom we have traditionally classified

as minorities. If the standard 10% estimate can be believed, their proportion of the professional work force approaches that of African Americans, who represent 12.1% of the population--but only 5.6% of the professional work force (p. 207).

Yet countless employers continue to overlook the needs of a group of employees that may comprise anywhere from 6% to 12% of the work force (Woods, 1994). By choosing to ignore sexual orientation as a diversity issue, companies send a clear message: Diversity means valuing only those employees with whom we feel comfortable.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

There is no question that a significant portion of the gay and lesbian population has expressed that they have experienced some kind of discriminatory treatment in the workplace (Kovach, 1995). Similarly, a significant number of CEOs have indicated in surveys that they would hesitate to give management jobs to workers who are homosexual. However, it is only recently that homosexuality has been openly discussed, particularly within the context of the workplace. So it is no surprise that to date there is no federal law that prohibits discrimination in the workplace based on sexual orientation. The research focused on asking business communication students (BCS) about their perceptions and attitudes towards gays and lesbians in the workplace and on asking business professionals (BP) about their perceptions and attitudes towards gays and lesbians in the workplace. Certain other demographic factors were also considered. The following research questions guided the study:

What are the perceptions and attitudes of BCS towards gays and lesbians in the workplace?

What are the perceptions and attitudes of BP towards gays and lesbians in the workplace?

What is the current corporate climate in the workplace towards gays and lesbians?

What types of topics, training, and instruction should be provided to business students as future employees at the undergraduate level to increase an awareness and understanding of working with gay and lesbian workers?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many human resource managers ignore the issues that affect gay men and lesbians in the workplace. Not only avoid resistance from other managers and employees, but also because they lack education about such issues (Lucas & Kaplan, 1994). Consequently, human resource policy decisions regarding homosexual employees may be based on stereotypes and misinformation. In such cases, a significant segment of the workforce--gay men and lesbians--becomes the object of discrimination (Lucas & Kaplan, 1994).

A recent *Time* magazine article provided mixed reports on the progress of gay men and lesbians toward social acceptance in this country.. Henry (1994) reported that although some positive steps have been made during the past 25 years, a period of intense gay activism, " gays may already be bumping up against the limits of tolerance" (p. 55). In reporting the results of a Time/

CNN survey conducted in June 1994, Henry noted that approximately 65% of the Americans polled thought that " homosexual rights were being paid too much attention"(p. 55). He also noted that the proportion of people who described "homosexuality" as "morally wrong" was identical to that revealed by a 1978 survey–53% (p. 55). The survey also showed that 64% of respondents believed that "marriages between homosexuals" should not be recognized legally (p. 58).

Polls have consistently demonstrated that women have more liberal attitudes on gay issues than do men. For example, according to a Gallup Poll conducted in 1993, 56% of the women surveyed favored extending civil rights laws to include "homosexuals," compared to 35% of men (Moore, 1993, p. 30). Similarly, 30% of the women surveyed agreed that they "prefer that homosexuals stay in the closet," compared to 45% of men (p. 34).

Caudron (1995) states,

> *We're spending a lot of time and effort creating workplaces that value diversity because we don't want to lose talented employees to the competition or under-use anyone's skills or unique perspective. Besides, a diverse work force helps us do business in a diverse marketplace. But there's one minority group that's continually overlooked in our diversity discussions. A group whose challenges and unique perspective are so misunderstood that many people in human resources simply choose to ignore them. Unlike other minority workers, these employees are still the target of toxic humor, if not outright discrimination, harassment and scorn (p. 42).*

According to the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force in Washington, D.C., since 1990, at least 130 private companies have added the words "sexual orientation" to their statements of non-discrimination. Furthermore, well over 60 companies have extended domestic-partner benefits to gay employees, including Lotus Development Corp., Levi Strauss, Microsoft Corp. and Apple Computer.

The gay and lesbian rights movement has spilled over into the workplace as well as into other social arenas (Smith, 1994). Management will have to take steps to diffuse any potential problems arising from the controversial issues involved.

INSTRUMENTATION

Characteristics of the BCS Population

The population for the study were BCS who were enrolled in business and interpersonal communications at a state-supported four-year university in the Northwest section of Pennsylvania.

Age: Varied
Sex: Males and females were included.
Number: 310
Inclusion: all students currently enrolled.
Exclusion: none.

Students enrolled in the business communication courses for the spring of 1998 were the population for the study. Participation was voluntary.

Characteristics of the Business Professional Population

The population for the study were business professionals and employers currently listed on the Career Services list of a state-supported four-year university in the Northwest section of Pennsylvania.

Age: range varied.
Sex: males and females were included.
Number: 523
Inclusion: currently listed employers.
Exclusion: none.
Participation was voluntary.

Research Design

This study followed a descriptive research design using survey methods with statistical treatments. In deciding which survey method is best suited for a particular piece of research, Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) stated that it is necessary to evaluate which criteria are most significant to the research objective.

The design was a cross-sectional survey. Babbie (1990, p. 65) stated that the cross-sectional design is the most frequently used study design. Babbie supports the use of this type of survey when

> *...data are collected at one point in time from a sample selected to describe some larger population at that time. Such a survey can be used not only for purposes of description but also for the determination of relationships between variables at the time of study (p. 62).*

The survey method is one of the most important data collection methods in the social sciences, and as such, it is used extensively to collect information on numerous subjects of research (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996, p. 247). If the researcher's aim is a single-time description, then a cross-sectional survey is the most appropriate. As Babbie (1990) states, "The researcher would

identify the population relevant to his interests, select a sample of respondents from the population, and conduct his survey" (p. 68). This survey modeled Babbie's statement.

Two survey instruments were employed: (1) a Likert scale entitled, "Attitudes and perceptions of BCS towards gays and lesbians in the workplace;" (2) a Likert scale entitled, "Attitudes and perceptions of BP towards gays and lesbians in the workplace;" When employing survey research, one must be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of this type of research. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), when discussing the survey method offered, "…its major advantages are lower costs, relatively small biasing error, greater anonymity, and accessibility. Its disadvantages are a low response rate, opportunity for probing, and the lack of control over who fills out the questionnaire" (p. 248).

In order to minimize the disadvantages of using the survey methods, the design method" (TDM) suggested by Dillman (1978) was used as a guide. Dillman (1978) defined the TDM as, "…consisting of two parts. The first [part] identifies each aspect of the survey process that may affect either the quality or quantity of response and to shape each of them in such a way that the best possible responses are obtained. The second [part] organizes the survey efforts so that the design intentions are carried out in complete detail" (p. 12). Using Dillman's TDM will help to minimize the problems of response quality and quantity. In other words, "…this is nothing more than the identification of each and every aspect of the survey process that may affect response quantity or quality and shaping them in a way that may encourage a good response" (p. 2).

The data in this descriptive study was collected using standard survey procedures as described by Dillman (1978). Each of the potential BCS participants received a coded survey packet containing the following items: (1) Cover letter describing the study to the potential participant and an outline of the procedures to be followed in completing the forms in the survey packet; and (2) The survey with a section on demographics (brief questions asking for biographical and demographic information such as gender, major, age, etc.). In order to preserve the confidentiality of BCS respondents, each packet was not assigned a code number. This non-coding insured that all survey packets remained private.

Each of the potential BP participants received a coded survey packet containing the following items: (1) Cover letter describing the study to the potential participant and an outline of the procedures to be followed in completing the forms in the survey packet; (2) The survey which included a section on demographics (brief questions asking for biographical and demographic information); (3) A self-addressed stamped envelope was included for the convenience of the respondent to encourage greater participation (Dillman, 1978). In order to preserve the confidentiality of BP respondents, each packet mailed was assigned a code number to be used for follow-up purposes. One follow-up was completed via postcard.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data for scores from the Likert scale were scored through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows (SPSS+ for Microcomputers, release 4.0); statistical tests were performed on the data from the scale. Descriptive and comparative analyses were made.

FINDINGS

Two hundred and forty three BCS participated in the survey that communicated to a 78% response rate. A total of two hundred and fifty one BP responded to the survey. There were eight surveys that were not usable. The total usable responses were 243, which indicate a 46% response rate. Table 1 posed the question concerning anti-gay attitudes in the workplace and Table 2 focused on asking the BCS and BP specific questions related to attitudes towards gays and lesbians in the workplace. The questions in Table 2 covered the following areas: management, supervisory and entry level workers, negative comments and joke telling, and the need to address gays issues in their careers. Table 3 offers reactions to various statements concerning gays and lesbians in the work place.

