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What Do Students Value? Exploring Instructor Behaviors In Face-To-Face And Online Higher Education Classrooms

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WHAT DO STUDENTS VALUE? EXPLORING INSTRUCTOR BEHAVIORS IN FACE-TO-FACE AND ONLINE HIGHER EDUCATION CLASSROOMS

by

DARIA S. LAFAVE

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2016

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Approved By:

Advisor

Date

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DEDICATION

To my “village”

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“The moment where you doubt whether you can fly, you cease for ever being able to do it” (J. M. Barrie, *Peter Pan*). This dissertation would have never been made possible without love and support of my “family,” who never allowed me to doubt that I can fly.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Instructional communication researchers have devoted a lot of time and effort to exploring issues of instructor behavior in the classroom, linking it to a number of learning outcomes, including but not limited to student cognitive and affective learning (Mazer, 2013; Richmond, Gorham, & McCroskey, 1987), course satisfaction (Galanes & Carmack, 2013), institutional retention (Alarcon & Edwards, 2013; DeBerard, Spielmans, & Julka, 2004) and persistence (Gray, Vitak, Easton, & Ellison, 2013; Peltier, Laden & Matranga, 1999; Schreiner & Nelson, 2013). Perceptions of various instructor behaviors in the classroom have also been given a lot of attention, as they have also been found to influence student participation and willingness to talk (Myers, 2004), perceptions of teacher credibility (Teven & Hanson, 2009), classroom climate and state motivation (Myers & Rocca, 2001), student learning outcomes (Goldman, Bolkan, & Goodboy, 2014), and learning effectiveness (Deepa & Seth, 2014). Traditional classroom literature laid the groundwork for instructional communication techniques and identified a variety of useful strategies in reaching these learning outcomes.

Developments in technology and attention to student needs have also spurred emergence of other, non-traditional approaches to education, such as correspondence courses, audio courses, and, most recently, online education courses. Popularity of distance education, defined as “all planned learning that normally occurs in a different place from teaching, requiring special techniques of course design and instruction, communication through various technologies, and special organizational and administrative arrangements” (Moore & Kearsley, 2005, p. 2), has grown exponentially. Online education allows institutions to reach students who are otherwise unable to attend traditional “brick and mortar” classrooms due to busy and demanding schedules (O’Malley & McGraw, 1999; Young & Norgard, 2006). Indeed, in the 2012-2013 education

year, 7.1 million students took online (OL) education courses, with enrollments in OL courses showing an annual growth rate of 6.1% (Allen & Seaman, 2013).

Consequently, research that started with traditional classroom instruction has been extended to OL education, bringing attention to the importance of understanding how instructors and students are affected in OL education environments. There has been much discussion focused on comparing the effectiveness of OL education to face-to-face (FtF) courses. Thus far, academic leaders find OL education to provide comparable learning outcomes as those attained in FtF classrooms (see Allen & Seaman, 2013; Bernard et al., 2009; Russell, 2001). Given these outcomes, OL education is being widely adopted by colleges and universities, with a corresponding research shifting from investigating effectiveness of OL courses to examination of communication techniques that facilitate the OL experience. For example, similar to FtF research, OL education studies suggest that interpersonal connections between instructor and students lead to better learning outcomes and course satisfaction (Arbaugh, 2000, 2001; Githens, 2007). Interactions between students in OL education are also important to learning outcomes (Bernard et al., 2009).

Regardless of the delivery method (i.e., FtF vs. OL), instructors have been advised to build positive relationships with their students in the classroom, as their actual or perceived behavior has been linked to student learning. For example, Horan and Houser (2012) found that students who form positive initial impressions of their instructors in FtF courses behave in more prosocial ways towards them; Myers and Rocca (2001) reported that perceived instructor verbal aggressiveness was negatively related to perceived classroom climate and student state motivation; Frisby and Martin (2010) account for instructor rapport as a predictor of affective and cognitive learning in FtF courses; Baker (2010) reports that the combination of instructor

immediacy and presence is a significant predictor of affective learning in OL education; and both Wanzer, Frymier and Irwin (2010) and Fitzpatrick (2010) indicate that appropriate forms of humor correlate positively with student learning in FtF and OL courses respectively.

Many studies of both modes of delivery also link instructor behaviors to student motivation (Baker, 2010; Filak & Sheldon, 2008; Goodboy & Myers, 2008; Houser & Frymier, 2009), which leads to successful learning (Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994; Goodboy & Myers, 2008). Motivation has been conceptualized as a students' belief in being able to succeed at a given task, and having an understanding of the value of that task (Brophy, 2004), and has been identified as a critical factor that affects learning (Lim, 2004), as well as other learning consequences, such as retention (Lepper & Cordova, 1992), persistence (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992), achievement (Mega, Ronconi, & De Beni, 2014) and course satisfaction (Fujita-Starck & Thompson, 1994).

Traditional FtF teaching have always acknowledged the importance of instructor's communication as an element that impacts student academic motivation. Similarly, many trainings offered in institutions that offer OL courses, along with leading texts in OL instructional communication (e.g. Moore, 2007; Paloff & Pratt, 2008), have emphasized that OL instructors should teach and communicate with students in a specific way, claiming learners want a specific type of communication that is theoretically linked with motivation and other learning outcomes. As in FtF environments, there exists an overarching push to encourage communication between the instructor and students to be inclusive, inviting, and frequent. At the base level, instructors are expected to have frequent interactions with their students where information is exchanged and communication is flowing. For instance, reaching out to inactive students is meant to motivate them and ensure that they begin actively posting in their OL

courses and, thus, learning (Achilles, Byrd, Felder-Strauss, Franklin, & Janowich, 2011; Lamer, 2009). Furthermore, to reduce instructor-student psychological distance, instructors are advised to utilize a variety of immediacy behaviors, such as self-disclosure and humor. For instance, posting an introduction and a picture at the beginning of the course, as well as requiring students to do the same, is meant to not only acquaint participants with one another (Deubel, 2003), but to also promote the social aspect of the learning environments (Morris, Xu, & Finnegan, 2005).

Furthermore, in the OL classrooms in particular, instructors are taught to insert themselves to become “present” and available to students. For example, it is argued that posting lectures and using audio/video components appeals to various learning styles, and active participation and facilitation of OL discussions shows instructor presence and encourages students to engage (Palloff & Pratt, 2007; Salmon, 2000; Tagg & Dickinson, 1995). Finally, if all that is not enough, some research even suggests instructors should form personal, non-role-based relationships with students that are characterized by trust and intimacy (Bennets, 2002; Celano & Mitchell, 2014; Goleman, 1996; Muirhead, 2004; Noddings, 1988; Van Maele, Forsyth, & Van Houtte, 2014). All this points to the importance of active instructor involvement in the classroom and supports the assumption that frequent and continuous communication between the instructor and students is necessary for effective learning and course satisfaction. In sum, the perfect instructor (regardless of FtF or OL mode of delivery), then, is fully engaged in that he/she interacts with students, is psychologically close to them, is ever “present” in the student’s learning experience, and forms interpersonal relationships with students.

These well-established practices and training assumptions are, however, challenged by some contradictory research findings, which bring to question not only the reality of what truly works in the OL as opposed to FtF education classrooms, but also the contributions that the

unique markers found in OL environments make to its functionality. For example, while it may appear that interactive learning environments like Second Life (SL) have a potential to enhance the quality of teaching and learning (Houser, Thoma, Coppock, Mazer, & Midkiff, 2011; Jamaludin, Chee, & Ho, 2009), practical problems such as insufficient teaching and learning time and limited mode of communication with the instructor may create challenges (Cheng, 2014). Similarly, cultural challenges may occur, as some students may still prefer traditional education formats where they can see their instructor and interact in a more traditional social environment (Iraki, 2014). While OL classrooms tout social interactions through discussion board engagement, collaborative learning exercises, and video chat capabilities, some students may still feel abandoned and lonely (Iraki, 2014).

Furthermore, when reviewing research in OL courses, and comparing its findings to traditional FtF instructor behavior expectations, some contradictory findings problematize the automatic transfer of FtF teaching traditions to the OL environment. For example, Ascough (2002) found that posting photos diminished the bias-free element that the OL learning environment offered through its ability to mask physical characteristics of participants. Similarly, Walther, Slovacek, and Tidwell (2001) conducted experiments with virtual groups where half the members saw photos of their partners prior to engaging in text-based communication and the other half did not. Findings showed that participants who did not communicate with partners with photos experienced higher liking by their peers, whereas members who saw each other's pictures experienced a counter effect (i.e., the more they tried to impress their partners, the less attractive they appeared to them). In FtF research, on the contrary, first impressions are most important, suggesting that students form lasting and most influential impressions of their instructors in the first two weeks of class (and these impressions are not likely to change as the

courses proceed and come to the end, see Buchert, Laws, Apperson, & Bregman, 2008; Kohlan, 1973). As evident from these contradictory findings between OL and FtF classrooms, posting pictures may not be as beneficial to the social development of OL learning communities as once thought, and further and more current research is needed to substantiate this assumption.

Additionally, researchers who look at inactivity in OL environments propose that non-participation does not equal non-learning (see Picciano, 2002), arguing that inactive students could, in fact, be simply “lurking” because they feel uncomfortable expressing themselves; but that they are, in fact, learning on their own, as well as “dedicating more time to reflection and processing of course material that translates to stronger assignments” (Beaudoin, 2002, p. 152). Similarly, Ramos and Yudko (2008) report that page hits and not discussion participation predict success in the classroom, suggesting that students who actively engage in discussions may actually be taking time away from reading valuable material that may be on their tests.

Finally, in terms of discussion participation, some FtF research shows that instructor engagement is important to successful interactions. For instance, Dallimore and colleagues (2004) reported that students identified requiring and cold-calling on students to increase participation quality and discussion effectiveness, also to produce greater inclusion of all students in class interaction. On the contrary, An, Shin and Lim (2009) found that frequent instructor intervention in OL discussions dissuaded student interactions. Indeed, they reported that only minimal instructor intervention resulted in higher feelings of togetherness among students, indicating that too much instructor involvement in discussions may actually deter students from participating or expressing themselves freely. Similarly, Poole (2000) argued that students become more engaged in discussions that are not facilitated by their instructors, and Mazzolini and Maddison (2003; 2007) found that instructors who actively started new discussion

threads on average ended up with shorter threads than the instructors who left students to initiate their own discussions. These studies appear to contradict the assumption that students succeed only if the instructors are fully involved in teaching and are highly interactive with their delivery, as is conceived in FtF classrooms, once again creating an inconsistency between current instructional tradition and reality of OL classrooms.

As it stands, the existence of contradictory findings between FtF and OL courses also problematizes current instructor behavior assumptions. These contradictions could certainly be explained by a variety of factors. First, some studies mentioned above do appear to be somewhat outdated, leading to question their reliability and generalizability. Thus, while important questions regarding instructor effectiveness have been asked, currency of the findings could be problematic in today's classroom. Next, OL education is founded on technology, and rapid evolution that media technologies experience daily makes it difficult to keep up with the pace. Thus, it is likely that technological advancements move at a rate much faster than studies get published, leading to quickly outdated findings, or recommendations that no longer work best by the time the studies are printed. Finally, it is possible that instructional advice has been based on a potentially faulty assumption that what works in FtF will also work in OL education. To the contrary, FtF and OL delivery methods are not the same, and research suggests there are differences between the two outside of channel and style that warrant treating them as unique contexts. For example, consistent findings that OL students are much more likely to drop out from OL courses than from traditional ones question whether or not currently established OL instructor practices are doing more harm than good (Diaz, 2002; Frankola, 2001; Leong, 2011; Patterson & McFadden, 2009). In sum, distinct differences between FtF and OL may or may not

be significant enough to be taken into account when producing instructional recommendations, but they are most certainly worthy of investigation.

Given existing contradictions, it begs the question, what types of instructor behaviors are valued by students, and how are these wants linked to motivation? What does the “ideal” instructor behavior look like? Furthermore, instructional communication should not assume that students in FtF and OL classrooms are similar in all characteristics and learning styles, as the contrary may be true. Specifically, student expectations and perceptions of valuable instructor behavior in FtF and OL may be significantly different from how it is currently being enacted; thus, it is important that researchers turn their attention to understanding these expectations. As such, this study examines student values of instructor behavior in both FtF and OL classroom (noting differences and/or similarities between the modes of delivery), conceptualizes the “ideal” instructor behavior – instructor engagement - based on existing research, considers the existence or absence of violations of instructor engagement expectations, and evaluates the relationship between student expectations of instructor engagement in FtF and OL classrooms and academic motivation.

