Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioral Responses to Interability Communication Styles in the Workplace: Perspectives of People with Disabilities

By
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M.A., University of Kansas, 2017
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Submitted to the graduate degree program in the Department of Communication Studies and the Graduate Faculty of the University of Kansas in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Date Defended: March 25, 2022

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Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioral Responses to Interability Communication Styles in the Workplace: Perspectives of People with Disabilities

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Date Approved: March 28, 2022

Abstract

Guided by communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973; 2016) and the Communication Predicament of Disability Model (Ryan et al., 2005), this experimental study examined interability communication in the workplace from the perspective of people with disabilities. Specifically, this study manipulated four communication styles (i.e., integrative, relational, dismissive, and directive talk) and tested their effects on participants with disabilities' (N = 902) perceptions of communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability. In addition, this study examined the effects of the communication styles on participants' internalized stigma and likelihood of using different adaptive response strategies (i.e., avoiding, obliging, problem-solving, and competing).

Findings indicated that the individual without a disability's communication style significantly affected participants' evaluations of the person without a disability, as well as their cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses. In the integrative talk condition, participants perceived the coworker without a disability to be the most communicatively competent, satisfying, positively motivated, and participants reported the least communication anxiety and stigma, followed by participants in the relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk conditions. Additionally, participants in the integrative talk and relational talk conditions were more likely to use the accommodative adaptive response strategies (i.e., problem-solving and obliging) than participants in the dismissive and directive talk conditions. Results of this study also revealed significant indirect effects of the communication styles on the dependent variables through inferred motive and communication anxiety.

This study contributes to our understandings of the interability, intergroup dynamics at play in the workplace, specifically when dealing with workplace accommodations due to an employee's disability. Findings are discussed in light of communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973; 2016), the Communication Predicament of Disability Model (Ryan et al., 2005), and organizational communication literature related to conflict and task management (e.g., Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Nicotera, 1993) regarding interability communication in the workplace.

Acknowledgements

Throughout my childhood, my Granny, Pauline Byrd, always told me to "go get that education" – an opportunity she did not have. In every hard time throughout my graduate program, I heard my Granny's voice and imagined how proud she would be to have a granddaughter with a Ph.D. This project is dedicated to my Granny, and my other late grandparents: James Lee Byrd, Thomas and Margaret Wright, Maria Bolzan, and Jon Wefald. I hope I have made all of you proud. Next, I want to thank the people who made it possible for me to "go get that education" and those who have supported me throughout the years.

First, thank you to Dr. Yan Bing Zhang. I am rarely speechless, but it is challenging to appropriately thank you for the depth of mentorship, friendship, and guidance you have provided me over the years. You continually motivate me to be a better writer, scholar, teacher, and global citizen. Choosing you as my advisor was the best decision I ever made, and I am thrilled that we get to continue working together. I owe a heartfelt thank you to Li, as well, for all the time, effort, and kindness he has given me over the years.

I also want to thank my dissertation committee: Dr. Mary Lee Hummert, Dr. Angela Gist-Mackey, Dr. Alesia Woszidlo, and Dr. Changming Duan. Mary Lee, thank you for your genuine interest in my research program and your kindness. Thank you for the time and energy you have put into improving my job talks, dissertation, and manuscripts. Angela, you have been there for me in the good and hard moments since the beginning. I am so grateful for your thoughtful attention to my research, your mentorship, and your friendship. Alesia, thank you for your helpful and productive comments on my work – I appreciate your support and service on my committee. Dr. Duan, I so appreciate getting to know you and I look forward to future opportunities for collaboration.

I have been so lucky to work with many other faculty members who have supported me throughout the years. I want to specifically thank Dr. Jeff Hall, Dr. Robert Rowland, and Dr. Jay Childers, who have been my biggest supporters. Dr. Hall, Dr. Rowland, and Dr. Childers: you always lift me up right when I need it the most. Thank you for your encouragement throughout the years.

I also want to say thank you to all of my friends and extended family, near and far. I want to thank my Gaels (Amanda, Mari, Monica, and Julia) and my Jayhawks: Gretchen, Josh Morgan, Josh Smith, Alaina, Abigail, Jess, Casi, and Becca. I am so grateful for your friendship. Also, thank you to my extended family who have FaceTimed me into holidays, celebrated me, and been there for me throughout my graduate program. I owe special thanks to the Evans family, the Christel family, the Bilash family, the Wright family, the Spiekerman family, the Boskelly family, the Hoofer family, the Wefald family, Donna Grisanti, Amy Sharkey, Linda Hewitt, and Dan Passante.

The biggest thank you goes to my family. First, thank you to my parents, Penny and Greg Byrd, who sacrificed so much so that I could have the best education possible. Thank you to my sister and sister-in-law, Ariana and Stacie Byrd, my niece, Tatum Byrd, my aunt, Diane Bolzan, and my partner Mikaela Wefald. I wouldn't be anywhere without all of you, and I hope I have made you proud. Thank you for the daily phone calls, for believing in me when all of this seemed impossible, for being genuinely excited about my academic accomplishments, and for always making me laugh. I could thank you for a million other things, but, at the risk of writing 150 more pages, I'll just say I love you.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Progress made by the Americans with Disabilities Act (1990) and heightened focus on inclusivity and marginalized groups, such as people with disabilities, has brought increased attention to disability rights and interability communication – communication between people with and without disability. Currently, people with disabilities represent the largest minority group in the United States, and people with disabilities report unsatisfying and problematic communication as a major life challenge (World Health Organization, 2018). As more people may be acquiring disabilities due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Health and Human Services, 2021; Roberts et al., 2022), it is increasingly important to explore interability communication and the interactional, communicative, relational, and psychological consequences for people with disabilities. At the societal or macro-level, ableism has favored people without disabilities since the Industrial Revolution and created societies in which people with disabilities are mocked, ostracized, and institutionalized (Allen, 2011). Today, attitudes toward disability are shifting toward accepting people with disabilities as different rather than altogether rejecting them as defective. However, this shift still has negative implications (e.g., differential treatment of people with disabilities, intergroup bias, and communication avoidance) for interability communication (Allen, 2011; Fox & Giles, 1996). Positive, cooperative communication is a realistic avenue through which people with disabilities' quality of life can be improved. Therefore, understanding the dynamics of interability communication is crucial to enhancing people with disabilities' well-being and improving intergroup relations between people with and without disabilities.

The challenges that continue to exist for people with disabilities are evident in the micro-level communication received from people without disabilities. When asked about interacting with people without disabilities, an individual who is quadriplegic (i.e., a person who is affected

by paralysis of all four extremities) explained one particularly memorable interaction: "…another person was so busy staring at me that they tripped over a curb and fell flat on their face. It has happened. Those kinds of things happen to me all the time" (Ostrove, 2006, p. 10). After experiencing two strokes, a woman described communication she received, "I remember one of the nurses giving me a bed bath and saying to the respiratory therapist, 'She used to be a filmmaker.' As if I wasn't there, as if I couldn't hear, as if my life was over" (Ryan & Bannister, 2009, p. 32). Another person with a physical disability explained the unsatisfying communication they frequently receive from individuals without disabilities: "people won't look you in the eye or people are overly friendly…and overly helpful and don't necessarily listen to you if you're like 'chill, I don't need help, I'm fine, thank you'" (Sitting Pretty Lolo, 2019). These individuals are describing experiences of inappropriate communication accommodation motivated by stereotypes of disability (Fox & Giles, 1996; Ryan et al., 2005). Inappropriate communication accommodation from people without disabilities directed to individuals with disability represent micro-level challenges that negatively influence social interactions and quality of life for people with disabilities.

The Communication Predicament of Disability Model (CPD Model; Ryan et al., 2005) explains how inappropriate communication adjustments in response to disability salience or stereotypes, such as in these stories, can negatively influence interability communication and potentially create a recursive negative feedback cycle. The CPD Model explains that physical and/or social characteristics of disability (i.e., seeing a person in a wheelchair or knowing a person who needs workplace accommodations through self-disclosure) act as cues that trigger negative disability stereotypes, depicting people without disabilities to be incompetent, helpless, unattractive, sick, burdensome, socially introverted, emotionally unstable, depressed,

hypersensitive, and easily offended (Ryan et al., 2005). These negative disability-stereotypes may suggest to a person without a disability the need for communication adjustments, such as overhelping, slowing speech rate, inappropriate nonverbal behaviors, or utilizing communication that is condescending, controlling, or patronizing. Such communication adjustments are oftentimes found to be inappropriate by people with disabilities. Exposure to disability stereotypes and inappropriate communication adjustments from a person without a disability can cause a negative feedback cycle leading to reduced opportunities for meaningful interaction, lower self-esteem for people with disabilities, and reinforcement of disability-stereotypical behaviors (Ryan et al., 2005).

The current study integrates major theoretical tenets and communication processes described in the CPD Model (e.g., modified communication based on negative disability stereotypes and subsequent outcomes) with the Age Stereotypes in Interaction Model (ASI Model; Hummert, 1994; Hummert et al., 2004). The ASI Model, translated from the intergenerational context to the interability context, explains that if people without disabilities positively stereotype people with disabilities (e.g., as warm, friendly, competent), people without disabilities are likely to adjust their communication in appropriate ways – essentially short circuiting the negative feedback cycle outlined in the CPD Model. The CPD Model is developed from communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973; 2016), which is a broader theory explaining the different ways in which people adjust their communication, their motivations for doing so, and the consequences that arise from communication adjustments. Together with communication accommodation theory, these theoretical models are used to understand inappropriate and appropriate communication adjustments made to people with disabilities and the consequences of those communication adjustments.

Studies on social interaction involving physical disability and interability communication show biased and avoidant communication behaviors toward people with disabilities compared to communication toward individuals without disabilities (Fox & Giles, 1996; Ryan et al., 2005; Ryan et al., 2006). Empirical disability studies examining communication have typically focused on clinical, community, and health settings (Fox & Giles, 1996; Ryan et al., 2006). Additionally, a limitation of quantitative disability and interability research is that it primarily focuses on the perspective of people without disabilities (Rios et al., 2016). Therefore, extending prior literature, the current dissertation project examines interability communication in the workplace by focusing on the perspective of people with disabilities. Practically, the workplace is an important context to investigate for people with disabilities since disability-stereotypes of incompetence, unproductive, burdensome, and helplessness could have particularly deleterious effects in this setting (Jammaers & Zanoni, 2020; Ryan et al., 2005). Therefore, providing employees with and without disabilities the tools to understand how to interrupt the negative feedback cycle could have positive outcomes for employees and their organizations.

Understanding the dynamics of interability communication is particularly important since people with disabilities are now considered a minority group (Allen, 2011). 61 million Americans have a disability that impacts major life activities (Okoro et al., 2018). Globally, over one billion people are estimated to live with a disability (World Health Organization, 2018), but disability is widely complex with many categories and classifications with broadly ranging consequences and implications. Indeed, there are various categories of disability (e.g., mental, learning, neurological, addictive), with physical disability (also called mobility impairment) representing the most commonly reported disability in the United States, affecting approximately one in seven adults (Okoro et al., 2018). There is also variation within the categorization of

physical disability – physical disabilities can be visible (e.g., muscular dystrophy, paraplegia) or invisible (e.g., fibromyalgia, arthritis); temporary or long term; static, episodic, and/or degenerative (World Health Organization, 2018). Due to the high number of people with physical disabilities in the United States, people with physical disabilities represent the target social identity group in the current study. This widespread representation of disability within the United States has resulted in both legal protection and challenges. In 1990, the first comprehensive civil rights law prohibiting discrimination against individuals with disabilities in all areas of public life – including jobs, schools, transportation, etc. was passed in the United States. The overarching goal of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 was to ensure that people with disabilities have the same rights and opportunities as everyone else. However, ableism within the United States has continued to uphold an ideology of normality wherein sickness and disability are deviations that limit individuals with disabilities from living a satisfying and fulfilling life. Therefore, practically speaking, the current study seeks to provide people with and without disabilities communicative tools to help alleviate some of the widespread disparities in employment, education, health care, and economic and political participation (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019; World Health Organization, 2018).

In summary, within the framework of the CPD Model, ASI model, and communication accommodation theory (CAT; Giles, 1973; Dragojevic et al., 2016), the current study examines the effects of four communication styles (integrative, relational, dismissive, and directive talk) from a person without a disability to an individual with a disability in an organizational context on perceptions of communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability. Additionally, this study examines the effects of the communication styles on participants' perceptions of internalized

stigma and adaptive response strategies (i.e., avoiding, obliging, problem-solving, and competing). The four communication styles were manipulated along two primary dimensions and a supporting characteristic uncovered from CAT and previous literature in interpersonal and intergroup communication, organizational communication, and teamwork or task management: concern for task completion (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Hummert & Ryan, 1996), concern for the relationship (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Hummert & Ryan, 1996), and communicative disruptiveness (e.g., Nicotera, 1993). Essentially, the current experimental study seeks to understand the critical role(s) played by communication styles or adjustments on subsequent relational, communicative, and identity processes.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

In the United States, attitudes toward people with disabilities have varied over time. In preindustrial society, attitudes toward disability were primarily dominated by religion. Having a disability was viewed as God's will or as evidence of evil or sin (Allen, 2011). In the mid-nineteenth century, during the Industrial Revolution, disability began to be considered a social issue. Due to industrialization, people with disabilities were marginalized because they were not able to participate in the new, mechanistic employment environments. As a result, public attitudes toward people with disabilities became increasingly negative. In the years that followed, at some point, every state enforced and legalized segregation of people with disabilities (Allen, 2011; Heumann & Wodatch, 2020). Additionally, people with disabilities were involuntarily institutionalization, prohibited from marrying, and sterilized (Heumann & Wodatch, 2020). Today, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) provides legal protection as a result of these challenges. However, people with disabilities continue to encounter difficulties in workplaces and social spaces.

People with Disabilities in the Workplace

In the United States, there is an expectation that all adults, including those with disabilities, participate in paid employment, and the ADA recognizes the right of people with disabilities to do so. However, despite the ADA, people with disabilities are still excluded from this domain of life due to material and discursive barriers (Jammaers & Zanoni, 2020). Materially, people with disabilities have been challenged to secure and retain employment due to inaccessible office spaces or job designs (Beatty et al., 2019). Even further, employers are resistant to hire individuals with disabilities because employers believe it is difficult and expensive to grant workplace accommodations (Lindsay et al., 2019). However, workplace

accommodations are typically straightforward to provide at little to no cost and have positive benefits for employees with disabilities and organizations (Solovieva et al., 2011). For employees with disabilities, implementation of workplace accommodations (e.g., modified work/flexible work schedules, telecommuting, modified workplaces, modified equipment, etc.) are associated with increased productivity, quality of life, social inclusion, and physical health (Brohan et al., 2012; Dong et al., 2013; Solovieva et al., 2011). For organizations, implementing workplace accommodations improves employee retention, increases worker productivity, and decreases costs of training new employees while improving company morale (Solovieva et al., 2011).

Employees with disabilities in the United States have had rights and protection through the ADA for thirty years, but individuals without disabilities still consider people with disabilities as unable to conform to the neoliberal norm of the autonomous and entrepreneurial person who works to maximize their human capital and productivity (Jammaers & Zanoni, 2020). Workers with disabilities are challenged by disability-stereotypes of incompetence and low productivity, whereas typical (nondisabled) employees are constructed as humans who are able to produce (Jammaers et al., 2016). Elraz (2013) found that individuals with mental health conditions were aware of these negative perceptions held by people without disabilities and concealed their mental health conditions in the workplace to be viewed as employable and maintain alignment with neoliberal expectations.

As demonstrated, attitudes toward disability continue to impact the lives of people with disabilities and interactions between people with and without disabilities. Next, the Communication Predicament of Disability Model, Age Stereotypes in Interaction Model, and communication accommodation theory provide the theoretical framework to explain the

intergroup, interability dynamics at play in communication between a colleague without a disability and their coworker with a disability. Specifically, the current study examines how appropriate and inappropriate communication adjustments influence the outcome variables (i.e., communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and anxiety toward the coworker without a disability). In addition, this study examines the consequences of the communication styles on internalized stigma and likelihood of using different communicative response strategies. In the next section, the major theoretical frameworks are presented.

Theoretical Framework and the Current Study

Communication Predicament of Disability Model and Age Stereotypes in Interaction Model

The Communication Predicament of Disability Model (CPD Model; Ryan et al., 2005) was derived from social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and communication accommodation (CAT; Giles, 1973; 2016) theories, and builds on the heuristic success of the Communication Predicament of Aging Model (Ryan et al., 1986). The aim of the CPD Model is to investigate the communication predicament or explain how stereotypic expectations of people with disabilities influence interactions and how this status is maintained in conversation (Ryan & Bannister, 2009). The CPD Model asserts that people with disabilities routinely experience disempowerment in communication as a result of stereotyping (Ryan et al., 2005).

The CPD Model explains that characteristics (e.g., physiognomic or disability-disclosure) of a person with a disability act as cues that trigger negative disability stereotypes (Ryan et al., 2005). Previous research illustrates the variety of ways in which people without disabilities stereotype people with disabilities. People with disabilities are commonly represented using negative stereotypes of the group, such as dependent, incompetent, unproductive, sick,

burdensome, unattractive, hypersensitive, and bitter (Ryan et al., 2005). Prior research has also established that people without disabilities stereotype people with disabilities as socially introverted, emotionally unstable, depressed, and easily offended, especially regarding their disability (Coleman & DePaulo, 1991). These negative stereotypes are particularly harmful for interability communication because they lead people without disabilities to expect communication with people with disabilities to be negative, unpleasant, and unsatisfying. Additionally, these negative expectations suggest to the individual without a disability that there is a need for communication adjustments (e.g., overhelping, condescending, slow speech rate, controlling and condescending communication) (Ryan et al., 2005). These communication adjustments by the individual without a disability are typically found to be inappropriate by a person with a disability. Exposure to disability-stereotypes and inappropriate interability communication can cause a negative feedback cycle resulting in negative outcomes for the person with a disability and the individual without a disability (Ryan et al., 2005).

The CPD Model explains that exposure to nonaccommodative (i.e., inappropriate) communication adjustments has negative social and psychological consequences for people with and without disabilities involved in interability interactions. After exposure to inappropriately modified communication, people with disabilities may internalize the stereotypic expectations of people without disabilities and begin acting and/or feeling how they believe others perceive them (e.g., self-fulfilling prophecy) (Ryan & Bannister, 2009; Ryan et al., 2005). Additionally, repeated exposure to inappropriate communication adjustments from people without disabilities is associated with a lower likelihood of engaging in future interability interactions for people with and without disabilities (Blockmans, 2015; Ryan et al., 2005). For the person with a disability, this exposure to inappropriate interability communication is also associated with lower

self-esteem and a reduced sense of control (Ryan et al., 2005). Overall, the CPD Model explains that inappropriate communication adjustments directed to people with disabilities can constrain opportunities for interability interactions and has negative attitudinal, emotional, psychological, and behavioral consequences.

Overall, the CPD Model demonstrates that when interability communicators come together, negative and stereotypical expectations result in inappropriate communication adjustments, however, not all communication adjustments made by people without disabilities are inappropriate. The Age Stereotypes in Interaction Model (ASI; Hummert, 1994; Hummert & Shaner, 1994) explains that if young adults engage in positive cognition or stereotyping (e.g., considering older adults to be friendly or competent) of older adults, young adults are likely to judge older adults as competent and socially engaged. Here, the ASI Model is relevant to the interability context as it provides a model for the positive feedback cycle in comparison to the CPD Model's negative feedback cycle. While positive stereotyping still has the potential to be harmful, if people without disabilities positively stereotype people with disabilities, thus assessing their communication abilities and needs in a way that allows for positive, accommodative (appropriate) conversation rather than disability-adapted communication adjustments, a positive feedback cycle can occur (e.g., Hummert, 1994). These appropriate adjustments have positive communicative, interactional, relational, and attitudinal outcomes (e.g., Harwood, 2007; Hummert, 1994). While the ASI and CPD Models explain the positive and negative feedback cycles that result from communication adjustments, communication accommodation theory explicates motivations behind communication adjustments and how those communication adjustments ultimately result in a positive or negative evaluation.

Communication Accommodation Theory

Communication accommodation theory (CAT; Giles, 1973; 2016) is a foundational theory of interpersonal and intergroup communication processes that explains when and why people adjust their communication to facilitate identity, relationship, and communicative goals and how that process is managed in interactional contexts (Dragojevic et al., 2016; Giles, 2016). In the current study, CAT is situated in an organizational setting. Hence, CAT, in conjunction with organizational literature in task and teamwork management (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Nicotera, 1993) first provided conceptual and operational guidance in the creation of the scenarios consisting of four different communication styles used by a coworker without a disability in communicating teamwork with their colleague with a disability. Additionally, CAT and the CPD Model informed the inclusion of the dependent variables and thus developed the major hypotheses. The next section describes how CAT provides a theoretical framework describing appropriate and inappropriate communication styles.

Regardless of what or how a speaker thinks they are communicating (or what they intend), the recipients' evaluation of the interaction and of the speaker often depends on the recipients' perception of the adjustment made by the speaker (Dragojevic et al., 2016). CAT refers to this as subjective accommodation – an individual's perception of behavioral and/or communicative adjustments. In interability interactions, subjective or perceived accommodation is essential to understand because speakers may perceive their communication to be accommodative and satisfying, when in fact the recipient perceives it to be nonaccommodative or dissatisfying. CAT explains that perceptions of communication adjustments can vary in many ways. A majority of CAT research focuses on two primary communication adjustments: accommodation or nonaccommodation. From the participants' point of view, when the accommodation/adjustment is considered appropriate it is considered *accommodative* and has

positive outcomes; while if it is perceived as inappropriate it is *nonaccommodative* and typically has negative outcomes (Gasiorek, 2013). When accommodation contributes positively to an interaction, it facilitates understanding and decreases social distance, along with a myriad of possible positive outcomes, such as increases liking, respect, relational solidarity, and willingness to communicate in the future (Dragojevic et al., 2016; Imamura et al., 2011). When stereotypes or negative perceptions of people with disabilities in general contribute to inappropriate accommodation behaviors (i.e., nonaccommodation), this is problematic and has negative outcomes including reducing the likelihood of future communication and inhibiting relationship development (Hummert, 2019).

In understanding what communication styles will be perceived as accommodative or nonaccommodative, CAT explains that an individual's motivations in an interaction are made explicit through their communication goals, which result in the use of certain sociolinguistic strategies (Williams, 1999; Giles, 2016). In organizations, communication goals primarily involve managing relationships with coworkers and task negotiation/completion (e.g., Chaudry & Asif, 2015). With those communication goals in mind, CAT's sociolinguistic strategies of discourse management and interpersonal control are particularly relevant (e.g., Gallois et al., 2005; Giles, 2016).

First, when a person without a disability is motivated by relational goals, such as managing a relationship with a coworker, they may utilize discourse management strategies. Discourse management strategies can be accommodative (to facilitate an interaction) or nonaccommodative (to hinder an interaction). When discourse management strategies are accommodative, a communicator is focused on their partner's conversational and emotional needs, and thus utilizes face-maintaining and/or face-promoting strategies, engages in topic

sharing, and treats their partner as an individual (e.g., Giles, 2016; Watson & Gallois, 1999). However, when discourse management strategies are nonaccommodative, a communicator may ignore their partner's communication goals and needs and/or utilize face-threatening strategies (Giles, 2016). In the health context, research has shown that accommodative discourse management strategies are associated with increased communication satisfaction and other positive outcomes (Watson, 1999).