Table 1: Anti-attitudes

S=Student Responses P=Professional Responses		Very little extent	Little extent	Some extent	Great extent	Very great extent
To what extent do you think anti-gay, anti-lesbian and anti-bisexual attitudes exist in the workplace?	S	2.1%	16.1%	57%	21.9%	2.9%
	P	7.8%	17.6%	49.3%	22.9%	2.4%

Table 2: Attitudes towards Gays/Lesbians

S=Student Responses P=Professional Responses		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Do you think that a supervisor's knowledge of an employee's sexual orientation would affect his or her chances of promotion or a favorable job assignment?	S	3.3%	4.1%	54.4%	26.1%	12.1%
	P	39%	29.8%	24.9%	6.3%	N/A
How often does an employee's sexual orientation create stressful situations at work?	S	2.9%	14%	41.7%	27.7%	13.7%
	P	14.2%	31.7%	43.4%	9.3%	1.4
How often do you believe that sexual orientation affects an employee's career success or ability to develop professional networks and contacts?	S	7.1%	17.9%	43.3%	25.8%	5.9%
	P	22.9%	35.6%	35.6%	5.9%	0%
Does sexual orientation affect an employee's ability to work as part of a team?	S	30.4%	32.5%	25.8%	7.5%	3.8%
	P	36.6%	37.6%	22.9%	2.4%	.5%
Do you believe that employees are discriminated against in their current jobs because of sexual orientation?	S	0%	8.8%	47.1%	32.1%	12.0%
	P	7.8%	22.9%	54.6%	13.2%	1.5%
Do you think the work environment is accepting of gay and lesbian people?	S	2.5%	22.5%	57.5%	15.8%	1.7%
	P	.5%	5.4%	58%	27.8%	8.3%

Table 3: Reactions towards statements of Gays and Lesbians in the Workplace					
S=Student Responses P=Professional Responses		Agree strongly	Agree somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Strongly
High school sex education classes should Include information about being gay, lesbian or bisexual.	S	26.2%	39.7%	17.3%	16.8%
	P	50.3%	33.7%	12.7%	3.3%
There should be law prohibiting gay and lesbian relationships.	S	8.1%	16.1%	28.4%	47.4%
	P	1.5%	5.4%	13.2%	80%
Gay or lesbian people should be allowed to serve openly in the US military.	S	34%	25.2%	23.5%	17.3%
	P	63.9%	21.5%	7.8%	6.8%
Gay or lesbian people should have the legal right to adopt children.	S	21.1%	27%	23.2%	28.7%
	P	54.2%	25.4%	13.2%	7.2%
Gays and lesbians should have the legal right to get married.	S	28.2%	37%	16%	18.8%
	P	59.5%	19.5%	10.7%	10.1%
Gay and lesbian people should not be allowed to teach in public schools.	S	10.9%	13.8%	31.8%	43.5%
	P	9.8%	3.9%	16.1%	70.2%
Gay and lesbian people should not be allowed to hold positions in the clergy.	S	26.5%	17.1%	28.2%	28.2%
	P	12.2%	13.2%	22.9%	51.7%
Gay and lesbian people should not be allowed to hold management or supervisory positions within organizations.	S	5.9%	9.2%	27.7%	57.2%
	P	3%	1%	10.2%	85.8%
Gay and lesbian people should not be permitted to hold a political office.	S	7.2%	9.7%	30.5%	52.6%
	P	3.5%	1.5%	10.7%	84.3%
Gay and lesbian people should not be permitted to hold positions in the health care field.	S	10.1%	8.4%	32.8%	48.7%
	P	3%	5.4%	49.3%	42.3%

Discussion Related to Findings

Business communication students need to realize that "in an organization of any size, statistically speaking, at least 3% to 12% of the people in the organization are gay, lesbian or bisexual" (Adams, 1996, p. 78). Caudron (1995) states that countless employers continue to overlook the needs of a group of employees that may comprise anywhere from 6% to 12% of the work force. What does the workforce recommend for diversity as it relates to gay and lesbian individuals? The initial results of the research indicate that the "don't ask, don't tell" attitude that has been reported in the literature continues to exist

Most workplaces have programs in place to increase the awareness of issues particular to minorities and the physically challenged. But not gays and lesbians (Woods, 1995). Sexual orientation issues should be integrated into workforce diversity initiatives. It is important that gay and lesbian employees be considered as valuable by the organization, as women, religious minorities and people of color. It should be explained that the reasons for recognizing the importance of gays and lesbians is the same reason everyone else is given importance, that is, to encourage all employees to contribute their maximum potential.

Business communication students as indicated in Table 1 indicated to some extent that there is an existence of prejudice towards gays and lesbians in the workplace (57% some extent, 22% great extent and 3% very great extent). It appears that BCS do feel that there does exist anti-gay/lesbians attitudes. How pervasive are anti-gay and anti-lesbian attitudes in the workforce today? The majority of BP believed that anti-gay or anti-lesbian attitudes do exist, with most (49.3%) indicating that they exist "to some extent." This is an important finding because of these students who will be future professionals understand that the attitude does exist, they will be more conscious of setting up a workplace more tolerant of gays and lesbians. Acknowledgment of this situation could be a very important first step into breaking down barriers for gay and lesbian employees.

The first section in Table 2 discussed the issue if knowing an employee's sexual orientation would affect promotion or favorable job assignment. Business communication students indicated that if supervisors knew the sexual orientation of the employees that, considering the workplace in general, any gay or lesbian person would be "sometimes" (54.4%) or "often" (26.1%) to be denied a promotion or favorable job assignment based on their sexual orientation. Offering a different perspective, BP indicated that supervisor's knowledge of employees sexual orientation would "sometimes" (24.9%), "rarely" (29.8%) or "never" (39%) be denied promotion or favorable job assignment. It appears that if these BCS enter the workplace, employees' sexual orientation will be a mute point when determining promotion or favorable job assignment for employees. The realistic picture of the BP must be communicated to BCS.

Employee sexual orientation as it relates to creating stressful situations at work both BP and BCS responded in agreement. Almost 83% of the BCS indicated from sometimes to very often that employee sexual orientation can cause stressful situations at work. A little over half (56%) of all respondents also indicated that an employee's sexual orientation could create "stressful" situations at work. In a 1992 survey by Out/Look, 28% of gay men and 38% of lesbians who responded said the need to hide their sexual orientation was a constant source of stress on the job (Hernandez, 1996). Change comes slowly, but it comes. Hequet (1995) states:

> *At least 115 big U.S. companies now have formal language vowing they won't discriminate against employees on the basis of sexual orientation in hiring, firing and promoting. A score or so offer benefits to homosexuals' domestic partners, as they do to straights' spouses. Eight states and a number of local governments forbid discrimination based on sexual orientation. All told, about 32 percent of all U.S. citizens live in areas with laws forbidding discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (p. 53).*

Nearly 75% of BCS indicated that sexual orientation does affect an employee's career success and ability to develop professional networks and contacts. Nearly 42% of all BP indicated that an employee's sexual orientation affects an individual's career success or ability to network. There appears to be agreement from both groups on the problem gay and lesbians may have when trying to network.

Almost 75% of BP felt that being gay or lesbian would "never" or "rarely" affect a co-workers ability to work as part of a team. This may be true, but a gay or lesbian individual may be tolerated as a productive member of a work team; however, full acceptance and assimilation into the corporate networks where power is wielded and promotions are awarded may be off-limits based on one's sexual orientation. As one respondent noted "Employees network and form friendships with peers by networking on weekends with other employees and their spouses — gays and their partners are not included."

Over 60% of the BCS indicated that sexual orientation never or rarely affects an employee's ability to work as team. The literature offers a grim review on the ability of a gay or lesbian to be an effective team player. Henry (1994) offers,

> *time at home and closeting at work can make for one gloomy, hard-to-be-with colleague. Another finding: Gay men who felt stymied at work because they were closeted said co-workers judged them to be "difficult and angry" (p. 54).*

Hequet (1995) stated,

> *Still another consideration: Effective teams tend to socialize off the job - and closeted homosexuals who don't want to bring partners will not participate much if at all (p. 53).*

A closeted gay or lesbian makes a lousy team member says Tim Peterson, associate professor of management. Some straights agree that coming out is good for the workplace. The closeted are likely to be what organizational development experts call "alienated-committed" - that is, halfheartedly committed to the job, but only until something better comes along. One study of gay Belgian men found that lack of social support contributes to depression; the inference is that a bad University of Tulsa. We have to encourage them to be themselves (As found in Hequet, 1995, p. 53). Business communication students can take measures to reassure that gay or lesbian employees can be contributing team players by fostering a more accepting environment. Business communication students as future professionals must understand the importance of teamwork in the workplace. They must continue to include all employees to make a productive team—this could mean offering increased understanding of the personal lives of gay and lesbian employees.

Nearly 70% of the BP indicated that employees are discriminated against because of sexual orientation and over 92% of the BCS indicated that employees are discriminated against because of sexual orientation to some extent. BCS as future managers need to value diversity, especially when

it comes to gays and lesbians. They need to push for the workplace to change. Homosexuality is merely another component of diversity in an already diverse workforce (Caudron, 1995). Many anti-attitudes exist because people do not understand the difference between tolerance and acceptance. Lewis (1995) carefully differentiates tolerance from acceptance arguing that,

> *employers can only demand the former and should teach their employees that tolerance does not necessarily mean approval: "Christian managers don't think they are endorsing or encouraging Judaism when they refer to the December office social function as a holiday party" (p. 65).*

Lewis offers a good example for BCS to think about.