The Purpose of the Research

Instructor-student communication behaviors are not new to instructional communication research. Since the inception of instructional communication, researchers have looked at effective ways to enhance teaching practices and to create successful learning environments where students may attain knowledge. Various instructor behaviors have been identified as predictors of student learning and academic motivation, including interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, and instructor engagement. The first three behaviors have been clearly conceptualized, operationalized, and measured in research, providing good foundation for

instructional strategies. Yet significantly much less attention has been given to clear conceptualization of instructor engagement as one of these behaviors, and no testing has been done to examine its impact on instruction and student motivation. Such a gap seems especially alarming, since instructor engagement is widely used in various trainings and instructional manuals to describe ideal instructor behavior in the classroom.

Furthermore, little attention has been given to examining values that students place on instructor engagement in the classroom, along with evaluating the effects that these values have on student motivation. Since expectations of certain behaviors have been linked to individual's motivations, by understanding these values we can better train our instructors in effective teaching practices and behaviors, creating supportive classrooms.

Finally, fostering learner-centered environments means allowing the learners to drive the knowledge about effective and functional instructor behaviors. Since in a learner-centered environment the learners direct and drive learning, it is only appropriate that the research should focus on asking students to report on values of these behaviors, as well as employ self-reported measures of the levels of academic motivation.

Accordingly, in an effort to fill the instructional communication literature gap regarding a clear conceptualization of the "ideal" instructor behavior - instructor engagement - in the classrooms, the purposes of this study are to (a) clearly conceptualize instructor engagement as it is enacted in the classrooms, (b) explore various instructor behaviors in both face-to-face and online classrooms, (c) examine the differences/similarities in students values of various instructor behaviors between these two modes of delivery, (d) identify the connections between presence of instructor engagement and student value of that engagement, and (e) examine the links between perceived instructor engagement and student motivation. Currently, the concept of

instructor engagement is being used in the research very loosely, lacking not only clear conceptualization and operationalization, but also consistency in use throughout literature. Given such a gap, I attempt to set precedent by developing a conceptualization of this set of behaviors, so that it can finally stand alone in instructional communication research as a unique, clearly defined, and measurable concept. In this study instructor engagement is conceptualized as mutual, intimate, intentional and reciprocal interactions with students, meant to foster a supportive relationship that aims to significantly minimize or reduce any potential power structure or role-based communication that may exist between the two communicators by fostering the development of affective relational components such as trust and intimacy. This study will offer a unique contribution to an understanding of the nature of instructor engagement in education from the students' point of view, as well as explore its effect on academic motivation.

Students enrolled in higher education courses most likely have some general ideas about how they will communicate with their instructors, as well as what will happen in these interactions (Hoffman, 2014). These ideas are known as *interaction positions* and are determined by a combination of factors known as requirements (R), expectations (E) and desires (D) (Burgoon, Stern, & Dillman, 1995). It is likely that these ideas were formed through student experiences with education and potential media representations of ideal teacher behaviors. Using Interaction Adaptation Theory (Burgoon et al., 1995) this study will investigate requirements, expectations, and desires (RED factors) of various instructor behaviors in both FtF and OL classrooms; examine how RED factors of one of these behaviors, instructor engagement, may influence student motivation; and determine whether RED factors vary based on students' selection of course delivery (FtF vs. OL). It is predicted that FtF and OL students will vary in

their requirements, expectations, and desires of instructor behaviors in the classroom, and, if instructor behavior is not adapted to these different RED positions, it could negatively affect motivation. Towards this end this dissertation seeks to answer the following questions: *What value do students place on instructor engagement in a higher education classroom? Do students value instructor engagement differently depending on mode of delivery (FtF vs. OL)?*

Findings from this study will help shape current instructor participation training, aid institutions in understanding student expectations of instructor behaviors in FtF and OL classrooms, and help both instructors and institutions adapt to these expectations accordingly. In particular, identifying similarities and differences in RED factors of students who take FtF vs. OL courses may provide practitioners and researchers with information necessary to continue developing and delivering effective and productive courses through increased student retention, persistence, and, most importantly, learning. Furthermore, conceptualizing instructor engagement as one of these instructor behaviors, and understanding how and if student values of this set of behaviors are linked to academic motivation will enhance pedagogical practices by helping shape instruction and providing a clear perspective on specific strategies that students welcome in their learning. In terms of theoretical contributions, this study will advance current conceptualization of instructor engagement, test the current scope of Interaction Adaptation Theory by applying its axioms to the instructional context, and use its RED factors framework to understand student values of various instructor behaviors.

Structure of Dissertation

In the next chapter (Chapter 2), I begin by examining categories of various instructor behaviors in the classrooms identified in existing literature. The gaps identified in these categories lead me to offer a conceptualization of yet another unique set of instructor behaviors –

instructor engagement, which, as I argue, is needed in order to fully capture all levels of instructor-student relationships that could potentially exist in both FtF and OL classrooms.

Following (in chapter 3), I point to a research gap in identification of student expectations of various instructor behaviors in the classroom, which exists as a result of shifted teaching approach (i.e., from behaviorist to constructivist learning), potential influences of course delivery mode (i.e. FtF vs. OL), and potential disciplinary effects. The chapter next turns to identification of a theory that is best suited for this dissertation study, and presents a set of research questions and hypotheses that guide this research.

Chapter 4 details the methodology of this study, including a construction, testing, and delivery steps of the survey instrument, discussion of measures used to examine various elements employed in the study, and presentation of analyses employed to test its research questions and hypotheses.

The dissertation then presents the results of the study in Chapter 5, and concludes with Chapter 6, which offers a detailed discussion of its findings, followed by conclusive remarks and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2 CONCEPTUALIZING INSTRUCTOR ENGAGEMENT

Instructional communication researchers have considered instructor behavior in the classroom to be a tool used to encourage learning and to motivate students to higher levels of critical thinking. Trainings of instructors in higher education classrooms suggest that instructor-student communication must reach an interpersonal level if learning and academic motivation is to occur. Specifically, research shows that when students feel the interpersonal connection with their instructors, they are more likely to be fully engaged in the course and become academically motivated to succeed in their educational pursuits (Baker, 2010; Paechter, Dobransky & Frymier, 2004; Maier, & Macher, 2010; Swan, 2001; Worley, Titsworth, Worley & Cornett-Devito, 2007). Although research suggests that it is possible to create interpersonal connections in online environments (Castro, 2012; Zhang, Marksbury, & Heim, 2010), instructors who teach in those environments may need to put forth extra effort to create such links with their students (Bower, 2001; Geer, 2000). Nevertheless, they are still able to bond with students by utilizing the available technology to build rapport, and create an effective instructor-student relationship (Wisnbaker, 2002).

According to several studies, to reach successful student learning outcomes, instructors must exhibit specific behaviors, such as smiling, movement, humor, and self-disclosure (e.g., Arbaugh, 2001; Ngoyi & Malapile, 2014). While various instructor behaviors are named, three that have the most relevance and that are the most widely studied and that best capture this more interpersonally-oriented approach to teaching include interaction, immediacy, and, in the context of online education, teaching presence. In the next section I review current research and discuss how each of these behaviors is unique in its ability to contribute to student learning and academic motivation in the classrooms. I also expose weaknesses in the way these behaviors are currently

viewed in their relationship to instructor-student communication. Next, I single out current view on the concept of instructor engagement, and offer an exhaustive literature review of existing studies that assess instructor engagement behaviors. As a result of that review I identify a set of actions that are not fully accounted in their conceptualization and/or operationalization by these existing concepts. Thus, in an effort to fill the gaps and advance current instructor behavior views I discuss the differences between each of these concepts and instructor engagement, and argue how combining them with affective elements of emotional intimacy and trust leads to best definition of instructor engagement to date. It is the goal of this chapter to address most recent call within *The Handbook of Interpersonal Communication* moved forward by Levine (2011), where he insists that “because it makes little sense to measure something unless you know precisely what it is you want to measure, the most reasonable place to start when thinking about a measure is with the conceptual definition of the construct that is to be measured. Once a good conceptual definition is adopted, then the measure can be created and the validation process can begin” (p.46). Thus, at the end of this chapter I present a thorough conceptualization and operationalization of instructor engagement that guides this entire dissertation.

Review of Existing Instructor Behavior Concepts

Current literature identifies a number of instructor behaviors that contribute to student learning outcomes and the creation of instructor-student relationship that vary in their perceived level of closeness. Among most frequently used and applied behaviors are those of interaction, immediacy, and, in the context of online education, teaching presence. In the next section I present a review of each of these behaviors, and discuss them in order of their progression towards what I argue to be the highest level of instructional involvement in the classroom – instructor engagement.

Interaction

Interaction is defined as “reciprocal events that require at least two objects and two actions... [where] these objects and events mutually influence one another” (Wagner, 1994, p. 8). As such, interaction is a function that can only be facilitated through a conscious effort of users, where mutual two-way communication can influence participants and move them to the new levels of knowledge and understanding. Interaction in instructional environments is a function of effective instruction, where the instructor and the student communicate in a two-way process, consciously and intentionally exchanging information. Instructional interactions, according to Wagner (1994), are meant to “change learners and to move them toward an action state of goal attainment” (p. 8). In short, interaction is conceptualized as a two-way communication exchange between the instructor and the student for the purposes of attaining learning.

Research demonstrates the importance of instructor-student interaction in education, which includes both FtF (Christophel, 1990; Holmgren & Bolkan, 2014; Powers & Rossman, 1985) and OL courses (Arbaugh, 2014; Jiang & Ting, 2000; Picciano, 2002; Swan, 2001). For example, Jiang and Ting (2000) link the quality and quantity of instructor interactions to student learning, finding a positive correlation between a number of instructor responses on discussion boards per student and number of student responses in discussions; and Swan (2001) reports that students who perceived high levels of online instructor interaction had high course satisfaction and higher levels of learning. Interaction has also been linked to student performance in the course (Picciano, 2002), as well as course satisfaction for faculty (Hartman & Truman-Davis, 2001; Wasilik & Bolliger, 2009) and students (Shea, Pickett, & Pelz, 2003).

When conceptualized as a two-way exchange focused on learning, it can be argued that interaction is the foundation for instructor involvement in the classroom that results in positive learning and social benefits, and has implications for the instructor - student relationship (Marks, Sibley, & Arbaugh, 2005). Nevertheless, it is not enough to just interact to reach successful learning and motivation. Woods and Baker (2004) warn against considering interaction as the single factor that creates interpersonal exchanges in the classroom, and remind that interaction can also lead to *impersonal* results. Similarly, Swan (2003) points out that while interaction is sometimes conceptualized as online discussions between instructor and students, there is more to OL course interaction, including communication about assignments, private journaling, and teaching presence in lectures, than just simple back-and-forth exchanges. Thus, while interaction appears to be at the very least the foundation for full instructor involvement with his/her students, communication between the instructor and students could be more than just an exchange of task-related information on an instructional level, taking perhaps a step towards a more interpersonal level of interaction, known in communication literature as immediacy.

Immediacy

Immediacy has been conceptualized as verbal and nonverbal behavior that communicates closeness, interaction, self-disclosure, and praise, as well as reduces psychological and physical distance among communication partners (Mehrabian, 1969; Gorham, 1988; Witt, Wheelless, & Allen, 2004). In a FtF classroom instructional immediacy is communicated through verbal (e.g. self-disclosure, praise, humor) and nonverbal (e.g. touch, eye contact, facial expressions, proximity) behaviors (Christophel, 1990; Rodriguez, Plax & Kearney, 1996). Similarly, in an OL classroom instructors can build immediacy through verbal behaviors (e.g., addressing students by their first names, employing inclusive and powerful language, and demonstrating

care for individual student's progress) (see Adkins & Brashers, 1995; Arbaugh, 2001; Baker, 2004; Conaway, Easton, & Schmidt, 2005; Dobos, 1996; O'Sullivan et al., 2004; Richardson & Swan, 2003; Swan, 2002; Weiss, 2000) and nonverbal behaviors (e.g., various facial expressions when using webcams, Meskill & Anthony, 2014; and emoticons, Aragon, 2004).