When a communicator is motivated by task negotiation/completion goals, they may use interpersonal control strategies. Like discourse management strategies, interpersonal control strategies have the potential to be accommodative or nonaccommodative (Giles, 2016). When a communicator shares control of the interaction and allows the communication partner to express their opinion, interpersonal control is likely to be accommodative (Giles, 2016). On the other hand, when a communicator uses control strategies to gain command of the situation, solely makes decision regarding the task, and speaks down to and/or scolds their communicative partner, interpersonal control is nonaccommodative (e.g., Giles, 2016; Watson & Gallois, 1999). CAT also specifies other relevant strategies in explaining the complicated nature of communication accommodation, such as emotional expression (Giles, 2016). Emotional expression deals with affect/emotions and focuses on the communicative needs of the communicators (Giles, 2016; Watson & Gallois, 1999). Emotional expression is accommodative when a communicator is reassuring and meets or addresses the needs/concerns of their communication partner with a positive affect.

Altogether, the value of CAT in explicating interpersonal and intergroup dynamics has a long history. The current study extends this work by applying CAT to interability communication in the workplace. Since the current study is situated in an organizational context,

CAT is integrated with organizational literature in task management and teamwork to operationalize specific accommodative and nonaccommodative communication styles. The following section discusses the development of the communication styles.

Development of Scenarios

People with disabilities are finding competitive jobs in integrated environments (Kessler Foundation, 2018) and the employment-to-population ratio for working age people with disabilities has seen steady increases since 2016 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019; Kessler Foundation, 2018). As a result of this increase in the number of people with disabilities in the workforce, interability interactions in the workplace will too increase. Teamwork is frequently occurring (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003) and partnership between employees with and without disabilities constitutes a diverse/heterogenous team (Frei & Morriss, 2020). The inability to successfully work together on a diverse (or heterogenous) team may provide communicative and economic challenges, such as issues with decision-making, trust, and even underperforming homogenous teams doing the same work (Frei & Morriss, 2020). Therefore, understanding the communication dynamics between employees with and without disabilities as they work together is imperative.

Theoretically situated within CAT (Giles, 2016), the CPD Model (Ryan et al., 2005), and the ASI Model (Hummert, 1994), the current project manipulates an intergroup encounter between an interability dyad in the workplace to understand how appropriate and inappropriate communication styles directed to a coworker with a disability from their colleague without a disability influence perceptions of communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability. Additionally, this study tests the effects of the communication styles on participants' internalized

stigma and likelihood of using different adaptive response strategies (i.e., avoiding, obliging, problem-solving, and competing).

In each scenario, two employees, one with a disability and one without a disability, are assigned to work together on a team project for their firm's top client. The employee with a visible, physical disability (i.e., muscular dystrophy) has a necessary workplace accommodation involving a modified work schedule. Due to the workplace accommodation, the individual with a disability initiates a conversation with their teammate about how they are going to work together considering the modified work schedule. Discussing a workplace accommodation may act as a cue that triggers disability-stereotypes of incompetence, helplessness, or burdensome, which are particularly harmful in the workplace context (Ryan et al., 2005). In the experimental scenarios, the communication adjustments made by the employee without a disability to their teammate with a disability manifest in one of four ways: integrative talk, relational talk, dismissive talk, or directive talk. The next section explains the dimensions informing the four communication styles.

Dimensions of Interability Communication Styles

Communication accommodation theory provides a broad theoretical framework informing what communication styles will be appropriate (i.e., accommodative) or inappropriate (i.e., nonaccommodative) (Giles, 2016; Zhang & Pitts, 2019). Since the current study is situated in a workplace setting, organizational literature in task management and conflict negotiation (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Nicotera, 1993) offers insight into the operationalization of specific accommodative and nonaccommodative communication styles in interability communication in an organizational context. Given that available organizational communication literature infrequently examines the interability context, a preliminary study was conducted to tap into

specific unsatisfying and satisfying interability communication interactions providing realism and validity of the interability communication styles. In the preliminary study, open-ended data revealed that conversations about workplace accommodations (e.g., schedule adjustment due to medical appointment) were a frequently reported interability communication topic that had the potential to be satisfying or unsatisfying. Organizational literature, although inadequate, supports these initial findings that this is a frequently occurring communication topic for people with and without disabilities (Dong et al., 2013), therefore this conversation setting was chosen for the current project.

Blake and Mouton's (1964) model remains a widely cited framework for understanding organizational conflict and influenced dual concern models of conflict in the interpersonal context (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977). The two-dimensional grid highlighted manager's interest in concern for people versus manager's concern for production (Blake & Mouton, 1964). In the interpersonal context, Blake and Mouton's (1964) conflict taxonomies inspired the dimensions of concern for personal goals versus concern for relationships (Hall, 1986). The current study integrates interpersonal, intergroup, and organizational literature to develop four scenarios along two primary dimensions: concern-for-task completion and concern-for-relationship. In line with Nicotera (1993) and CAT (e.g., emotional expression), the current study goes beyond these two-dimensional understandings of conflict by including communicative disruptiveness as the third attribute of interability communication. While the first two primary dimensions specify the relationship and task management of the communication styles, the third dimension (i.e., communicative disruptiveness) primarily specifies the emotional valence of the interaction (e.g., Nicotera, 1993) and is included to further illuminate the four communication styles.

To summarize, CAT (Giles, 1973; 2016) and organizational communication literature in relationship, task, and teamwork management (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Nicotera, 1993) guided the manipulation of four communication styles (both appropriate and inappropriate) directed to a person with a disability from an individual without a disability. These four communication styles primarily operate on two theoretically delineated dimensions of concern-for-task completion and concern-for-relationship (De Dreu et al., 2001). A third characteristic dimension of communicative disruptiveness is included to further validate the four communication styles. The four communication styles include: integrative talk, relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk. The following section discusses the primary dimensions of concern-for-task completion and concern-for-relationship, in addition to the characteristic dimension of communicative disruptiveness. Then, the four communication styles are explained.

Concern for Task Completion. The first primary dimension of concern-for-task completion (ranging from low to high) explains the degree to which the individual without a disability is concerned with and utilizes communication to manage task completion (i.e., the team project) (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Hummert & Ryan, 1996). Communication that is high in concern for task completion utilizes communication that could be positive (cooperative) or negative (controlling) in pursuing and accomplishing task goals. When communication is low in concern for completing the task, the person without a disability pays no attention or inadequate attention in progressing the team project forward.

Concern for the Relationship. The second primary dimension of concern-for-relationship (ranging from low to high) explains the degree to which the individual without a disability uses communication that reflects high care and concern for the person with a disability and the interpersonal relationship (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Hummert & Ryan, 1996; De Dreu et

al., 2001). When communication is high in concern for the relationship, the person without a disability utilizes communication that is highly caring reflecting positive regard for the individual with a disability and the relationship between the two individuals. On the other hand, when the communication from the person without a disability shows a lack of concern for the relationship, it does not contain caring messages and fails to attend to the interpersonal relationship between parties.

Communicative Disruptiveness. The characteristic dimension of communicative disruptiveness (ranging from low to high) explains the valence of the message and the extent to which that disrupts the interactional goals of the situation (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Jordan et al., 2006; Nicotera, 1993). When communication has a disruptive valence, the emotional tone is aggressive and negative, potentially disrupting communication between interactants. However, when communication has a nondisruptive valence, the emotional tone is non-aggressive and positive, thus more conducive to the success of the communication goals of the encounter. The current study manipulates four communication styles along two major dimensions of concern-for-task completion and concern-for-relationship. Communication disruptiveness is added as a supplementary characteristic of the styles to further validate the manipulation. In the following section, each communication style is introduced.

Integrative Talk. Integrative talk is high in concern for task completion, high in concern for the relationship, and has a nondisruptive communicative valence. Integrative talk is characterized by the individual without a disability using positive, caring language that is cooperative in initiating mutually satisfying solutions to complete the team project while also attending to the interpersonal relationship. An integrative approach gives equal attention to the task and the relationship/person with a disability and uses language that is nondisruptive to show

respect for the person with a disability and allow for success of the individual with a disability's communicative goals. Integrative talk explicitly discusses how the two interactants can collaborate on the team project, while using caring and friendly language.

Relational Talk. Relational talk is high in concern for the relationship, is more concerned with relationship than with task completion and has a nondisruptive communicative valence. Relational talk is represented by the individual without a disability communicating praise and social support/helping behaviors to emphasize relational harmony between interactants, but does not initiate a conversation on how to work together or complete the team project (as is seen in integrative talk). Communication that is relational in nature attends more strongly to the interpersonal relationship and the concerns, wants, and needs of the person with a disability than to completion of the task. This communication style uses nondisruptive and friendly, caring language to primarily attend to the interpersonal relationship and shows concern for the person with a disability.

Dismissive Talk. Dismissive talk is low in concern for task completion, low in concern for the relationship, and has a disruptive communicative valence. Dismissive talk is characterized by avoidant and disengaging communication behaviors by the person without a disability that sidesteps engagement in a discussion on ways to work together to complete the task. This type of communication conveys a lack of concern for the individual with a disability and the interpersonal relationship between parties while neglecting to find ways to complete the task at hand. At the same time, dismissive talk is disruptive insofar as communication that is dismissive avoids communication about the task in a way that impedes the communicative goals of the interaction (i.e., deciding how to complete the team project).

Directive Talk. Directive talk is high in concern for task completion, low in concern for the relationship, and has a disruptive communicative valence. Directive talk is characterized by the individual without a disability: firmly defending their own position regarding the completion of the team project without any concern for the person with a disability's wants, desires or needs; rejecting the person with a disability; and using language that is overly negative. Directive talk emphasizes the importance of completing the team project, however the individual without a disability does this in a way that assumes the person with a disability will be incompetent and unproductive in their role. When using this communication style, the person without a disability shows little concern for the interpersonal relationship or the person with a disability on an interpersonal level. Additionally, directive talk is carried out using disruptive language that is explicitly negative, aggressive, confrontational, and uncooperative.

Judgments of the Communication Styles

Communication Competence. Communication competence refers to communication that follows the normative expectations of communicating with a colleague in the workplace (i.e., appropriateness) in which the goals of the interaction are met (i.e., effectiveness) (Pitts & Harwood, 2015; Spitzberg et al., 1994). Communication competence is included as a major dependent variable since communication accommodation theory is considered a theory of competence – essentially, knowing how and when to accommodate is core to the theory (Pitts & Harwood, 2015). Research related to task-oriented dyads, communication competence, and conflict management provide insights into which communication styles will be perceived as appropriate and effective. In task-oriented dyadic situations, when a communication partner uses communication that is positive and solution-oriented (i.e., integrative talk in the current study), it is typically considered more appropriate and effective (Gross et al., 2004). In their seminal work

regarding communication competence, Spitzberg et al. (1994) explained that communication that is nonconfrontational (i.e., dismissive talk in the current study) or controlling (i.e., directive talk in the current study) is typically viewed as communicatively incompetent. While directive and dismissive talk are both predicted to be low in communication competence, dismissive talk may be perceived less negatively than directive talk because it leaves space for interpretations of other (less negative) motives (Hummert & Ryan, 1996). In their initial exploration of patronizing talk and interability communication, Fox and Giles (1996) found that when a waitress employed nonaccommodative communication (conceptualized as patronizing talk), the waitress was viewed as less communicatively competent. Similarly, Ryan and colleagues (2006) found that when a salesperson utilized overhelping communication to a person with a disability in a retail setting, the salesperson was perceived to be less competent. Therefore, the current study extends this work by examining evaluations of interability communication in a workplace context. Ultimately, the designation of all communication styles as competent or satisfying is dependent upon participants, each participant's conception of the relationship between the individual without a disability and the person with a disability in the scenario, and the context of the message. In line with this review of literature, the following hypothesis is introduced:

> *Hypothesis 1a*: Participants with disabilities in the integrative talk condition will judge the communication from the person without a disability as the most competent, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition.

Communication Satisfaction. Communication satisfaction refers to participants' satisfaction if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario. A meta-analysis of studies using communication accommodation theory found that

communication accommodation is a significant positive predictor of communication satisfaction (Soliz & Giles, 2014). Specifically, researchers found that accommodation, in the form of respectful communication, was positively associated with communication satisfaction (Giles et al., 2010). On the other hand, nonaccommodation, in the form of communication avoidance, was negatively associated with communication satisfaction (Giles et al., 2010). In the interability context, when a salesperson used overhelping communication to a customer with a disability, the salesperson was viewed as less satisfying to the customer (Ryan et al., 2006). In line with literature regarding communication (non)accommodation and communication satisfaction, the following hypothesis is introduced:

> *Hypothesis 1b*: Participants with disabilities in the integrative talk condition will report the highest likelihood of communication satisfaction if they were to communicate with the person without a disability in the scenario, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition.

Inferred Motive. A critical component in understanding if a communication adjustment will be perceived as appropriate – or accommodative – is inferred motive. In the current study, positive inferred motive refers to the attributions or evaluations people with disabilities make about an individual without a disabilities' communication or behavior as sincere, genuine, and/or trustworthy (e.g., Gasiorek & Giles, 2012). Essentially, when a person without a disability adjusts their communication to a person with a disability, inferred motive serves as an explanation of their behavior. CAT explains that a recipient's perception of a person's motive determines the recipient's reaction and response to the communication adjustment (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012). For instance, when nonaccommodation is inferred to be positively motivated (i.e., "they meant well"), the speaker is evaluated more positively and the recipient reacts and

responds more positively than if the nonaccommodation is inferred to negative intent (i.e., "they tried to hurt me"). Inferring positive motive to a person's communication can affect an individual's psychological evaluations of an interaction and influences how the recipient will respond to the communication adjustment. Thus, the current study includes inferred motive as both a dependent variable and a mediating mechanism to understand how people with disabilities infer or evaluate motives of each communication style and consequently how inferred motive affects the outcome variables of interest in this study (participants' evaluations of communication competence and satisfaction with the person without a disability, internalization of stigma, and adaptive response strategies). Thus, the following hypothesis is introduced:

> *Hypothesis 1c*: Participants with disabilities in the integrative talk condition will infer the most positive motive from the communication from the person without a disability, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition.

Emotional, Cognitive and Behavioral Responses to Interability Communication Styles

To investigate the emotional, cognitive, and behavioral consequences of accommodative and nonaccommodative communication adjustments by people without disabilities, the current study includes participants with disabilities' affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses to communication adjustments from people without disabilities. In the current study, communication anxiety toward the target (i.e., affective), participants' internalization of disability stigma (i.e., cognitive), and adaptive communicative responses (i.e., behavioral) to the interability communication styles are included as major variables.

Communication Anxiety. Intergroup anxiety is conceptualized as "a type of anxiety that people experience when anticipating or engaging in intergroup interaction" (Stephan, 2014, p.

240). For people with disabilities, intergroup anxiety is typically experienced as a negative affective response of threatening feelings or uncertainty experienced when interacting with a person without a disability originating from concerns about how one should act, how one might be perceived, and whether one will be accepted (e.g., Stephan, 2014; Stephan & Stephan, 1985). Previous research has established that intergroup communication anxiety is a direct source of prejudice and bias (Stephan & Stephan, 1985) and constrains future opportunities for communication. Decades of intergroup contact research has provided the possibility for hope insofar as positive communication between groups can reduce anxiety, which in turn reduces prejudice and improves intergroup relations (Stephan, 2014). Indeed, in the interability context, Byrd and Zhang (2020) found that people without disabilities' perceptions of communication frequency and quality with their most frequent contact with an invisible physical disability, and the contact's disclosure about disability all had a significant indirect effect on the improvement of intergroup attitudes and reduction of disability-stereotypes through intergroup anxiety.

In the current study, anxiety is measured at the individual level (see also Imamura et al., 2016) in order to assess participants' affective response to a co-worker without a disability utilizing one of the four communication styles in an interability interaction in the workplace. Participants are likely to report intergroup anxiety after witnessing an interability interaction due to the intergroup nature of the interaction because in general, people appraise communication and interactions with outgroup members as likely to have negative consequences (Stephan, 2014). Specifically, in the interability context, people with disabilities may be concerned about negative behavioral consequences (e.g., being discriminated against, physically harmed, deceived, or harassed) (Stephan & Stephan, 1985). Therefore, participants in this study are more likely to report higher levels of anxiety in the scenarios that are high in communicative

disruptiveness and contain controlling or negative messages (i.e., directive talk and dismissive talk) than in those that are high in concern for the relationship and contain caring messages (i.e., integrative talk and relational talk) (Hummert & Ryan, 1996; Ryan et al., 2005). In line with the argument that reducing anxiety is necessary for positive communication to occur and the prediction that highly caring and cooperative messages will be more positively perceived and interpreted, the following hypothesis is presented:

> *Hypothesis 1d*: Participants with disabilities in the integrative talk condition will report the lowest perceptions of communication anxiety if they were to communicate with the person without a disability in the scenario, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition.

Internalized Stigma. To understand the consequences of communication adjustments made by people without disabilities for people with disabilities' social identity, internalization of disability stigma is included as a major measure. Internalized stigma refers to adapting one's self-concept to be congruent with the stigmatizing responses of society regarding people with disabilities in general (e.g., Ritsher et al., 2003). People with disabilities, like people without disabilities, are raised in today's society where the ideology of normality exists and sickness and disability are considered deviations from "normal", satisfying life (Allen, 2011). Thus, people with disabilities oftentimes experience self-directed prejudice (i.e., internalized stigma) wherein individuals with disabilities, consciously or unconsciously accept and agree with society's negative evaluation of people with disabilities in general.

The CPD Model asserts that as a result of exposure to inappropriate communication adjustments (i.e., directive and dismissive talk) from people without disabilities, people with disabilities may activate negative stereotypes of people with disabilities (e.g., incompetent,

dependent, and helpless) and internalize the stigmatizing beliefs associated with people with disabilities (Ryan et al., 2005). Research in other social settings can help provide information regarding the negative consequences of activation of self-stereotypes. In the aging context, activation of negative aging self-stereotypes led participants to act stereotypically "older" – they experienced a reduction in memory performance, handwriting quality, and cardiovascular stress indicators (Levy, 2003). For people with mental illness, activation of negative self-stereotypes was associated with a reduction of self-esteem and self-efficacy (Corrigan & Watson, 2002). Hence, nonaccommodative communication adjustments (i.e., directive and dismissive talk) are predicted to increase participants' perceptions of internalized stigma.

On the other hand, when positive aging self-stereotypes were activated, memory performance, handwriting, walking gait, and cardiovascular stress indicators improved (Levy, 2003). Therefore, in line with the ASI Model, in the current study, the accommodative communication styles (i.e., integrative and relational talk) may decrease internalized stigma. Based on the theoretical models and prior research in other social settings, the following hypothesis is put forward:

> *Hypothesis 1e*: Participants with disabilities in the integrative talk condition will report the lowest perceptions of internalized stigma, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition.

Adaptive Response Strategies. A major concern for people with disabilities is how to respond to communication adjustments from people without disabilities in ways that protect and enhance their self-image and wellbeing rather than contribute to negative stereotypes. The CPD Model and ASI Models (Hummert et al., 2004; Ryan et al., 2005) explain that the ways that people with disabilities respond to communication adjustments from an individual without a

disability can reinforce the recursive negative feedback cycle *or* interrupt it (Ryan et al., 2005; Ryan & Bannister, 2009). Making decisions regarding how to respond to modified interability communication is particularly challenging when communication adjustments are patronizing or inappropriate (i.e., directive talk or dismissive talk in the current study). The CPD Model explains that the pressure of the predicament cycle typically results in a person with a disability reacting to interability communication adjustments passively, and/or in exasperation aggressively, which contributes to the negative feedback cycle (Ryan et al., 2005; Ryan, 2009). Ideally, responses by the individual with a disability would instead create a positive cycle that would produce positive outcomes on the relational and intergroup variables.

In their review of possible responses to inappropriate interability communication adjustments, Ryan et al. (2005) outlined three primary ways that people with disabilities respond to inappropriate communication: passively, aggressively, or with selective assertiveness. Passive responses by the individual with a disability allow the person without a disability to make the choice of how the interaction will take place, thus relinquishing control in the interaction (Ryan, 2010). Passive responses can manifest through avoiding or obliging. Avoiding is nonconfrontational, but underresponsive to the conversation and/or conflict at hand and may include communication behaviors minimizing explicit discussion of the conflict/situation, trivializing, downplaying disagreements, and shifting the topic as a way to withdraw from possible conflicts (Wiebe & Zhang, 2017). Obliging includes communicative responses that are unassertive, with affirming and supportive communication behaviors to the individual without a disability that aim to please, satisfy, or soothe the individual without a disability in the interability interaction (Song & Zhang, 2012).

Both types of passive responses may reinforce negative stereotypes of people with disabilities as dependent and helpless (Ryan et al., 2005) and prioritize the concerns of people without disabilities in interability interactions. While empirical research has not yet established how people with disabilities respond to different types of (non)accommodation, communication accommodation theory and interpersonal conflict literature provide insights into how these adaptive communication strategies may be utilized as a response to the interability communication styles in the current study and how they would be evaluated. For instance, when an individual without a disability modifies their communication to a person with a disability using relational talk, a person with a disability may reciprocate with an obliging strategy (e.g., "I'm fine with whatever you decide is best for the project"). While relational talk and the obliging response strategy are not the same, they are complementary. This means that when a person with a disability utilizes an obliging strategy in response to relational talk it shows a similar orientation toward interability communication wherein the individual without a disability exhibits helping communication behaviors and the person with a disability obliges, therefore allowing the individual without a disability to take control of the interability interaction (e.g., Zhang & Pitts, 2019). Similarly, when an individual without a disability utilizes dismissive talk, the person with a disability is likely to match that communication behavior by utilizing an avoidant response (e.g., "Oh, this isn't a big deal. What should we get for lunch?"). While both types of passive responses may reinforce negative stereotypes of people with disabilities and prioritize the communicative and interactional concerns of people without disabilities, the obliging response may have a higher potentiality for being considered accommodative as it may bring about future satisfying and effective communication whereas the avoiding strategy may hinder future communication from occurring (e.g., Ryan et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2005).

Another possible way people with disabilities may respond to modified communication by people without disabilities is aggressively by arguing with or insulting the person without a disability. Competing responses (e.g., “How dare you talk to me like that! This partnership is never going to work.”) are characterized by communication that involves accusatory and angry language with highly charged emotions (Ryan et al., 2005). Competing responses may temporarily interrupt inappropriate communication adjustments from an individual without a disability, but could also potentially reinforce stereotypes of people with disabilities as bitter and overly sensitive (Ryan, 2009). When the person without a disability utilizes directive talk that is highly controlling, the person with a disability may respond with highly charged emotions making a counterbid for control rather than avoiding or allowing people without disabilities to take control in the interaction. Competing responses, when used by people with disabilities, are likely to be viewed as nonaccommodative and inappropriate since such responses are negative, inhibit positive solution-oriented communication, and hold the potential for relational dissatisfaction and conflict initiation and/or escalation (Ryan et al., 2005; Zhang & Pitts, 2019).