Is the work environment accepting of gays and lesbians? Over 55% of both BP and BCS indicated that the environment is "sometimes" accepting. Nearly 25% of the BCS indicated that the work place is "rarely" or "never" accepting of gays and lesbians.

Table 3 asked a variety of questions on issues relating to the workplace. When asking about gays and lesbians ability to hold certain position or occupations, BCS and BP reported positively on many items. Most BCS and BP disagree somewhat or disagree strongly to the following statements: (1) gays and lesbians should not hold political office BCS-(30.5%, 52.5%), BP (10.7% 84.3%); (2) gays and lesbians should not position in health care BCS-(32.8%, 48.7%), BP-(49.3%, 42.3%); (3) gays and lesbians should not hold clergy positions BCS-(28.2%, 28.2%), BP-(22.9%, 51.7%); and (4) gays and lesbians should not hold teaching positions in public schools BCS-(31.8%, 43.5%), BP-(16.1%, 70.2%). Should gays and lesbians should be allowed to serve in the military? BCS agree strongly (34%) and agree somewhat (25.2%) that military service by gay and lesbians is permissible. In support of this BP overwhelming strongly agree (63.9%) or agree somewhat (21.5%) with support for gay and lesbian military service. Well over 76% of BCS and 90% BP disagree or somewhat disagree to some extent on laws prohibiting gay and lesbian relationships. In addition, over 65% of both BP and BCS indicated that they agree to some extent that gays and lesbians have the legal right to get married and reported that high school sex education classes should include information on gays and lesbians. It appears that BCS were spilt on agreement on whether gays and lesbians should be able to adopt children (21% agree strongly, 27% agree somewhat, 23% disagree somewhat, and 28% disagree strongly). Business professionals reported more support of gays and lesbians to adopt children (54.2% agree strongly, 25.4% agree somewhat, 13.2% disagree somewhat, and 7.2% disagree strongly). It appears that BCS indicated that sexual orientation should not matter in relation to occupation. Both groups report that personal issues like marriage and education should be a part of workplace policies.

A significant shift now under way in the American workplace is causing more human resources professionals to address gay employment issues, not because they feel they "should," but more because they have to--- and that shift stems from the comfort more and more gay employees are feeling about revealing their sexuality at work (Caudron, 1995, p. 42) Business professionals have indicated that the workplace is somewhat accepting of gays and lesbians. Business

communication students as future employees must analyze why some of their colleagues may have indicated that the workplace is not accepting of gays and lesbians in the workplace. These perceptions and attitudes of non-acceptance could fuel the channel to dispel myths and stereotypes of gays and lesbians in order to make the workplace more accepting. It could be that gay and lesbians are being attracted to companies that are becoming more and more "gay friendly." The most successful companies are ones that understand both the nature and the needs of their workforces and their markets. That is one reason diversity awareness is becoming a high business priority (Hernandez, 1996).

Given the findings, BCS as future workplace employees must strive to create an environment where gay and lesbians (1) are not discriminated against; (2) whose career success is not hindered; (3) whose ability to develop networks and contacts are not hampered; (4) whose workplace does not create stressful situations based on sexual orientations; and (5) where findings from this study can be communicated and disseminated to foster a tolerant workplace. BCS need to push for sexual orientation issues to be integrated into workforce diversity initiatives. It is important to tell people that gay and lesbian employees are considered as valuable to the organization, as women, religious minorities and people of color are. Lucas and Kaplan (1994) state that it should be explained that the reasons for putting importance on gays and lesbians is the same reason everyone else is given importance, that is, to encourage all employees to contribute their maximum potential.

Gay people who feel comfortable revealing their true selves are probably more productive and more loyal employees (Caudron, 1995). Given this fact, BCS as future professionals must be equipped with strategies, tactics, and information that will enable them to work successfully with all members of their workplace. As stated earlier, most business communication textbooks offered information on working with other minorities, but some text on the issues of gays and lesbians in the workplace still needs to be included. Until that becomes "matter of fact", the following literature can be offered as initial curriculum for business instructors of any discipline to insure that they are preparing the best and most well rounded professional.

Inclusion Curriculum for the Business Communication Curriculum

The following is offered from BP and BCS on providing information on understanding the issues surrounding gay and lesbian employees. Exposure of this information to business faculty will help prepare future professionals with tools for working with gays and lesbians in the workplace. The open-ended questions provide some information that could provide prescriptive measures for the current classes; as innovative suggestions for classroom practice; and overriding comments worth attention. BP and BCS provided the following responses summarized in three categories- Class, Suggestions, and Comments.

Class
Health and Wellness classes which include more information about the topic.
A class totally devoted to the issue should be offered.
Gay and lesbians speakers.
TV/Media presentations.
Case examples of real-situations that have occurred in the workplace.
Discuss in greater detail workplace diversity in business communications.
More detail on Federal and State laws applying to this type of discrimination in Introduction to Business.
Internships, sensitivity training, and self-awareness workshops.
Non Western 100 Level LS course on this topic.
The need for making it a required topic for discussion for EN 121, Humanities Literature.
I'm not really sure, I think that by the time people get to college they already have there thoughts on this issue, which would be hard to change because a lot of people don't want to become comfortable with the situation. It should start at home and in high schools. However, there should be a course dealing with the fact that when you are a professional you can discriminate anyone and you will have to become comfortable working with any particular type of person.
A class on understanding diversity, and make it a requirement.
Well, you can't teach acceptance. However, as a science or medical type of classes with concern on what makes people gay would maybe fly. This hypothetical course curriculum should only be a liberal study and not mandatory.
I think freshman should enroll in a course in the beginning of their college career that introduces them to the different things that they will encounter in a college setting.

Suggestions
A gay & lesbian awareness group.
More information about them in Health & Psychology classes.
Seminars and workshops in residence halls.
Talk about GLB issues during freshman summer orientation. Having a workshop on these issues will probably prepare high school students for more interaction with GLB individuals.
Well-advertised awareness day.
Students need factual information without having their a feeling that their religious beliefs have been stepped on or their parents teachings.
Require an orientation class for first year students with an emphasis on diversity issues (sexual orientation, ethnic, race, etc.).
Have them visit a workplace that has gays and lesbian employees to see if they even know that gays and lesbians exist there—also to see if the work environment is at all different from other work environments.
One set of students should do "mock" hiring of various applicants using qualifications and resume only for specific jobs without using names or sexual preference. Another set of students should do same as above but with the knowledge of names and sexual preference. Varying results should be discussed and analyzed by both groups.
Openly gay profs.
Biographical studies of important people who were gay.
Exposure of acts of hatred and their effects on people.
Student group discussions in which they express their feelings.
Formations of groups with a voice like athletics, fraternities, and others.
Teachers who can relate to what is going on with these individuals.
More understanding and empathetic people.

Comments
I believe discriminating against homosexuals should be looked at in the same light as discriminating against African Americans. It shouldn't be tolerated. Sexuality is a very personal thing and professors do not have the right to encourage feminine behaviors that mock that of a gay man. It's ridiculous! I'm in a place to learn. I'm here to get a broad knowledge of all cultures. If we don't become educated about certain cultures in college, where will we learn? Professors need to grow up. We're all here together…we need to learn to live together peacefully.
I don't believe there is a need for course curriculum devoted to understanding gay and lesbian individuals. I do not see a need to know people's sexual preference.
I believe everyone should be open-minded.
I believe sex ed. should be taught at home. I have no problem with homosexuals as long as they keep to themselves. I do not advance my sexual orientation and I do not expect them to either. Keep it at home.
I do not believe it should be a course, as it would be singling out one group over another.
I don't believe sexual orientation should matter. Who cares who people sleep with I don't. There just shouldn't be any sexual harassment in the workplace straight or gay.
I believe that people are going to believe what they want to believe, and I don't know if adding this subject to course curriculum will help or make it worse. It is true that gays and lesbians are equal to straights, but some people are just ignorant and narrow-minded.
I believe everyone knows as much as they need to – learning more about it won't help them open their minds – they'll just tune it out.
I personally believe that if people keep their sexual orientation away from the workplace there would be a lot less discrimination towards them.
I believe that there needs to be discussions on both sides of the issue at the same time, which may cause problems. The reason being that there are some "straight" people who are confused on the issues, and may need to know more about the gay & lesbian community to make fair decisions.
Does it matter to anyone if I an interested in women at the workplace? So why should it matter if some people are interested in either genders or whatever. I think, the gays overreact to people. Even if I saw a man and a woman kissing with passion I would be grossed out, I would react the same way with two man or woman kissing in public.
I believe people should be informed not to be afraid, just to relax and look at the person and their personality.
I believe that everyone should stop trying to jam it down his or her throats! People answer for their own choices and actions and therefore it should NOT be a course curriculum. Stop trying to make other peoples sexual choices acceptable to everyone who might not agree.