Immediacy has been studied in both FtF (Frymier, 1994; Rodriguez et al., 1996; Miller, Katt, Brown & Sivo, 2013; Witt, & Kerssen-Griep, 2011) and OL (Baker, 2010; LaRose & Whitten, 2000) education classrooms, and has been linked to successful student learning outcomes (Arbaugh, 2001; Paechter, Maier, & Macher, 2010), student motivation (Baker, 2010; Christophel, 1990) and student learning satisfaction (Baker, 2004; Swan, 2001). While on the surface the similarities between these findings are striking, the difference in the modes of delivery can contribute to variations in the way immediacy is transmitted and perceived. More specifically, online environments carry unique markers, such as partial anonymity (the degree to which a communicator perceives the message source (not the message itself) unspecified, Scott, 1998) and lack of traditional nonverbal communication, which may problematize certain immediate behaviors, rendering them inefficient or potentially harmful. For example, while humor used in a face-to-face classroom may communicate closeness and connectedness, in the online classroom it is more prone to misinterpretation and offense, as it is difficult to identify whether or not the person who is attempting to use humor is joking or being serious without hearing the tone of his/her voice or seeing his/her facial expressions (Ke & Chavez, 2013). Similarly, online self-disclosure is associated with risks and potentially harmful outcomes, as it may be difficult to evaluate trustworthiness of online partners (Bryce & Fraser, 2014). While immediacy appears to move the concept of instructor involvement in the classroom closer to the interpersonal level, these problematic findings uncover the challenge that the channel of

communication might expose, especially since majority of immediacy research still lies in the face-to-face contexts. Thus, it is fitting to consider a different form of communication that specifically places interaction, immediacy, and other instructor behaviors in the context of online education.

Teaching Presence

The concept of teaching presence evolved from the broader concept of social presence, perhaps one of the most influential concepts that relate user experiences to media characteristics. First introduced by Short, Williams and Christie (1976), social presence was defined as the quality of the communications medium that affects the way individuals perceive the success, the degree, and the nature of their interactions with others. Social presence crosses a variety of contexts (e.g., organizational communication, interpersonal research, education, (Maguire, Heinemann-LaFave, Connaughton, forthcoming)) and has been linked to motivational desire to engage in online interactions (Shen & Khalifa, 2008), interpersonal trust (Bente, Ruggenberg, Kramer, & Eschenburg, 2008; Cyr, Hassanein, Head, & Ivanov, 2007; Gefen & Straub, 2004), feelings of sociability and warmth between partners (Biocca, 1997); disclosure and responsiveness as a result of immediacy and intimacy (Shen & Khalifa, 2008); and, in some cases, maintenance of long distance relationships (Maguire & Connaughton, 2011; Maguire, Heinemann, & Sahlstein, 2013).

In instructional research social presence has become an essential tool in understanding various elements of online education, as it has been found to be a significant predictor of student's satisfaction with online learning (Cobb, 2009; Richardson & Swan, 2003; Zhang, 2010). Course structure, emotional support, and communication medium (So & Brush, 2008) along with interactivity among participants (Kim, Kwon, & Cho, 2011) were all found to be

critical factors that influenced student perceptions of social presence in online courses. Finally, social presence affects learner consciousness and the will to learn, leading to increased learning performance (Garrison & Anderson, 2003; Gunawardena, 1995; Swain, 1995; Yamada, 2009).

The concept of social presence has since been developed into a number of constructs that identified various ways in which communicators form perceptions about being with each other when interacting using communication technologies (e.g., copresence, Nowak, 2001; Zhao & Elesh, 2008; absent presence, Clark, 2007; Gozzi, 2006). One of the constructs that emerged from the overarching concept of social presence is known as teaching presence. Defined as the design, facilitation, and instruction of the educational experience with the purpose of realizing learning outcomes, teaching presence supports meaningful learning and critical thinking, which is exhibited in careful planning of course delivery, active participation in educational processes, and direct instruction (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 1999). The primary goal of teaching presence lies within the instructor (Marks et al., 2005) who is considered “present” in online courses when students know him/her to be attending and participating for the duration of the course (Deris, Zakaria, & Mansor, 2012).

Instructors are able to demonstrate a sense of “being” in the course through various online teaching presence behaviors, such as frequent communication with students (Mandernach et al., 2006), development of audio/video lectures (Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, & Archer, 2001), effective discussion facilitation (Jefferies, Grodzinsky, & Griffin, 2003), self-disclosure and use of inclusive language (Deris et al., 2012), outreach to inactive students (Shea, Fredericksen, Pickett, & Pelz, 2003), monitoring group size (Vonderwell, 2004), and supplementation of online instruction with initial face-to-face sessions (Anderson et al., 2001). Shea, Sau and Pickett (2006) found that students who reported higher levels of instructor

presence behaviors also reported higher levels of learning and community. Similarly, Ice and colleagues (2007) found that audio comments, a technique used to enhance teaching presence, helped students understand nuances of instructor feedback, reinforced feelings of community, and positively influenced perceived learning.

Studies that look at effectiveness of teaching presence on student success and satisfaction report that in courses where instructor exhibits clear “presence” students feel connected to their instructor, and, as a result, tend to participate more frequently and learn more. As such, teaching presence has long been linked to effective course outcomes within learning communities such as perceived learning, course satisfaction, and sense of community (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005; Meyer, 2003; Shea et al., 2003; Swan, 2002; Wu & Hiltz, 2004). Some elements of teaching presence, such as design, organization, discourse facilitation, and direct instructions were linked to student learning (Ma, Han, Yang, & Chen, 2015; Shea et al., 2003); while others, such as audio feedback, were found to influence development of interpersonal relationships between instructor and students (Ice et al., 2007). Teaching presence is an important aspect of instructor engagement in that it demonstrates care for instructional design and student learning specifically in the context of online education.

In review, teaching presence is an important instructor behavior that has been linked to effective course delivery and subsequent learning outcomes. Unfortunately, in its current conceptualization and use, this behavior still falls short of encompassing the highest level of instructor involvement where a more personal level of communication is possible. Recorded lectures and email in an attempt to draw out inactive students, for example, demonstrate teaching presence in that they attempt to establish a sense of community. However, since they are most frequently delivered in asynchronous form, they are likely presented in a one-way format, as an

act towards the students. Thus, transmission of information (i.e., delivery of a lecture or a sent email) does not indicate receipt of the message, nor does it indicate involvement of both parties. A lecture recorded by the instructor and posted in the online course by definition exhibits teaching presence, yet because the same lecture can be reused over and over again in one course after another it does not indicate full involvement, since the instructor could technically post one at the beginning of the course and never actually interact with the student if and when the lecture is watched. Similarly, an email inviting an at-risk student to become more active in the course may go unanswered, thus preventing an exchange that could lead to engagement. Teaching presence is an important aspect of instructor engagement in that it demonstrates care for instructional design and student learning specifically in the context of online education. However, it falls short in encompassing the highest level of instructor involvement due to lack of affective components that truly make the exchange more personal.

Singling Out Instructor Engagement

In review, it appears that while the concepts of interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence demonstrate various levels of communication behaviors that help foster student learning and student motivation in both face-to-face and online classrooms, they still lack some elements that help move instructor-student communication to a more personal level. Thus, it is important to identify a concept that includes an affective component to facilitate perceptions of intimacy and trust that are characteristic of a closer, more personal instructor-student relationship—the one called for in some communication education research (e.g., Pensoneau-Conway, 2009). I argue that *instructor engagement (IE)* may be the term best suited to capture this form of instructor communication where instructors not only interact with their students, but become fully engaged in communicating course content and facilitating close, personal

connections with their students. Before offering my own conceptual definition of IE, however, I examine how others have attempted to conceptualize and/or operationalize the term in communication education research. In the next section I present an exhaustive literature review of these studies.

Review of the Instructor Engagement Literature

Instructor engagement has been accepted by some institutional trainings, and educational and communication researchers as a best practice for fostering student learning success in the classroom. However, there seems to be a lack of specifics as to what exactly instructor engagement is, how it is conceptualized, and how it can be best measured. While interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence are often used as synonyms to instructor engagement, the shortcomings discussed earlier in this chapter lead me to believe that some important elements may have been overlooked or understudied. Thus, in an effort to examine how these three concepts have been used as a way to foster instructor-student relationships in the classrooms, I explored the landscape of studies that examined instructor engagement in higher education classrooms. My purpose was to systematically evaluate the current landscape of communication research, and to identify any existing gaps that could potentially name these missing elements.

Method. To begin my systematic literature review, I first conducted an exhaustive search of various library databases (Communication and Mass Media Complete, ERIC FirstSearch, Proquest, PsychINFO, Dissertation & Theses, and Google Scholar) to identify currently published (up until June 12, 2014) research that referenced the concept or used the term “instructor engagement” in its text. In addition to peer-reviewed scholarly journals, conference proceedings papers, master’s theses, doctoral dissertations, textbooks, and other unpublished working papers were also included in the literature review.

For the purpose of this review, the following search terms were used to identify articles that potentially discuss instructor engagement: “instructor engagement,” “instructor’s engagement,” “instructor-student engagement,” and “instructor to student engagement.” These terms and combinations of terms were specifically selected, as they name the concept that is currently under the investigation for this project. The search process was set up to search for any of these terms in the entire text of a publication. Based on this initial approach, 474 publications were identified. Next, abstracts of research studies were reviewed to ensure that they were, indeed, using the term IE in the context of instructor-student interactions. Publications that did not fall within qualifications were dismissed. Specifically, any publications that did not address the search term/topic (for example, if a term indicated that the engagement was directed towards the process of learning or towards professional development), that used the term in any other context but the context of instructor *to* student engagement (e.g., student *to* instructor engagement, instructor engagement with the Course Management System (CMS) or with the content, or engagement of students in learning), and that were not conducted within higher education context, were dismissed. Additionally, any repeats (doubles and triples of the same publication) were discarded. The first round of review dismissed 369 works leaving 105 publications.

In the third step, the text of each publication was reviewed and evaluated to identify studies that directly or indirectly offered a conceptual and/or operational definition of IE. Studies that simply used IE as a general term to refer to instructor involvement or instructor participation without any clear definition of the term ($n = 24$), or only used the term because it was referenced by a study cited in the paper ($n = 31$) were disregarded from further analysis, leaving a final set of 50 studies for further review.

In the final step, the remaining articles were analyzed, classified, coded, and recorded under a created classification scheme (see Appendix A). As each publication was reviewed, it was coded for presence of conceptual and/or operational definition of Instructor Engagement and if so, whether the definition represented interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, or other.

To recognize whether or not the authors of a given study conceptually defined IE, the text around the term was analyzed to identify the meaning the authors attributed to the construct (Levine, 2011). Although some authors specifically offered a conceptual definition of IE, in most cases the authors would simply discuss key components of IE without fully defining it. If the research identified a specific measure of IE as conceptualized in its text, the measure's variables were listed as its operationalization. If no specific measure was used, but the authors listed variables that were used to measure IE, they were included as part of the operational definition. Using this method, 35 articles offered some sort of both a conceptual and operational definition of IE; one article only offered a conceptual definition of IE; eight articles offered only an operational definition of IE; and six articles offered no clear definition of IE and were excluded from further coding.

The identified definitions were then deductively coded into four categories using existing definitions of interaction (i.e., two way communication exchange between the instructor and the student) ($n = 9$), immediacy (i.e., verbal and nonverbal behavior that communicates closeness, interaction, self-disclosure, and praise, as well as reduces psychological and physical distance among relational partners) ($n = 2$), and teaching presence (i.e., careful planning of course delivery, active participation in educational processes, and direct instruction on behalf of the instructor) ($n = 17$). Given that many conceptualizations of IE were vague at best, coding was based on the operational definition (which gave specific constructs used to

measure IE) when utilized. If the article did not fit in the matching three categories, it was placed in the “other” category ($n = 6$), which was then analyzed to identify themes that represent the studies in the category.