While the avoiding, obliging, and competing response strategies have possibility for negative outcomes for the individual without a disability, future communication, and the relationship, according to interpersonal conflict literature, a problem-solving strategy is typically considered the most appropriate and satisfying (Canary & Cupach, 1988; Zhang et al., 2005). Ryan and colleagues (2005) theorized that selective assertiveness, which can be considered problem-solving (i.e., assertive and cooperative communication that initiates mutually satisfying and acceptable solutions; Wiebe & Zhang, 2017), would be a possible effective response for people with disabilities faced with nonaccommodation. Effective responses move the person without a disability to see the individual with a disability as a competent individual while

affirming the identity of the person without a disability (Hummert & Ryan, 1996). Problem-solving responses (e.g., “I’m happy to work together! You have some great ideas. We should try your plan and go from there.”) are characterized by intentional decision-making by the individual with a disability regarding when to ignore inappropriate communication adjustments and when to confront them. This strategy requires people with disabilities to skillfully take control of the situation (Hummert & Ryan, 1996) and has many positive outcomes insofar as interrupting the negative recursive feedback cycle (Ryan et al., 2005; Ryan, 2009). In addition, potential benefits of using a problem-solving response strategy include satisfying communication, a positive social identity, sense of control, and the ability to manage help effectively and meet one’s goals (Ryan et al., 2005). When an individual without a disability utilizes integrative talk in an interability interaction, the person with a disability is likely to respond with a problem-solving strategy. This response is likely to be considered as accommodative as it holds the potential for constructive and positive communication between the person with a disability and people without disabilities and may contribute to future satisfying and effective communication (Zhang & Pitts, 2019).

Empirical qualitative research has begun investigating how individuals with disability utilize these responses in interability communication situations (see Blockmans, 2015). However, how people with disabilities choose to respond to (in)appropriate interability talk remains unexamined. Understanding how participants with disabilities respond to appropriate and inappropriate interability communication strategies used by an individual without a disability and how the response styles used by people with disabilities vary across the four interability communication strategies utilized by people without disabilities is essential. The CPD Model provides a theoretical basis for the adaptive communicative strategies, however, empirical research has yet to examine how people with disabilities vary in their use of the strategies in

response to different appropriate and inappropriate communication adjustments. As a result, in line with the literature discussed in this section, the following research questions are put forward:

Research Question 1: How do (or to what extent do) participants' adaptive response strategies vary across the four communication styles?

Inferred Motive and Communication Anxiety as Mediators. In addition to investigating *what* effect/influence the interability communication styles had on the major dependent variables, the current study is interested in exploring *how* the communication styles influenced communication competence, communication satisfaction, internalized stigma, and likelihood of using the adaptive response strategies. Hence, inferred motive and communication anxiety are included as mediators to understand two mediating mechanisms explaining the relationship between the experimental conditions and the dependent variables. Thus, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 2: Inferred motive and communication anxiety will mediate the effects of the four communication styles on participants' communication competence and communication satisfaction.

Inferred motive as a Mediator. Previous research explains that inferred motive can affect evaluations of the speaker, psychological evaluations, and future behavior (Gasiorek & Giles, 2013). In the current study, inferred motive is included as an explanatory mechanism between the experimental conditions and the dependent variables (i.e., communication competence, satisfaction, and adaptive response strategies). Previous research explains that when communication accommodation is attributed to positive motive (as is predicted in integrative and relational talk), perceptions of communication satisfaction and other evaluations of the communicator improve (e.g., viewed as more positive, respectful, and polite) (Gasiorek & Giles,

2012; Gasiorek, 2013). Therefore, the current study predicts that the accommodative communication styles (i.e., integrative and relational talk) will be associated with an increase in inferred positive motive, thus improving perceptions of communication competence and satisfaction. Based on this review of literature, the following hypotheses are put forward:

H2a: Compared to participants in the directive, relational, and dismissive talk conditions, participants in the integrative talk condition will report higher positive inferred motive, which will positively predict communication competence and communication satisfaction.

H2b: Compared to participants in the directive and dismissive talk conditions, participants in the relational talk condition will report higher positive inferred motive, which will positively predict communication competence and communication satisfaction.

H2c: Compared to participants in the directive talk condition, participants in the dismissive talk condition will report higher positive inferred motive, which will positively predict communication competence and communication satisfaction.

While research regarding communicative responses to communication accommodation is just beginning, Gasiorek (2013) investigated responses to underaccommodation, which showed that responding by stopping the interaction/ignoring (i.e., used dismissive talk) or expressing negative affect (i.e., used directive talk) was associated with attributing communication to negative motive. These findings allow for a tentative prediction that nonaccommodative communication styles (i.e., directive and dismissive talk) will be attributed to less positive motive and thus result in more nonaccommodative response strategies (i.e., avoiding and competing). Similarly, accommodative communication styles (i.e., integrative and relational talk)

will be attributed to more positive motive and thus result in the likelihood of using more accommodative response strategies (i.e., obliging and problem-solving). However, due to the primarily theoretical nature of this research thus far, a research question rather than a hypothesis is forwarded:

> *Research Question 2a*: How does (or to what extent does) inferred motive mediate the association between the experimental conditions and the adaptive response strategies?

Since development on inferred motive is still new, the relationship between inferring positive motive to (non)accommodation and internalized stigma has yet to be established. However, theoretical and empirical understandings of the CPD Model, inferred motive, and internalized stigma are useful here. As explained by communication accommodation theory and the CPD Model, when people with disabilities are exposed to disability-adapted communication it can result in self-stereotyping and reinforcement of disability-stereotypic behaviors (e.g., learned helplessness) (Ryan et al., 2005). Theoretical developments related to inferred motive assert that attributions related to inferred motive could have psychological consequences and consequences for one's social identity (e.g., internalizing stigma about one's social identity group) (e.g., see Gasiorek & Giles, 2012 for a review of effects of inferred motive). Thus, the current study introduces internalized stigma as a major measure to uncover the relationship not only between communication (non)accommodation and inferred motive, but also inferred motive and internalized stigma. While we predict that inferring positive motive would decrease internalized stigma, we simply put forward the following research question:

> *Research Question 3*: What is the relationship between inferred motive and internalized stigma across the four experimental conditions?

***Communication anxiety as a Mediator*.** Decades of intergroup contact research have established communication anxiety as a critical mediator between communication and prejudice wherein prejudice is reduced as a result of anxiety reduction (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008; Stephan, 2014). As previously explained, the current study operationalizes communication anxiety at the interpersonal level. Even at the interpersonal level, high levels of communication anxiety are considered negative and can be debilitating to evaluations of the communicator (i.e., viewing the person without a disability as communicatively incompetent, unsatisfying) (Roach & Olaniran, 2001). In the current study, nonaccommodative communication adjustments (i.e., directive and dismissive talk) are predicted to elicit high anxiety appraisals, thus decreasing communication competence and satisfaction. Therefore, similar to the way anxiety operates in intergroup contact research, the ability to decrease communication anxiety will have positive outcomes for evaluations of the individual without a disability and future communication.

While the relationship between communication anxiety and internalized stigma has yet to be explored in this context, research related to the importance of reducing intergroup anxiety is applicable. Previous research illustrates that communication anxiety can lead to biased intergroup and intragroup perceptions (Stephan, 2014). Previous interability research shows that reducing intergroup anxiety reduces participants without disabilities' endorsement of negative disability stereotypes (Byrd & Zhang, 2020). Therefore, the current study is interested in exploring whether a reduction in communication anxiety has the same beneficial effect in reducing internalized stigma. Based on this review of literature, the following hypotheses are introduced:

H2d: Compared to participants in the integrative, relational, and dismissive talk conditions, participants in the directive talk condition will report greater communication

anxiety, which will negatively predict communication competence and satisfaction and positively predict internalized stigma.

H2e: Compared to participants in the integrative and relational talk conditions, participants in the dismissive talk condition will report greater communication anxiety, which will negatively predict communication competence and satisfaction and positively predict internalized stigma.

H2f: Compared to participants in the integrative talk condition, participants in the relational talk condition will report greater communication anxiety, which will negatively predict communication competence and satisfaction and positively predict internalized stigma.

Finally, the CPD Model and research on communication anxiety provides a theoretical basis for the relationship between adaptive communicative strategies and communication anxiety, however, empirical research has yet to examine this. As a result, the following research questions are put forward:

Research Question 2b: How does (or to what extent does) communication anxiety mediate the association between the experimental conditions and the adaptive response strategies?

Summary

Grounded in the previous analysis of literature and guided by CAT (Giles, 1973; 2016) and the ASI (Hummert, 1994) and CPD models (Ryan et al., 2005), this project explores the effects of four distinguishable communication styles (i.e., integrative talk, relational talk, dismissive talk, directive talk) directed to a person with a disability from their coworker without a disability. This study examines the effects of the communication styles on participants'

perceptions of communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability, in addition to perceptions of internalized stigma and likelihood of using adaptive response strategies (i.e., avoiding, obliging, problem-solving, and competing).

Chapter 3: Method

This study employed a vignette experimental design to test the effects of four distinct communicative styles (i.e., integrative talk, relational talk, dismissive talk, directive talk) directed to an individual with a disability from a person without a disability on participants with disabilities' perceptions of communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and communication anxiety toward the individual with a disability. This study also tested the effects of the communication styles on participants' internalized stigma and likelihood of using different adaptive response strategies (i.e., avoiding, obliging, problem-solving, and competing). This chapter outlines the procedures, materials, and methods of the two pilot studies and the main study.

Pilot Study 1

Prior to the main study, two pilot studies were conducted to ensure the validity of the experimental manipulations and detect any potential problems with the design, procedures, or materials. The first pilot study was a randomized, posttest-only experimental design (Cohen, 2013). Pilot testing had three major purposes before launching the main study: 1) ensure the successful manipulation of the interability communication styles, 2) evaluate the reliability of the major variable measurements, and 3) assess the clarity of the instructions for the measurements.

The primary purpose of the first pilot study was to evaluate the experimental manipulation of the individual without a disability's interability communication styles. The successful manipulation of the communication style independent variable required two criteria: 1) participants' perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication must have followed the theoretical integration of CAT (Giles, 1973; 2016) and organizational communication literature in relationship, task and teamwork management (Chaudry & Asif,

2015; Nicotera, 1993), and 2) the means must have been significantly different from the midpoint (i.e., 4, "neither agree nor disagree") of the scale. Each scenario carried its own criteria for successful manipulation (Giles, 2016; Nicotera, 1993). For the integrative talk manipulation to be successful, participants should perceive the communication to be high in concern-for-task completion, high in concern-for-relationship, and low in communicative disruptiveness. For the relational talk manipulation to be successful, participants in the relational talk condition should perceive the communication to be low in concern-for-task completion, high in concern-for-relationship, and low in communicative disruptiveness. For the dismissive talk condition to be successful, participants should perceive the talk to be low in concern-for-task completion, low in concern-for-relationship, and high in communicative disruptiveness. Finally, for the directive talk manipulation to be successful, participants should perceive the communication to be high in concern-for-task completion, low in concern-for-relationship, and high in communicative disruptiveness. The final step in verifying the successful manipulation of the interability communication style scenarios compared participants' perceptions of the individual without a disability's (i.e., Alex) talk across each condition.

Participants

Participants for the first pilot study included 179 undergraduate students who did not identify as having a disability (*M*age = 20.70, *SD* = 2.69, range = 18-40). All participants attended a medium-sized Midwestern university and were recruited from a university-wide required introductory communication course or upper-division communication courses and participated in exchange for extra credit. 103 participants were women (57.5%) and 76 (42.5%) were men. Eight (4.5%) participants identified as Hispanic or Latino and the remaining participants reported they did not identify as Hispanic or Latino (*N* = 171; 95.5%). The majority

of participants identified as White/Caucasian (*n* = 136; 76%), and the remainder of participants self-identified as Asian/Pacific Islander (*n* = 17; 9.5%), Black/African American (*n* = 12; 6.7%), Multiracial (*n* = 7; 3.9%), American Indian or Alaskan Native (*n* = 1; .6%), and 6 participants identified as Other (3.4%). Participants reported an average of 4.69 (*SD* = 3.34) years of employment experience. 59.8% of participants reported having at least one friend with a disability, while 49.7% of participants reported at least one family member with a disability.

Procedures

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four interability talk conditions. Forty-five participants (25.1%) were randomly assigned to the integrative talk condition, participants (25.1%) were randomly assigned to the relational talk condition, 44 participants (24.6%) were randomly assigned to the dismissive talk condition, and 45 participants (25.1%) were randomly assigned to the directive talk condition. After reading the assigned scenario, participants answered a manipulation check questionnaire. Finally, participants completed the major dependent measures in order to assess reliability of the major variables prior to the main study.

Materials

Interability Communication Style Scenarios. Four scenarios (see Appendix A) were created describing conversations between Alex, a person without a disability, and Taylor, an individual with a visible physical disability wherein the person without a disability uses a different interability communication style (i.e., integrative, relational, dismissive, or directive talk). All scenarios begin with an introduction, which describes the person with a visible physical disability, their disability, the context of the conversation, and the person without a disability. Two gender neutral names were chosen, Taylor for the individual with a disability and Alex for

the individual without a disability. The scenarios do not use any gender pronouns. In all conditions, the visibility of the target's disability status and type is controlled for. Across all conditions, Taylor is introduced in the scenario description as an individual with muscular dystrophy, which is a visible physical disability that causes muscle weakness, loss of muscle coordination, and issues with swallowing. Taylor's coworkers know about Taylor's disability because of the visible nature of using a wheelchair and due to the modified work schedule in order to attend doctor's visits and other medical necessities. In all of the scenario descriptions, Taylor and Alex are assigned to work together on an upcoming sales pitch for the team's top client. They are specifically discussing how they are going to work on the project together and manage Taylor's modified work schedule. Taylor says: "I want to make sure we have a plan since I'll be away from the office sometimes."

For the first pilot study, contents of each scenario were developed to represent the ways in which people without disabilities adjust their communication to people with disabilities along the two primary dimensions: concern-for-task completion (i.e., the person without a disability's desire to accomplish the task), concern-for-relationship (i.e., the person without a disability's desire to accomplish relationship or affiliative goals with the individual with a disability), and the character dimension of communicative disruptiveness (i.e., the valence of the message as disruptive/aggressive or nondisruptive/positive). Consistent with theoretical understandings of CAT and organizational communication literature in task and team management, the manipulations are represented by 1) integrative talk, 2) relational talk, 3) dismissive talk, and 4) directive talk from an individual without a disability to a person with a disability in the interpersonal, workplace context.

Integrative Talk. In the manipulation of integrative talk (i.e., high concern-for-task completion, high concern-for-relationship, nondisruptive communicative valence), Alex appropriately balances concern for the interpersonal relationship with Taylor, high concern for Taylor, and high concern for successfully completing the task. Alex's communication regarding the team project is highly collaborative (i.e., How do you think we should handle working together this time?), which communicates that Taylor is competent and capable of providing valuable contributions to their team project. Alex utilizes caring language showing high levels of warmth by using appropriate levels of praise (i.e., Congratulations...!) and indicators of relational closeness (i.e., I think we'll make a great team!). In this condition, Alex's nondisruptive communication indicates a desire to collaborate with Taylor to develop a plan to manage the workplace accommodation and successfully complete the team project, while also positively attending to the interpersonal relationship between the two.

Relational Talk. In the manipulation of relational talk (i.e., lower concern-for-task completion than for relationship, high concern-for-relationship, nondisruptive communicative valence), Alex's communication is represented by highly caring messages that indicate a primary focus on the interpersonal relationship between parties, with less focus on achieving task goals. Alex's talk includes praise (i.e., "You are amazing!"; "I've always been impressed when we work together!"), social support (i.e., "I'm always here to support you"), and hyperbolic language (i.e., "I don't know how you ever manage to be so successful") that may communicate inappropriately high levels of caring and/or overstepping of boundaries for Taylor. In this scenario, Alex's nondisruptive communication communicates support and helping at an interpersonal level, but does not initiate a conversation on how to work together on the team project.

Dismissive Talk. In the manipulation of dismissive talk (i.e., low concern-for-task completion, low concern-for-relationship, disruptive communicative valence), Alex conveys both a lack of concern for the interpersonal relationship and lack of concern for accomplishing the team project by attempting to avoid engaging in the interaction. Alex's talk includes disengaging behavior that minimizes discussion of the group project (i.e., I really can't worry about that now"), sidesteps the conversation ("I will see you tomorrow…"), and trivializes Taylor's concerns (i.e., "You worry too much…"; It'll work out some way or another"; "Just relax"). Altogether, this results in dismissive talk that is disruptive to communication goals and fails to attend to relationship and task goals.

Directive Talk. The manipulation of directive talk (i.e., high concern-for-task completion, low concern-for-relationship, disruptive communicative valence) is represented by explicitly controlling language solely focused on the team project and Alex's concerns for self (i.e., "You better not hold up my progress with all of your breaks"), while completely disregarding any relationship concerns. Within this manipulation, Alex calls into question Taylor's competence and ability to properly carry out work tasks (i.e., "I'm not going to let you make me look bad in front of the bosses"). In this condition, Alex pairs imperatives (i.e., "Listen…") with multiple repetitions (i.e., "You better…"), which emphasize and reinforce Alex's position as more powerful, competent, and autonomous than Taylor (e.g., Hummert & Ryan, 1996). Altogether, this creates directive talk, which contains disruptive language suggesting that Alex feels anger and disdain for the conversation or for Taylor (i.e., "I'm not going to tell you this again") and completely ignores any relational or affiliative goals.

Interability Communication Style Manipulation Check. Three items checked the manipulation of Alex's use of the four interability communication styles (see Appendix B).

Using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree, one item measured concern for task completion (overall $M = 3.75$; $SD = 2.03$; e.g., "Alex was only concerned about the completion of the project on time"), one item measured concern for the relationship (overall $M = 3.84$; $SD = 2.17$; e.g., "Alex was caring about the relationship with Taylor"), and one item measured communicative disruptiveness (overall $M = 3.91$; $SD = 1.97$; e.g., "Alex's communication was aggressive").

Results of Pilot Study 1

First, mean scores were assessed to ensure that the scenarios followed the theoretical framework as expected. Second, a series of one-sample *t*-tests assessed whether the concern-for-task completion, concern-for-relationship, and communicative disruptiveness mean scores were significantly different from the midpoint of the scale.

For the integrative talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be low in concern for task completion ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.67$; $t(44) = -2.59$, $p < .001$), high in concern for the relationship ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 1.23$; $t(44) = 8.85$, $p = .013$), and low in communicative disruptiveness ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.41$; $t(44) = -7.97$, $p < .001$). For integrative talk, the one-sample *t*-test indicated that the means for all three dimensions were significantly different from the midpoint of the scale (i.e., 4).

For the relational talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's communication to be low in concern for task completion ($M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.67$; $t(44) = -5.01$, $p < .001$), high in concern for relationship ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.25$; $t(44) = 8.08$, $p < .001$), and low in communicative disruptiveness ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.42$; $t(44) = -6.61$, $p < .001$). The one-sample *t*-test indicated that all three means were significantly different from the midpoint of the scale for relational talk.

For the dismissive talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be at the midpoint for concern-for-task completion (M = 4.07, SD = 1.95; $t(43) = .23$, $p = .817$), low in concern for the relationship (M = 2.86, SD = 1.46; $t(43) = -5.17$, $p < .001$), and at the midpoint for communicative disruptiveness (M = 3.98, SD = 1.49; $t(43) = -.10$, $p = .920$). For the dismissive talk condition, the one-sample *t*-test indicated that the mean for concern-for-relationship was significantly different from the midpoint of the scale, but the mean of concern-for-task completion and communicative disruptiveness was not.

For the directive talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be high in concern for task completion (M = 5.47, SD = 1.50; $t(44) = 6.55$, $p < .001$), low in concern for relationship (M = 1.36, SD = .68; $t(44) = -26.11$, $p < .001$), and high in communicative disruptiveness (M = 6.09, SD = 1.18; $t(44) = 11.84$, $p < .001$). The one-sample *t*-test indicated that the means for all three dimensions were significantly different from the midpoint of the scale in the directive talk condition (i.e., 4, "neither agree nor disagree").

Based on the results of this pilot test, the manipulations for integrative talk, relational talk, and directive talk successfully fit the theoretical frameworks, while the manipulation for dismissive talk did not since the mean scores for concern for task completion and communicative disruptiveness were at the midpoint, not low. In order to further assess the validity of the four scenarios, a multivariate analysis of variance with the four experimental conditions as between-subject factors on three dependent variables (i.e., concern-for-task completion, concern-for-relationship, and communicative disruptiveness) were conducted. Results revealed a significant multivariate composite effect of the four conditions, Wilk's $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = .26$, $F(9, 421.19) = 35.25$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .37$. Univariate tests were significant for all three dimensions: $F(3, 179) = 21.81$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .27$ for concern-for-task completion; $F(3, 179) = 138.76$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .70$ for

concern-for-relationship; and $F(3, 179) = 69.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .54$ for communicative disruptiveness. Using Tukey's HSD post hoc procedures, pairwise comparisons were conducted where alpha was set to .008 since there are six pairwise comparisons. The results of Tukey's HSD post hoc are summarized in Table 1.

For the concern-for-task completion dimension, post hoc analysis revealed that the directive talk condition was significantly higher than the integrative ($p < .001$), relational ($p < .001$), and dismissive ($p = .001$) talk conditions. There was also a significant difference between the mean scores of relational talk and dismissive talk ($p = .002$). However, there were no significant differences in concern-for-task completion between the integrative talk and relational talk ($p = .341$) conditions or the integrative talk and dismissive talk ($p = .201$) conditions (See Table 1).

For the concern-for-relationship dimension, post hoc analysis revealed that the mean score for the integrative talk condition was significantly different (i.e., higher) than the mean scores of directive talk ($p < .001$) and dismissive talk ($p < .001$), but not significantly different from the mean score of relational talk ($p = .971$). Similarly, the mean score of relational talk was significantly different (i.e., higher) than the mean scores of directive talk ($p < .001$) and dismissive talk ($p < .001$). Finally, there was a significant difference in the mean scores of directive and dismissive talk ($p < .001$) on the concern-for-relationship dimension (See Table 1).

For the communicative disruptiveness dimension, directive talk was significantly different (i.e., higher) than the mean scores of integrative talk ($p < .001$), relational talk ($p < .001$), and dismissive talk ($p < .001$). The integrative talk condition was also significantly different from the dismissive talk condition ($p < .001$), but not significantly different from the

relational talk ($p = .796$) condition. Finally, relational talk and dismissive talk ($p < .001$) were significantly different on the communicative disruptiveness dimension (See Table 1).

Generally, these findings support the theoretical integration of CAT and organizational communication research in task/teamwork management regarding concern-for-relationship and communicative disruptiveness (e.g., Nicotera, 1993; Zhang & Pitts, 2019), but suggest revisions to strengthen the experimental manipulations regarding concern-for-task completion. Based on the findings of this pilot study, suggested revisions for the integrative talk and dismissive talk scenarios, as well as for the conceptualization and operationalization of concern-for-task completion will be explained in the Discussion section of Pilot Study 1.