I don't believe there needs to be because the bottom line is: I love lesbians but I prefer to stay away from faggots. Bi-women are okay, Bi-men are faggots. Transsexuals are just freaks.
I don't believe there should be any curriculum about it. If people want to "learn": about the subject they can do it on their own. Too much emphasis is always put on sexual preference…who cares.
I personally believe experience is the only "real" way a person can learn to understand diversity. No methods of teaching or knowledge can change attitudes or pre-judged ideas. I lived with 2 gay guys this summer and the experience totally opened my eyes into a whole new world that I had completely shut myself off from. I would never choose that type of lifestyle myself, but I kind of understand now why some people do.
I believe faculty & staff should have to go through some sort of diversity training course. It would be beneficial to them in their curriculum to include some information on GLBT issues where appropriate.
I believe that the idea that sexual orientation has no place in the workplace overlooks the reality that most employees bring a lot of their personal life to work. Heterosexuals have pictures of their families in their offices, they have baby showers, wedding showers; they tell stories about their weekends; they share marital problems, etc. These examples make the gay employee feel isolated.
I believe employees network and form friendships with peers by networking on weekends with other employees and their spouses—gays and their partners are not included.
I believe that the workplace doesn't need to change, it's the attitudes of the people in the workplace.
I believe children should be taught from the time they enter kindergarten to respect everyone despite their differences.
I believe more disciplinary action should be taken for students & teachers who publicly degrade students who are gay in class.
I don't believe it needs to be discussed in the workplace, it should be left as it is, don't ask, don't tell.

Strategies to Achieve a Non-discriminatory Workplace

The following strategies are offered to increase employees' comfort level concerning sexual orientation and to increase awareness of issues affecting gays and lesbians in the workplace. These strategies can be offered as information for instruction in current business communication classes or for training in current workplaces. Techniques for removing barriers to acceptance and obtaining information about the organization's gay-and-lesbian sector are discussed. They are as follows:

Adopt, publicize and enforce a written policy prohibiting discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation in recruitment, hiring, evaluation, advancement or compensation.
Train managers, interviewers and employees to be sensitive to gay and lesbian issues and to make a clear distinction between these and AIDS issues.
Avoid double standards. Apply policies dealing with sexual harassment, nepotism, spousal listings in directories equally to opposite-sex and same-sex situations.
Combat insensitivity and isolation.
Allow gay and lesbian employees to form workplace networks, and treat them the same as other employee groups. Promote fair and balanced coverage. Consider lesbian and/or gay angles important elements of coverage.
Develop a nondiscrimination policy that explicitly includes sexual orientation.
Create a work environment free from heterosexist, homophobic, and AIDSphobic behaviors.
Incorporate a company-wide education about gay and AIDS workplace issues.
Provide an equitable benefits program that provides for domestic partners
Integrate sexual orientation into ongoing diversity efforts, telling people that the reasons for valuing gay and lesbian employees are basically the same as reasons for valuing women, religious minorities, and people of color in the workplace; so that all employees can contribute to their fullest potential, unhampered by prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination. What makes homosexuality a pressing workplace issue in 1999 is that more gay people are coming out of the closet, and they as do, their friends and family members expect equitable treatment for them.
Explain that the reasons for recognizing the importance of gays and lesbians issues is the same as the reason for recognizing the importance of everyone else, that is, to encourage all employees to contribute to their maximum potential.
Encourage senior executives to get involved so that they won't feel blindsided if called on to discuss relevant employee policies. One way is to provide senior and line managers with a half-day workshop on sexual orientation as an aspect of workforce diversity or on homophobia in the workplace. If the issue of sexual orientation surfaces in the context of gay bashing, ask frank questions that get to the heart of the matter. Point out that the productivity of all employees can be adversely affected by homophobia and "heterosexism," a belief that heterosexuality is superior to homosexuality and that everyone is or should be heterosexual.
Don't assume everyone is heterosexual.
Examine the office language and culture. Are homophobic slurs common in everyday conversation? Are antigay jokes told without concern for whom they might hurt? If so, remind those who use them of their potential for harm. (This includes offenses to any minority)
Include "significant others" or "friends," not just "husbands and wives," on invitations to corporate functions.

Have an open-door policy that allows employees to feel free to talk about anything of a personal nature that affects their work.
Consider diversity training as a way of making all employees comfortable with these issues.
Check into company's policy on anti-discrimination to see if sexual orientation is included. Look into the feasibility of extending hard benefits to same-sex domestic partners.
Realize that forming official networks for gays and lesbians make great sense to a corporation that wants to remove workplace obstacles that keep people from flourishing. (Adams, 1996; Badgett, 1995; Hernandez, 1996; and Lucas & Kaplan).

To be effective, diversity training must be designed to change the myths of diversity (such as, it's just a code name for affirmative action), to educate participants about the realities of diversity, and to offer ways to respond to the challenges of valuing and managing diversity.

Activities for the Business Communication Curriculum

The following activities can be utilized by BCS as case studies to get a greater appreciation of workplace diversity as it relates to gays and lesbians:

BCS can apply a traditional approach to understanding a segment of the workforce, which involves students' going to the members of that segment to gather information and look for patterns of discrimination. But the fact that many gay men and lesbians in the workplace are "in the closet"—not open about their own sexual orientation—makes this approach difficult but there does exist groups within organizations who are open.
BCS, when working, can create employee survey aimed to gather information about an organization's gay and lesbian employees should include questions that enable such employees to identify themselves as gay or lesbian, describe their experiences as members of a minority in the company, and give their perceptions of what others think about their sexual orientation.
BCS can create human resource professional surveys that ask about incidents of discrimination against gay and lesbian employees and about nondiscrimination policies, awareness training, and domestic-partner benefits in other organizations, focusing on competitors that are in the same industry and that compete for the same labor pool.

BCS can tap into informal networks for gay and lesbian employees via the Internet. More than 30 major companies in the United States--including Xerox, AT&T, Eastman Kodak, and Apple--have such networks. Often, the members discuss sexual-orientation issues with top-level managers. Through networks, companies can identify people who might be willing to participate in focus groups or provide testimonials about their experiences as members of a minority in the company. Keep in mind that only people who are willing to risk being "out" may agree to participate, even when assured of confidentiality. Many companies have organizations that are specifically for gay and lesbian workers.
BCS can summarize and critique articles related to the diversity issues facing gays and lesbians in the workplace such as an article such as "Gay in Corporate America" (Fortune, December 16, 1991), and ask for feedback, including a written analysis of the implications in the context of the corporate culture.

SUMMARY

The gay and lesbian rights movement no doubt will continue to make its way into the workplace. In turn, more employees are likely to discuss their sexual orientation at work. Therefore, BCS as future employers/employees need to foster tolerance of gay and lesbian individuals to avoid potential problems, such as discrimination, harassment and even violence. More companies and BP today are making efforts to support their gay and lesbian employees. Business communication students who will be future managers must understand that the gay and lesbian rights movement has spilled over into the workplace as well as into other social arenas. As businesses face greater competition, both domestically and globally, companies will have to ensure that they are recruiting the most qualified candidates available. In a sense, it is self-defeating for a company to deliberately cut itself off from a particular talent pool just because of misgivings about that group's lifestyle. Addressing sexual-orientation issues is both a personal and an organizational responsibility. Business professionals can benefit from this information as they try to design diversity training for their future employees. In addition, BP could use this information to try to understand what attitudes and perceptions this new potential pool of workers may come to the workplace with. The feelings and fears of individuals tend to work their way into company policy, company policy tends to form the attitudes and behaviors of individuals. Today's students as tomorrow's professionals will need to foster acceptance, exhibit tolerance, and promote positive attitudes in order to help the individual, and in turn, the organization achieve its goals. Business professionals should model the same.

As one person stated, "The opportunity to be able to be who I am and express myself allows me to break down the barriers I have erected out of my own internalized homophobia. My self-respect is higher. I'm able to be a more fully functional employee and a better human being "(anonymous). Current and future professionals can continue to help break down barriers by having an understanding of the issues facing gays and lesbians. In addition, information in this manuscript will equip them with the knowledge necessary to make that happen. BCS as future professionals who understand and value workplace diversity will certainly create an environment free of discrimination and help the organization achieve its full economic potential.

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RELATIONALIZING PUBLIC RELATIONS: SELECTED INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION CONCEPTS AND RESEARCH WITH APPLICABILITY TO RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

An alternate perspective termed relationship management has emerged in public relations that recognizes the essential role of developing and maintaining strong relationships between organizations and their internal and external publics. This article examines selected interpersonal communication theories and concepts that have applicability for relationship management. Specifically, fundamental interpersonal communication assumptions and axioms, dialogic communication theory, and listening research are examined as potential contributors to relationalizing public relations. The essay serves to demonstrate that as the relationship management paradigm in research, theory and practition continues to expand, it will become increasingly valuable to draw from interpersonal communication research and theory.