Reliability check. Next, intercoder reliability check was deployed. An outside coder was first trained with the existing codebook (see Appendix A). Twelve articles were randomly selected from the list and the outside coder reviewed each article using existing codebook. The coders disagreed on two out of the 12 articles (Krippendorff’s $a = 0.75$). Through the discussion and further training of the outside coder the disagreement was resolved. Low disagreement rate and further training were deemed sufficient enough for the second coder to perform the official reliability check. Next, twenty different articles were randomly selected to check the reliability of the first round of categories (i.e., “keep for analysis,” “general term,” and “another study”). Coders disagreed on 2 articles, with an intercoder reliability of Krippendorff’s $a = 0.84$. The reliability was deemed strong enough to proceed with the third round of testing. The final reliability check was conducted to review coding for the remaining set of 50 articles in the “keep for analysis” category. Ten articles were randomly selected for detailed coding of the following categories: conceptualization of IE ($a = 0.63$, 1 disagreement), operationalization of IE ($a = 1$, no disagreements), category ($a = 0.85$, 1 disagreement). The remaining categories of mode of course delivery, methodology used, year and place of publication were not checked, as they were clearly evident.

General results. Within the final set of 50 articles (see Table 1), the publication dates ranged between 1998 and 2014 and included working papers ($n = 2$), conference proceedings ($n = 13$), dissertations ($n = 6$), peer-reviewed articles ($n = 27$), and books ($n = 2$). Attending to the mode of course delivery, five discussed FtF courses, 35 discussed online courses, one discussed

a hybrid course, one discussed a combination of an online and hybrid courses, two discussed a combination of online and face-to-face courses, and six did not clearly identify mode of course delivery. Half of the studies were qualitative ($n = 25$), with the other studies utilizing quantitative ($n = 14$) or mixed ($n = 4$) methods; the other seven were literature reviews. An in-depth examination of article groups revealed the patterns discussed next.

Table 1

Articles Examining Instructor Engagement

Author(s)	Type of publication	Applied method	Conceptualization of IE	Operationalization of IE
<i>IE as Interaction</i>				
Al-Hadrami, & Morris (2014)	Journal	Quantitative	instructor's interactivity with students	instructor presence and perception of timely feedback
Bazylak et al. (2013)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	instructor asking students questions	none
Chang (2006)	Dissertation	Quantitative	"interaction between learner's tools use and instructor's responses" (p. 51)	"instructor's response time and the quality of response from the instructor" (p. 44)
Dehler (2004)	Conference Proceedings	Literature Review	"instructor presence and involvement" (p.3)	post regular messages, timely feedback, model expected level of participation
Devi & Francis (2012)	Dissertation	Mixed Method	active involvement and responsiveness with students	timely feedback, frequent interactions with students in chats, discussions, email or face-to-face
Dool (2007)	Journal	Qualitative	active instructor-student interaction	"instructor bookends the course and actively guides the discussion the days in between., mixes

				up his instructional style during the discussions."
Gunn (2014)	Journal	Qualitative	none	interaction through immediate feedback from clickers
Hexom & Menoher (2011)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	instructor interactions in course discussions	use of names, polite conversations, provided examples and samples
Johnson (2007)	Journal	Qualitative	feedback	quantity and quality of feedback
Lear (2007)	Dissertation	Mixed Method	"interacting with [students] and with the course to construct learning" (p.42)	responds to queries, prompt feedback, detailed additional hints to supplement learning
Little-Wiles, Feldhaus & Fox (2013)	Journal	Quantitative	none	synchronous chat sessions
Merrill, DiSilvestro & Young (2003)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	instructor involvement in learning events	amount of log-ins, emails, sent, number of chat postings, number of discussion postings
O'Malley et al. (2003)	Journal	Qualitative	instructor-student interaction	traditional lecture session where the instructor lectures
Roblyer & Wiencke (2003)	Journal	Mixed Method	none	consistent, timely, and useful feedback to students
Roblyer, & Wiencke (2004)	Journal	Quantitative	"Quality and usefulness of interaction" (p.29)	Quality, speed, and usefulness of feedback to students
Salisbury et al. (2002)	Journal	Quantitative	"sense of instructor's efforts to occupy all students in the class discussion" (p.69)	asking questions to interact with students about content
Serduykov &	Conference	Qualitative	instructor participation	patterns of instructor

Hill (2009)	Proceedings		in discussions	posts, such as addressing students by name, addressing 2 or more students by name, addressing the entire class, no address, specifying the topic
Son (2002)	Journal	Quantitative	none	discussion involvement
Stewart, Goodson, & Miertschin, (2010)	Journal	Qualitative	"frequent online interactions with students" (p.661)	asynchronous discussion boards, synchronous Q&A, discussions, presentations
Tesoro (2013)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	instructor feedback and discussion participation	responding to discussion posts
Teckchandani & Khanin, (2014)	Journal	Literature Review	none	timely feedback on team progress
<i>IE as Immediacy</i>				
Middendorf, & McNary (2011)	Journal	Qualitative	"instructor's "connection with students" (p.132)	connectedness - shows respect, caring, listens
Wisembaker (2003)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	"relationship forged between teacher and student"	establishing rapport with students in the first session, instructor interacting with students, Q& A sessions to establish rapport

IE as Teaching Presence

Auman (2011)	Journal	Qualitative	pedagogy of "student-centered, active learning environment"	stimulate student thinking about the subject, express concern for student progress, providing useful feedback, clearly indicating how work is to be evaluated
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Bangert (2008)	Journal	Quantitative	instructor's social and teaching presence	frequent and consistent instructor interactions that clarified misconceptions, posed reflective questions, promoted deeper understanding prompted by differing perspectives and modeled responses representing complex cognitive processing. In addition, learners were provided with direct instruction through e-mail when necessary to clarify concepts and their application (p.15)
Barclay & Osei-Bryson, (2012)	Research in Progress	Quantitative	instructor encouragement	provides necessary help and guidance, encourages use of Utech Online, clearly communicates benefits of using CMSA, is keen to see that students are actively using CMS
Canzonetta, & Newman (2007)	Journal	Literature Review	"overse[ing] myriad aspects of student participation in the classroom"	develop schedules, use real-life apps, require DB participation, hold workshops, update assignments, use UDL
Craves et al. (2002)	Journal	Literature Review	supportive instruction of learning experience	present to guide students, help when needed, help form and test hypotheses, teach along with CMS, not let it do the teaching, guide students, create flexible lectures, sufficient student dialogue
Donaldson & Conrad (2010)	Conference Proceedings	Literature Review	"development of a learning community of engaged participants"	one-on-one, emoticons use, prompt feedback, high level of instructor-

			(p.1)	student communication, answering questions within 24-48 hours, participation in discussions, welcome video
Garrison & Cleveland-Innes (2005)	Journal	Quantitative	none	involvement in and out of conferences (online conferences component) instructor is heavily involved, asks questions to generate thinking, instructor encourages critical reflection
Geer (2000)	Conference Proceedings	Literature Review	none	enthusiasm, involvement, intellectual perception, insight, and scaffolding for the learner, and technology proficiency, integration of life experience, communication, professionalism and content into the learning environment
Kelley & Wallace (2014)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	"instructor to student connection" (p. 2547)	video lectures, welcome videos from the instructor, welcome letters to students, discussion board presence
Ladyshevsy, & Soontiens (2013)	Research in Progress	Qualitative	"active facilitating behavior of the instructor" (p.13)	level of instructor facility, participation in the OL class, welcome message, lectures, discussions, etc.
Lear et al (2009)	Journal	Quantitative	"instructor creates the environment that may foster social interaction" (p.87)	engagement with the course design, course content, and communication (asynchronous and synchronous) with the

				students
Maston (2011)	Dissertation	Quantitative	actions that instigate student's desired learning outcomes in transactional distance environments	structure, dialogue, learner autonomy
Monaco (2014)	Book	Qualitative	"attendance" in the online course	number of times instructor logs in to the online course
Ragan (2009)	Book	Qualitative	none	managing online course, monitor learner performance, establish patterns of course activity, etc.
Tuominen (2013)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	"maintain close supervision and management of the course" (p.3)	course announcements
<hr/> <i>IE as Other</i> <hr/>				
Bloom (2014)	Journal	Qualitative	"come to know students at a [specific] level of intimacy... " (p. 193)	intimacy, connection beyond course end, to know is to advocate, understanding
Castro, D. (2012)	Journal	Journal	instructor participation in blogging	relating to students, helps with process vs. final outcome, provides assurance and guidance, reinforces progress, redirects negative energy, strengthens empathy and authenticity, motivates students to persevere, modeling, student voice leads to empowerment
Durfee & Rosenberg	Journal	Qualitative	listening to students and conveying concern	listening, building trust with students, empathy,

(2009)				being knowledgeable
Marx (2011)	Dissertation	Mixed Method	display of various caring strategies towards students	"feedback [that] include[s] specific comments and praise with caring language and concern for the student's personal situations"
Samora (2013)	Dissertation	Qualitative	actively engaged students through the classroom" (p.87)	expected turnaround time, timely feedback, decreasing the psychological distance
Zhang, Marksbury & Heim (2010)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	"instructor's interpersonal interactions with students"	making jokes, showing enjoyment, affective responses, atypical pedagogy (encourages to pursue other interests, etc.)

IE is identified/ No conceptual or operational definition

Andreatos & Katsoulis (2012)	Journal	Quantitative	none	none
Bickley et al. (2008)	Conference Proceedings	Qualitative	none	none
Eastmond, (1998)	Journal	Literature Review	none	none
Jirjahn, Pfeifer & Tsertsvadze, (2009)	Journal	Quantitative	none	none
Malone & Spieth (2012)	Journal	Quantitative	none	none
Schroeder, Mulligan & Conlan (2010)	Journal	Qualitative	none	none

Instructor engagement as interaction. One of the more common ways that researchers examined IE was similar to interaction, where instructors would exchange information, check for understanding, or exchange feedback messages ($n = 19$). Here, researchers operationalized this behavior by measuring the level of instructor's involvement in course discussions; consistent, timely and useful feedback; and presence of content-related questions to stimulate student learning. Authors exposed instructor engagement as synonymous with the "quality and usefulness of interaction" (Roblyer & Wiencke, 2004, p.29), "instructor's response time and the quality of response from the instructor" (Chang, 2006, p.44), and a "sense of instructor's efforts to occupy all students in the class discussion" (Salisbury, Pearson, Miller, & Marrett, 2002, p.69). It was evident that research in this category placed timely and consistent interactivity or responsiveness as the foundation of communication, with a focus more on quantity than any quality metrics. The focus was exclusively on doing the job of transferring knowledge and ensuring understanding with the identification of frequency and quantity of posts, prompt feedback, and checking for understanding without any indication of measuring the level of personal rapport, student encouragement, or establishing individual connections with students outside of the learning environment.

In regards to operationalization, researchers would measure the level of IE via course discussions (e.g., "instructor's response time and the quality of response from the instructor", Chang, 2006, p.44); consistent, timely and useful feedback (e.g., Roblyer & Wiencke, 2003); and presence of content-related prompts to stimulate student learning (e.g., Steward, Goodson, & Miertschin, 2010). Indeed, although Dehler (2004) includes the term "presence" in the conceptual definition of IE, suggesting it could be classified as teaching presence, the

operationalization of IE remained strictly at the interaction level without going into deeper involvement, and therefore presence, with the students.

Instructor engagement as immediacy. Only two articles conceptualized IE as a behavior where instructor's psychological closeness with students and deep involvement in the process of teaching were emphasized (i.e., immediacy). Researchers made strong recommendations that ideal instructor behavior should aim for connectedness and psychological closeness with students (Middendorf & McNary, 2011; Wisenbaker, 2003) but fell short from calling for a deepening or equalizing of the instructor-student relationship.

In these studies IE was operationalized by measuring instructor's ability to establish personal rapport, willingness to listen, and respect for students. The two studies in this category did not emphasize the importance of a relationship that lasted beyond the class or establishing emotional connections with students. Instead, the focus remained on the teaching process, where some elements like rapport with students via "eye contact and self- and student-directed comments" (Wisenbaker, 2003, p.132) helped enhance the learning process, but not necessarily a deepening relationship between the instructor and the students.