Table 1:

Pilot Study 1 Manipulation Check: Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations for Concern-for-Task Completion, Concern-for-Relationship, and Communicative Disruptiveness Across Interability Communication Style Conditions

	Concern for Task Completion		Concern for Relationship		Communicative Disruptiveness	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Integrative Talk	4.07[a]	1.95	2.86[a]	1.46	3.98[a]	1.49
Relational Talk	2.76[a]	1.67	5.51[a]	1.25	2.60[a]	1.42
Dismissive Talk	3.36[b]	1.67	5.62[b]	1.23	2.33b	1.41
Directive Talk	5.47[b]	1.50	1.36[c]	.68	6.09[c]	1.18

Note. Means with different superscripts in each column vary significantly from one another at $p < .008$.

Discussion of Pilot Study 1

Results of the manipulation check suggested an overall strong reflection of the CAT and interpersonal and workplace conflict literature. Overall, the communication styles accurately reflected the guiding theoretical frameworks. Results for the concern-for-relationship dimension were supported across all four conditions, but the concern-for-task completion and communicative disruptiveness (in the dismissive talk condition) dimensions provided room for

improvement before proceeding with the main study. Altogether, results indicated that mean scores for all three dimensions were significantly different from the midpoint in most conditions.

Results for the integrative talk condition were generally supported. Participants who read the integrative talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be low in concern for task completion, high in concern for the relationship, and nondisruptive in communicative valence. While the theoretical frameworks suggested that integrative talk should be high in concern for task completion, the item used to measure the task dimension ("Alex was only concerned with the completion of the team project") in this pilot study was not neutrally valanced. Therefore, considering the item used to measure concern for task completion, the manipulation for integrative talk is generally supported by the guiding theoretical frameworks sine the individual without a disability should not *only* be concerned with the team project when using integrative talk. These findings suggests that revisions are necessary for the item measuring concern for task completion.

Relational talk was also supported by the guiding theoretical frameworks. Participants who read the scenario in which Alex utilized relational talk perceived the communication to be low in concern for task completion, high in concern for the relationship, and nondisruptive. As theorized by the theoretical frameworks, participants who read the relational talk scenario perceived Alex's communication to be nondisruptive and highly caring, supportive, and interested in helping at the interpersonal level. However, the low mean of concern for task completion demonstrates Alex's lack of concern with initiating concrete solutions regarding the team project. Revision of the manipulation check item measuring concern for task completion will also improve understandings of relational talk since relational talk should be more concerned with the relationship than the task at hand.

Dismissive talk presented minor theoretical inconsistencies regarding concern for task completion and communicative disruptiveness. Participants who read the scenario where Alex utilized dismissive talk perceived the communication to be at the midpoint in concern for task completion, low in concern for relationship, and at the midpoint in communicative disruptiveness. The means of concern for task completion and communicative disruptiveness were not significantly different from the midpoint of the scale (i.e., 4; "neither agree nor disagree"). Essentially, participants reported Alex's communication to be neither strong nor weak in concern for task completion and communicative disruptiveness. Contradictory to these results, organizational literature regarding task management indicates that dismissive talk should be associated with low or weak concern for task completion (i.e., concern for accomplishing task goals) and disruptive in communicative valence (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Nicotera, 1993). As these results differed slightly from the guiding theories, they indicated a need for revision of this experimental condition.

The directive talk condition was supported by the guiding theoretical frameworks. As theorized by the theoretical framework, participants who read the condition in which Alex utilizes directive talk perceived the communication to be high in concern for task completion, low in concern for relationship, and disruptive in communicative valence. Specifically, participants perceived Alex to be controlling, negative and primarily concerned with his own interests regarding completing the task rather than collaborating with Taylor to find ways to work together on the team project. Overall, results of this pilot study indicated a general fit with the guiding theoretical frameworks and suggested minor revisions regarding the manipulation check questionnaire and the dismissive talk scenario.

Pilot Study 2

The second pilot study addressed the minor inconsistencies revealed in the first pilot study. Specifically, the second pilot study had two major objectives: re-operationalize concern-for-task completion and revise the integrative and dismissive talk scenarios. First, the concern-for-task completion manipulation check item was revised to account for positive, negative, and potentially ambiguous forms of talk. To account for this, the manipulation check scale was edited to reflect a neutral operationalization of concern-for-task completion. Concern-for-relationship, which was fully supported by the first pilot study, remains the same in the second pilot study. The minor issue with communicative disruptiveness was accounted for by revising the dismissive talk scenario, therefore the communicative disruptiveness scale remained unchanged.

Second, the integrative talk and dismissive talk conditions were edited to reflect their theoretical groundings more clearly. The integrative talk condition was edited to reflect high concern-for-task completion more clearly (i.e., “I know you’ve managed your modified schedule well on past projects” was changed to “I can take the lead and delegate tasks if that’s helpful”), while the dismissive talk condition was edited to reflect low concern-for-task completion (i.e., “It’ll work out some way or another” was changed to “I cannot worry about any of this stuff right now”) and disruptive communicative valence (i.e., “You worry too much, things always work out on their own." was changed to “You already want to come up with a plan for this project? You worry too much every time we work on a project together”). The second pilot study also consisted of a randomized posttest only experiment (Cohen, 2013).

The criteria for each scenario to be successfully manipulated was the same as in the first pilot study. To review, for the manipulation to be successful, integrative talk should be perceived as high in concern for task completion, high in concern for the relationship, and nondisruptive. Relational talk should be perceived as low in concern for task completion, high in concern for

the relationship, and nondisruptive. Dismissive talk should be perceived as low in concern for task completion, low in concern for the relationship, and disruptive. Directive talk should be perceived as high in concern for task completion, low in concern for the relationship, and disruptive.

Additionally, the means for the four communication styles should follow specific patterns within each dimension. First, for the concern for task completion dimension, the two communication styles that are low in concern for task completion (i.e., relational and dismissive talk) should be significantly different from the two communication styles that are high in concern for task completion (i.e., integrative and directive talk). However, relational and dismissive talk do not need to be significantly different from one another, nor do integrative talk and directive talk.

For the concern for relationship dimension, the two communication styles that are low in concern for the relationship (i.e., directive and dismissive talk) should be significantly different from the two communication styles that are high in concern for the relationship (i.e., integrative and relational talk). Directive and dismissive talk do not need to be significantly different from one another, nor do integrative and relational talk.

For the communicative disruptiveness dimension, directive talk and dismissive talk (disruptive) should be significantly different from integrative talk and relational talk (nondisruptive). However, directive and dismissive talk do not need to significantly differ from one another, nor do integrative talk and relational talk.

Participants

Participants for the second pilot study included 113 individuals who self-identify as having a disability (*M*age = 41.62, *SD* = 13.21, range = 20-77). Participants were recruited using

CloudResearch Prime Panels, a participant recruitment service that operates through Amazon Web Services. Eligibility was restricted to people who identified as having a disability and resided in the United States. Participants were paid $1.20 to complete this pilot study, and completion took an average of 20 minutes.

Sixty-seven participants were women (65.0%), 34 (33.0%) were men, and two did not identify a gender. Five (4.9%) participants identified as Hispanic or Latino, while the remaining participants did not (*N* = 98; 95.1%). The majority of participants identified as White/Caucasian (88; 85.4%), and the remainder of participants self-identified as Asian/Pacific Islander (3; 2.7%), Black/African American (8; 7.8%), Multiracial (3; 2.7%), while one participant (.9%) identified as Other. Participants primarily reported their disabilities to be invisible (*N* = 91; 80.5%). The majority (55; 53.4%) of participants reported being employed full-time, 18 (17.5%) were employed part-time; 9 (8.7%) were un-employed, but currently looking for work; 3 (2.9%) were unemployed, but not currently looking for work; one (1.0%) was a student; 6 (5.8%) were retired; 9 (8.7%) were unable to work; and 2 (1.9%) reported “other”. On average, participants reported having 19.43 (*SD* = 12.59) years of employment experience. Twelve participants did not report their demographic information for sex, ethnicity, or employment experience.

Procedures

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four interability talk conditions. Twenty-eight (24.8%) were randomly assigned to the integrative talk condition, 25 (22.1%) were randomly assigned to the relational talk condition, 31 (27.4%) were randomly assigned to the dismissive talk condition, and 29 (25.7%) were randomly assigned to the directive talk condition. After reading the assigned paragraph, participants answered a manipulation check questionnaire.

Materials

Scenarios. The integrative talk and dismissive talk scenarios, which were revised for Pilot Study 2 are discussed below (see Appendix C).

Integrative Talk. Integrative talk (high concern for task completion, high concern for the relationship, nondisruptive communicative valance) is represented by Alex using nondisruptive, caring language that is cooperative in initiating mutually satisfying solutions for completing the team project (i.e., "I might miss some days too, but we can cover for each other"; "How do you think we should handle working together?") while appropriately attending to the interpersonal relationship (i.e., "We make a great team!"). The revisions to the integrative talk scenario were primarily regarding the revision of one sentence to improve the cooperation and active concern for moving the task forward (i.e., "I can take the lead and delegate tasks if that's helpful").

Dismissive Talk. Dismissive talk (low concern for task completion, low concern for the relationship, disruptive) is represented by Alex using communication that avoids attending to the task and conveys a lack of concern for the interpersonal relationship. The revisions to the dismissive talk scenario were primarily related to ensuring that Alex's communication was low, not moderate in concern for task completion by removing task-oriented language (i.e., "It'll work out some way or another"). Dismissive talk is represented by communication behaviors that minimize explicit discussion of the task (i.e., "I can't worry about any of this stuff right now"), trivialize Taylor's concerns (i.e., "You worry too much every time we work together on a project"), and sidestep engagement in discussion of ways to work together (i.e., "I have so many other things to deal with"). In this condition, Alex's disruptive talk inhibits the two from finding a mutually satisfying solution for moving forward with the group project.

Manipulation check. Three items (See Appendix D) measured participants' perceptions of Alex's communication to Taylor in the scenarios. One item measured concern-for-task

completion (Overall *M* = 4.55, *SD* = 2.08; e.g., "Alex was concerned with the success of the team project"), one item measured concern for the relationship (Overall *M* = 3.96, *SD* = 2.48; e.g., "Alex was caring about the relationship with Taylor"), and one item measured communicative disruptiveness (Overall *M* = 4.08, *SD* = 2.36; e.g., "Alex's communication was aggressive") on 7-point Likert scales where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Results of Pilot Study 2

A series of one-sample *t*-tests checked and verified the successful manipulation of the interability communication scenario conditions. For the integrative talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be high in concern for the task completion (*M* = 5.64, *SD* = 1.79, *t*(27) = 4.86, *p* =< .001), high in concern for the relationship (*M* = 6.54, *SD* = .51, *t*(27) = 26.42, *p* =< .001), and nondisruptive (*M* = 1.89, *SD* = 1.45, *t*(27) = -7.70, *p* =< .001). For the relational talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be neither low nor high in concern for task completion (*M* = 4.00, *SD* = 1.76, *t*(24) = .00, *p* = 1.00), high in concern for relationship (*M* = 5.68, *SD* = 1.35, *t*(24) = 6.24, *p* =< .001), and nondisruptive (*M* = 2.84, *SD* = 1.84, *t*(24) = -3.15, *p* =< .001). For the dismissive talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be low in concern for task completion (*M* = 2.87, *SD* = 1.98, *t*(30) = -3.18, *p* =< .001), low in concern for the relationship (*M* = 2.35, *SD* = 1.76, *t*(30) = -5.20, *p* =< .001), and disruptive (*M* = 5.10, *SD* = 1.83, *t*(30) = 3.33, *p* =< .001). Results of a one-sample *t*-test indicated that for the directive talk scenario, participants perceived Alex's talk to be high in concern for task completion (*M* = 5.76, *SD* = 1.15, *t*(28) = 8.20, *p* =< .001), low in concern for the relationship (*M* = 1.72, *SD* = 1.49, *t*(28) = -8.25, *p* =< .001), and disruptive (*M* = 6.17, *SD* = 1.39, *t*(28) = 8.41, *p* =< .001). All one-sample *t*-tests, with the exception of the mean score of concern for task completion in the relational talk condition, indicated that the mean scores were significantly above or below the

midpoint of the scale (i.e., 4, “neither agree nor disagree”) as indicated by the theoretical frameworks.

The validity of the four scenarios was further examined by conducting a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with concern for task completion, concern for the relationship, and communicative disruptiveness as dependent variables. Results of the MANOVA indicated a significant multivariate composite effect of the four conditions, Wilk’s $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = .17$, $F(9, 260.56) = 30.98$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .45$. The univariate tests for all three dimensions were significant: $F(3, 113) = 56.92$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .35$ for concern for task completion; $F(3, 113) = 161.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .70$ for concern for the relationship; and $F(3, 113) = 110.47$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .53$ for communicative disruptiveness.

Using Tukey’s HSD post hoc procedures, pairwise comparisons were conducted for each dimension (alpha = .008 for six pairwise comparisons). For the concern for task completion dimension, the mean scores for directive talk and integrative talk (i.e., high in concern for task completion) were significantly higher than the mean scores for relational talk ($p = .001$) and dismissive talk ($p < .001$). The mean scores for directive talk and integrative talk ($p = .994$) did not significantly differ from one another, nor did the mean scores for relational talk and dismissive talk ($p = .070$). See Table 2 for mean scores.

For the concern for the relationship dimension, the mean scores for integrative talk and relational talk (i.e., high in concern for relationship) were significantly higher than the mean scores for directive talk ($p < .001$) and dismissive talk ($p < .001$). The mean scores for integrative talk and relational talk ($p = .112$) did not significantly differ from one another, nor did the mean scores for directive talk and dismissive talk ($p = .289$). See Table 2 for mean scores.

For the communicative disruptiveness dimension, the mean scores for directive talk and dismissive talk (i.e., disruptive) were significantly higher than the mean scores for integrative talk ($p < .001$) and relational talk ($p < .001$). The mean scores for directive talk and dismissive talk ($p = .059$) did not significantly differ from one another, nor did the mean scores for integrative talk and relational talk ($p = .112$). Overall, the MANOVA results related to concern for task completion, concern for the relationship, and communicative disruptiveness demonstrated theoretical consistency with CAT (Giles, 1973; 2016) and organizational communication literature in relationship, task, and teamwork management (Chaudry & Asif, 2015; Nicotera, 1993),

Table 2:

Pilot Study 2 Manipulation Check: Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations for Concern for Task Completion, Concern for Relationship, and Communicative Disruptiveness Across Interability Communication Style Conditions

	Concern for Task Completion		Concern for Relationship		Communicative Disruptiveness	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Integrative Talk	5.64[a]	1.79	6.54[a]	.51	1.89[a]	1.45
Relational Talk	4.00[a]	1.76	5.68[a]	1.35	2.84[a]	1.84
Dismissive Talk	2.87[b]	1.98	2.35[b]	1.67	5.10[b]	1.83
Directive Talk	5.76[b]	1.15	1.72[b]	1.49	6.17[b]	1.39

Note. Means with different superscripts in each column vary significantly from one another at $p < .008$.

Discussion of Pilot 2

The second pilot study addressed the minor issues uncovered in the first pilot study. Most importantly, this pilot study dealt with the operationalization of concern for task completion to appropriately fit positive, negative, and potentially ambiguous communication styles in an interpersonal, workplace context. Additionally, this pilot study resolved issues with the

dismissive talk scenario regarding the concern for task completion and communicative disruptiveness dimensions.

First, the revisions to the integrative talk and dismissive talk conditions along with the revised operationalization of the concern for task completion manipulation check item yielded an overall successful manipulation of participants' perceptions of Alex's communication in the scenarios. For integrative talk, the mean score of concern for task completion was high, concern for the relationship was high, and Alex's communication was perceived to be nondisruptive. In the relational talk condition, the mean score of concern for task completion was neither low or high, concern for the relationship was high, and Alex's communication was nondisruptive. While relational talk was predicted to be low in concern for task completion, MANOVA results revealed that the mean score was not significantly different from dismissive talk (which is low in concern for task completion) and was significantly different from the two communication styles that are high in concern for task completion (i.e., directive talk and integrative talk). A potential explanation for the mean scores reflecting neither low nor high concern for task completion is that the socially supportive language used in relational talk may communicate that Alex is willing to cooperate in both interpersonal and task-related settings. In the dismissive talk scenario, the mean score of concern for task completion was low, concern for the relationship was low, and Alex's communication was disruptive. As designed, in the directive talk scenario, the mean score of concern for task completion was high, concern for the relationship was low, and Alex's communication was disruptive. Therefore, this pilot study resolved all issues raised in the first pilot study and the main study was started.

Main Study

Two pilot studies were conducted to address the validity of the manipulation of the independent variable. To test the hypotheses proposed, analysis included a series of analysis of covariance, multivariate analyses of covariance, and mediation analysis (using Model 4 of PROCESS for SPSS).

Participants

Participants (N = 902) were recruited from CloudResearch Prime Panels. CloudResearch is a leading participant-sourcing platform for online research. To be eligible to participate, participants had to self-identify as having a disability and be residents of the United States. Twelve participants were removed from the main analyses as they reported that they did not have a disability when answering demographic questions. Participants were paid $1.20 to complete the study, and completion took an average of 19 minutes. Participants needed to answer every question before they could proceed.

Participants were young (413; 45.8%; 18-34), middle-age (353; 39.1%; 35-54), and older (134; 14.9%; 55-79) adult participants who had a disability. Altogether, the average age of participants was 38.80 years old (SD = 13.17). The majority of participants (n = 721; 79.9%) indicated that their disability was invisible, while 181 participants (20.1%) indicated that their disability was visible. Participants primarily indicated their disability to be a mental health disorder (n = 388; 43.0%), while 158 participants indicated their disability to be a mobility or physical impairment (17.5%); 130 participants indicated having multiple types of disabilities (14.5%); 69 participants indicated having sensory (including hearing and visual) impairments (7.6%); 39 participants indicated having a learning disability (4.3%); and 118 participants categorized their disability as not belonging to any of the previous types (13.1%).

The majority of participants identified as female (*n* = 542; 60.1%), whereas 354 participants (39.2%) identified as male, and 6 participants (.7%) identified as other. Seventy-six (76; 8.5%) participants identified as Hispanic or Latino, and the remaining participants did not identify as Hispanic or Latino (*N* = 820; 91.5%). The majority of participants identified as White (*n* = 702; 78.3%), and the remainder of participants identified as Black or African American (90; 10%), Asian/Pacific Islander (59; 6.6%), Multiracial (32; 3.6%), American Indian or Alaskan Native (7; .8%); and 6 participants (.7%) identified as Other. Participants reported an average of 15.36 (*SD* = 3.58) years of education and an average of 17.92 (*SD* = 12.85) years of employment experience. The majority of participants reported being employed full-time (*n* = 522; 57.9%), while 152 participants were employed part-time (16.9%); 60 participants were unemployed and currently looking for work (6.7%); 19 (2.1%) participants were unemployed and not currently looking for work; 35 participants were students (3.9%); 45 participants were retired (5%); 40 participants were unable to work (4.4%); and 29 participants indicated "other" (3.2%).

Procedures

Participants first completed a short questionnaire that ensured they met the inclusionary criteria and asked questions related to the participant's disability (see Appendix E). Then, participants were randomly assigned to one of the four experimental conditions. Two hundred twenty-four (24.8%) participants were assigned to the integrative talk condition, 221 (24.5%) participants were assigned to the relational talk condition, 225 (24.9%) were assigned to the dismissive talk condition, and 232 (25.7%) participants were assigned to the directive talk condition. After reading the assigned interability talk scenario, participants answered a manipulation check questionnaire (see Appendix G). Then, participants completed the measures

for the major variables in the current study (see Appendices H and I). Finally, participants completed a short questionnaire with demographic information (see Appendix J).

Materials

Scenarios. Two scenarios from pilot study 1 (i.e., relational talk and directive talk) and the two revised scenarios from pilot study 2 (i.e., integrative talk and dismissive talk) were used in the main study (see Appendix F).

Manipulation Check. Three total items (See Appendix G) measured participants' perceptions of Alex's communication to Taylor in the scenarios. One item measured concern for task completion (Overall M = 4.29, SD = 1.91; e.g., "Alex was concerned with the success of the team project"), one item measured concern for the relationship (Overall M = 3.94, SD = 2.32; e.g., "Alex was caring about the relationship with Taylor"), and one item measured communicative disruptiveness (Overall M = 4.17, SD = 2.24; e.g., "Alex's communication was aggressive") on 7-point Likert scales where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Major Measures

The following variables were measured after participants' exposure to the experimental conditions. Scales used in the main study regarding perceptions of the individual without a disability in the scenario and the scenario itself can be found in Appendix H and scales regarding participants' perceptions of their own ingroup and future communication can be found in Appendix I.

Communication Competence. Communication competence refers to participants' perceptions of Alex's communication as appropriate and effective. Ten items (overall M = 3.87, SD = 1.95, α = .98) were used to measure the construct. Five items (e.g., "Alex's communication was effective for discussing a project with a colleague") were used to measure effectiveness and

five items were used to measure appropriateness (e.g., “Alex’s communication was appropriate for communication to a colleague”; “Alex’s communication was proper for discussing working together on a project”) on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). This measurement scale was adapted from Gross et al. (2004) and Song and Zhang (2012) by changing “my husband” to “Alex” and modifying the goal for appropriateness and effectiveness from “appropriate and effective conflict management” to “appropriate and effective for discussing the team project”.

In line with a competence-based approach to communication, the current study measured communication appropriateness and communication effectiveness to understand how competent participants evaluated the individual without a disability’s communication to be (see Spitzberg et al., 1994 for a review of communication competence). While research typically considers these to be distinct constructs (e.g., Gross et al., 2004; Song & Zhang, 2012), a retrospective exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with Promax variation was conducted to examine whether communication appropriateness and effectiveness were distinct concepts in the current study. EFA results indicated a single factor structure explaining 82.92% variance (KMO Bartlett’s Test for Sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(45) = 13859.91$, $p < .001$), therefore in the current study the construct was determined to be communication competence as a single factor rather than communication appropriateness and effectiveness separately.

Communication Satisfaction. Communication satisfaction refers to how satisfied participants would feel communicating with Alex if they were in the scenario. Eight items (overall $M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.99$, $\alpha = .97$; e.g., “If I were communicating with Alex, I would feel like I would want to continue having conversations like this”) on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree) were used to measure the concept. This measurement

scale was adapted from Hecht's (1978) 8-item general affect subscale of the communication satisfaction scale. This instrument was adapted by adding the prefix "If I were communicating with Alex" to the original eight items.

Inferred Motive. Inferred motive refers to the degree to which participants' attribute Alex's communication to positive motive. Three items (overall M = 4.45, SD = 1.88, α = .93; e.g., "In general, Alex's remarks were sincere"; "In general, Alex was genuine"; "In general, Alex was trustworthy") were used to measure the construct on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). This measurement scale was developed in line with literature on CAT and inferred motive (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012).

Communication Anxiety. Communication anxiety refers to the discomfort, uneasiness, or stress experienced if participants were interacting with the individual without a disability in the scenario (i.e., Alex). Thirteen items (overall M = 4.21, SD = 1.74, α = .97; e.g., "I would feel self-conscious interacting with Alex"; "I would feel irritated interacting with Alex") on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree) were used to measure the concept. This measurement scale was adapted from Stephan and Stephan's (1985) 12- item scale. In the original scale, participants were asked to report their anxiety if they were interacting with respective immigrant groups, which was replaced by Alex (i.e., the individual without a disability) to fit the study's context.