A PARADIGM SHIFT

My family took a vacation to California when I was a youngster. My parents crammed my two brothers and me into our 1953 Ford Fairlane and we were on our way to palm trees, the Pacific Ocean, and Disneyland! Unfortunately, my father was completely focused on his ultimate goal of getting to our destination. Nothing between St. Louis and Los Angeles held any interest for him! Such wonders as the Painted Desert, the Grand Canyon, and the Petrified Forest were ignored because dad had a mission to accomplish and the goal was all important. My father had a mental picture of an ideal vacation in California without being aware that the vacation was already in progress and that he could be accomplishing his goal along the way. Ironically, the quality of the trip itself with its numerous opportunities for new explorations and building of family relationships became irrelevant in the relentless pursuit of his goal. Our family members were treated as a means to an end rather than as the end. One major truth eluded my father: enjoying and concentrating on the quality of the relationships on the trip would eventually manifest itself in the achievement of a far richer goal than arriving at his preestablished "image" of the destination.

Traditional approaches to public relations tend to focus on the creation of an image or of a perceptual reality. This functional view concentrates on the strategies and technical processes necessary to achieve the desired end state, which is a particular public perception of an organization, product, or service. Little or no attention is traditionally given to the relational dynamics involved.

At the very least it is ironic that relationships with significant publics or customers have been such a low priority for public *relations* practitioners. Historically, they have been blind to the wealth of relationship-building potential and rewards available to them because of their unique communication position. This shortsightedness is reminiscent of the vacation my family took to California. The vacation was a human experience, an interpersonal experience, not a destination.

In recognition of and response to this myopia, an alternate perspective has emerged in the continuous evolution of the discipline and practice of public relations, one which might be termed the "relationalizing" of public relations. This approach involves mutual benefits for organizations and their publics through the development of behavioral relationships rather than the symbolic, persuasion-oriented activities of the "image makers" of the past (for elaboration on these activities, see Cutlip, Center, & Broom, 1994; Ferguson, 1984; Grunig, 1993).

Relationship management is at the heart of this new perspective, which a growing number of public relations researchers and practitioners are advocating (Ledingham and Bruning, 2000). Relationship management in public relations settings can be defined as the development, maintenance, growth, and nurturing of mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their significant publics. The basic impetus of this new perspective is the recognition of the essential role of strong bonds and relationships between organizations and their internal and external publics. It is an acknowledgment of the fact that public relations involves much more than strategies and formulas to generate a desired image or a series of functions.

This approach has contributed to what some have termed the beginnings of a "paradigm struggle" in public relations in which the "dominant applied model, based (at least in the United States) on a journalistic heritage and business orientation" is now being challenged by other views (Botan, 1993). Botan notes that the field of public relations is faced with choices between assumptions and values of various paradigms Some theorists see such paradigms as the symmetrical/systems, rhetorical/critical, feminist, and social scientific as among those competing in this paradigm struggle for dominance or, at the very least, equity.

However, it may not be necessary to choose which perspective is correct or which will be the dominant view. Some suggest that the traditional symbolic-relationship orientation and the behavioral-relationship orientation are complementary with both being necessary for an accurate and thorough perspective on the role of public relations (Ledingham, Bruning, & Thomlison, 1996). Grunig (1993) believes that this so-called struggle is a result of viewing symbolic relationships in isolation from actual behavioral relationships. He explains:

> When symbolic relationships are divorced from behavioral relationships, public relations practitioners reduce public relations to the simplistic notion of image building. Public relations practitioners then offer little of value to the organizations they advise because they suggest that problems in relationships with publics can be solved by using the proper message--disseminated through publicity or media relations--to change an image of an organization.

> For public relations to be valued by the organizations it serves, practitioners must be able to demonstrate that their efforts contribute to the goals of these organizations by building long-term behavioral relationships with strategic publics--those that affect the ability of the organization to accomplish its mission (p. 136).

Clearly, Grunig supports a cooperative, practical blending of the two approaches if organizations are to achieve their goals. He concludes: "Symbolic relationships and behavioral relationships are intertwined like the strands of a rope. As a result, public relations practitioners must strive to build linkages between the two sets of relationships if their work is to make organizations more effective" (p. 136). Thus, it would appear that public relations has ample room for multiple paradigms which combine the applied with the theoretical and the symbolic with the relational.

Similarly, there has been ongoing tension between those who are grounded in a mass communication perspective and those rooted in an interpersonal communication orientation (Thomlison & Ledingham, 1989). The mass communication grounding manifests itself in a tendency to see the solution to most problems in the production of media or through the placement of media stories. Interpersonal specialists, on the other hand, often decry the lack of application of relational principles to problems in the organization-public relationship. The over-dependence on media is suspect for other reasons as well. Many believe that as media outlets continue to increase exponentially in number, form and diversity, their impact and image-creation ability will continue to be diluted at a corresponding rate. This trend may serve as a catalyst to generate more mutually beneficial bonds and attention to resolving long-standing tensions between those grounded in mass communication and those with an interpersonal orientation.

With the growing acknowledgment of the rich untapped resources of interpersonal communication and its potential applicability for public relations practitioners, it may be possible to enrich public relations through a greater awareness and appreciation of the complementary nature of these two areas of study. A vital component of this new awareness will be the application of relevant interpersonal communication assumptions, axioms and theories to public relations research, theory and practice.

RELATIONAL COMMUNICATION ASSUMPTIONS

One method of understanding and appreciating the nature of interpersonal relationships is to examine some of its underlying assumptions. Montgomery (1992) points out that theories of relational communication possess a common set of assumptions:

(1) Relationships and communication are inseparable.
(2) The communication determines the nature of the relationship.
(3) Relationships are most often defined implicitly rather than explicitly.
(4) Relationships develop over a period of time through negotiation.

These assumptions have broad-based significance for public relations environments. For example, it is a basic supposition that relationships are an inevitable part of communication with others, including an organization's communication with its publics. Furthermore, these relationships are continually being defined, even if they are not consciously and explicitly being defined.

Over time, these basic assumptions have evolved into some fundamental interpersonal axioms that may provide further insights about the applicability of interpersonal communication concepts to public relations settings.

COMMUNICATION AXIOMS

Beginning in the 1960's, a group of relationship theorists led by Gregory Bateson founded the Mental Research Institute in Palo Alto, California. The "Palo Alto Group" studied interpersonal communication and developed a series of observations about the basic nature of relational interaction. They believed there was a need to synthesize the thinking and findings from diverse contexts into a unified communication theory that would explain the everyday interactions of people at home and work. This was not possible if their focus was limited to only select parts of the phenomenon being studied. Thus, the Palo Alto Group was not content to just examine psychological research and theory. Beginning with Bateson's work, Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson expanded the synthesis into other areas of thought including communication and other social sciences, mathematics, philosophy, and literature. Anderson and Ross explain the basic philosophy of these thinkers and the significance of this broadened perspective:

> The relationship between the object of study (whether it is the person, behavior, object, etc.) and its environment is where scientists should concentrate their attention. Although this insight had taken hold in the natural sciences by the mid-1960's, the social sciences, they thought, were still searching for properties, characteristics, or traits that made people more or less social, more or less communicative. This stress on *relationship-function* as a representation of communication, to replace the message transmission and reception model, was their long-standing contribution. "The observer of human behavior . . . turns from an inferential study of the mind to the study of the observable manifestations of relationship," they claimed (Watzlawick, et al., p. 21) and "the vehicle of these manifestations is communication" (p.21). (Anderson & Ross, p. 175)

Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson summarized their findings in a classic work titled *Pragmatics of Human Communication*. They noted that relationships are part of a complex system in which the participants constantly define their relationships by creating, adapting, reinforcing, or revising their interaction patterns (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, p. 120). The importance of this body of work for those seeking a greater understanding of relationships is emphasized by Anderson and Ross when they state: "If there is any professional book that we would recommend to communication undergraduates, both for historical and conceptual values, this would be it" (p. 176).

A *transaction* is generally considered to be the basic unit for the analysis of interpersonal communication as well as the building of relationships. Although the participants need not necessarily be face-to-face in the same physical space, there must be mutual awareness of each other for a transaction to exist. Therefore, it is possible to engage in interpersonal transactions via mediated channels as long as both parties are aware that their partner is perceiving him or her. In each transaction there is a simultaneous assignment of roles based on three factors: (1) one communicator's imagination or expectation of the other's role, (2) the context, and (3) behavioral cues during the transaction.

Moreover, every transaction is governed by an implicit set of rules. Thus, sets of intricate implicit rules evolve in every type of relationship, whether it be a personal, social, or business relationship. Friend to friend, family member to family member, worker to worker, stranger to stranger, customer to clerk, business representative to business representative, and organization to internal and external publics all have implicit rules of communication behavior. As an example, every relationship has a certain control factor operating, a level of liking, patterns of interaction which vary according to context and conditions, specialized meanings for verbal and nonverbal communication, and a multitude of other adaptive systems constantly functioning. In order to decipher these complex and ever-changing patterns, the Palo Alto Group developed five basic axioms about human communication based on system principles (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967).