Instructor engagement as teaching presence. Nearly one third of the studies conceptualized instructor engagement as a teaching presence behavior ($n = 17$), emphasizing instructor visibility in the course, as well as active participation and facilitation of the learning experience by engaging not only the students, but the course and the learning materials as well. Specifically, importance of effective and efficient course design that aided in student teaching and learning was an important component of instructor engagement in these studies. This category signifies a deeper, more involved level of instructor participation than mere interaction; a level where instructor engagement appears to take shape of not only as a teaching behavior, but

as an interpersonal relationship-directed behavior. However, close examination of operational variables used to measure this behavior still points to teaching as a focus. Here IE was measured through a variety of functions like maintaining learner support, autonomy and course structure (Craves et al., 2002; Maston, 2011; Ragan, 2009), posting of lectures (Kelley & Wallace, 2014), participating in synchronous chat sessions (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005), using emoticons and expressing enthusiasm and intellectual insight (Geer, 200; Donaldson & Conrad, 2010), providing help and guidance (Auman, 2011; Bangert, 2008; Barclay & Osei-Bryson, 2012), using course announcements and bulletin boards to communicate (Maston, 2011; Tuominen, 2013), logging in to course (Monaco, 2014) and posting regular messages (Canzonetta & Newman, 2007; Kelley & Wallace, 2014; Ladyshewsky & Soontiens, 2013; Lear, Isernhagen, LaCost, & King, 2009) and providing timely assignment feedback (Donaldson & Conrad, 2010).

Instructor engagement as “Other.” Finally, the “Other” category emerged, presenting a number of studies ($n = 6$) where instructor engagement was conceptualized as a function of caring, emotional connection, and trustworthiness in the instructor-student relationship. Specifically, researchers emphasized that in order for the instructor to be truly engaged, in addition to having a teaching relationship, there had to exist a caring relationship between the instructor and the student, where empathy, trust, assurance, guidance, and affective responses were at the center of the communication process. In addition, some studies in this category deconstructed the typical role-based relationship by emphasizing more student empowerment, or focusing on their personal situation.

For example, Marx (2011), found that displaying various caring strategies, such as empathy and affirmation, and using affective engagement, operationalized as “specific comments and praise with caring language and concern for the student’s personal situations” (p.vii) were

essential to demonstrating ideal instructor behaviors in the classroom that lead to increased student engagement, course satisfaction, academic achievement, and, consequently institutional retention. Most importantly, these were defined as the functions of “what a caring graduate instructor-student relationship encompasses in online education” (p.7). Bloom (2014), Durfee and Rosenberg (2009), and Samora (2013) found that instructors who employed good listening, and who developed emotional intimacy and trustworthiness with their students came to know them on a deeper, more intimate level, as well as built trust and created connections that extended beyond the course. Other ways that researchers operationalized instructor engagement included creating a sense of community in the classroom by providing assurance, strengthening empathy and authenticity, redirecting negative energy and empowering students (Castro, 2012), and employing interpersonal interactions that encouraged students in their lives outside the confines of the course (Zhang, Marksburry, & Heim, 2010).

Discussion. The purpose of this review was to examine how the term *instructor engagement* has been conceptualized and operationalized in the communication and education literatures. In doing so, it is possible to determine whether it is the appropriate term to capture instructor behaviors that foster close, personal relationships. This literature review revealed that the term is often used to describe processes that are very similar to ones already captured in terms such as *interaction*, *immediacy*, and *teaching presence*. First, it appears that existing studies either use the terms interchangeably with each other or as a synonym to instructor engagement, without clear conceptualization or operationalization of the latter (e.g., LaRose & Whitten, 2000; Mandernach, Gonzales, & Garrett, 2006; Swan, 2003; Woods & Baker, 2004). Secondly, while all are interconnected features that stress different aspects of instructor behavior, (with interaction stressing an exchange of information, immediacy stressing psychological

connection between the instructor and students, and teaching presence stressing instructor visibility in the course), they fall short of ideal instructor behavior because they are still viewed as behavioral elements in the context of a role-based relationship, where the instructor exerts more power than the student does, thereby preventing a truly “interpersonal” communication from emerging. In fact, it appears that the term *instructor engagement* is generally used to describe instructor participation in the course and instructor’s integration of various learning tools (such as technology) in the classroom (Egan, 2013; Drape, Westfall-Rudd, Doak, Guthrie, & Mykerezi, 2013; Gallini & Baroon, 2001; Gullion & Ellis, 2013), and not the specific behavior that leads to forming of instructor-student relationships where the nature of that power-imbalance is changed.

If true instructor engagement is the expected, wanted, or desired method of communication, then the instructor must change the nature of the power imbalance to achieve this form of instructor behavior by implementing affective elements of trust and emotional intimacy. For example, instructors may empower students through encouraging and supportive behavior, and attempt to minimize power distance with students by relating to students as person to person (as opposed to instructor to student) (Wang, 2004). What emerged in the “Other” category of this review is the behavior that does, in fact, seem to accomplish this task. Specifically, instructor engagement, as it is used in the six publications exposed in this literature review under the “Other” category, essentially, is an overarching term that contains elements of instructional behaviors of interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence, with the addition of affective components (i.e., emotional intimacy and trust) to capture the interpersonal nature of instructional communication (see Bloom, 2014; Castro, 2012; Durfee & Rosenberg, 2009; Marx, 2011; Samora, 2013; Zhang et al., 2010.)

At the same time, the review offers a way to better organize the research and inductively create a clearer conceptual definition of IE to guide future research. In essence, the review suggests that IE is a multi-faceted construct whereby interaction, immediacy, and a sense of teaching presence in online contexts are needed in order to facilitate the creation of close, personal relationships between instructors and students. Without these building blocks, neither instructors nor students may feel motivated or encouraged enough to move beyond just a role-based relationship, but with such a firm foundation, the relationships are allowed to grow.

As exposed in the literature review, interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence are, without a doubt, unique and particularly significant instructional research concepts in their role in connecting instructor to students and potential to establish a relationship that helps learners succeed and feel academically motivated. Indeed, students may first need to see that instructors have course content knowledge, can design the course with students in mind, and interact in ways that communicate immediacy and presence to establish trust in the role-based relationship, which is the foundation of the instructor-student relationship. This is represented in the studies that use IE to describe instructor participation in the course and the integration of various learning tools (such as technology) in the classroom (Drape, Westfall-Rudd, Doak, Guthrie, & Mykerezi, 2013; Egan, 2013; Gallini & Barron, 2001; Gullion & Ellis, 2013). Then, with that trust in place, instructors and students can start exploring a deeper relationship characterized by intimacy and closeness that come to represent true instructor engagement with students. This version of IE is captured by the studies where instructors empower students through encouraging and supportive behavior, and attempt to minimize power distance with students by relating to them as person-to-person (as opposed to instructor to student) (Wang, 2004). The six studies (Bloom, 2014; Castro, 2012; Durfee & Rosenberg, 2009; Marx, 2011; Samora, 2013; Zhang et

al., 2010) that represent this version of IE contain an affective component (e.g., emotional intimacy and trust) that evokes emotions in both the instructor and their students allowing to go beyond the highly scripted instructor-student relationship toward the formation of a more personal relationship (Perlman & Vangelisti, 2006). Following the results of this literature review, I propose (1) a conceptualization of instructor engagement, and (2) a clear distinction between this and other instructor behaviors (i.e., interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence) in the classroom.

Conceptualizing Instructor Engagement

As an outcome of an exhaustive literature review, I argue that instructor engagement is a conceptually and operationally different from the other instructor behaviors. More specifically, I suggest that instructor engagement denotes quality interactions that are better signified as interpersonal communication encounters between the instructor and students that significantly impact student learning outcomes in either positive or negative ways, depending on the needs, expectations, and desires of the participants involved. A unique and distinct conceptualization of the instructor engagement is needed to best capture all possible ways that educators are being taught to behave in instructional contexts, and until we can fully single out instructor engagement as a unique concept, we cannot measure the impact it may have in a classroom or otherwise. With that, instructor engagement is conceptualized as *mutual, intimate, intentional and reciprocal interactions with students, meant to foster a supportive relationship that aims to significantly minimize or reduce any potential power structure or role-based communication that may exist between the two communicators by fostering the development of affective relational bonds, such as trust and intimacy*. In the next section, I demonstrate how each of the existing

instructor behaviors identified in current literature (i.e., interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence) build up to a more elevated behavior, named in this dissertation as IE.

Instructor Engagement

While each of the three behaviors of interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence are unique and distinctive in its contributions to student learning and student motivation in the classroom, they do not fully capture the level of instructor behavior that is expected and taught in current research and institutional trainings, or that is singled out in some of the literature reviewed for this study. Thus, it is evident that this existing constellation of instructor behaviors falls short of capturing another unique instructor behavior, named in this dissertation as the concept of *instructor engagement*. In the next section I discuss how each of the existing behaviors not only falls short of fully capturing this unique concept, but builds up to it as well, and present a process through which IE is conceptualized.

Interaction and IE. One of the first instances where the concept of interaction was conceptualized beyond looking at it as a simple exchange of information was in Garrison and Cleveland-Innes's (2005) study, where the researchers first argued that interaction is not just an exchange of information, but a pre-condition for purposeful and meaningful learning experience (p. 135). Moreover, they attempted to redefine the concept of instructional interaction, operationalizing it with further variables that include qualitative aspects, such as critical thinking, meaningful discourse, etc. They argue that whereas interaction (as it has been conceptualized in the past) is a simple exchange of information necessary to confirm understanding and set stage for the flow of communication between the instructor and the student, they introduce the alternate term *engagement* to signify a more meaningful process that is "meant to influence thinking in a critical and reflective manner" (p. 134) measured through the quality of discourse,

such as structure and cohesiveness (Aviv, Erlich, Ravid, & Geda, 2003; Thomas, 2002) and instructor's leadership (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2004; Meyer, 2003) among other things. According to Garrison and Cleveland-Innes (2005), in addition to exchanging information, students must be provided with purposeful and meaningful discourse, along with structure and instructor leadership, in order to fully function in the classroom and to participate in deep-level learning. This study provides the first indication that there is something "more" than interaction; however, the fact that the researchers continued to use the terms *interaction* and *engagement* interchangeably suggests the need for further conceptualization of the latter term.

Another aspect missing from the research is an understanding of the messages that are exchanged during these interactions. Specifically, some messages may dive deeper into the relationship level, including positive verbal and nonverbal behavior that communicates a variety of messages seeking to enhance the relationship between students and their instructors. As the study by Garrison and Cleveland-Innes's (2005) pointed out, IE was sometimes equated with this deeper level of communication, suggesting then that immediacy may also be included in the model.

Immediacy and IE. Although immediacy has been studied and used in the context of instructional communication as an important element of effective teaching practices (both online and face-to-face), it is yet to fully move into the interpersonal realm. Part of the challenge is in reducing psychological distance between the instructor and the student, as immediacy is still communicated within a role-based context, where there are students and the instructor, each fulfilling a subordinate or a superior role. From a critical pedagogy perspective, inequality of teacher-student relationship interferes with not only immediacy, but also learning and critical thinking in the classroom (Shor, 1996). For years researchers have called for reconciliation of

this inequity to reach a point where both sides are “simultaneously teachers *and* students” (Freire, 2000, p.59). Sharing and negotiating authority helps students feel as part of the process and helps them engage in learning. For example, Weaver and Qi (2005) report that engaging students in various activities alongside the instructor (such as scholarship activities, academic conferences, etc.) helps reduce the power distance between the instructor and students, engenders student confidence, and encourages class participation. Pensoneau-Conway (2009) writes that embracing emotional connections with students leads to relationships and enhances pedagogical influences.

Although immediacy may help reduce the student-teacher psychological divide, it is still conceptualized as a teacher-initiated action that is done “to” or “at” the student, as opposed to something enacted “with” the student. With that, existing power differentials prevent immediacy from truly decreasing the psychological distance that is inherently a part of the instructor-student relationship. Interestingly, studies in current literature review appear to indicate that there is something more about instructor-student interactions. Specifically, that being involved in teaching is more about having a connectedness with students by showing respect, caring, and being involved, taking a less teacher-driven approach and being more reflective of the mutual equality level in communication (see Carroll & Pinnow, 2011; Middendorf & McNary, 2011).

Furthermore, instructor engagement is viewed as a shared activity between instructor and students, making it accomplishable only within the context of an active community of learners (Rovai, 2001). Specifically, while an effectively designed course may create an opportunity for a community to exist, there is no community unless the participants actually engage each other and the instructor (Arbaugh & Hwang, 2006). And while it may be easy to assume that the online environment may challenge such concept of community, current research indicates that online

classrooms are equally capable of establishing active communities of learners, potentially setting the foundation for instructor engagement in online classrooms. Even more, Caris, Ferguson and Gordon (2002) argue that communication style in online courses has potential for greater student/instructor equality than face-to-face courses, as partial anonymity may potentially influence the distribution of power among users. With that, it is fitting to discuss the concept of teaching presence, which looks at instructor behaviors and their influence on student motivation and learning specifically in online classrooms.