Internalized Stigma of Disability Status. Internalized stigma refers to the devaluation, shame, secrecy, and withdrawal triggered by applying negative stereotypes of group membership to oneself. Nine items (overall M = 3.39, SD = 1.40, α = .92; e.g., "I feel out of place in the world because I have a disability"; "I feel inferior to others because I have a disability") on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree) were used to measure the

concept. This measurement scale was adapted from Ritsher et al.'s (2003) 12-item alienation and social withdrawal subscales of the Internalized Stigma of Mental Illness scale. In the current study, each item was modified by replacing "mental illness" with "disability". While these items represent two subscales in the Ritsher et al. (2003) measure, EFA results indicated a single factor structure explaining 60.38% variance (KMO Bartlett's Test for Sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(36) = 4732.78$, $p < .001$), therefore in the current study the construct was determined to be a single factor of internalized stigma.

Adaptive Response Strategies. Adaptive response strategies refer to the participants' affinity for different responses to interability communication styles if they were communicating with Alex. Four items were used to measure the problem-solving response strategy (overall M = 5.35, SD = 1.09, α = .83; e.g., "I would integrate Alex's ideas with mine for joint decision-making"), three items were used to measure the avoiding response strategy (overall M = 2.81, SD = 1.59, α = .86; e.g., "I would try not to talk with Alex about the team project to avoid hard feelings"), five items were used to measure the competing response strategy (overall M = 3.61, SD = 1.23, α = .77; e.g., "I would argue with Alex to show the merits of my position"), and four items were used to measure the obliging response strategy (overall M = 3.87, SD = 1.42, α = .90; e.g., "I would try all I could to please Alex") on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly disagree). This measurement scale was adapted from the 24-item Song and Zhang (2012) and 28-item Rahim and Magner (1995) scales. This measurement scale was modified by replacing "mother-in-law" and "supervisor" with "Alex" and changing the items from past tense to future tense. Items related to compromising were not included in the current study.

Control Variables. Visibility of participant's disability and participants' age, sex (1 = female, 2 = male), race (1 = white, 2 = non-white), years of education, and years of employment

experience were included as control variables in all major analyses. The control variables were balanced in each experimental condition. Table 3 includes descriptive statistics related to the control variables.

Table 3:

Descriptive Statistics of Covariates Across Interability Communication Style Conditions

	Disability Visibility	Age	Sex	Race	Education	Employment Experience
Integrative	1 = 50	*M* = 40.10	1 = 135	1 = 175	*M* = 15.01	*M* = 18.40
Talk	2 = 170	*SD* = 13.45	2 = 85	2 = 45	*SD* = 3.15	*SD* = 12.57
Relational	1 = 39	*M* = 38.31	1 = 124	1 = 174	*M* = 15.47	*M* = 17.37
Talk	2 = 182	*SD* = 13.80	2 = 97	2 = 47	*SD* = 3.78	*SD* = 13.29
Dismissive	1 = 51	*M* = 38.3	1 = 140	1 = 179	*M* = 15.58	*M* = 17.98
Talk	2 = 173	*SD* = 12.66	2 = 84	2 = 45	*SD* = 4.11	*SD* = 13.19
Directive	1 = 40	*M* = 38.82	1 = 143	1 = 174	*M* = 15.37	*M* = 18.20
Talk	2 = 191	*SD* = 12.77	2 = 88	2 = 57	*SD* = 3.63	*SD* = 12.44

Note. Disability Visibility: 1 = Visible, 2 = Invisible; Sex: 1 = Female, 2 = Male.

Main Study Manipulation Check

The validity of the four scenarios in the main study was examined in two phases: one sample *t*-tests and a multivariate analysis of variance with the four experimental conditions as between-subject factors on the three dependent variables (i.e., concern for task completion, concern for the relationship, and communicative disruptiveness).

As outlined by the theoretical frameworks, in the integrative talk condition revealed that the mean scores were high in concern for task completion ($M = 5.45$, $SD = 1.44$; $t(219) = 14.89$, $p < .001$), high in concern for the relationship ($M = 5.90$, $SD = 1.25$; $t(219) = 22.64$, $p < .001$), and Alex's communication was nondisruptive ($M = 2.64$, $SD = 1.71$; $t(219) = -11.84$, $p < .001$). Results for the relational talk condition showed that the mean score for concern for task completion was at the midpoint ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 1.64$; $t(221) = 1.93$, $p = .055$), concern for relationship was high ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 1.23$; $t(221) = 19.60$, $p < .001$), and Alex's

communication was nondisruptive (M = 2.61, SD = 1.68; $t(221) = -12.31$, $p < .001$). Results of the MANOVA show that relational talk is significantly different (i.e., lower than) from integrative talk in concern-for-task completion, ($F(3, 896) = 75.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$), which is consistent with the guiding theoretical frameworks applied in the current study. In the dismissive talk condition, mean scores were low in concern for task completion (M = 3.03, SD = 1.79; $t(223) = -8.13$, $p < .001$), low in concern for the relationship (M = 2.66, SD = 1.80; $t(223) = -11.15$, $p < .001$), and high in communicative disruptiveness (M = 5.03, SD = 1.69; $t(223) = 9.09$, $p < .001$). Finally, in the directive talk condition, the mean scores were high in concern for task completion (M = 4.47, SD = 1.92; $t(230) = 3.75$, $p < .001$), low in concern for the relationship (M = 1.69, SD = 1.34; $t(230) = -26.20$, $p < .001$), and Alex's communication was disruptive (M = 6.29, SD = 1.20; $t(230) = 28.87$, $p < .001$). Therefore, these results further demonstrated the consistency with the theoretical frameworks thus far.

Next, the validity of the four scenarios was further examined by conducting a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA). Results revealed a significant multivariate composite effect of the four conditions, Wilk's $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = .29$, $F(9, 2166.18) = 159.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .34$. The univariate tests for all three dimensions were significant: $F(3, 896) = 75.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$ for concern for task completion; $F(3, 896) = 495.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .63$ for concern for the relationship; and $F(3, 896) = 300.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .50$ for communicative disruptiveness.

Using Tukey's HSD post hoc procedures, pairwise comparisons were conducted for each dimension and are presented in Table 4. For the concern for task completion dimension, post hoc analysis revealed that the mean score for the integrative talk dimension was significantly higher than the mean scores for directive talk ($p < .001$), relational talk ($p < .001$), and dismissive talk ($p < .001$) conditions. The mean score for the directive talk condition was also significantly

higher than the mean scores for the dismissive talk condition ($p < .001$), but was not significantly different from the relational talk condition ($p = .372$). Finally, the relational talk condition was significantly different from the dismissive talk condition ($p < .001$). While it was predicted that relational talk would be significantly different from directive talk, one-sample *t*-test results revealed that the mean of directive talk was significantly above the midpoint and the mean of relational talk was not different from the midpoint. Therefore, the results related to concern for task completion are generally consistent with the theoretical framework.

For the concern for relationship dimension, post hoc analysis revealed that the mean scores of integrative talk and relational talk conditions were significantly higher than mean scores for directive talk ($p < .001$) and dismissive talk ($p < .001$), but integrative and relational talk did not differ from one another ($p = .165$). The dismissive talk condition was also significantly higher in concern for the relationship than the directive talk condition ($p < .001$). Overall, results related to concern for the relationship were consistent with the theoretical predictions.

For the communicative disruptiveness dimension, post hoc analysis revealed that the mean score of directive talk was significantly higher than the mean score of dismissive talk ($p < .001$), relational talk ($p < .001$), and integrative talk ($p < .001$). The dismissive talk condition was also significantly different (i.e., higher) in communicative disruptiveness from the integrative talk ($p < .001$) and relational talk ($p < .001$) conditions. The integrative talk and relational talk ($p = .997$) conditions did not differ from one another in communicative disruptiveness. Hence, these results were consistent with the theoretical framework related to communicative disruptiveness.

Finally, a series of paired samples t-tests were conducted to compare the mean scores of concern for task completion, concern for relationship, and communicative disruptiveness (pair 1:

concern for task completion compared to concern for relationship; pair 2: concern for task completion compared to communicative disruptiveness; pair 3: concern for relationship compared to communicative disruptiveness) within each condition. Results are summarized in Table 4. Results indicated a significant difference between the mean scores for concern for task completion and concern for the relationship in the integrative talk ($t(219) = 4.08$, $p < .001$), relational talk ($t(220) = 10.28$, $p < .001$), dismissive talk ($t(223) = -3.53$, $p = .001$), and directive talk ($t(230) = -19.16$, $p < .001$) conditions. Results also indicated a significant difference between the mean scores for concern for task completion and communicative disruptiveness in the integrative talk ($t(219) = 17.41$, $p < .001$), relational talk ($t(220) = 11.32$, $p < .001$), dismissive talk ($t(223) = -10.80$, $p < .001$), and directive talk ($t(230) = -12.15$, $p < .001$) conditions. Finally, results demonstrated a significant difference between the mean scores for concern for relationship and communicative disruptiveness in the integrative talk ($t(219) = 18.80$, $p < .001$), relational talk ($t(220) = 18.40$, $p < .001$), dismissive talk ($t(223) = -11.77$, $p < .001$), and directive talk ($t(230) = -30.37$, $p < .001$) conditions. These findings support the manipulation and demonstrate theoretical consistency.

Table 4:

Main Study Manipulation Check: Comparison of Means and Standard Deviations for Concern for Task Completion, Concern for Relationship and Communicative Disruptiveness Within and Across Interability Communication Style Conditions

	Concern for Task Completion		Concern for Relationship		Communicative Disruptiveness	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Integrative Talk	5.45^{a}	1.44	5.90^{c}	1.25	2.64^{d}	1.71
Relational Talk	4.21^{b}	1.64	5.62^{c}	1.23	2.61^{d}	1.68
Dismissive Talk	3.03^{c}	1.79	2.66^{b}	1.80	5.03^{a}	1.69
Directive Talk	4.47^{b}	1.92	1.69^{a}	1.34	6.29^{c}	1.20

Note. Means with different superscripts in each row and column vary significantly from one another at $p < .008$.

Chapter 4: Results

To test the hypotheses, a series of univariate and multivariate analysis of covariance and mediation analyses were conducted. To begin, Hypothesis 1 predicted main effects of the interability communication styles on the major dependent variables: a) communication competence, b) communication satisfaction, c) inferred motive, d) communication anxiety, and e) internalized stigma. To test the main effects predicted in Hypothesis 1 and explore Research Question 1, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) were conducted with disability visibility (1 = visible, 2 = invisible), age, sex (1 = female, 2 = male), race (1 = white, 2 = nonwhite), years of education, and years of employment experience as covariates. Results are summarized in Table 5.

Communication Competence

H1a predicted that participants in the integrative talk condition would judge communication from the coworker without a disability as the most competent, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition. To test H1a, an ANCOVA was conducted with communication competence as the dependent variable. Controlling for the effects of the covariates, results of the ANCOVA indicated a significant univariate effect of the interability communication styles on participants' perceptions of Alex's communication competence in the scenario, $F(3, 886) = 320.39$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .52$. Post hoc analysis, controlling for the same covariates listed previously, were conducted to explore the differences in perceptions of communication competence across the four interability talk conditions. Post hoc analysis demonstrated that participants in the integrative talk condition rated Alex's communication as the most competent, followed in order by participants in the

relational talk condition, dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition, which was rated as the least competent. These findings support H1a (see Table 5).

Communication Satisfaction with the Individual without a Disability

H1b predicted that participants in the integrative talk condition would judge communication from the coworker without a disability as the most satisfying, followed by those in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk condition, and the directive talk condition. To test H1b, an ANCOVA was conducted with communication satisfaction as the dependent variable. Using the same procedures and covariates, results of the ANCOVA indicated a significant univariate effect of the interability communication style on participants' perceptions of satisfaction if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario, $F(3, 886) = 283.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .49$. Post hoc analysis, controlling for disability visibility, participant age, sex, race, education, and employment experience, were conducted to explore the differences in likelihood of satisfaction if participants were communicating with the individual without a disability in the scenario across the four interability talk conditions. Post hoc analysis demonstrated that participants in the integrative talk condition would be most satisfied with Alex's communication, followed in order by participants in the relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk conditions. These findings fully support H1b (see Table 5).

Inferred Motive

H1c predicted that participants in the integrative talk condition would judge the person without a disability's communication as the most positively motivated, followed in order, by participants in the relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk conditions. For Hypothesis 1c, an ANCOVA was conducted with inferred motive as the dependent variable. Controlling for the effects of the covariates, results of the ANCOVA indicated a significant univariate effect of

the interability communication style on inferred motive, $F(3, 886) = 167.79$, $p < .001$; $\eta_p^2 = .36$. Post hoc analysis, controlling for the same covariates listed above, were conducted to explore the differences in perceptions of the individual without a disability's motive. For all pairwise comparisons, Bonferroni adjustments were made to alphas to control for Type 1 error (i.e., alpha = .008 since there were six pairwise comparisons; Cohen, 2013). Post hoc analysis indicated that participants in the integrative talk condition considered Alex's communication to be the most genuine, sincere, and trustworthy, followed in order by participants in the relational talk condition, the dismissive talk and directive talk conditions. Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was supported (see Table 5).

Communication Anxiety toward the Individual without a Disability

H1d predicted that participants in the integrative talk condition would report the lowest perceptions of communication anxiety compared to participants in the relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk conditions. To test H1b, an ANCOVA was conducted with communication anxiety as the dependent variable. Controlling for the effects of the covariates, results of the ANCOVA indicated a significant univariate effect of the interability communication styles on participants' likelihood of experiencing anxiety if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario, $F(3, 886) = 228.96$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .44$. Post hoc analysis, controlling for the same covariates listed previously, were conducted to explore the differences in perceptions of communication anxiety across the four interability talk conditions. For all pairwise comparisons, Bonferroni adjustments were made to alphas to control for Type 1 error (alpha = .008). Post hoc analysis indicated that participants in the directive talk condition reported the highest level of communication anxiety toward the

person without a disability in the scenario, followed in order, by participants in the dismissive talk, relational talk, and integrative talk condition. Hence, H1d was fully supported. See Table 5.

Internalized Stigma

H1e predicted that participants in the integrative talk condition would report the lowest perceptions of internalized stigma compared to participants in the relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk conditions. To test H1e, an ANCOVA was conducted with internalized stigma as the dependent variable. Controlling for the effects of the covariates, results of the ANCOVA indicated a significant univariate effect of the interability communication style on participants' perceptions of internalized stigma, $F(3, 886) = 11.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Post hoc analysis, controlling for the same covariates listed previously, were conducted to explore the differences in perceptions of communication competence across the four interability talk conditions. For all pairwise comparisons, Bonferroni adjustments were made to alphas to control for Type 1 error (i.e., alpha was set to .008 since there are six pairwise comparisons). Post hoc analysis indicated that participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly lower perceptions of internalized stigma than participants in the directive talk, dismissive talk, and relational talk conditions. However, participants in the directive talk and relational talk conditions did not differ in their perceptions of internalized stigma nor did participants in the directive and dismissive conditions. Hence, H1e was partially supported (see Table 5).

Adaptive Response Strategies

Research question 1 explored how (or to what extent) participants' adaptive response strategies would vary across the interability communication styles. In order to answer RQ1, a MANCOVA was conducted with a) avoiding response strategy, b) obliging response strategy, c) problem-solving response strategy, and d) competing response strategy as the dependent

variables. Controlling for the effects of the covariates, results of the MANCOVA indicated a significant overall effect of interability communication style on participants' adaptive response strategies, Wilk's $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = .76$, $F(12, 2336.49) = 21.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Results of the MANCOVA are presented in Table 5.

For the significant interability communication style multivariate effect, univariate tests indicated that the interability communication styles had a significant effect on the likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy, $F(3, 886) = 29.82$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$; likelihood of using an obliging response strategy, $F(3, 886) = 22.98$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$; likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy, $F(3, 886) = 32.77$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .10$; and the likelihood of using a competing response strategy, $F(3, 886) = 41.69$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$. Post hoc comparisons, controlling for the same covariates listed previously, were conducted to explore the differences in each of the four adaptive response strategies (i.e., avoiding, obliging, problem-solving, and competing) across the four interability communication style conditions. For all pairwise comparisons, Bonferonni adjustments were made to alphas to control for Type 1 error (i.e., alpha was set to .008 since there are six pairwise comparisons) (Cohen, 2013).

Avoiding Response Strategy. Post hoc analysis demonstrated that participants in the dismissive talk condition were more likely to use an avoiding response strategy than participants in the integrative talk and relational talk conditions, but did not differ from participants in the directive talk condition. Participants in the integrative talk and relational talk conditions did not differ significantly in their likelihood of using the avoiding response strategy (Table 5).

Obliging Response Strategy. Post hoc analysis indicated that participants in the relational talk condition reported a higher likelihood of using an obliging response strategy than participants in the directive talk and dismissive talk conditions but did not differ from

participants in the integrative talk condition. Participants in the directive talk and dismissive talk conditions did not differ significantly in their likelihood of using an obliging response strategy (Table 5).

Problem-Solving Response Strategy. Post hoc analysis indicated that participants in the integrative talk condition were more likely to use a problem-solving response strategy than participants in the directive talk and dismissive talk conditions, but did not differ from participants in the relational talk condition. Participants in the directive talk and dismissive talk conditions did not differ significantly in their likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy (Table 5).

Competing Response Strategy. Post hoc analysis demonstrated that participants in the directive talk condition were more likely to use a competing response strategy than participants in the integrative talk and relational talk conditions but did not differ from participants in the dismissive talk condition. Participants in the integrative talk and relational talk conditions also did not differ significantly in their likelihood of using competing response strategy (see Table 5).

Table 5:

Main Study Results: Means and Standard Error Across Interability Communication Style Conditions for the Major Variables

	Conditions							
	Integrative Talk		Relational Talk		Dismissive Talk		Directive Talk	
	M	*SE*	*M*	*SE*	*M*	*SE*	*M*	*SE*
Communication Competence	5.70[a]	.09	4.72[b]	.09	2.97[c]	.09	2.17[d]	.09
Communication Satisfaction	5.50[a]	.10	4.62[b]	.10	2.68[c]	.09	2.16[d]	.09
Inferred Motive	5.84[a]	.10	5.29[b]	.10	3.62[c]	.10	3.14[d]	.10
Communication Anxiety	2.72[a]	.09	3.51[b]	.09	5.00[c]	.09	5.57[d]	.09
Internalized Stigma	2.94[a]	.09	3.39[b]	.09	3.60[b]	.09	3.60[b]	.09
Avoiding Response	2.19[a]	.10	2.56[a]	.10	3.12[b]	.10	3.37[b]	.10
Obliging Response	4.32[a]	.09	4.13[a]	.09	3.68[b]	.09	3.36[b]	.09
Problem-Solving Response	5.78[a]	.07	5.55[a]	.07	5.15[b]	.07	4.91[b]	.07
Competing Response	3.09[a]	.08	3.30[a]	.08	3.95[b]	.08	4.08[b]	.07

Note. Means are adjusted for the covariance of disability visibility, age, sex, race, years of education, and years of employment experience. Adjusted means with different superscripts in rows differ significantly at $p < .001$ (Alpha was adjusted using Bonferroni method).

Exploring the Relationship between Inferred Motive and Internalized Stigma

Research Question 3 asked what relationship inferred motive and internalized stigma have across the four experimental conditions. To answer these research questions, a Pearson's correlation was computed to assess the relationships between inferred motive and internalized stigma. Disability visibility, age, sex, race, years of education, and years of employment experience were included as control variables.

Integrative Talk. Among participants in the integrative talk condition, inferring positive motive and internalized stigma were negatively correlated, $r(218) = -.33$, $p < .001$.

Relational Talk. Among participants in the relational talk condition, inferring positive motive and internalized stigma were negatively correlated, $r(219) = -.30$, $p < .001$.

Dismissive Talk. Among participants in the dismissive talk condition, there was a nonsignificant correlation between inferring positive motive and internalized stigma, $r(222) = .01$, $p = .911$.

Directive Talk. Among participants in the directive talk condition, inferring positive motive and internalized stigma were positively correlated, $r(229) = .15$, $p = .022$.

Direct and Indirect Effects of Inferred Motive and Communication Anxiety

Mediation analysis investigates how a predictor variable (*X*) exerts its effect on the outcome variable (*Y*) through an intervening variable (*M*) that either partially or fully explains the effect of *X* on *Y*. In experimental studies, research has begun using multicategorical (3+ mutually exclusive categories) predictors, rather than continuous or dichotomous antecedent variables. In the current study, Hypothesis 2 and Research Question 2 predicted the indirect

effects of the experimental conditions (*X*) on several outcome variables (*Y*; i.e., communication competence, communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability, internalized stigma, and adaptive response strategies) through inferred motive (*M*1) and communication anxiety (*M*2) as parallel mediators.

Dummy Coding Procedures

Since the independent variables in the current study are multicategorical predictors, the interability communication style conditions were dummy coded as either the reference group (i.e., 0) or the comparison group (i.e., 1) in order to function as the antecedent variable in the analysis of Hypothesis 2 and Research Question 2. For instance, the first group was coded with directive talk as the reference group (i.e., 0), and the remaining conditions (i.e., dismissive talk, relational talk, and integrative talk) were coded as comparison groups (i.e., 1). With directive talk operating as the reference group, there were three pairwise comparisons: 1) directive talk – dismissive talk, 2) directive talk – relational talk, and 3) directive talk – integrative talk.

The second group was coded with dismissive talk as the reference group (i.e., 0), and the rest of the conditions (i.e., directive, relational, and integrative talk) were coded as comparison groups (i.e., 1). This round of dummy coding provided two new pairwise comparisons: 1) dismissive talk – relational talk, and 2) dismissive talk – integrative talk.

Finally, a third group was dummy coded with relational talk designated as the reference group (i.e., 0) and the remaining experimental conditions (i.e., directive talk, dismissive talk, integrative talk) coded as comparison groups (i.e., 1). This allowed for a final new pairwise comparison between relational talk and integrative talk.

Communication Competence

Hypothesis 2 predicted the indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. To test this hypothesis, analysis of mediation (Model 4) with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted. In each analysis, the dependent variable (i.e., communication competence) was entered as *Y*, and inferred motive and communication anxiety were entered simultaneously as mediators, *M*. For the predictor variable, the multicategorical predictor variable was entered as *X* to explore the pairwise comparisons between the experimental conditions. Participants' disability visibility, age, sex, race, education, and employment experience were entered as control variables. This same process was repeated three times - until all six pairwise comparisons were completed. Statistical decisions regarding the presence of the mediating effect were made based on the confidence interval – when zero was not present in the 95% confidence interval it was concluded that the indirect effect was significantly significant (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Findings related to communication competence are presented in Figure 1.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through inferred motive and communication anxiety. Supporting H2a, participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than those in the relational talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence (see Table 6). Additionally, participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than in the integrative talk scenario, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence (see

Table 7). Therefore, H2f was supported. In terms of direct effects, participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of Alex's communication competence than participants in the relational talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through inferred motive and communication anxiety. Supporting H2a, specifically, participants in the integrative talk condition attributed more positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication than in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence (see Table 6). Additionally, supporting H2e, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence (Table 7). Regarding direct effects, participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of Alex's communication competence than participants in the dismissive talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, participants in the integrative talk condition inferred a more positive motive of Alex's communication than participants in the directive talk condition, which was positively associated with participants' perceptions of Alex's communication competence (see Table 6). Therefore, H2a was supported. Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than

participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of Alex's communication competence (see Table 7). Hence, H2d was supported.