Axiom One: *One Cannot Not Communicate.* In other words, people are constantly communicating. This axiom declares that it is impossible to avoid communication once a transaction has been established in which there is mutual awareness (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, pp. 48-51). The basic premise is that any perceivable behavior, including withholding behavior, has the potential to be interpreted as meaningful by another even if it was not intended to be meaningful. Prior to the work of the Palo Alto Group, most behavioral researchers viewed communication as only the receiver's reproduction of the sender's understanding, so there was an emphasis upon studying only those acts that led to sender and receiver congruence in understanding. However, this axiom said that all behavior has "message value" (Anderson & Ross, p. 176). Therefore, "one cannot not communicate." The implications of this simple, grammatically incorrect statement are far-reaching and significant, since neither intention nor accuracy of interpretation is required for meaning to be attached to a "message". Behavior which is assigned meaning becomes messages, intended or not. As we all know, ignoring another person is still communicating large amounts of information!

Axiom Two: Messages Have Both Content and Relational Meaning. Every message contains information about the content under discussion (how much an item costs, when the kids

will be home from soccer practice, what's for dinner, who will be going to the concert, where to pick up your friend, etc.) as well as data on the nature of the relationship (roles operating, status of the relationship, who is more in control, defiance, fear, who cares the most, etc.). Content meaning is often termed the denotative level (the literal, surface-level, dictionary meaning of the language used), while relational meaning is often referred to as the connotative or interpretive level (how you intend the message to be decoded or interpreted). Relationship meaning involves information about how each communicator perceives his or her current interaction and the rules guiding that transaction. Each communicator is simultaneously relating to the content information as well as noting and commenting on the relational information. Much of this so-called metacommunication (communication about communication) is manifested through nonverbal means, although verbal choices also convey important data. Thus, communicators use metacommunication to give cues to each other regarding how to interpret the content messages.

Axiom Three: The meaning of Messages Depends on its Punctuation. Punctuation refers to the process of dividing and organizing interactions into meaningful patterns. Much like words must be separated and organized by punctuation marks to generate meaning, our interactions with others are composed of a continuous series of verbal and nonverbal behaviors that must be grouped or punctuated into units to be meaningful. All participants in an interpersonal transaction, such as a conversation, will have their own individualized punctuation of the communication behaviors present. The specific meaning of the interaction will be determined by the way each person punctuates the messages. The classic example often given to illustrate the way sequencing punctuation can affect the meaning of an interaction is a couple involved in a combination of nagging and withdrawing (Littlejohn, 1996; Smith & Williamson, 1981). One participant may punctuate the transaction as follows: "I only withdraw after he nags at me" (an attack followed by a strategic retreat). However, the other participant may see the transaction differently: "The only way I can get through to her is to nag her when she withdraws" (ignoring followed by imploring). Each has interpreted a different meaning to the same situation based on how they organized or punctuated the sequence of communication behaviors. Public relations campaigns sometimes overwhelm their publics with multiple messages and message sources. The interpretation by these publics may well be radically different from the organization's perception.

Axiom Four: Messages Include Both Digital and Analogic Coding. Digital codes are arbitrary in the sense that any sign can be used to represent an action, event, object, or person. As my undergraduate philosophy professor often declared: there is no "deskness" in a desk! The word "desk" is simply an arbitrary symbolic representation of the actual desk. We could call the desk by another symbol and it would not change the nature of the actual object. Just as electronic digital codes are either on or off, likewise our digital communication codes are either present or not present in the form of words, sounds, and phrases. Language is the most common human communication digital code. In addition, nonverbal signs called denotative gestures, such as a hitchhiker's thumb, have a literal translation attached to them and are digital codes.

On the other hand, analogic codes are associated with, are a part of, or resemble the referent they represent. For example, we tell someone how tall the basketball player was with digital codes called words, but we also use our hand gestures (analogic codes) to illustrate or resemble the height and size of the player. We laugh or cry (analogic codes) when we experience certain emotions. In

this case, these analogic codes are part of the actual events rather than just arbitrarily selected symbolic representations of the events. Whereas digital is discrete (on or off), analogue is continuous with variations in intensity and longevity. In a transaction we are constantly sending nonverbal messages. Thus, nonverbal behaviors are primarily analogic. As we learned with axiom one, we are constantly communicating even when we are silent. The degree to which a communicator acknowledges the presence of their partner is continuous analogic data about the relationship during the interaction. How often a customer is contacted by the customer relations department at the local automobile dealership where you purchased and have your car serviced is continuous analogic data about how important the dealer thinks customer satisfaction is, whether the dealer intended it to be meaningful data or not. Nonverbal information about the emotions being experienced by our communication partner are analogic and continuous. As human beings it is part of our innate nature to "feel" emotions at all times (Thomlison, 1982, p. 227). Emotions are always present in a transaction with another person--to a greater or lesser extent, we are experiencing emotions, our partner is experiencing emotions, we are aware of their emotional state, and our partner is aware of ours. It is impossible to not feel. Even relatively neutral emotions are still feelings (calm, comfortable, passive, bland, and so forth). Therefore, a rich source of analogic codes comes from nonverbal behaviors indicating one's emotional state at any particular moment in the interaction.

It should be remembered that these two sources of information are interconnected and work together to provide overall meaning for a message and the relationship. Although serving different functions in an interpersonal transaction, both digital and analogic coding combine to create overall meaning. Littlejohn describes this blending process this way: "Digital signs, having relatively precise meanings, communicate the content dimension, whereas the analogic code, rich in feeling and connotation, is the vehicle for relationship messages. So while people are communicating content digitally, they are commenting about their relationship analogically" (Littlejohn, 1996, p. 253). Therefore, developing long-term, trusting relationships involves more than using digital codes to "say the right things"! It is the combination of digital and analogic data that grows and maintains strong, close, healthy relationships.

Axiom Five: A Transaction is Either Symmetrical or Complementary. In a symmetrical relationship the communicators treat each other as equals. Communication behavior directed toward one's partner is similar to that which is received from their partner. For example, each communicator listens when their partner is talking or each tells the other what to do in an attempt to dominate the transaction or neither wants to make the decision about where to have dinner so each keeps deferring to their partner. All of these are examples of various types of symmetrical relationships. If both persons attempt to dominate by being "one-up", we have competitive symmetry; if both attempt to defer control to their partner by being "one-down", we have submissive symmetry. There is a type of equality or balance in symmetrical relationships because both partners experience the reciprocity of "getting what they give"--also termed the "dyadic effect".

On the other hand, in a complementary relationship the communicators behave differently toward each other. For example, a manager tells a worker to do something and the worker complies; or a person has a dominant relationship with a friend who is submissive or passive. Control is usually equal or shared in symmetrical transactions and disproportionate in complementary

transactions. Remember that a relationship is constructed of numerous interactions or transactions. Therefore, while a relationship will have a predominantly complementary or symmetrical primary pattern, individual conversations may fluctuate between these two types of exchanges.

The five axioms just discussed provide important insights into the nature of interpersonal transactions and the multitude of meanings encapsulated in every message. Although established from face-to-face interactions, it is reasonable to believe that many of these basic principles for establishing meaning of messages and relationships will also apply to a variety of contexts, whether it be interpersonal, small group, public address, organizational, mass communication, or any combination such as organizational-personal relationships.

For example, even when attempting to not communicate by delaying a response, a profit or not-for-profit organization can be clearly communicating messages to its customers/clientele. Swift, straightforward action by the manufacturers of Tylenol immediately following a few cases of product tampering spoke volumes to a concerned public about the commitment of the company to its customers. There was no attempt at withholding or manipulating information to shirk responsibility or minimize costs associated with recalls, initiation of new safety measures, and manufacturing a more tamper-proof container and tablet.

Not all organizations are as forthright as the manufacturers of Tylenol. March 23, 1989, the oil tanker Exxon Valdez leaked 10.1 million gallons of oil into beautiful Prince William Sound resulting in previously unimaginable environmental damage. The attempts by Exxon Oil to divert, distort, and delay information about the oil spill in Alaska were also heard loud and clear by the public. Furthermore, the oil company's corporate relations department was (1) communicating through its choice of denotative content, a wealth of information at the relational level about a lack of regard for the general public as well as the environment, (2) punctuating the sequence of events to save face and place blame rather than save Alaskan wildlife and take responsibility, (3) communicating with digital as well as analogic coding, with the analogic speaking far clearer than the crafted words of the digital coding, (4) attempting to develop a symmetrical-appearing relationship when it was obvious that a complementary relationship philosophy was the reality. Corporate destroyers of the environment have used a multitude of tactics to distort the reality of their actions or inaction to the point that a new term has been added to our contemporary vocabulary: "Greenscam" (Liska & Cronkhite, 1995).