Teaching presence and IE. While teaching presence clearly impacts effective course delivery and subsequent learning outcomes, its utilization, yet again, appears to be more of a one-way act, conceptualized as transmission of information, and not co-creation of meaning involving both parties. Instructors who demonstrate teaching presence are active and involved, but not fully engaged in that they do not necessarily create meaningful relationships with their students through course design and delivery. There is little relationship in the way instructors, for example, reach out to inactive students or present course information. The ultimate goal for such communication behavior is to create a classroom where students are able to locate information easily, and learn efficiently, and not necessarily where they feel comfortable disclosing personal information or sharing private thoughts with their instructor. It is, however, once again, a precondition for that next tier of instructor behavior. In the literature review, researchers conclude that instructor engagement depends on teaching presence, stating that in order for the communication levels between the instructor and the student reach engagement, instructors must exhibit high and frequent involvement in discussions, provide timely constructive feedback, encourage student attendance and participation, and be generally involved in the online course (see Devi & Francis, 2012; Hexom & Menoher, 2011; Merrill, DiSilvestro, & Young, 2003).

In review, interaction is conceptualized as a two-way communication exchange between the instructor and the student for the purposes of attaining learning. Immediacy is defined as verbal and nonverbal behavior that aims to reduce psychological and physical distance among communication partners. Teaching presence is defined as design, facilitation, and instruction of the educational experience with the purpose of realizing learning outcomes. What makes these three behaviors unique and particularly significant to instructional research is their role in connecting instructor to students, as well as their potential to establish a relationship that helps learners succeed and feel academically motivated. They are interconnected features that stress different aspects of instructor behavior, with interaction stressing an exchange of information, immediacy stressing psychological connection between the instructor and students, and teaching presence stressing instructor visibility in the course. However, these three elements may not be enough to achieve ultimate student learning outcomes, as they appear to fall short of instructor engagement in that they are still viewed as behavioral elements in the context of a role-based relationship, where the instructor exerts more power than the student does, thereby preventing a truly “interpersonal” communication from emerging. It is evident that in addition to these behaviors, instructors are also being taught to communicate with their students in such ways that leads to formation of more personal relationships through incorporation of affect that evokes emotions towards themselves and others (Vangelisti, 2013). As discovered in the literature review, it appears that the personal level of interaction occurs through addition of affective elements, which complete the model of existing behaviors by reducing psychological distance between communicators, as well as diminishing the power structure between the instructor and the student. In the next section, I discuss each of these elements in greater depth.

Trust. By definition, trust consists of willingness to rely on another person and feelings of confidence in another partner and in the strength of a relationship, and develops as a relationship matures (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). Given the extent to which trust develops only as a result of enacted communication and transactional exchanges that are built upon each other as a result of continuous and supportive communication, this concept is a needed addition to the conceptualization of IE presented in this review. Nodding's care theory (1988) asserts that instructors should develop trust with students by applying three strategies - prompt feedback and availability, concern for personal situations, and caring language (all of which resemble forms of interaction and immediacy behaviors). Celano and Mitchell (2014) found that a trusting relationship between a mentor and a mentee enhanced teaching efficacy; Van Maele and colleagues (2014) presented a compilation of studies to show the impact that trust has on bringing equity and effectiveness to various learning and teaching relationships; and Wang (2014) reported that students who developed trust in their instructors transitioned their instructor-student relationships from simply pedagogical to interpersonal. These findings point to the importance that trust plays in creating supportive relationships and signifies the need to include measures of trust in instructor-student communication.

Emotional intimacy. The other affective element of instructor engagement is emotional intimacy, defined as a "perception of closeness to another that allows sharing of personal feelings, accompanied by expectations of understanding, affirmation, and demonstration of caring" (Sinclair & Dowdy, 2005, p. 194). Emotional intimacy is a foundation for close relationships that not only enhances a relationship, but influences communication exchanges by creating an environment where interpersonal communication may flourish (Goleman, 1996; Rau, Gao, & Dink, 2008). This affective component has been studied in different types of contexts,

including romantic relationships (Michaels & Johnson, 2014), marriages (Bagarozzi, 2014; Zimmer-Gembeck, Arnhold, & Connolly, 2014), same-sex friendships (Lewis, 1978; Williams, 1985), online communities (Rau et al., 2008), intercultural friendships (Maier, Zhang, & Clark, 2013), and mental health cases (McAdams & Bryant, 1987). Given the significance that emotional intimacy has on relationship development (Altman and Taylor, 1973), it is only fitting that this concept also has a place in the context of instructor-student communication. Muirhead (2004) suggests that students who feel emotional connection with their instructors are more successful in their online courses, and Bennets (2002) reports that intimacy in mentor-mentee relationships is essential. As instructors and students engage in ways that show a joint investment in the encounter, such communication can foster emotional intimacy and, potentially, lead to interpersonal relationships, which some researchers (e.g., Frymier & Houser, 2000; Worley et al., 2007) claim is wanted and needed by students in order to succeed in college. With that, consideration for inclusion of emotional intimacy and trust in instructional contexts is essential to understanding the further evolution of the instructor-student relationship from a role-based one to a truly personal relationship.

In summary, instructor engagement is conceptualized as the highest, most personal level of instructional communication in the classroom that incorporates interaction (i.e., a two-way transactional communication exchange between the instructor and the student), immediacy (i.e., an intention to reduce psychological distance between the instructor and the student through both verbal and nonverbal communication), and teaching presence (i.e., a communication that is intended to create an instance of teaching and learning discourse with a sense of active instructor presence). But even more, instructor engagement involves mutual, intimate, intentional and reciprocal interactions with students, meant to foster a supportive relationship that aims to

significantly minimize or reduce any potential power structure or role-based communication that may exist between the two communicators by fostering the development of affective relational components such as trust and intimacy. With a clearer conceptualization of instructor engagement, it is now possible to evaluate whether this level of communication is desired by students (and, in the future studies) instructors alike, and how IE is associated with important course and learning outcomes. The research examined in this systematic review suggests that it is, indeed, important to successful classroom environments, but with studies emerging that question the importance of behaviors associated with IE (Ma, Han, Yang, & Cheng, 2015; Webb & Barrett, 2014), particularly within the online environment (Beaudoin, 2013; Tunks & Hibberts, 2015), it is now possible to take the next step and systematically assess such associations. With that, this study is taking the first step by assessing the fit of this behavior with students' values of other instructor behaviors in both face-to-face and online contexts.

CHAPTER 3 IDENTIFYING THE RESEARCH GAP: POSING RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Conceptualizing instructor engagement as a complete set of instructor behaviors recognizes the existence of different expectations for these behaviors in both FtF and OL classrooms. Since educational and pedagogical research intends to identify best ways to help students learn and succeed in their higher education pursuits, it is only fitting that students are actively involved in identifying the most desirable and satisfactory ways they can be taught. With that, a student's opinion in regards to instructor's classroom behavior expectations should be taken seriously (see Sander, Stevenson, King, & Coates, 2000). This study sets precedent by starting an important dialogue about these expectations. In the next chapter I identify an existing scholarship gap, discuss a theory best suited to provide a framework for my investigation, and present formulation of research questions and hypotheses guiding this study.

Identifying the Research Gap

Objectivism vs. Constructivism

To set the stage for the purpose of this study, it is important to examine the foundation of educational approaches – learning theories that relate to the way instructors teach their courses. Two of the most widely encompassing learning theories in the field of education are objectivism (behavioral) and constructivism (learner-centered) (Schunk, 2000). Behaviorism position emphasizes the individual nature of teaching, where a learner has to acquire knowledge of a certain element before he/she can proceed to the next element. A teacher who employs behaviorism position of learning essentially targets each individual's needs, and shapes learner's behavior by reinforcing it or applying necessary stimuli until the desired change in behavior occurs. In contrast, constructivism embraces a type of instruction where teachers assist learners

in creating their own understanding and constructing their own knowledge (Mager & Clark, 1963; Skinner, 1981). Educational tradition began with teacher-centered method, but a paradigm shift in education has caused the system to move away from the behaviorist model of learning and adopt a more learner-centered approach, creating a curricula that are designed around learning outcomes rather than content (Lin & Hsieh, 2001). In short, learning theory within the educational field has shifted from objectivism (behavioral) to constructivism (learner-centered). Constructivist approach to learning puts students' prior knowledge at the foundation of constructing new knowledge based on past and present experiences, and requires instructor understanding and support of such knowledge-creation. This model is much more transactional in a sense that it focuses on mutual knowledge creation on behalf of both parties, thus reflecting a more engaged instruction.

In a traditional FtF classroom constructivism is embraced through instructional design where learning is student-driven and actively supported by the instructor (Yilmaz, 2008). While the instructor remains the teacher, students are able to enhance and alter curriculum within limits to meet their learning goals and objectives. In this sense, the instructor becomes less of a "transmitter" and more of a "facilitator" of knowledge, where students are able to co-create meaning with the instructor, becoming engaged in their own learning and in their communication with each other and with the instructor. Similarly, the ideal OL course in the constructivist tradition is interactive, engaging, and stimulating, a place where students feel as a part of an online learning community, similar (or maybe even more engaging) to that which they may experience in a face-to-face institution. Learners' perceptions of belonging to a learning community influence success in OL learning (Bernard, de Rubalcava, & St-Pierre, 2000), pointing to the importance of creating sociable collaborative learning environments where both

educational and social functionalities are utilized (Kreijns, Kirschner, Jochems, & van Buuren, 2007).

Cooperative learning in both FtF and OL classrooms allows students to create knowledge as it is being shared; where the more information is shared, the more it is learned; and where participation is critical to the process (Lin & Hsieh, 2001). Such a model is reflective of the highest level of engagement, highlighting the importance of mutually invested parties (i.e., the instructor and the student) and their dependence on each other for success in current and future communication exchanges. Courses with this model support a constructivist style of learning, where instructors actively encourage students to use their prior knowledge and experiences to construct new understanding. This results in a student-centered learning environment, promotes positive perceptions of learning in general (Ouzts, 2006), helps develop a stronger sense of community among students (Dawson, 2006), fosters social presence, and positively affects learning (Joo, Lim, & Kim, 2011). Furthermore, such construction of knowledge within an active community of learners establishes an environment favorable to creation of interpersonal relationships, as open discussions and dynamic exchange of information foster feelings of closeness, emotional connections, and trust among participants (Rovai, 2004).

Whereas research has embraced the shift to constructivism as an ideal environment for learning, little is known about whether or not all students share this same paradigm shift. While learner-centered environment is a contributing factor to successful course outcomes, it is also possible that some students (specifically in OL classrooms) are not as accepting of this new model as the research might indicate, instead, wanting a more independent style of learning that centers around self-directed knowledge gain. For example, Anderson (2004) found that students were quite juxtaposed in their preferences for type of OL course format. While some were

excited about the “immediacy of real-time communication” (p. 349), others preferred to work on their own time and not be constricted with synchronicity. As a result, Anderson (2004) reports that a number of institutions have adopted paced and unpaced course models to attempt to meet these different student needs. With that, it is possible that some students may prefer the behaviorist model of education in that they desire a one-way delivery of content, and hope that online education may, in some way, satisfy their preference. Likewise, instructors may also wish to take a student-centered approach to their own teaching style and adopt the behaviors that students favor to strengthen learning outcomes and student motivation. This cannot be accomplished through training-based one-size-fits-all model of how an instructor should behave. Given these issues, this study attempts to investigate what students require, expect, and desire in an ideal instructor to address these concerns.

Interpersonal Concepts in Online Learning

Another important element of exploring best ways to educate in both FtF and OL classrooms is a focus on communication concepts that contribute to humanizing the learning experience and making it interesting and engaging. Interpersonal communication concepts that are often studied in traditional FtF classrooms, such as nonverbal communication, immediacy, trust, and emotions have also become a research focus in online classrooms. Due to the nature of the OL education context where reduced social cues and communication occur in both synchronous and asynchronous interactions, and as indicated by the inconsistent findings discussed earlier that question whether various instructor behaviors are always beneficial, it is likely that many of these concepts take a different shape online. Whereas research has demonstrated that teacher immediacy in both FtF and OL classrooms influences student learning (Arbaugh, 2001; Comadena, Hunt & Simonds, 2007; Paechter et al., 2010; Qin & Sapp, 2007),

the way that immediacy is achieved across the two contexts is different. For example, in FtF contexts, nonverbal interaction is the key to instructor immediacy (Witt et al., 2004), whereas in OL contexts creative use of verbal or written interaction facilitates perceptions of immediacy (Swan, 2002). Similarly, FtF researchers identify trust as an important component of a traditional classroom, noting that students identify effective teachers as those who earn student trust by being open, honest, and skilled (Brookfield, 2009).