There were also significant direct effects of the experimental conditions on participants' perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence (see Tables 6 and 7). Participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of Alex's communication competence than participants in the directive talk condition.

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Supporting H2b, participants in the relational talk condition attributed more positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication than in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of Alex's communication competence. See Table 6. Additionally, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher likelihood of experiencing communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability than participants in the relational talk condition, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence. See Table 7. Thus, Hypothesis 2e was fully supported. Results regarding direct effects revealed that participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of Alex's communication competence than participants in the dismissive talk condition.

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Supporting H2b, participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive to Alex's

communication than participants in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of Alex's communication competence (see Table 6). Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly more communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than in the relational talk scenario, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence (See Table 7). Therefore, H2d was supported. Direct effects results revealed participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of Alex's communication competence than participants in the directive talk condition.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication competence through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Supporting H2c, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of Alex's communication competence. See Table 6. Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher likelihood of experiencing communication anxiety when interacting with the individual without a disability than in the dismissive talk scenario, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of the individual without a disability's communication competence. Therefore, H2d was fully supported when communication competence was the dependent variable. See Tables 6 and 7, and Figure 1 for a full presentation of results. In terms of direct effects, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of Alex's communication competence than participants in the directive talk condition.

Table 6:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Communication Competence through Inferred Motive

Comparison	*X* to *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			Indirect Effect on Communication Competence through *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	.55***[95%CI = .27, .83]	.14	< .001	.17***[95%CI = .10, 24]	.04	3.78	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	2.22*** [95%CI = 1.95, 2.47]	.14	< .001	.83***[95%CI = .66, 1.02]	.09	10.70	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	2.70*** [95%CI = 2.42, 2.97]	.14	< .001	.83***[95%CI = .68, 1.01]	.08	11.59	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	1.68*** [95%CI = 1.42, 1.93]	.14	< .001	.63***[95%CI = .48, .80]	.08	9.24	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	2.15*** [95%CI = 1.87, 2.43]	.14	< .001	.67***[95%CI = .52, .83]	.08	10.54	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	.47***[95%CI = .20, .75]	.14	= .001	.15***[95%CI = .05, .25]	.05	3.26	= .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .51$, $F(3, 886) = 320.39$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = .98[95%CI = .72, 1.23], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .35[95%CI = .22, .50], *SE* = .07, $p < .001$
2. Total effect = 2.72[95%CI = 2.46, 2.97], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .70[95%CI = .50, .83], *SE* = .09, $p < .001$
3. Total effect = 3.52[95%CI = 3.27, 3.77], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = 1.01[95%CI = .83, 1.20], *SE* = .09, $p < .001$
4. Total effect = 1.75[95%CI = 1.49, 1.99], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .35[95%CI = .16, .46], *SE* = .08, $p < .001$
5. Total effect = 2.54[95%CI = 2.30, 2.79], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .67[95%CI = .50, .83], *SE* = .08, $p < .001$
6. Total effect = .80[95%CI = .55, 1.05], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .32[95%CI = .17, .46], *SE* = .07, $p < .001$

Table 7:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Communication Competence through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Communication Competence through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	.46***[95%CI = .30, .63]	.08	6.34	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.53, -2.01]	.12	< .001	1.34***[95%CI = 1.14, 1.55]	.11	14.83	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	1.68***[95%CI = 1.45, 1.91]	.12	16.85	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI =-1.74, -1.23]	.12	< .001	.88***[95%CI = .70, 1.07]	.09	11.01	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	1.21***[95%CI = 1.01, 1.42]	.10	13.94	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57***[95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	.34***[95%CI = .21, .47]	.07	4.65	< .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .51$, $F(3, 886) = 320.39$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

Communication Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2 predicted the indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through inferred motive and anxiety as parallel mediators. To test this hypothesis, analysis of mediation (Model 4) with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted following the same procedures as when communication competence was the dependent variable. Findings related to communication satisfaction are presented in Figure 1.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, supporting H2a, participants in the integrative talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the relational talk condition, which was positively associated with participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability (see Table 8). Additionally, participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability (Table 9). Hence, H2f was supported. Direct effects revealed that participants in the integrative talk condition reported a higher likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the relational talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, supporting H2a, participants in the integrative talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to

more positive motive than participants in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability (see Table 8). Additionally, supporting H2e, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher likelihood of experiencing communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability (see Table 9). Direct effect results revealed participants in the integrative talk condition reported a higher likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the dismissive talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, supporting H2a, participants in the integrative talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which was positively associated with participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability (see Table 8). Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability (see Table 9). Hence, H2d was supported.

There were also significant direct effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability

in the scenario (see Tables 8 and 9). Participants in the integrative talk condition reported a higher likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the directive talk condition.

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, supporting H2b, participants in the relational talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability (see Table 8). Additionally, supporting H2e, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario compared to participants in the relational talk condition, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability (see Table 9).

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, supporting H2b, participants in the relational talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which was positively associated with participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability (Table 8). In addition, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the relational talk condition, which was

associated with a decrease in perceptions of communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability. Thus, H2d was supported (see Table 9). Direct effect results revealed participants in the relational talk condition reported a higher likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the dismissive talk condition.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on communication satisfaction through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, supporting H2c, participants in the dismissive talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which was positively associated with participants' likelihood of being satisfied if they were to communicate with the individual without a disability in the scenario (see Table 8). Compared to participants in the dismissive talk condition and supporting H2d, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario, which was associated with a decrease in perceptions of communication satisfaction with the individual without a disability. See Table 9.

Table 8:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Communication Satisfaction through Inferred Motive

Comparison	*X* to *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			Indirect Effect on Communication Satisfaction through *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	.55***[95%CI = .27, .83]	.14	< .001	.17***[95%CI = .10, .26]	.04	3.80	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	2.22*** [95%CI = 1.95, 2.47]	.14	< .001	.71***[95%CI = .57, .85]	.07	11.02	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	2.70*** [95%CI = 2.42, 2.97]	.14	< .001	.86***[95%CI = .70, 1.04]	.09	12.00	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	1.68*** [95%CI = 1.42, 1.93]	.14	< .001	.54***[95%CI = .41, .67]	.06	9.44	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	2.15*** [95%CI = 1.87, 2.43]	.14	< .001	.69***[95%CI = .54, .85]	.08	10.85	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	.47***[95%CI = .20, .75]	.14	= .001	.15***[95%CI = .05, .26]	.05	3.27	< .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .51$, $F(9, 886) = 101.50$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = .88[95%CI = .62, 1.14], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .19 [95%CI = .05, .34], *SE* = .07, $p = .008$
2. Total effect = 2.83[95%CI = 3.09, 1.42] *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .64[95%CI = .47, .80], *SE* = .09, $p < .001$
3. Total effect = 3.35[95%CI = 3.61, 1.24], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.63[95%CI = .45, .81], *SE* = .09, $p < .001$
4. Total effect = 1.95[95%CI = 2.21, .98], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .44[95%CI = .29, .60], *SE* = .08, $p < .001$
5. Total effect = 2.47[95%CI = 2.21, 2.73], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.44[95%CI = .28, .60], *SE* = .08, $p < .001$
6. Total effect = .52[95%CI = .26, .78], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.00[95%CI = -.14, .14], *SE* = .07, $p = .959$

Table 9:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Communication Satisfaction through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Communication Satisfaction through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	.51***[95%CI = .34, .70]	.09	-6.39	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.53, -2.01]	.12	< .001	1.48***[95%CI = 1.28, 1.69]	.11	-15.50	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	1.86***[95%CI = 1.63, 2.09]	.12	-17.84	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI =-1.74, -1.23]	.12	< .001	.97***[95%CI = .78, 1.16]	.10	-11.28	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	1.34***[95%CI = 1.15, 1.55]	.10	14.49	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57***[95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	.37***[95%CI = .23, .52]	.07	4.68	< .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .51$, $F(9, 886) = 101.50$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

Internalized Stigma

Hypothesis 2 predicted the indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. To test this hypothesis, analysis of mediation (Model 4)

with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted using the same procedures as when communication competence and satisfaction were entered as outcome variables, except communication anxiety was the only mediator. Results related to internalized stigma are presented in Figure 2.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Specifically, supporting H2f, participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of internalized stigma (see Table 10 and Figure 2).

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Specifically, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was positively associated with perceptions of internalized stigma (see Table 10 and Figure 2).

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication. Specifically, supporting H2d, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of internalized stigma (see Table 10 and Figure 2). Direct effect results revealed

that participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher levels of internalized stigma than participants in the integrative talk condition.

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Specifically, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario compared to participants in the relational talk condition, which was associated with an increase in perceptions of internalized stigma (see Table 10 and Figure 2). Therefore, H2e was supported. Direct effect results revealed that participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher levels of internalized stigma than participants in the relational talk condition.

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the relational talk condition, which was positively associated with perceptions of internalized stigma. Therefore, H2d was supported (see Table 10). There were also significant direct effects of the experimental conditions on participants' perceptions of internalized stigma (see Table 10 and Figure 2). Direct effect results revealed that participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher levels of internalized stigma than participants in the relational talk condition.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Compared to participants in the dismissive talk condition and supporting H2d, participants in the

directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario, which was associated with an increase in internalized stigma (see Table 10 and Figure 2).

Table 10:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Internalized Stigma through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Internalized Stigma through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	-.30***[95%CI = -.42, -.20]	.06	-5.76	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.53, -2.01]	.12	< .001	-.88***[95%CI = 1.28, 1.69]	.09	-9.99	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	-1.10***[95%CI = -1.31, -.89]	.11	-10.54	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI =-1.74, -1.23]	.12	< .001	-.57***[95%CI = -.73, -.43]	.08	-8.53	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	-.79***[95%CI = -.97, -.63]	.09	-9.70	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57***[95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	-.22***[95%CI = -.32, -.14]	.05	-4.39	< .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .07$, $F(9, 886) = 7.49$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = -.46[95%CI = -.71, -.20] *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.16[95%CI = -.40, .09], *SE* = .12, $p = .208$
2. Total effect = -.67[95%CI = -.92, -.41], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .21[95%CI = -.07, .49], *SE* = .14, $p = .139$
3. Total effect = -.66[95%CI = -.91, -.41], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .44[95%CI = .14, .73], *SE* = .15, $p = .004$
4. Total effect = -.21[95%CI = -.46, .04], *SE* = .13, $p = .106$; Direct effect = .36[95%CI = .11, .62], *SE* = .13, $p = .005$
5. Total effect = -.20[95%CI = -.45, .05], *SE* = .13, $p = .115$; Direct effect = .60[95%CI = .32, .86], *SE* = .14, $p < .001$
6. Total effect = .01[95%CI = -.24, .26], *SE* = .13, $p = .957$; Direct effect = .23[95%CI = -.01, .46], *SE* = .12, $p = .058$

Avoiding Response Strategy

Research Question 2 explored whether there would be significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. To test this RQ, analysis of mediation (Model 4) with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted using the same procedures used for Hypothesis 2. Findings related to the avoiding response strategy are presented in Figure 1.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than those in the relational talk condition, which was associated with an increase in the likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 11 for full presentation of results. Additionally, participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than in the integrative talk scenario, which was positively associated with the likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 12.

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety. Specifically, participants in the integrative talk condition attributed more positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication than in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 11. Additionally, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was positively associated with likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 12. Direct effects revealed participants in the dismissive talk condition were more likely to utilize an avoiding response strategy than participants in the integrative talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of using an avoiding response

strategy through both inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Specifically, participants in the integrative talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which was positively associated with participants' likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy (see Table 11). Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 12. There were also significant direct effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of responding with an avoiding response strategy (see Tables 11 and 12). Direct effect results revealed participants in the directive talk condition were more likely to utilize an avoiding response strategy than participants in the integrative talk condition.

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Participants in the relational talk condition attributed more positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication than in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy (see Table 11). Additionally, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability than participants in the relational talk condition, which was positively associated with the likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 12. Direct effects revealed participants in the dismissive

talk condition were more likely to utilize an avoiding response strategy than participants in the relational talk condition.

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive to Alex's communication than participants in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 11 for full presentation of results. Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly more communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than in the relational talk scenario, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy. See Table 12. Direct effects revealed that participants in the directive talk condition were more likely to utilize an avoiding response strategy than participants in the relational talk condition.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. Participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy (see Table 11). Additionally, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly more communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than in the dismissive talk scenario, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of using an avoiding response strategy (see Table 12).

Table 11:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Avoiding Response Strategy through Inferred Motive

Comparison	*X* to *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			Indirect Effect on Avoiding Response through *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	.55*** [95%CI = .27, 1.87]	.14	< .001	.07***[95%CI = .02, .14]	.03	2.52	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	2.22*** [95%CI = 1.94, 2.50]	.14	< .001	.30***[95%CI = .09, .51]	.11	3.31	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	2.70*** [95%CI = 2.97, 2.42]	.14	< .001	.36***[95%CI = .11, .62]	.13	3.34	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	1.68*** [95%CI = 1.40, 1.96]	.14	< .001	.23***[95%CI = .07, .39]	.08	3.25	= .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	2.15*** [95%CI = 2.43, 1.87]	.14	= .001	.29***[95%CI = .09, .49]	.10	3.30	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	.47***[95%CI = .75, .20]	.14	< .001	.06***[95%CI = .01, .14]	.03	2.33	< .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .16$, $F(9, 886) = 19.21$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = -.37[95%CI = -.64, -.09], *SE* = .14, $p = .009$; Direct effect = -.21[95%CI = -.48, .07], *SE* = .14, $p = .136$
2. Total effect = -.93[95%CI = -1.20, -.65], *SE* = .14, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.55[95%CI = -.87, -.23], *SE* = .16, $p = .001$
3. Total effect = -1.18[95%CI = -1.45, -.91], *SE* = .14, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.70[95%CI = -1.04, -.36], *SE* = .17, $p < .001$
4. Total effect = -.56[95%CI = -.83, -.29], *SE* = .14, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.34[95%CI = -.64, -.05], *SE* = .15, $p = .022$
5. Total effect = -.81[95%CI = -1.08, -.54], *SE* = .14, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.49[95%CI = -.80, -.18], *SE* = .16, $p = .002$
6. Total effect = -.26[95%CI = -.52, .01], *SE* = .14, $p = .064$; Direct effect = -.15[95%CI = -.42, .12], *SE* = .14, $p = .276$

Table 12:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Avoiding Response Strategy through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Avoiding Response through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	-.23***[95%CI = -.34, -.14]	.05	4.60	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.51, -2.03]	.12	< .001	-.68***[95%CI = -.91, -.45]	.12	6.13	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	-.85***[95%CI = -1.13, -.58]	.14	6.26	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI = -1.23, -1.24]	.12	< .001	-.44***[95%CI = -.62, -.29]	.09	5.74	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	-.61***[95%CI = -.84, -.41]	.11	6.06	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57***[95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	-.17***[95%CI = -.26, -.09]	.04	3.80	< .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .16$, $F(9, 886) = 19.21$***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

Obliging Response Strategy

Research Question 2 explored whether there would be significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. To test this RQ, analysis of mediation (Model 4) with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted using the same procedures used previously. Across all comparisons of the experimental conditions, communication anxiety was a nonsignificant mediator in explaining likelihood of using the obliging response strategy (see Table 14). Findings related to the obliging response strategy are presented in Figure 1.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive. Participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than those in the relational talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an obliging response strategy (see Table 13).

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive. Specifically, participants in the integrative talk condition attributed more positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication than in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of using an obliging response strategy (see Table 13).

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive only. Participants in the integrative talk condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the directive

talk condition, which positively predicted participants' likelihood of using an obliging response strategy (see Table 13).

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive (see Tables 13). Participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than those in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an obliging response strategy (see Table 13).

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive. Participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive to Alex's communication than participants in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an obliging response strategy. See Table 13.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using an obliging response strategy through inferred motive (see Tables 13). Participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than those in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using an obliging response strategy (see Table 13).

Table 13:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Obliging Response Strategy through Inferred Motive

Comparison	*X* to *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			Indirect Effect on Obliging Response through *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	.55*** [95%CI = .27, 1.87]	.14	< .001	.14***[95%CI = .07, .22]	.04	3.41	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	2.22*** [95%CI = 1.94, 2.50]	.14	< .001	.56***[95%CI = .38, .74]	.09	6.48	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	2.70*** [95%CI = 2.97, 2.42]	.14	< .001	.68***[95%CI = .47, .92]	.11	6.66	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	1.68*** [95%CI = 1.40, 1.96]	.14	< .001	.43***[95%CI = .28, .57]	.07	6.10	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	2.15*** [95%CI = 2.43, 1.87]	.14	= .001	.55***[95%CI = .37, .74]	.09	6.44	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	.47***[95%CI = .75, .20]	.14	< .001	.12***[95%CI = .04, .22]	.05	3.01	= .003

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .10$, $F(9, 886) = 10.98$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = .18[95%CI = -.07, .44], *SE* = .13, $p = .160$; Direct effect = -.00[95%CI = -.25, .25], *SE* = .13, $p = .989$
2. Total effect = .63[95%CI = .38, .89], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.06[95%CI = -.35, .23], *SE* = .15, $p = .679$
3. Total effect = .96[95%CI = 1.21, .67], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .11[95%CI = -.20, .42], *SE* = .16, $p = .491$
4. Total effect = .45[95%CI = .20, .71], *SE* = .13, $p = .001$; Direct effect = -.06[95%CI = .20, .71], *SE* = .13, $p = .662$
5. Total effect = .78[95%CI = .52, 1.03], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .11[95%CI = -.17, .39], *SE* = .14, $p = .439$
6. Total effect = .32[95%CI = .07, .57], *SE* = .13, $p = .012$; Direct effect = .17[95%CI = -.07, .41], *SE* = .12, $p = .169$

Table 14:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Obliging Response Strategy through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Obliging Response through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	.05***[95%CI = -.02, .12]	.04	1.35	= .172
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.51, -2.03]	.12	< .001	.56***[95%CI = .38, .74]	.09	1.39	= .165
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	.16***[95%CI = -.08, .41]	.13	1.39	= .164
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI = -1.23, -1.24]	.12	< .001	.43***[95%CI = .28, .57]	.07	1.38	= .167
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	.12***[95%CI = -.06, .30]	.09	1.39	= .165
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57***[95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	.03***[95%CI = -.02, .09]	.04	1.32	= .165

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .10$, $F(9, 886) = 10.98$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

Problem Solving Response Strategy

Research Question 2 explored whether there would be significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy

through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. To test this RQ, analysis of mediation (Model 4) with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted using the same procedures used previously. Across all comparisons of the experimental conditions, communication anxiety was a nonsignificant mediator in explaining participants' likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy (see Table 16). Findings related to the problem-solving response strategy are presented in Figure 1.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using a problem-solving strategy through inferred motive (see Table 15). Participants in the integrative talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive to the individual without a disability's communication than those in the relational talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy (see Table 15).

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy through inferred motive (see Table 15). Specifically, participants in the integrative talk condition attributed more positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication than in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants' likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy. Direct effects revealed that participants in the integrative talk condition were more likely to utilize a problem-solving response strategy than participants in the dismissive talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of using the problem-solving response strategy through inferred motive as a single mediator. Participants in the integrative talk

condition perceived Alex's communication to be attributed to more positive motive than participants in the directive talk condition, which positively predicted participants' likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy (see Table 15). There were also significant direct effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of responding with a problem-solving response strategy (see Tables 15 and 16). Direct effect results revealed that participants in the integrative talk condition were more likely to utilize a problem-solving response strategy than participants in the directive talk condition.

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using the problem-solving response strategy through inferred motive (see Table 15). Participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive than those in the dismissive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy (see Table 15).

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy through inferred motive only. Participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive to Alex's communication than participants in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using the problem-solving response strategy (see Table 15). Direct effects revealed that participants in the relational talk condition were more likely to utilize a problem-solving response strategy than participants in the directive talk condition.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy

through inferred motive (see Table 15). Participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly more positive attribution of motive to the individual without a disability's communication than those in the directive talk condition, which was associated with an increase in likelihood of using a problem-solving response strategy (see Table 15).

Table 15:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Problem-Solving Response Strategy through Inferred Motive

Comparison	*X* to *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			Indirect Effect on Problem-Solving Response through *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	.55*** [95%CI = .27, .83]	.14	< .001	.08*** [95%CI = .04, .14]	.02	3.20	= .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	2.22*** [95%CI = 1.94, 2.50]	.14	< .001	.35*** [95%CI = .21, .49]	.07	5.35	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	2.70*** [95%CI = 2.42, 2.97]	.14	< .001	.42*** [95%CI = .25, .60]	.09	5.45	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	1.68*** [95%CI = 1.40, 1.96]	.14	< .001	.26*** [95%CI = .15, .38]	.06	5.13	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	2.15*** [95%CI = 1.87, 2.43]	.14	< .001	.33*** [95%CI = .19, .49]	.07	5.33	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	.47*** [95%CI = .20, .75]	.14	= .001	.07** [95%CI = .02, .14]	.03	2.86	= .004

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .16$, $F(9, 886) = 18.82$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = .23 [95%CI = .04, .42], *SE* = .10, $p = .018$; Direct effect = .13 [95%CI = -.06, .32], *SE* = .10, $p = .171$
2. Total effect = .62 [95%CI = .43, .81], *SE* = .10, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .24 [95%CI = .02, .46], *SE* = .11, $p = .031$
3. Total effect = .86 [95%CI = .68, 1.05], *SE* = .10, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .40 [95%CI = .17, .64], *SE* = .12, $p = .001$
4. Total effect = .39 [95%CI = .21, .58], *SE* = .10, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .11 [95%CI = -.09, .31 *SE* = .10, $p = .282$
5. Total effect = .64 [95%CI = .45, .82], *SE* = .10, $p < .001$; Direct effect = .27 [95%CI = .06, .48], *SE* = .11, $p = .013$
6. Total effect = .24 [95%CI = .05, .43], *SE* = .10, $p = .012$; Direct effect = .16 [95%CI = -.03, .34], *SE* = .09, $p = .091$

Table 16:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Problem-Solving Response Strategy through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Problem-Solving Response through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	.01 [95%CI = -.05, .07]	.03	.49	= .628
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.51, -2.03]	.12	< .001	.04 [95%CI = -.12, .19]	.08	.49	= .623
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	.04 [95%CI = -.15, .23]	.10	.49	= .623
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI = -1.23, -1.24]	.12	< .001	.02 [95%CI = -.08, .13]	.05	.49	= .624
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	.03 [95%CI = -.11, .17]	.07	.49	= .623
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57*** [95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	.01 [95%CI = -.03, .05]	.02	.48	= .631

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .16$, $F(9, 886) = 18.82$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

Competing Response Strategy

RQ2 explored whether there would be significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on participants likelihood of using a competing response strategy through inferred motive and communication anxiety as parallel mediators. To test this RQ, analysis of mediation (Model 4) with 5,000 bootstrap samples using Hayes (2018) PROCESS was conducted using the same procedures used previously. Across all comparisons of the experimental conditions, inferred motive was a nonsignificant mediator in explaining participants likelihood of using the competing response strategy (see Table 17). Findings related to the competing response strategy are presented in Figure 1.