Thus, the applications and implications of these seemingly basic axioms are far reaching and significant in the information age. Any profit or nonprofit organization that ignores these fundamental principles of communication risks paying a high price figuratively and literally. Additional insights for application of interpersonal concepts can be provided by examining some selected interpersonal theories. Two areas that appear to hold great potential in providing fruitful contributions to the relationship management perspective are Dialogic Communication and Listening.

MONOLOGIC AND DIALOGIC COMMUNICATION

An essential component of an individual's humaneness is communicative interaction with others. Communicologists, philosophers, anthropologists, psychologists, theologians, sociologists,

and a host of other contemporary thinkers have approached the topic of communication from varying perspectives. A fascinating area of inquiry about human communication has derived its origins from these diverse fields of thought. Human communication as dialogue is called "the third revolution in communication" by Floyd Matson and Ashley Montagu in *The Human Dialogue* (1967). The first revolution, in this frame of thought, was the scientific invention phase that produced mass communication. The second revolution was the scientific theory and human engineering phase that produced cybernetics and motivation research. According to Matson and Montagu, the third revolution places emphasis upon openness and mutual respect.

Numerous writers, thinkers, and theoreticians such as Arnett (1981), Brown & Keller (1979), Buber (1958), Howe (1967), Jaspers (1964), Johannesen (1971, 1996), Matson & Montagu (1967), Meerloo (1967), Rogers (1961, 1980), Ruesch (1971), Stewart (1978), and Thomlison (1972, 1974, 1975, 1982) have explored dialogic communication in one form or another. Their approaches and emphases vary, but each deals with some of the prime aspects of dialogue. Because of this diversity, this orientation toward communication has been characterized by several different names including the following: presence, encounter, genuine communication, therapeutic encounter, supportive climate, nondirective therapy, existential communication, facilitative communication, helping relationships, authentic exchange, conversation, I-Thou relationship, and dialogue.

Dialogic encounter assumes an essential faith in human interaction. It is not a method, but rather an attitude or orientation toward communication. In dialogic communication each participant possesses genuine concern for their partner instead of viewing them as a means to an end. This facilitative communication is opposed to coercing and exploiting, dishonest forms of interactions that are used to manipulate people in various degrees. Dialogue is characterized by trust, openness, spontaneity, caring, sensitivity, sincerity, and empathy. In a sense, it is the "stuff" of which ideal interpersonal relationships are made. As we move toward deeper, more honest forms of interpersonal interaction, we are also moving toward dialogue (Thomlison, 1982).

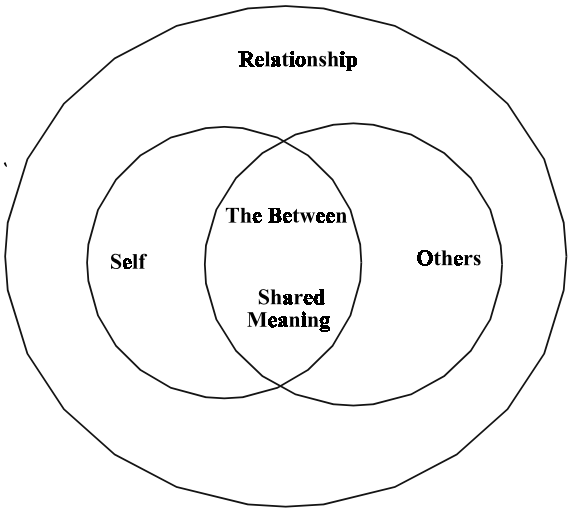
Martin Buber, the renowned philosopher, developed a profound interest in dialogue. His *I-Thou* and *I-It* concepts are one well-known way of viewing many different types of relationships. Three types of dialogue were recognized by Buber: (1) genuine dialogue, in which a mutual relationship grows, (2) technical dialogue, in which there is the goal of achieving objective understanding, and (3) monologue, in which one is more interested in self than in the relationship (Buber, 1967). I-Thou relationships are dialogic, while I-It relationships are monologic. It was acknowledged by Buber that communicators will tend to alternate between these types of interaction in everyday life (Friedman, 1956).

Johannesen (1971) states that an I-Thou relationship possesses the following six characteristics:

1.	*Mutual Openness*:	Behavior patterns and attitudes of those participating in dialogue possess the qualities of "mutuality, open-heartedness, directness, honesty, spontaneity, frankness, lack of pretense, nonmanipulative intent, communion, intensity, and love in the sense of responsibility of one human for another" (Johannesen, 1971, p. 375).
2.	*Nonmanipulative*:	There is an absence of forcing one's belief on another. Dialogue, in the I-Thou sense, can include influence and yet not include manipulative intent. Use of propaganda and "suggestion" are seen as manipulative approaches (Buber, 1966a, p. 112).
3.	*Recognition of Uniqueness*:	The unique individuality of the people engaged in dialogue is acknowledged. This recognition of human uniqueness implies that each participant should be allowed equal rights and respect in the exchange (Buber, 1966a). One's partner is not viewed as simply another similar member of a categorized group.
4.	*Mutual Confirmation*:	I-Thou encounters include mutual confirmation and awareness. "One becomes totally aware of the other rather than functioning as an observer or onlooker" (Johannesen, 1971, p. 375) Buber knew that people will not always agree but they can support and affirm each other. Awareness of one's communication partner leads to confirmation and acceptance of "otherness."
5.	*Turning Toward*:	There is a moving toward, turning toward, or reaching toward one's partner in a symbolic sense. The meeting that results from this focus is the core of dialogic encounter. Buber summarized this "turning toward" as follows: "Where the dialogue is fulfilled in its being, between partners who have turned to one another in truth, who express themselves without reserve and are free of the desire for semblance, there is brought into being a memorable common fruitfulness which is to be found nowhere else" (Buber, 1966c).
6.	*Nonevaluativeness*:	In dialogue, there is an attempt to see the other's point of view even if it is opposed to one's own. "Each of the partners, even when he stands in opposition to the other, heeds, affirms, and confirms his opponent as an existing other" (Buber, 1966b).

Buber believed that true dialogic connection and I-Thou relationships could only be derived from *the between* or "the region of human existence that links self and others" (Anderson & Ross, 1994). This mutuality of communication resides not in either participant but in the relationship between the two (Figure 1). He believed that the essence of communication, language, and even one's identity resides in the "between." In communication terms, the meaning of messages is co-generated by the participants rather than being dictated by one. Thus, dialogue is directly related to the transactional model of communication discussed earlier in this chapter. The shared meaning and the relationship itself are the unique creations of both parties to the interaction.

Figure 1: The Between



In basic terms, monologic communication involves manipulation and control just as one would treat a physical object. It is the embodiment of an I-It relationship and obviously takes a one-way, transmission model approach to communication. Johannesen (1996) summarized the characteristics of monologic communication in vivid terms:

> A person employing monologue seeks to command, coerce, manipulate, conquer, dazzle, deceive, or exploit. Other persons are viewed as "things" to be exploited solely for the communicator's self-serving purpose: they are not taken seriously as persons. Choices are narrowed and consequences are obscured. Focus is on the communicator's message, not on the audience's real needs. The core values, goals, and policies espoused by the communicator are impervious to influence exerted by receivers. Audience feedback is used only to further the communicator's purpose. An honest response from a receiver is not wanted or is precluded. Monological communicators persistently strive to impose their truth or program on others; they have the superior attitude that they must coerce people to yield to what they believe others ought to know. Monologue lacks a spirit of mutual trust, and it displays a defensive attitude of self-justification (p. 69).

The above description of monologue is reminiscent of the approach to communication traditionally used by public relations practitioners. In Botan (1997) made this very point in an excellent journal article advocating a more ethical, dialogic approach to public relations. He believes that the predominant model of public relations in use today is monological. According to Botan, most strategic communication campaigns today "define their goals only from the perspective of the sponsor so they typically seek to reduce the receivers to a vehicle for achieving those needs" (p. 192). Monologic communication targets and treats others primarily to fulfill one's own needs.

Broom and Smith (1979) observed that although there are numerous public relations paradigms and models, practitioners are basically either technicians or managers. The public relations technician was described by Botan (1997) as follows:

> A technician perspective on public relations (otherwise known as a "hired gun") is by far the dominant model of public relations practice and teaching today...This view sees public relations not from an ethical perspective but as a set of technical journalism-based skills to be hired out. Most important among these is the ability to write press releases well, but organizing and hosting press conferences, laying out or editing publications, taking pictures, and handling media relations are also important skills. In effect, the practitioner becomes the client's hired journalist-in-residence, or a mechanic for media relations. The most important attribute of this approach is that practitioners and their employers assume that the practitioner should be primarily a conduit for strategies, and sometimes even tactics, that have been decided elsewhere in the organization. In doing so this approach instrumentalizes publics, and to a lesser extent practitioners, and negates both the ethical role of the practitioner and the dialogic perspective . . . (p. 195).