In OL environments trust research indicates that while communities rely on interpersonal trust in order to survive and to thrive, there is a difference in the way trust is developed and transferred from daily life to online (Feng, Lazar, & Preece, 2004). Huang and Murnighan (2010) found that interpersonal trust occurs quite rapidly, even before conscious awareness of such an action, and where facial behaviors are used as an indication of person's reliability or trustworthiness (Van't Wout & Sanfey, 2008). While in a physical environment communicators have the opportunities to rely on these cues to develop trust, in virtual environments that might be more challenging, given a frequent absence of facial cues. Feng and colleagues (2004) found that people who are trusting in their traditional lives have more difficulties transferring that trust to OL communities, a notion made even more difficult if the communities are unfamiliar to a user (Ishaya & Mundy, 2004). Grabner-Kräuter & Bitter (2015) discussed OL trust development process by reviewing ways in which users make a conscious effort to explore virtual communities and develop trust from various components such as first impressions and perceptions, evaluation of the environment, categorization of other users' memberships, or reputation of others who have already developed their own trust in the environment or others users. In essence, trust online is developed with much more conscious and deliberate effort, than it is in FtF interactions. Given all the noted differences in the way immediacy and trust concepts

emerge in FtF and OL could also mean the differences in the way students prefer to learn, leading to question whether or not it is beneficial to assume that what works on one mode of delivery will just as successfully work in another.

Furthermore, it is also questionable if all of these concepts are even desirable in both FtF and OL instructional contexts in the first place. It appears that today's students are much different from students of the past, leading to question the currency and applicability of past instructor behavior research. Beaudoin (2013) questions the expectations of OL instructors as mandated by previous research, indicating that there is a discrepancy in what is expected of instructors and what students appear to want in the OL classroom. His central argument is that with

the next wave of e-learning tsunami, with the prospect of a less involved, or at least less prominent role for instructors, it seems useful to examine the notion of instructor presence in online settings, and to inquire if the historically critical role of the professoriate as the lead player in the teaching-learning relationship is still vital and viable (p. 234).

In a sense, Beaudoin (2013) is calling for investigation of traditional views of expected behaviors wondering about the need for the instructor to step away from the leadership roles and explore less involved options (perhaps suggesting that instructors could be taking on facilitating vs. teaching roles in the classroom). His claim is substantiated with a number of mentioned studies that contradict existing traditions of instructor behavior expectations in both FtF and OL contexts. Once again, expected, required and desired instructor behaviors are not as clearly evident as they may have been in the past.

Up until now certain instructor behaviors have been known to create goodwill with students and increase instructor likeability, leading to higher student retention and satisfaction with the course. For example, humor (Wanzer et al., 2010) and self-disclosure (Schrodt, 2013) have been accepted, when used appropriately, to increase student's perception of instructor credibility in traditional classrooms, as well as enhance student learning outcomes and communication both inside and out of class (Goodboy, Booth-Buttefield, Bolkan, & Griffin, 2015; Sarapin & Morris, 2015). Interestingly, most recent research is finding that such behavior could, in fact, be creating an opposite effect. Indeed, Miller and colleagues (2014) found that such instructor engagement behaviors were positively correlated with student's incivility, and students in traditional classrooms reported having less credibility in instructors who engaged in self-disclosure. With that, enacting pedagogy where power distance is reduced and students see their instructor as more of a "peer" and less as an instructor could, in fact, backfire and (as demonstrated in aforementioned studies) cause students to misbehave more.

Given the contradictory evidence presented thus far, it is possible that student expectations of instructor involvement may not be as clear as they are presumed to be, or may have evolved or changed. While the current constructivist approach posits that students should be actively encouraged by instructors to participate in knowledge construction, and the instructors are expected to do so to drive successful learning and social outcomes in the classrooms, this model may not be appropriate, given some research that indicates otherwise (e.g., Anderson, 2004; Beaudoin, 2013). It is arguable that instructional design should stand against the "one size fits all" model and accept that other models of teaching could also be appropriate. For example, some students who do not value instructor involvement and, instead, prefer the behaviorist model of education, may be more successful in courses where such learning position is expected and

supported, rather than discouraged. Investigation of such requirements could strengthen our understanding of this potential need for change.

Disciplinary Differences

Another important consideration of the extent of instructor involvement in the classroom has to do with an answer to the following question: Does the discipline matter? A number of researchers suggest disciplinary variations in both teaching practices and beliefs (Barnes & Patterson, 1988; Braxton & Hargens, 1996; Feldman, 1978, 2007), students' experiences of the teaching-learning environments (Laird et al., 2008; Parpala et al., 2010; Smith & Miller, 2005) and even teaching policy (Kekale, 1999). For example, research that evaluates teaching evaluations suggests that instructors of arts, humanities, and social sciences generally receive higher teaching evaluations than those in the engineering and science disciplines (see Kember & Leung, 2011, for review of findings). Similarly, students in sciences and applied sciences disciplines are more likely to apply surface learning approaches (learning for reproduction), whereas students in soft disciplines are more inclined to apply deep learning approach (focusing on the meaning) (Parpala et al., 2010; Smith & Miller, 2005). Among potential explanations are possibilities of differences in paradigmatic assumptions, natural presence or absence of dialogue, hours of contact and preparation time, and expectations of different learning outcomes.

One of the most common explanations for these variations is the influence of paradigmatic assumptions and language specificity on teaching. For example, both Neumann and Neumann (1985) and Laird and colleagues (2008) suggested that soft disciplines such as humanities and arts have fewer consensuses on origins and development of their disciplines' paradigms, which, in turn, creates more avenues for course discussions; whereas science disciplines are more rigid in paradigmatic development, thus requiring less argumentation and

more rigid style of teaching. Such is also demonstrated in Redmond and colleagues' (2014) study of student participation in OL discussions in two different classes – education and engineering. Redmond, Devine and Basson (2014) found that students in the soft sciences class (education) demonstrated more interaction and social engagement, posting much lengthier discussions, and participating much more frequently than students in hard sciences (engineering) course.

Another explanation for disciplinary variations in teaching environments is a natural presence or absence of expected dialogue. For example, instructors of humanities presumably spend most of their teaching time in lectures and seminars, whereas instructors in natural sciences and technology spend most of their time in lab exercises and field trips (Smeby, 1996). Murray and Renaud (1995) found similar teaching style differences between arts and humanities disciplines (where instructors utilized wider range of interaction and rapport behaviors) and natural sciences (where instructors exhibited more structured and organized behaviors).

A third explanation for disciplinary variations in teaching environments is the amount of hours of contact and preparation time, as well as course load numbers. For example, both Smeby (1996) and Benjamin (1998) found that part-time instructors in vocationally oriented disciplines (such as law, business, physical and engineering sciences) are more likely to share their nonacademic professional experience in the classroom, and to be more academically and professionally involved with their institutions, than part-time instructors in liberal arts-oriented disciplines (such as literature, fine arts, sociology, political sciences). Furthermore, Smeby (1996) found that academics in soft pure disciplines spend most of their time teaching, and prepare for classes with more time devotion than those in hard applied disciplines.

Finally, differences may be due to the nature of learning outcomes expected within each discipline. Ylijoki (2000) suggested that social and behavioral sciences place more emphasis on

critical analysis and intellectual growth of students within these disciplines, which offers an explanation for the differences with which students within these disciplines approach their learning (applying deep approaches to learning in soft disciplines such as education, and the humanities, vs. surface approaches applied in hard disciplines, such as physics; see Laird et al., 2008; Parpala et al., 2010; Smith & Miller, 2005).

It also appears that even instructors' teaching approaches are influenced by academic discipline within which they are schooled (Braxton & Hargens, 1996; Lindblom-Ylänne et al., 2006; Stes, Coertjens, & Van Petegem, 2009). It is quite likely that instructors' knowledge, values, and beliefs about their chosen disciplines transfer to their teaching styles and approaches, reflecting differences in disciplinary knowledge validation and transmission. Lueddeke (2003), for example, suggests that teaching in hard disciplines is more likely to take on a teacher-centered approach, where transmission of information takes precedence over interaction and discussion, and the focus is on student retention and problem-solving.

The reviewed research suggests that disciplinary differences may contribute to variation in student needs for various instructor behaviors, although it is less clear how these may be tied to teaching effectiveness. Indeed, it is important to note that studies show that perceptions of teaching effectiveness when examining the influence of discipline on teaching did not yield significant differences (See Kember & McNaught, 2007; Murray & Renaud, 1995). This means that while these differences are essential in considering the optimal ways to create the teaching-learning environment, they potentially might be less influential on the actual effectiveness of the instruction.

Furthermore, these results indicate that the existence of these differences is not significant enough to impact students' perceptions of teaching effectiveness (Kember & Leung,

2011), suggesting that there are other things that might influence these perceptions. For instance, some research proposes that students from various discipline fields are much more similar in their expectations and preferences of various teaching, learning, and assessment practices employed in their education (Sander, Stevenson, King, & Coates, 2000). Sander and colleagues (2000), for instance, found that students from medical, business studies, and psychology fields expected formal and interactive lectures, but preferred interactive lessons and group-based activities. Similarly, students of both disciplines identified good teaching skills and instructor's approachability as their preferred course instructor. Hativa and Birenbaum (2000) also found that education and engineering students share their preferences for instructors who teach with clarity and interest, but do differ in their preferences for the style of teaching (with engineering students preferring structured and organized teaching more than education students). As such, it is important to investigate how students' disciplinary fields impact choices for specific instructor behaviors within academic environments, and influence their academic motivation.

Academic Motivation

One of perhaps most important concepts in educational research is that of academic motivation – an important component in learning in any educational environment (Maehr, 1984). Much research has shown that motivation in educational settings is related to persistence in OL (Holder, 2007; Parker, 2003) and FtF (Boyd, 2002, Allen, Robbins, Casillas, & Oh, 2008), academic performance (FtF, Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Struthers, Perry, & Menec, 2000), cognitive engagement (FtF, Walker, Greene, Mansell, 2006), and success in class (OL, Artino Jr., & Stephens, 2009). Motivation has been theorized by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991) to have three dimensions: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is the dimension that refers to performing behaviors for

pleasure and satisfaction derived from performing an activity. In education, intrinsically motivated students engage in learning because they want to master the subject, are curious to learn, and enjoy to be challenged. The second dimension, extrinsic motivation, is derived from the incentives or consequences of performing a certain activity (which ranges from external regulation, doing activities as dictated by externally controlled factors like rewards or threats, to integrated regulation, doing activities because of their relationship to achieving personal goals, like enhancing self-concept). Extrinsically motivated students are concerned with external rewards and approval they will gain from others as a result of pursuing their education. A final dimension, amotivation, is the least self-determined behavior where individuals simply do not perceive any benefits for doing a certain activity. Amotivated students are unclear in their reasons for studying at a higher education institution, as well as feel little to no control over their future and feel incompetent in their learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991).

Among these three factors (i.e., internal motivation, external motivation, and amotivation), internal motivation has been found to be the most important and the most persuasive in learning (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Human beings who are internally motivated and are free of extraneous pressures and resentment that may be caused by extrinsic and amotivation, are most likely to be satisfied and to feel motivated to learn (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Thus, students who feel like they have a “free choice” when it comes to their learning and who frame their goals internally appear to be more motivated and show deeper engagement in learning (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). Furthermore, intrinsic motivation has been linked to instructor-student relationships, showing that there is correlation between instructor’s communication style and student’s internal motivation. For example, Noels and colleagues (1999) found that external motivation (i.e., learning for material rewards or because

of outside pressure) was not conducive to student success, yet when these same students felt they were enjoying their learning (i.e., felt intrinsically motivated) they were more inclined to continue doing so. In the same study, intrinsic motivation was found to be associated with the instructor's communication style, where teacher's language that was perceived to be controlling and unclear decreased both intrinsic motivation and identified regulation. These findings suggest a clear and powerful connection between teacher's communication behaviors and student motivation, singling out intrinsic motivation as the determining factor in influencing student overall motivation for learning.