Integrative Talk – Relational Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on the competing response strategy through communication anxiety. Specifically, participants in the relational talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants likelihood of using a competing response strategy. See Table 18.

Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on the competing response strategy through communication anxiety as a single mediator. Specifically, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants likelihood of using a competing response strategy. See Table 18. Direct effects revealed that participants in the dismissive talk condition were more likely to utilize a competing response strategy than participants in the integrative talk condition.

Integrative Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on the aggressive response strategy through communication anxiety as a single mediator. Specifically, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher likelihood of experiencing communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the integrative talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants likelihood of using a competing response strategy (see Table 18). There were also significant direct effects of the experimental conditions on participants' likelihood of responding with a competing response strategy (see Tables 17 and 18). Direct effects revealed that participants in the directive talk condition were more likely to utilize a competing response strategy than participants in the integrative talk condition.

Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Specifically, participants in the dismissive talk condition reported significantly higher

perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario compared to participants in the relational talk condition, which was associated with an increase in participants likelihood of using a competing response strategy (see Table 18). Direct effect results revealed that participants in the dismissive talk condition were more likely to utilize a competing response strategy than participants in the relational talk condition.

Relational Talk – Directive Talk. Analysis of mediation revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety only. Participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario than participants in the relational talk condition, which positively predicted participants likelihood of using a competing response strategy (see Table 18). Direct effects revealed that participants in the directive talk condition were more likely to utilize a competing response strategy than participants in the relational talk condition.

Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk. Mediation analysis revealed significant indirect effects of the experimental conditions on internalized stigma through communication anxiety. Compared to participants in the dismissive talk condition, participants in the directive talk condition reported significantly higher perceptions of communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability in the scenario, which was associated with an increase in the likelihood of responding with a competing communication strategy (see Table 18).

Table 17:

Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Competing Response Strategy through Inferred Motive

Comparison	*X* to *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			Indirect Effect on Competing Response through *M*1 (Inferred Motive)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	.55*** [95%CI = .27, 1.87]	.14	< .001	-.00[95%CI = -.04, .04]	.02	-.05	= .959
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	2.22*** [95%CI = 1.94, 2.50]	.14	< .001	-.00[95%CI = -.14, .14]	.07	-.05	= .959
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	2.70*** [95%CI = 2.97, 2.42]	.14	< .001	-.00[95%CI = -.18, .17]	.09	-.05	= .959
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	1.68*** [95%CI = 1.40, 1.96]	.14	< .001	-.00[95%CI = -.11, .11]	.05	-.05	= .959
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	2.15*** [95%CI = 2.43, 1.87]	.14	= .001	-.00[95%CI = -.14, .14]	.07	-.05	= .959
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	.47***[95%CI = .75, .20]	.14	< .001	-.00[95%CI = -.03, .03]	.02	-.05	= .960

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .17$, $F(9, 886) = 20.69$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

1. Total effect = -.21[95%CI = -.42, -.00], *SE* = .11, $p = .049$; Direct effect = -.09[95%CI = -.30, .13], *SE* = .11, $p = .425$
2. Total effect = -.86[95%CI = -1.08, -.65], *SE* = .11, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.50[95%CI = -.75, -.25], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$
3. Total effect = -.99[95%CI = -1.20, -.79], *SE* = .11, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.54[95%CI = -.80, -.27], *SE* = .13, $p < .001$
4. Total effect = -.65[95%CI = -.86, -.44], *SE* = .11, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.41[95%CI = -.64, -.19], *SE* = .12, $p < .001$
5. Total effect = -.78[95%CI = -.99, -.57], *SE* = .11, $p < .001$; Direct effect = -.45[95%CI = -.69, -.21], *SE* = .12, $p < .001$
6. Total effect = -.13[95%CI = -.34, .08], *SE* = .11, $p = .221$; Direct effect = -.04[95%CI = -.24, .17], *SE* = .11, $p = .722$

Table 18:

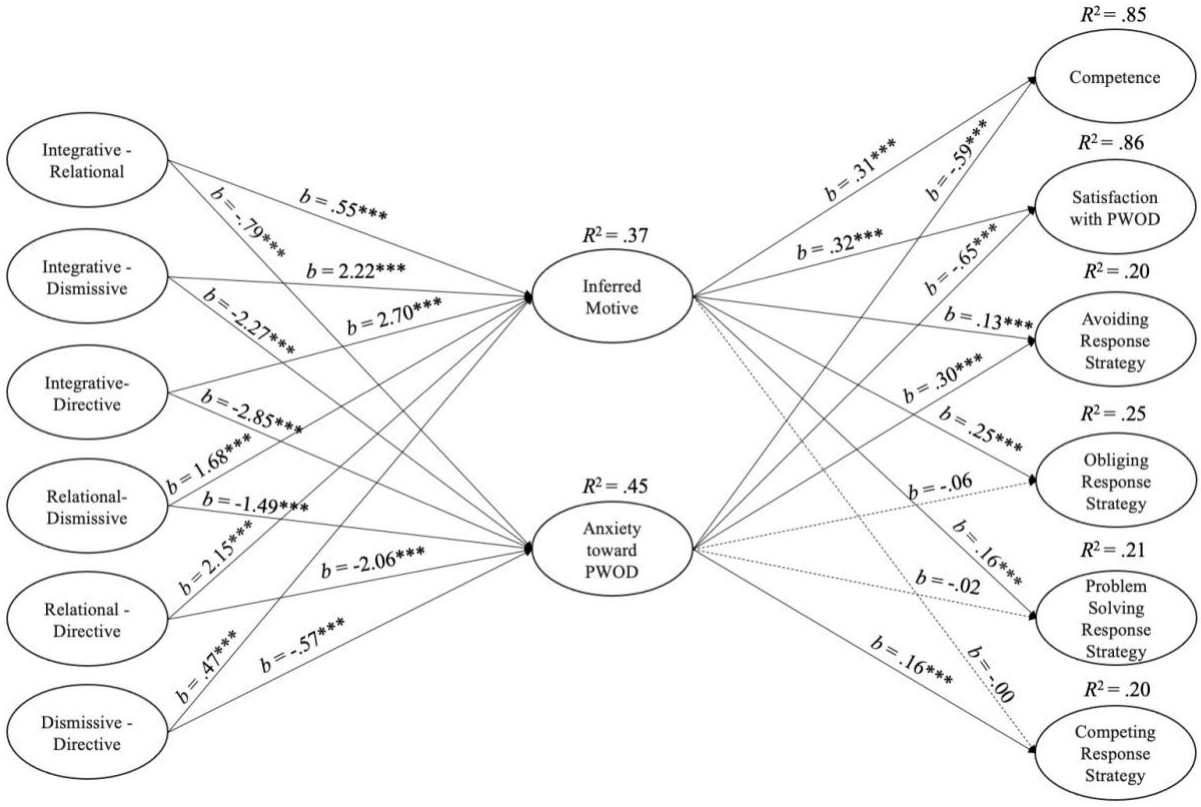
Indirect Effects of the Experimental Conditions on Competing Response Strategy through Communication Anxiety

Comparison	*X* to *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			Indirect Effect on Competing Response through *M*2 (Communication Anxiety)			
	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	Effect	*SE*	*z*	*p*
1. Integrative Talk – Relational Talk	-.79*** [95%CI = -1.03, -.54]	.12	< .001	-.13***[95%CI = -.21, -.06]	.04	-3.68	< .001
2. Integrative Talk – Dismissive Talk	-2.27*** [95%CI = -2.51, -2.03]	.12	< .001	-.36***[95%CI =-.55, -.18]	.09	-4.36	< .001
3. Integrative Talk – Directive Talk	-2.85*** [95%CI = -3.09, -2.61]	.12	< .001	-.45***[95%CI = -.68, -.22]	.12	-4.41	< .001
4. Relational Talk – Dismissive Talk	-1.49*** [95%CI = -1.23, -1.24]	.12	< .001	-.24*** [95%CI = -.37, -.11]	.06	-4.22	< .001
5. Relational Talk – Directive Talk	-2.06*** [95%CI = -2.30, -1.82]	.12	< .001	-.33***[95%CI = -.50, -.16]	.09	-4.34	< .001
6. Dismissive Talk – Directive Talk	-.57***[95%CI = -.81, -.33]	.12	< .001	-.09***[95%CI = -.16, -.04]	.03	-3.23	= .001

Note. Overall model: $R^2 = .17$, $F(9, 886) = 20.69$, ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$. The first condition was coded as the reference group (i.e., 0).

Figure 1:

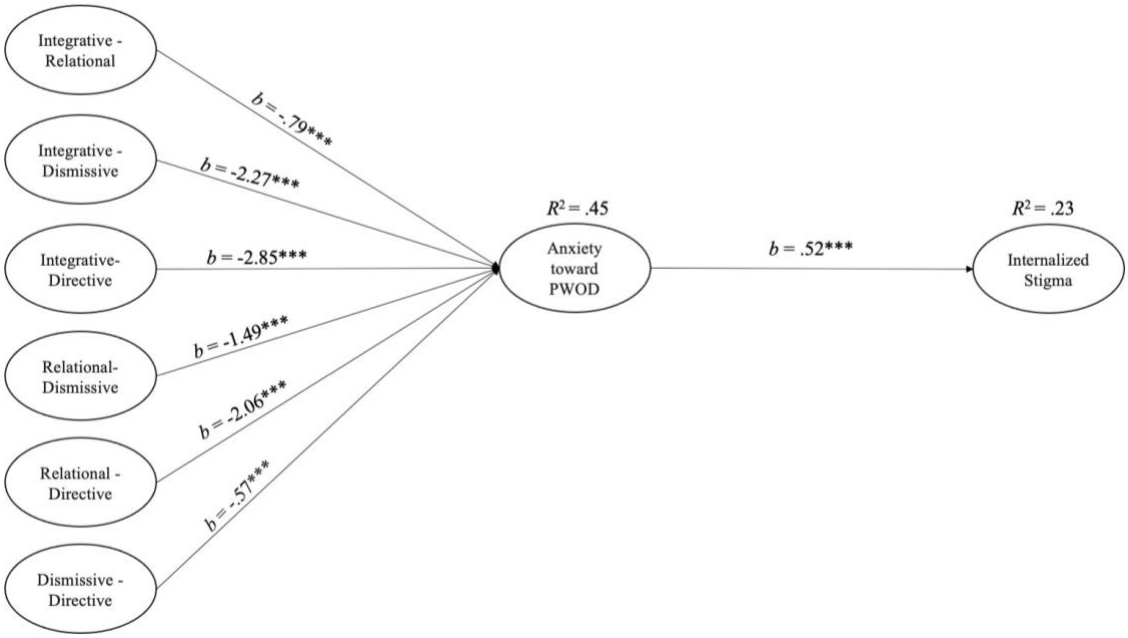
Indirect Effects of Inferred Motive and Communication Anxiety on Major Dependent Variables



Note. ***$p < .001$, **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; The reported betas are unstandardized.

Figure 2:

Indirect Effects of Communication Anxiety on Internalized Stigma



Note. ***$p < .001$, **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; The reported betas are unstandardized.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

The overarching goal of this study was to investigate the dynamic interpersonal and intergroup processes that influence perceptions of interability communication, internalization of stigma, and communication responses in the workplace setting. Guided by communication accommodation theory (Giles, 1973; 2016) and the Communication Predicament of Disability Model (Ryan et al., 2005), this experimental study examined interability communication in the workplace from the perspective of people with disabilities. Specifically, this study manipulated four communication styles (i.e., integrative, relational, dismissive, and directive talk) and tested their effects on participants with disabilities' perceptions of communication competence and inferred motive of, satisfaction with, and communication anxiety toward the individual without a disability. In addition, this study examined the consequences of the communication styles on participants' internalized stigma and likelihood of using different adaptive response strategies.

The majority of speaker-evaluation studies have dichotomously manipulated communication as patronizing versus nonpatronizing talk (Fox & Giles, 1996) or overhelping versus underhelping communication (Ryan et al., 2006) and analyzed how people without disabilities believe people with disabilities would evaluate such communication adjustments. Therefore, this study advances the field of interability communication and social interaction by experimentally manipulating four communication styles directed to a person with a disability from their coworker without a disability in an interpersonal, workplace setting. Additionally, this project fills a void in interability communication research by including the perspective of people with disabilities. This chapter summarizes and explains the major findings of this study, which is followed by a discussion of the theoretical and practical contributions.

The first major finding of this study concerns the evaluations of the four interability communication styles. Extending interability communication research and supporting the hypotheses, participants found the integrative talk condition to be the most communicatively competent, satisfying, positively motivated, and to result in the least communication anxiety and stigma, followed by relational talk, dismissive talk, and directive talk. According to CAT, the positively valanced, problem-solving communication style that attends to the person with a disability, the interpersonal relationship, and the task represented accommodation (i.e., "positive-oriented or conversationally appropriate behavior"; Soliz & Giles, 2014, p. 110). In contrast, directive talk was verbally negative, lacking care and attention to the person with a disability, the interpersonal relationship, and was competitive in attending to completion of the task, which represented nonaccommodation (i.e., "behaviors in which individuals fail to attune their communication to others" or "over-shooting the needs and desires of a conversational partner"; Soliz & Giles, 2014, p. 110) and has a variety of negative outcomes. These results in a nonhierarchical organizational setting from the perspective of people with disabilities add to previous speaker evaluation studies conducted in retail, everyday, and clinical contexts (Fox & Giles, 1996; Ryan et al., 2006).

Second, this study examined the mediating roles of inferred motive and communication anxiety on the relationship between interability communication style and the outcome variables (i.e., competence, satisfaction, and adaptive response strategies). Results indicated that when the coworker without a disability utilized the more accommodative communication styles (i.e., integrative and relational talk), people with disabilities inferred more positive motive to the individual without a disabilities' communication, thus increasing perceptions of communication competence and satisfaction, and increasing the likelihood of responding with problem-solving,

obliging, or avoiding response strategies. On the other hand, when the coworker without a disability utilized the more nonaccommodative communication styles (i.e., directive and dismissive talk styles), people with disabilities reported higher levels of communication anxiety, thus decreasing perceptions of communication competence and satisfaction, and increasing internalized stigma and the likelihood of responding with competing and avoiding strategies. In exploring the relationship between inferred motive and internalized stigma, results indicated that in the accommodative talk conditions, inferred motive was negatively associated with internalized stigma. However, in the directive talk condition, inferred motive was positively associated with internalized stigma. The inclusion of inferred motive and communication anxiety as mediators demonstrates two explanatory processes of how communication (non)accommodation can contribute to or interrupt the negative feedback cycle.

Finally, in general, results demonstrated a pattern in which participants with disabilities were generally positive, particularly regarding participants' overall levels of internalized stigma and likelihood of using adaptive response strategies. The discussion regarding this theme will review how the nature of the study may have influenced these findings.

Theoretical Implications

This study revealed many important findings. First, evaluations of the interability communication styles can be explained through the sociolinguistic features of discourse management, interpersonal control, and emotional expression outlined by CAT (Dragojevic et al., 2016; Watson & Gallois, 1999). The data indicated that participants considered integrative talk, and to a lesser degree relational talk, in largely positive ways constituting these communication styles as *accommodative* communication adjustments. Integrative talk and relational talk both consist of accommodative discourse management and lack

nonaccommodative interpersonal control. In these accommodative communication styles, the coworker without a disability used accommodative discourse management aimed at claiming common ground with a conversation partner, treating the individual with a disability as an individual and, more generally, fulfilling conversational needs (Dragojevic et al., 2016; Watson & Gallois, 1999). Here, within integrative and relational talk, the coworker without a disability considered the individual with a disability's wants and needs, and showed concern for them (i.e., positive emotional expression), Additionally, these accommodative communication styles utilized face-maintaining and face-promoting strategies. In the organizational setting, people presumably desire to be viewed as professional, competent, and productive members of an organization. Here, in the integrative and relational talk scenarios, the coworker without a disability used face-maintenance and face-promoting strategies, such as claiming positive emotions, a common point of view, providing support, appropriately complimenting, and non-superiority. These positive strategies communicated dignity (i.e., other-recognized worth acquired from engaging in work activity; Thomas & Lucas, 2019) and allowed the person with a disability in the scenario to maintain their face as a professional, competent, and productive team member and employee. Ultimately, these accommodative discourse management strategies, along with inclusion of accommodative interpersonal control strategies (e.g., providing opportunity for the individual with a disability to share their opinion), and lack of nonaccommodative control strategies had positive outcomes on how participants evaluated the coworker without a disability, internalized stigma, and anticipated emotional and communicative responses. It is essential to acknowledge that participants' responses to the four communication styles are culturally bound. Findings in this study illustrated that in the United States and in an

organizational context, concern for the relationship is particularly valued. Future research should explore how these communication styles are perceived in other cultural contexts.

In contrast, the less competent communication styles consisted of nonaccommodative discourse management interpersonal control strategies, constituting *nonaccommodative* communication adjustments. In these communication adjustments, the coworker without a disability used communication strategies that sought to imply or establish social distance from the person with a disability in the scenario (Dragojevic et al., 2014). Here, within the directive and dismissive talk conditions, the individual without a disability used communication that contained nonaccommodative discourse management, including ignoring the person with a disability's conversational needs and utilizing face-threatening acts (Giles, 2016). Face-threatening acts, including condescending, solely making decisions regarding the task, and ignoring the communicative needs/wants of the individual with a disability threaten the individual with a disability's ability to maintain their face as a professional, independent member of the team. Additionally, the coworker without a disability utilized nonaccommodative control strategies wherein the coworker without a disability criticized and embarrassed the person with a disability (Watson & Gallois, 1999) and used controlling communication to gain command of the situation. Altogether, participants (who were people with disabilities) may have seen themselves as the coworker with a disability in each scenario, essentially internalizing these inappropriate communication acts by their coworker, which had an influence on evaluations of the coworker without a disability, internalization of stigma, and emotional and communicative responses. A major theoretical contribution from this study is that these findings provide information on what people with disabilities consider accommodative and nonaccommodative communication styles

in the interability context and contributes to our understanding of the dynamic intergroup processes in the workplace setting.

Second, the current study extends CAT and the CPD and ASI Models by contributing to theoretical understandings of inferred motive. While experimental studies using CAT as a theoretical framework have begun addressing inferred motive relatively recently, the effects of this construct have not been tested within the framework of the CPD Model. CAT asserts that interactants make attributions or evaluations about their communicative partner's communication/behaviors that have relational, psychological, and/or interactional consequences (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012). In the current study, results revealed that in the accommodative talk conditions, particularly in the integrative talk condition, participants attributed the coworker without a disability's communication to more positive motive (i.e., to be sincere, genuine, trustworthy) than when participants evaluated the individual without a disability's communication to be nonaccommodative in the directive talk and dismissive talk conditions. Inferring positive motive to the individual without a disability's communication in the current study adds support to the growing body of research on the construct of inferred motive and CAT and demonstrated that inference of positive motive improved communication competence and satisfaction. Additionally, inferring positive motive increased the likelihood that participants would respond in accommodative ways (i.e., obliging response strategy, problem-solving response strategy), and increased the likelihood that participants would respond in with an avoiding response strategy. This finding related to the avoiding response strategy supports previous research that in interability interactions, people with disabilities tend toward communication avoidance (Ryan et al., 2005).

The current study also extended theoretical understandings of inferred motive by exploring the relationship between inferred motive and internalized stigma. In the integrative talk and relational talk scenarios, inferred positive motive was negatively associated with internalized stigma. Essentially, inferring positive motive to the coworker without a disability's communication and behavior was associated with a reduction in participants' feelings of shame and devaluation due to applying negative stereotypes to themselves (i.e., internalized stigma). This is promising regarding the role that accommodation and inferring positive motive to accommodation can play in reducing self-directed prejudice. However, in the directive talk scenario, inferring positive motive was positively associated with internalized stigma. Thus, inferring positive motive to the nonaccommodative communication adjustments by the coworker without a disability enhanced perceptions of internalized stigma. Inferring positive motive to nonaccommodation resulted in increased internalized stigma, which provides conflicting evidence compared to theoretical predictions (e.g., Gasiorek, 2013) and speaks to the damaging nature of directive talk on people with disabilities' social identity. Altogether, the findings related to inferred motive emphasize the importance of positive accommodative communication in order for people with disabilities to maintain a positive social identity. To summarize, inferring positive motive to communication adjustments provides hope for disrupting the negative feedback cycle common in interability communication (Ryan et al., 2005) and creating a positive feedback cycle. Essentially, these findings highlight the importance of people without disabilities using accommodative communication *and* people with disabilities making meaningful effort to find ways to attribute that communication behavior to positive motive to ensure a positive interpersonal experience for the person with a disability and the individual without a disability. While the burden of ensuring a positive interability should not be placed on

people with disabilities, the findings in this study demonstrate that attributing positive motive to people without disabilities' communication may be one possible way for people with disabilities to take control of the interaction in a way that has positive outcomes.

Third, this study reveals the importance of studying communication anxiety in the interability context. In line with intergroup contact and interability communication literature (Stephan, 2014), this study highlighted the critical role of communication anxiety in evaluations of communication styles, internalized stigma, and likelihood of using different adaptive response strategies. Results revealed that communication anxiety was associated with a decrease in communication competence and satisfaction and an increase in internalized stigma and likelihood of utilizing nonaccommodative response strategies (i.e., avoiding and competing responses). Essentially, when participants were exposed to nonaccommodative communication from the coworker without a disability (i.e., directive talk; dismissive talk), they anticipated experiencing anxiety and uncertainty. When participants were anxious, there were negative outcomes on evaluations of the individual without a disability, on participants' social identity, and negative consequences for future communication behavior.

Exploring the results of communication anxiety across accommodative and nonaccommodative conditions provides important information for interability communication. Overall, the mean score of anxiety was moderate. But, supporting previous intergroup and interability research (Fox & Giles, 1996; Ryan et al., 2005), when communication was nonaccommodative, participants reported they would be highly uncomfortable, uneasy, and stressed if they were to communicate with the coworker without a disability (i.e., engage in interability communication). Participants in the integrative talk condition, however, expressed that they would have the lowest amount of communication anxiety if they were interacting with

the individual without a disability. Since participants in the integrative talk condition expressed overall low anxiety, this may indicate they do not feel concerned about experiencing discomfort in a future interaction and may expect positive outcomes due to the overall positively valanced communication style utilized by the individual without a disability in this condition. Even though this would remain an intergroup interaction, which suggests the possibility for negative outcomes (Stephan, 2014; Stephan & Stephan, 1985), the coworker without a disability's use of a positive, friendly communication style that was collaborative in completing the team project may result in participants being less likely to anticipate a negative emotional response. These findings highlight the ways in which heightened communication anxiety can contribute to the negative feedback cycle – by decreasing communication competence and satisfaction, increasing internalized stigma, and increasing the likelihood of responding with nonaccommodative response strategies. Supporting intergroup contact and interability research (Byrd et al., 2019, Ryan et al., 2005), this study illustrates the critical importance of utilizing appropriate accommodation in order to reduce anxiety, which will interrupt the negative feedback cycle thus improving outcomes for people with and without disabilities.