Thus, although the technician generally does not actively plan to bypass rational decision making by being deceitful and manipulative, the inherent lack of emphasis on relationship building and dialogue in this predominantly transmission model of communication will naturally lead to monologue since "the technical model has no specific interest in avoiding these behaviors. As monological communicators, they see communication partners as the means to an end. A dialogical view, on the other hand, sees communicative partners as ends in themselves" (Botan, p. 197).

As discussed early, the public relations practitioner as manager uses dialogic communication to develop, maintain, grow, and nurture mutually beneficial relationships. Pearson (1989) went so far as to declare that "establishing and maintaining dialogical communication between a business organization and its publics is a precondition for ethical business practices" (p. 125). Both Pearson and Botan were among the early advocates for moving away from a transmission-oriented, monologic, technician model and toward a dialogic, transactional, relational manager model of public relations. Botan (1993) summarized their view as follows: "A dialogic view of public

relations differs from a technician approach by being more humanistic, communication-centered, relationship-focused, and ethical. This perspective focuses on communicative relationships rather than on technical skills. Traditional approaches to public relations relegate publics to a secondary role, making them an instrument for meeting organizational policy or marketing needs; whereas, dialogue elevates publics to the status of communication equal with the organization" (p. 196).

Botan points out that the new information technologies used for the "demassification" of messages have "the potential to facilitate dialogue, but the presence of a monologic or dialogic attitude remains the primary determinant" (p. 194) of which way it will be used. The Internet is an example of one contemporary context for using new technology to "interpersonalize" the relationships between organization and their publics. Individualized marketing and target advertising combined with interactive capabilities generated by the Internet and the World Wide Web have created a communication environment in which organizations can literally interact with and provide selective information for customers via a mediated channel of communication. Even particular segments of the population are grouped into specialized areas of interest in a highly sophisticated manner based upon the user's history of Internet selections or "hits". For example, a new California-based site is now devoted to the special interests and needs of the first wave of "baby boomers" to be 50 years of age or older. The Third Agers, as they have been dubbed, are as net savvy as the younger Generation Xers, and they are the first of the onslaught of boomers to have reached a period of spendable cash and more free time in which to spend it. Many profit and nonprofit organizations wanting to develop and maintain close ties with their publics have developed web pages to both disseminate information and gather information regarding constituent needs. Similarly, other forms of electronic technology are being combined to relationalize or interpersonalize the cold, impersonal nature of technology. For instance, the banking industry has developed interactive banking centers or "virtual banks" that combine touch sensitive screens, electronic banking, two-way cameras and sound to allow interpersonal, "face-to-face" transactions between customers at remote locations and tellers at central banks.

A new wave in advertising has apparently also taken note of the paradigm shift toward an interpersonal perspective. A glance at television commercials quickly reveals a movement toward greater emphasis upon personalized relations with potential customers. For example, in 1996 the AT&T "reach out and touch someone" advertisements were so successful that many other companies have followed suit. In 1997, TCI published the following ad in newspapers throughout the United States next to a picture of an adult's and a child's footprints in the sand:

WE SEE YOU AS MORE THAN AN ACCOUNT NUMBER SO YOU CAN SEE US AS MORE THAN A CABLE COMPANY.

We know that each of our customers is an individual. And no two are alike. That's why we make sure to never forget how important it is to personalize everything from the new products we offer to the services we provide. We've been doing it for quite some time and getting better at it every day. TCI, Now there's a better way.

No matter how slick or interpersonal looking the ads for McDonalds, AT&T, MCI, or any other commercial enterprise, including the television infomercials that involve interviews or audience participation in introducing new products and services, the fact remains that these are monologic attempts at representing or simulating relationships rather than actually establishing ongoing, dialogic relationships. These ads still follow the traditional image-creation paradigm, but they do at least show an awareness of the need for establishing closer relationships with their publics and an acknowledgment of their individuality.

Public relations and advertising specialists alike have attempted for years to make impersonal media appear as interpersonal as possible. Mass mediated messages can inform significant publics about the actions and efforts of organizations to be more responsive to them and to establish closer relational ties, but this method of communication is no substitute for the actual establishment and maintenance of relationships with individual significant publics. These claims are only manicured images until they are backed up by actions. In Buber's terms, they are monologue disguised as dialogue or, at the very least, technical dialogue leading to basic message understanding but not concerned with genuine dialogic relationships. In common parlance, it is easy to "talk the talk," but the real test for public relations practitioners should be whether or not their organizations are "walking the walk." As interpersonal communication axiom three indicates, it takes a combination of digital coding and analogic coding to create meaning in an interaction, and it is interpersonal contact, even if in symbolic forms, that builds relationships. Generation of images and "saying the right things" or "telling them what they want to hear" is not enough to establish stable, long-term relationships. Words and actions must be congruent if credibility and trust are to be built in a relationship possessing dialogue.

As advocates for public relations as relationship management continue to increase in number, dialogic communication theory will obviously play a key role in providing an interdisciplinary philosophic foundation.

LISTENING

One often ignored or overlooked foundation stone for the public relations communication process is listening--a basic component of interpersonal communication and the heart of dialogue. Interest in the art and science of listening can be traced to ancient thinkers and writers. For example, Plutarch wrote "On Listening to Lectures"--a fairly comprehensive examination of listening skills in public speaking situations--nearly 2,000 years ago (Babbitt, 1949).

Although there are over fifty different contemporary scholarly definitions for listening and many listening models, it is basically the complex process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli (Wolvin, 1996). Listening involves attending to one's partner. Listening

models consistently point out that listening goes well beyond the physical act of simply receiving the message. These models are not simply glorified Feedback Models; rather, they take a Transactional and Dialogic Model perspective (Thomlison, 1985). Although it has not been given a strong emphasis in public relations education and application, it is an essential element of successful and fulfilling relationship management.

Listening and public relations have much in common as areas of research and formalized study (Thomlison, 1990). As fields of academic study both are relatively new kids on the block. Although public relations was taught at a few universities in the 1920's, 30's, and 40's, it wasn't until the past three decades that the academic community began to accept and eventually embrace public relations, and even then with considerable reluctance. Two major organizations devoted specifically to public relations pursuits have evolved in the United States--the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) and the International Association of Business Communicators (IABC). Similarly, listening studies such as Paul Rankin's were conducted as early as 1926 (Brown, 1987), but it was not until the 1950's that Nichols (1957) wrote the first textbook devoted to the subject of listening. In the 1960's a few complete college courses on listening were taught and the numbers have been increasing steadily since then (Wolvin, Coakely, & Disburg, 1990). Many undergraduate programs now include listening courses or, at the very least, listening units in several of their communication courses. In 1979 a professional society was established solely for the advancement of listening education and research--the International Listening Association (ILA). The first formal organizational acknowledgment of the significance of listening in public relations came in 1990 when the ILA was sent to every member of the IABC an invitation to join the ILA. Just as public relations theory has evolved from several disciplines, listening has diverse roots (Thomlison, 1987).

Case study books abound with examples of situations in which public relations practitioners did not listen to their publics or communication partners. Wylie (1990) observed that historically the shortsightedness of organizations and entire industries (health care, insurance) of not attending to the interests and needs of their publics has resulted in dire consequences. Examples of effective and sensitive listening are less abundant but there are a growing number. For instance, listening to the need for parents of seriously ill children to have affordable housing near treatment centers led directly to the establishment of Ronald McDonald Houses. Surprisingly, even with the increasing awareness and general comments about understanding and relating more effectively to significant publics, very few specific references to listening are included in public relations texts and courses. A cursory examination of the subject index of even the most advanced public relations texts will reveal an absence of listening references. Listening texts are equally guilt of ignoring the significant impact of listening on public relations. However, there is great potential for numerous significant applications of listening theory, research, and models to public relations practice.

Since a high proportion of the commonly cited "public relations activities" include human interaction and response, it is inevitable that listening skills and awareness will be a vital component of "relationalizing" public relations. According to Wylie (1990), "public relations becomes involved in the whole organization, and its function of communication is no less from the public to the organization than from the organization to the public" (p. 59). Thus, public relations personnel are heavily involved in listening to their various publics. As the Public Relations Society of America

states, "public relations helps an organization and its publics adapt mutually to each other" (Wilcox, et al., 1989, p. 5).

CONCLUSION

As the relationship management perspective in public relations research, theory and practition continues to expand, it will become increasingly valuable to draw from available relationship research and theory from diverse fields of study. The above discussion serves to demonstrate with selected interpersonal constructs that there is a wealth of potential applications of interpersonal communication theory to public relations. In particular, the basic interpersonal communication axioms, dialogic communication theory, and listening research are rich areas that can contribute to the relationalizing of public relations. Perhaps public relations specialists can finally learn the hard earned lesson that my father failed to discover in his quest to get to California: it is not the end state but rather the process which is of greatest importance in relationships. This is no less true whether it involves family communication or an organization relating to its publics.

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