Fourth, to summarize the results related to the adaptive response strategies by condition, when a person without a disability utilized communication that was accommodative (i.e., integrative talk, relational talk), people with disabilities were likely to converge in their communication and respond to those types of communication with accommodative forms of communication by using a problem-solving response strategy, and to a lesser degree (in terms of accommodation) an obliging strategy. On the other hand, when a person without a disability used communication that was nonaccommodative (i.e., directive talk, dismissive talk), people with disabilities were likely to converge in their communication and respond to those types of

communication with nonaccommodative forms of communication that manifest in either competing communication strategies or nonconfrontational communication strategies (i.e., avoidance).

This pattern illustrates that people with disabilities who are involved in interability communication tend to reciprocate with the same strategy as the person without a disability in the scenario. First, this pattern shows that when people without disabilities utilized accommodative communication styles, people with disabilities reciprocated with accommodative response strategies (i.e., problem-solving or obliging) – this is an example of the norm of reciprocity benefiting a relationship and future communication. In contrast, these findings illustrate the ways in which the norm of reciprocity can be harmful to future communication and the relationship (e.g., Kim et al., 2011; Wiebe & Zhang, 2017). Here, when an individual without a disability utilized nonaccommodative communication (i.e., directive or dismissive talk), the participants with disabilities reciprocated with nonaccommodative response strategies (i.e., competing or avoiding). This pattern shows that nonaccommodative communication may operate as a conflict initiating factor in interability communication.

Finally, this study revealed several intriguing findings related to the positivity of participants with disabilities in the current study. First, overall, perceptions of internalized stigma were low. While the integrative talk condition elicited the lowest overall perceptions of internalized stigma, in general, participants generally reported they did not experience devaluation or shame triggered by applying negative stereotypes of people with disabilities to themselves (e.g., Ritsher et al., 2003). Of course, this is good news for people with disabilities and interability communication. However, this could be due to the nature of the study. The vignette taking place in a white-collar, organizational setting wherein the individual with a

disability is an employee who was assigned to a firm's top client may inherently reduce people with disabilities' feelings of inadequacy and helplessness (e.g., common negative stereotypes). Organizational communication research shows that belonging to a white-collar organization comes with prestige that may be positively perceived (e.g., Lammers & Garcia, 2009). Additionally, in the current project, the manipulation includes an individual with a physical disability, but participants primarily identified as having mental health impairments. Therefore, the low perceptions of internalized stigma may have been due to the design of the study and participants' disability type. Thus, replicating this study in other organizational and social settings, manipulating scenarios involving individuals with different disability types, and recruiting participants with disability types that match the manipulation would be useful in order to further understand the relationship between communication (non)accommodation and internalized stigma.

When discussing general positivity of participants, it is important to note that regardless of the condition, participants reported that they were most likely to respond with a problem-solving response strategy. Interability communication research and interpersonal conflict literature provides some possible explanations for this positivity. One possible explanation is that a problem-solving strategy is typically viewed as appropriate and satisfying (e.g., Zhang et al., 2005). Therefore, people with disabilities may have selected this response due to the organizational setting in which the current study is situated. Another possible explanation is that due to the anxiety inducing nature of interability communication, people with disabilities may be inclined to use a positively valanced response strategy in order to maintain harmony and reduce anxiety in interability communication interactions. Another possible explanation is that people with disabilities do not feel empowered to use strategies that may be conflict initiating (i.e.,

avoiding and/or competing). Additionally, avoiding and competing response strategies may be stereotype-reinforcing insofar as they confirm negative disability stereotypes of passive, angry, or bitter – thus, people with disabilities may avoid these response strategies as a way to protect their self-image (Ryan et al., 2005). Of course, we must consider social desirability as an explanation for these findings. Thus, this is a first step in looking at responses to (non)accommodation in the interability context and future observational studies are needed to truly understand responses and their consequences on future interability communication. For example, Hummert and Ryan (2001) found that humorous responses were a way for older adults to respond to patronizing communication and interrupt the negative feedback cycle to maintain positive interpersonal relationships. This may be a useful avenue for future interability communication research. Finally, future research must explore how communication responses differ across social settings.

Practical Implications

While this study focused on participants with disabilities perspectives, the findings provide practical implications for both people with and without disabilities. Humanistic concern for people with disabilities and other marginalized groups has highlighted the importance of empowering and positive communication. This experimental study provides people without disabilities with a roadmap to enacting positive, empowering communication to people with disabilities that can interrupt the negative feedback cycle. From participants' perspective, integrative talk is a constructive accommodation style that appropriately attends to the task and the interpersonal relationship. People without disabilities should focus on incorporating positive, friendly, problem-solving communication in their behavior toward people with disabilities. People without disabilities should also consider how the nonaccommodative communication

styles had negative consequences for evaluations of the coworker without a disability, the participants' identity, and future communicative responses. Understanding what strategies people with disabilities generally find accommodative and nonaccommodative may allow people without disabilities to choose face-promoting, positive communication behavior that will initiate communication enhancement, rather than communication predicaments.

Given that integrative talk resulted in the most positive outcomes as measured by increased communication competence and satisfaction, reduced communication anxiety and stigma, and higher likelihood of using accommodative response strategies, the current study provides baseline data for training on disability inclusion and constructing positive communication in the workplace. Workplace trainings related to intergroup dialogue can utilize the scenarios from the current study to train employees with and without disabilities to engage in positive, cooperative communication and combat negative stereotypical talk. From a communication accommodation perspective, integrative talk operates as an accommodative resource that individuals can use in interactions involving (in)competent communication (Pitts & Harwood, 2019). When individuals take part in these trainings, they can build, use, and refine their accommodative resources. Education and training regarding how to utilize an integrative approach in different contexts provides individuals with awareness, sensitivity, and competence – what CAT refers to as a lifetime accumulation of competence (Pitts & Harwood, 2019). Additionally, trainings that integrate communication competence with issues of diversity, equity, inclusion, empathy, and perspective taking signal institutional support, which intergroup contact research has demonstrated is vitally important to reducing prejudice and improving intergroup relations (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008), which are essential for increasingly diverse and multicultural organizations.

Adding to the literature on CAT and inferred motive (Gasiorek, 2013), the current study indicates the powerful role inferred positive motive plays in interability communication. Findings related to inferred motive provide people with and without disabilities important considerations for improving interability contact. For people with disabilities, if they can find positive motivations behind people without disabilities' communication, that attribution of positive motive can improve communicative outcomes and reduce internalized stigma. Attribution of positive motive essentially gives people without disabilities the "benefit of the doubt" that they meant well and thought they were behaving sincerely, genuinely, and positively, which has positive outcomes interactionally, relationally, and psychologically/emotionally for people with disabilities. For people without disabilities, they should focus their communication on highlighting the positive intentions behind their communication to help interrupt the negative feedback cycle and/or enhance the positive feedback cycle.

Findings of this study support intergroup contact research and cautions of the deleterious effects of high anxiety. When people with disabilities get anxious, there are consequences for evaluations of the individual without a disability, self-stereotyping, and communicative responses. Anxiety/uncertainty management theory (AUM; Gudykunst, 2005) and intergroup contact theory (Brown & Hewstone, 2005) highlight the importance of reducing anxiety in order to enjoy positive contact. For instance, AUM theory provides mindfulness as an anxiety management/reduction strategy that people with and without disabilities can utilize to maintain their anxiety at optimal levels in order to attenuate the negative consequences of high communication anxiety.

Finally, this study provides insights into how people with disabilities respond to accommodative and nonaccommodative communication from an individual without a disability.

CAT provides useful information for people with disabilities to consider when choosing a communicative response in interability contexts. With the goal of interrupting the negative feedback cycle, people with disabilities should consider choosing strategies that establish competence and independence, rather than potentially reinforcing negative stereotypes (e.g., as angry, bitter, or passive) and consider which strategies are perceived positively from a relational and task perspective. Hummert and Ryan (2001) highlight the importance of choosing response strategies that establish competence and independence for people with disabilities, while also aiming for positive interpersonal experiences for both individuals. The CPD Model suggests problem solving is the optimal response for promoting contact quality in the interability context (Ryan et al., 2005).

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Interpretation and generalization of these findings are constrained by the written vignette methodology used in this project. The use of hypothetical, written vignettes, and the controlled environment typical of experimental studies should be kept in mind as these findings are interpreted and generalized to people with disabilities in general. The vignette experimental design provided high internal validity (Steiner et al., 2016) and a realistic representation of interability communication in the workplace in this project. Future research should: 1) triangulate these findings using other research methods, 2) replicate this study with other disability types and in other relational contexts (e.g., romantic relationships, family, education, healthcare, etc.), and 3) examine discourse and analyze real life interability interactions.

The results of this study suggest several other interesting directions for future work. This dissertation project only focused on the perspective of participants with disabilities. Future research would benefit from exploring how people without disabilities evaluate the four

communication styles investigated in the current project. Exploring how the four communication styles influence participants' evaluations of the person with a disability in the scenario (e.g., in terms of competence, independence, social attractiveness) and attitudes toward people with disabilities in general is critical to understanding interability communication and the role of communication accommodation in the reduction of interability prejudice.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated the critical role of communication in making a difference. From the perspectives of people with disabilities, this study illustrated what types of interability communication should be incorporated into our everyday practice and what should be avoided. Interability communicators should aim to be caring, friendly, and cooperative while discovering what it means to communicate using an integrative approach in different contexts. At the same time, communicators should avoid disengaging, using a negative emotional affect, and being controlling at all costs. These findings greatly contribute to our understandings of the dynamic processes taking place in the workplace and highlight the critical difference that one coworker can make in the life of an underrepresented, marginalized employee.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Interability Communication Style Conditions in Pilot 1

Instructions: In this section, you will read two short paragraphs about a conversation between a person with a disability (named Taylor) and a person without a disability (named Alex). Please read each paragraph carefully before you answer the questionnaires that follow the paragraph.

Description of Scenario:
Taylor is an analyst in a sales organization. Like everyone else in the organization, Taylor works 40-hours per week. Taylor has muscular dystrophy, which causes Taylor to use a wheelchair due to muscle weakness and problems with coordination. Taylor's coworkers are aware of Taylor's disability status because of its visible nature and due to a modified work schedule so that Taylor can attend doctor's visits and other medical necessities. Taylor works closely with a colleague named Alex. They are both in their early thirties. During a meeting for all analysts, Taylor and Alex are assigned to work together on a sales pitch for the organization's top client. They are specifically talking about how they are going to work together.

Taylor says, "I want to make sure we have a plan since I'll be away from the office sometimes."

Integrative Talk Scenario

High Concern-for-Task Completion
High Concern-for-Relationship
Low Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “Congratulations on being assigned to the project! I am looking forward to working together again. I think we’ll make a great team! I might miss some days too, but we can cover for each other when that happens. How do you think we should handle working together this time? I know you’ve managed your modified schedule well on past projects.” (60 words)

Relational Talk Scenario

Low Concern-for-Task Completion
High Concern-for-Relationship
Low Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “I’m so sorry, Taylor. It must be so challenging to balance work and doctor’s appointments. You are amazing! I’ve always been impressed when we work together! How are you feeling about doing so much work? How do you manage being away so often? I’m always here to support you. I don’t know how you ever manage to be so successful.” (60 words)

Dismissive Talk Scenario

Low Concern-for-Task Completion
Low Concern-for-Relationship
High Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “A plan? I really can’t worry about that now. You worry too much, things always work out on their own. You know this is not the first time we have worked on a project together. It’ll work out some way or another. It will be fine. Don’t worry, it’s not a big deal. Just relax, I will see you tomorrow.” (60 words)

Directive Talk Scenario

High Concern-for-Task Completion
Low Concern-for-Relationship
High Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “Listen, I’m not going to do your work and mine. I’m not going to tell you this again. You better figure out how to do your part of the project on your own. You better not hold up my progress with all of your breaks. I’m not going to let you make me look bad in front of the bosses.” (60 words)

Appendix B

Interability Communication Style Manipulation Check in Pilot 1

Instructions: The following statements ask you to think about Alex's communication to Taylor. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements below (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

Concern for Task-Completion

1. Alex was only concerned with the success of the team project.

Concern for Relationship

1. Alex was caring about the relationship with Taylor.

Communicative Disruptiveness

1. Alex's communication was aggressive.

Appendix C

Interability Communication Style Conditions Used in Pilot 2

Instructions: In this section, you will read two short paragraphs about a conversation between a person with a disability (named Taylor) and a person without a disability (named Alex). Please read each paragraph carefully before you answer the questionnaires that follow the paragraph.

Description of Scenario:
Taylor is an analyst in a sales organization. Like everyone else in the organization, Taylor works 40-hours per week. Taylor has muscular dystrophy, which causes Taylor to use a wheelchair due to muscle weakness and problems with coordination. Taylor's coworkers are aware of Taylor's disability status because of its visible nature and due to a modified work schedule so that Taylor can attend doctor's visits and other medical necessities. Taylor works closely with a colleague named Alex. They are both in their early thirties. During a meeting for all analysts, Taylor and Alex are assigned to work together on a sales pitch for the organization's top client. They are specifically talking about how they are going to work together.

Taylor says, "I want to make sure we have a plan since I'll be away from the office sometimes."

Integrative Talk Scenario

High Concern-for-Task Completion
High Concern-for-Relationship
Low Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “Congratulations on being assigned to the project! I’m looking forward to working together again. We make a great team! I might miss some days too, but we can cover for each other. How do you think we should handle working together? I know you manage your modified schedule well. I can take the lead and delegate tasks if that’s helpful.”
(60 words)

Relational Talk Scenario

Low Concern-for-Task Completion
High Concern-for-Relationship
Low Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “I’m so sorry, Taylor. It must be so challenging to balance work and doctor’s appointments. You are amazing! I’ve always been impressed when we work together! How are you feeling about doing so much work? How do you manage being away so often? I’m always here to support you. I don’t know how you ever manage to be so successful.” (60 words)

Dismissive Talk Scenario

Low Concern-for-Task Completion
Low Concern-for-Relationship
High Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “You already want to come up with a plan for this project? You worry too much every time we work on a project together. This is no big deal, Taylor. You should really just relax. I can’t worry about any of this stuff right now. I have so many other things to deal with. Okay, I will see you later.” (60 words)

Directive Talk Scenario

High Concern-for-Task Completion
Low Concern-for-Relationship
High Communicative Disruptiveness

Alex: “Listen, I’m not going to do your work and mine. I’m not going to tell you this again. You better figure out how to do your part of the project on your own. You better not hold up my progress with all of your breaks. I’m not going to let you make me look bad in front of the bosses.” (60 words)

Appendix D

Interability Communication Style Manipulation Check Used in Pilot 2

Instructions: The following statements ask you to think about Alex's communication to Taylor. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements below (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

Concern for Task-Completion

1. Alex was concerned with the success of the team project.

Concern for Relationship

1. Alex was caring about the relationship with Taylor.

Communicative Disruptiveness

1. Alex's communication was aggressive.

Appendix E

Participant Screener for Inclusion in Main Study

1. The Americans with Disabilities Act defines disability as a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities (life activities include walking, sitting, reading, seeing, or communicating), a record of such an impairment, or being regarded as having such an impairment.
   Do you identify as having a disability?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. Which of the following types of disability have you been diagnosed with? Please choose all that apply. (Hughes et al., 2016)
   a. A sensory impairment (vision or hearing)
   b. A mobility (physical) impairment
   c. A learning disability
   d. A mental health disorder
   e. A disability or impairment not listed above

3. Please indicate how you would categorize your disability.
   a. Visible
   b. Invisible

4. Please list your specific diagnoses (descriptive text entry).

Appendix F

Interability Talk Conditions Used in Main Study

Instructions: In this section, you will read two short paragraphs about a conversation between a person with a disability (named Taylor) and a person without a disability (named Alex). Please read each paragraph carefully before you answer the questionnaires that follow the paragraph.

Description of Scenario:
Taylor is an analyst in a sales organization. Like everyone else in the organization, Taylor works 40-hours per week. Taylor has muscular dystrophy, which causes Taylor to use a wheelchair due to muscle weakness and problems with coordination. Taylor's coworkers are aware of Taylor's disability status because of its visible nature and due to a modified work schedule so that Taylor can attend doctor's visits and other medical necessities. Taylor works closely with a colleague named Alex. They are both in their early thirties. During a meeting for all analysts, Taylor and Alex are assigned to work together on a sales pitch for the organization's top client. They are specifically talking about how they are going to work together.

Taylor says, "I want to make sure we have a plan since I'll be away from the office sometimes."

Integrative Talk Scenario

Alex: “Congratulations on being assigned to the project! I’m looking forward to working together again. We make a great team! I might miss some days too, but we can cover for each other. How do you think we should handle working together? I know you manage your modified schedule well. I can take the lead and delegate tasks if that’s helpful.” (60 words)

Relational Talk Scenario

Alex: “I’m so sorry, Taylor. It must be so challenging to balance work and doctor’s appointments. You are amazing! I’ve always been impressed when we work together! How are you feeling about doing so much work? How do you manage being away so often? I’m always here to support you. I don’t know how you ever manage to be so successful.” (60 words)

Dismissive Talk Scenario

Alex: “You already want to come up with a plan for this project? You worry too much every time we work on a project together. This is no big deal, Taylor. You should really just relax. I can’t worry about any of this stuff right now. I have so many other things to deal with. Okay, I will see you later.” (60 words)

Directive Talk Scenario

Alex: “Listen, I’m not going to do your work and mine. I’m not going to tell you this again. You better figure out how to do your part of the project on your own. You better not hold up my progress with all of your breaks. I’m not going to let you make me look bad in front of the bosses.” (60 words)

Appendix G

Interability Talk Manipulation Check Used in Main Study

Instructions: The following statements ask you to think about Alex's communication to Taylor. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements below (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

Concern for Task-Completion

1. Alex was only concerned with the success of the team project.

Concern for Relationship

1. Alex was caring about the relationship with Taylor.

Communicative Disruptiveness

1. Alex's communication was aggressive.

Appendix H

Major Measures Regarding Perceptions of the Coworker without a Disability and Scenario in the Main Study

General instructions after reading the scenario: In this section, you will answer questions based on the scenario you just read. Please carefully read each set of instructions and answer the following questions honestly.

Communication Competence

Instructions: The following statements ask you to think about Alex's (the individual without a disability) communication to Taylor after reading the scenario. **Ask yourself: How effective and appropriate was Alex's communication for discussing a team project with a colleague with a disability?** Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

1. Alex's communication would interfere with their working together on the project.
2. Alex's communication would contribute to their working together on the project.
3. Alex's communication would help them to work together on the project.
4. Alex's communication was useful for them to finish the project smoothly.
5. Alex's communication was beneficial to their progress on the project.
6. Alex's communication was appropriate for communication to a colleague.
7. Alex said some things that should not have been said in the workplace.
8. In general, Alex's remarks were suitable for the situation.
9. Alex's communication was proper for discussing working together on a project.
10. In general, Alex's remarks were smooth when discussing working together.

Inferred Motive

Instructions: The following statements ask you to think about Alex's (the individual without a disability) communication to Taylor after reading the scenario. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

1. In general, Alex's remarks were sincere.
2. In general, Alex was genuine.
3. In general, Alex was trustworthy.

Communication Satisfaction

Instructions: The purpose of the following statements are to investigate your reaction to the conversation you just read. Consider how satisfied you would be **if you were communicating with Alex (the individual without a disability)**. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree that each statement describes this conversation (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

If I were communicating with Alex, I would feel…

1. like I would want to continue having conversations like this.
2. like nothing would ever be accomplished.
3. very satisfied with our conversation.
4. that I am able to present myself as I want to be viewed.
5. that Alex expresses a lot of interest in what I have to say.
6. I enjoy our conversation.
7. like our conversation flow smoothly.
8. that we each get to say what we want.

Communication Anxiety

Instructions: The following statements ask you to think about how you would feel if you encountered a situation where you would be interacting with Alex. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

1. I would feel certain.
2. I would feel awkward.
3. I would be self-conscious.
4. I would feel happy.
5. I would feel accepted.
6. I would feel confident.
7. I would be irritated.
8. I would be impatient.
9. I would be defensive.
10. I would be suspicious.
11. I would be careful.
12. I would feel frustrated.
13. I would feel uncomfortable.

Appendix I

Major Dependent Measures Used in Main Study

Internalized Stigma of Disability Status

Instructions: The following statements use the term "disability" or "person with a disability". Please think of it as whatever you feel is the best term. Please provide a rating by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = Strongly Disagree and 2 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Neither agree nor disagree, 5 = Somewhat agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly agree

After reading Alex's comments,

1. I feel out of place in the world because I have a disability.
2. Having a disability has spoiled my life.
3. People without disabilities could not possibly understand me
4. I am embarrassed that I have a disability.
5. I feel inferior to others who don't have a disability.
6. Negative stereotypes about disability keep me isolated from the "normal" world.
7. Being around people who don't have a disability makes me feel out of place.
8. I avoid getting close to people who don't have a disability to avoid rejection.
9. I don't talk about myself much because I don't want to burden others with my disability.

Adaptive Response

Instructions: Participants were shown their randomly assigned scenario for the second time.

Put yourself in Taylor's (the individual without a disability) place. In general, how would you respond to Alex if you were discussing working together on the team project? Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree).

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

In general, how would you respond to Alex if you were discussing the team project?

Problem-Solving Response Strategy

1. I would integrate Alex's ideas with mine for joint decision-making.
2. I would bring all of our concerns out into the open so that any problems related to the team project could be resolved in the best possible way.
3. I would try to work with Alex to find solutions for our team project that satisfied both of us.

4. I would exchange accurate information with Alex to solve potential conflicts within the group projects together.

Avoiding Response Strategy

1. I would stay away from conversing with Alex about the team project.
2. I would try not to talk with Alex about the team project to avoid hard feelings.
3. I would avoid open discussion with Alex about any problems regarding the team project.
4. I would try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with Alex.

Competing Response Strategy

1. I would argue with Alex to show the merits of my position.
2. I would insist on my solutions for completing the group project.
3. I would use my influence to make a decision only in my favor.
4. I would do all that I could to protect my position regarding the team project.
5. I would use all possible organizational resources to protect my position regarding the team project.

Obliging Response Strategy

1. I would try all I could to please Alex.
2. I would try to satisfy Alex's expectations.
3. I would go along with Alex's suggestions.
4. I would try to satisfy Alex's needs.

Appendix J

Demographic Information Collected in the Main Study

Instructions: This section asks you to provide some basic background information. Please answer the following questions by choosing a corresponding bubble or filling in the blanks.

1. What is your age? (slider scale)

2. What is your sex?
    1. Female
    2. Male
    3. Other (please specify)

3. What is your ethnicity?
    1. Hispanic or Latino
    2. Not Hispanic or Latino

4. What is your racial background?
    1. Black or African American
    2. White/Caucasian
    3. American Indian or Alaskan Native
    4. Asian/Pacific Islander
    5. Multiracial
    6. Other (please specify)

5. Please indicate your total years of education (e.g., freshman in college = 13 years; sophomore in college = 14 years; junior in college = 15 years; senior in college = 16 years, etc.)

6. What is your current year of study in college?
    1. Freshman/First Year
    2. Sophomore/Second Year
    3. Junior/Third Year
    4. Senior/Fourth Year
    5. Other (please specify)
    6. None of the above

7. What is your current employment status?
    1. Employed full-time (35-40+ hours a week)
    2. Employed part-time (less than 35 hours a week)
    3. Unemployed (currently looking for work)
    4. Unemployed (not currently looking for work)
    5. Student
    6. Retired
    7. Unable to work

    8. Other (please specify)

8. How much work experience do you have in years? (slider)