Studies in both FtF (Gaston-Gayles, 2004; Schunk, 1991; Turner, Chandler, Heffer, 2009) and OL education (Artino Jr. & Stephens, 2009; Dabbagh & Bannan-Ritland, 2005) found that academic motivation impacts success in learning environments. Eppler and Harju (1997), for example, found that academic motivation towards learning related to more time spent on studying the material and greater academic achievement, suggesting that academic motivation to set learning goals (vs. reaching a certain performance goal) contributes to academic persistence. When exploring various elements of academic motivation that contribute to student success and affect student motivation, Van Etten and colleagues (2008) conducted ethnographic interviews which resulted in identifying both internal (including student characteristics such as social class, expectations, etc.; and student beliefs, such as beliefs about control or learning), and external factors (including academic-related factors such as course-related characteristics, etc.; social factors, such as instructors and family members, etc.; general college environment factors, such as academic associations and volunteer opportunities; and extracurricular activities).

Examining various elements of academic motivation is as prevalent in OL classrooms, as research has shown that in order for student to succeed in the online classroom, they need to be

highly motivated (Azevedo, 2005; Dabbagh & Bannan-Ritland, 2005). In an extensive review of literature Miltiadou and Savenye examined six motivational constructs of self-efficacy, locus of control, attributions, goal orientation, intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation, and self-regulation; and related them to OL environments by suggesting a variety of methods to ensure student success in OL classrooms. Similarly, Bell and Akroyd (2006) and Artino (2007) found that motivated and self-regulated OL learners are more likely to excel academically. These various investigations into motivation and its impact on student achievement suggest that there is a variety of factors that not only go in to influence academic motivation, but also demonstrate the importance of evaluating the reasons why academic motivation and academic success are so important to consider when evaluating educational environments.

It has also been suggested that instructor-student relationships influence academic motivation and determine student success. For example, Jaasma and Koper (1999) and Jones (2008) found a positive relationship between instructor-student out of class communication and academic motivation. And whereas in a traditional classroom environment out-of-class support may be enacted any time students and the instructor are not interacting during class hours, in an OL environment it is possible that any support offered outside of the realm of the learning platform could be considered to be an out-of-class support. Otherwise, it is possible to also assume that all communication happening from the first day of student enrollment in the OL course to the day the course ends is considered to be happening “in-class.” With that, research that supports the importance of out of class support could be useful to apply in the OL learning environment yielding the same or potentially similar outcomes.

Interpersonal interactions between teachers and students help them to develop interpersonal relationships with each other (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Hosek & Thompson, 2009;

Sherblom, 2010), which are essential in not only supporting students academically and personally, but also in affecting student motivation (Docan-Morgan & Manusov, 2009). An extensive meta-analysis of 119 studies completed by Cornelius-White (2007) confirmed that student-centered education leads to, among other things, motivation to learn. Reeve (2002) suggests that interpersonal relationships that emphasizes choice and flexibility, as opposed to control and pressure between the instructor and the student, are essential in supporting students in online courses, and that support, in turn influences their academic motivation (Chan & Jang, 2010). Given the findings that instructor-student relationships influence academic motivation, which, in turn, relates to student success, relational pedagogy (i.e., an interpersonal connection between the student and instructor) appears vital to student motivation, engagement, and achievement.

Students' Voice

Finally, instructor engagement as a unique set of instructor behaviors has not been extensively looked at from the perspectives of students. Given that the educational approach has changed from behaviorist to constructivist in both FtF and OL classrooms, it is imperative to take into consideration expectations of learners as we move forward in instructional communication research. For example, research suggests that learners who believed that their goals were aligned with course offerings, and who exhibited motivation to learn coming in to their courses were more successful (Lindner, Dooley, & Murphy, 2001), but that expectations of teaching behaviors and instructional design did vary based on the mode of delivery (where students in FtF classes value teacher's personality and oral communication, whereas OL students placed the highest value on instructor's "written communication, organized course structure, and supportive resource materials", p. 74) . With that, the questions of what it is that students expect from their

instructors in terms of various instructor behaviors, if and how these expectations differ based on mode of course delivery, and how instructor engagement, as a unique set of instructor behaviors, is valued in the classroom, drive this study. Given that these questions focus on the expectations and preferences for a certain behavior, as well as attempt to investigate the outcomes of communication that happens as a result of these expectations, it is fitting that this investigation is framed within a theory that does the same. Such theory is known as the Interaction Adaptation Theory (Burgoon et al., 1995).

Theory

Interaction Adaptation Theory (IAT) recognizes the complexity of human interpersonal communication and attempts to predict and explain how communicators coordinate interaction behavior, how they respond to expectation violations in light of a number of factors, and how such adaptation leads to development of an effective relationship (Burgoon et al., 1995). In its essence, IAT assumes that interpersonal relationships develop as a result of one communicator's interaction adaptation in direct response to the communication pattern of another communicator. These intentional adaptations are based on both verbal and nonverbal messages that are patterned in such a way that they identify the nature of the relationship that is formed, the degree of positive or negative affect among communicators, as well as power and status differences among them (White, 2008).

RED factors

IAT views interaction adaptation as a nonrandom occurrence, where behavior is meant to satisfy basic biological needs to seek out important links, establish relationships, and, as a result, increase our chances for survival. The degree of adaptation is influenced by a number of things, including societal roles and personal preferences. Three factors that influence and form the

foundation for our adaptation behavior, according to IAT, are requirements, expectations, and desires (RED). These three RED factors emerge in initial interaction and form a foundation for adaptation. Because these REDs form the foundation for adaptation, they help understand how students approach a classroom and instructor communication for the first time.

Requirements (R) are the aspects of interaction that are driven by basic biological needs that communicators find necessary to interaction, and are related to approach-avoidance behaviors which may influence behavior in unconscious ways. For example, a student in an online classroom who learns best from hearing the lectures may require the instructor to record audio/video lectures that present the reading material in a way that is best understood by an auditory learner. According to IAT, requirements are the most influential variables in communication interactions. Expectations (E) are anticipation factors, driven by social norms and the knowledge of past interactions with the specific person. For instance, a student may have heard from her peers that the instructor she is about to take a class with is always prepared and well organized. As a result, the student expects preparation and organization from her instructor for every class period she is about to attend. Desires (D) are personalized preferences driven by individual's personality and other individual differences (White, 2008). For example, a student may prefer his or her instructor to carry on light-hearted conversations and have a good sense of humor.

RED factors are not exclusive of each other, in that they interdependently influence each other and the interaction approach. Furthermore, while in general IAT posits that requirements of an interaction is the most influential element among the factors, the relative importance of other two RED factors may vary depending on context and situation. As such, it is not clear which of the other two factors, expectations or desires, generally has a stronger influence than the other. It

is also unclear whether student REDs for instructor engagement may differ between the FTF and OL classroom.

Interaction Position and Actual Behavior

The combination of requirements, expectations, and desires predefines a pattern of interaction for a communicator and an anticipation of the partner's behavior (i.e., expectancy), and is known as an *interaction position* (IP) (Burgoon et al., 1995). Anticipation of IP for an individual helps predict the interpretation of a situation and plan potential behavior in that interaction. In a communication process IP can be contrasted with actual enacted behavior (known in IAT as actual behavior, A), allowing predictions about interactional responses and patterns of future behavior. According to IAT, communication responses to enacted behavior depend on the discrepancies between expectancy of the behavior and the actual behavior, as well as the valence associated with these discrepancies. Thus, if the discrepancies do not exist, or are minor, they may be overlooked or tolerated (Floyd & Burgoon, 1999). If, however, the expectancy of behavior does not match the actual behavior, assessment of valences placed on that behavior determines the outcomes (desired behaviors are more positively valenced, and undesired behaviors are more negatively valenced). If the expectancy of the behavior is more negatively valenced than actual behavior, then the anticipated interpersonal pattern is divergence, compensation, or maintenance. Conversely, if actual behavior is more positively valenced behavior than the expectancy of that behavior, then the anticipated interpersonal pattern is convergence, matching, or reciprocity" (Burgoon & Ebesu Hubbard, 2005, p. 163).

IAT provides a good framework to first understand how pre-interaction positions in regards to instructor behaviors are similar/different based on the mode of course delivery (FtF vs. OL). Given the literature that consistently points out that there is no difference in learning

outcomes demonstrated in FtF vs. OL courses, it is assumed that both the instructor and the student adapt to the changes that each mode of delivery carries in order to reach successful outcomes. For instance, while the student is unable to physically walk in to the instructor's office for a scheduled office hour to discuss concerns associated with the course, he/she may choose to communicate with the instructor via email or schedule a Skype session to accomplish the task. Thus, applying the RED factors framework will help analyze students' requirements, expectations, and desires of instructor behaviors in the classroom, as well as help examine a presence or absence of differences that may occur based on the mode of course delivery. Furthermore, this study sets precedent for future studies that should continue examining if communication does, indeed, vary as a result of RED factors in the classroom.

Statement of Research Questions and Hypotheses

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the values that students place on various instructor behaviors in higher education classrooms. Understanding of that value will establish a foundation upon which instructional practices can be built, and where instructors can feel confident that their behavior is influencing students' academic motivation. To investigate, a number of research questions and hypotheses are posed to help understand how Interaction Adaptation Theory and its RED factors are manifested in instructional contexts, to explore disciplinary differences in RED factors, to understand instructor engagement and its connection to academic motivation, and to explore how the value of a specific instructor behavior (i.e., instructor engagement) is influenced by existence or absence of violations of instructor engagement.

Research Questions

Identifying students' requirements (RQ1a, RQ2a), expectations (RQ1b, RQ2b) and desires (RQ1c, RQ2c) of instructor behavior in the FtF and OL classrooms. The first set of research questions aims to understand the value that students place on various instructor behaviors in the classroom, and intends to think about this value according to students' RED factors. As discussed, understanding student requirements, expectations, and desires for various instructor behaviors in the classrooms may set precedent for their academic motivation and course success. Indeed, it is fitting to examine these elements and to measure the extent to which students in both FtF and OL classrooms value each of these behaviors. Towards these ends, the following questions are posed:

RQ1a: What are student requirements of instructor behavior in a face-to-face classroom?

RQ1b: What are student expectations of instructor behavior in a face-to-face classroom?

RQ1c: What are student desires of instructor behavior in a face-to-face classroom?

RQ2a: What are student requirements of instructor behavior in an online classroom?

RQ2b: What are student expectations of instructor behavior in an online classroom?

RQ2c: What are student desires of instructor behavior in an online classroom?

Exploring differences between students RED factors of instructor behavior in face-to-face vs. online classrooms (RQ3). No study has looked at the differences in interaction requirements, expectations, and desires when comparing FtF to OL mode of course delivery. It is possible that students in FtF courses value instructor behaviors differently than do students in OL courses. If so, it would be essential to understand how these values differs, so that future instructional practices could be tailored to these expectations, as that value becomes essential to student motivation, learning, and, potentially, persistence. If, however, these values are similar, then it might serve us well to look beyond the differences that technology brings into

instructional contexts, as it would be possible that the core expectations of instructor behavior lie not within the mode of delivery but within something else, which will warrant further investigation. To this end, the next research question asks:

RQ3: To what extent are there differences in students' requirements, expectations, and desires of instructor behaviors between the two comparison groups?

Exploring disciplinary differences (RQ4). Given the juxtaposing findings on the influence that academic disciplines may have on instructors' beliefs, teaching styles, and student learning, it is appropriate to consider the influence of the student's discipline has when examining student perceptions of instructional effectiveness and examining ideal instructor behaviors. This attention will not only answer a number calls made by researchers that call to further examination of the "Does discipline matter?" question (see Neumann, 2001; Jones, 2011; Kember & Leung, 2011; Murray & Renaud, 1995), but perhaps help us further understand the implications that existence (or absence) of these differences has on student perceptions and institutional teaching practices. Specifically, it is necessary to explore whether or not the model of an effective and ideal instructor behavior is independent of the discipline within which the instructor teaches. This conclusion is especially important to this study, as it establishes a foundation upon which the arguments for identifying such a model may be built. To that end, the next research question aims to evaluate the influence of the discipline on student expectations of instructor behaviors in the classrooms and investigates if these disciplinary differences exist.

RQ4: To what extent (if any) does student's discipline of choice influence their requirement/expectations/desires of instructor behaviors in the classroom?

Understanding the concept of Instructor Engagement (RQ5). Understanding student requirements, expectations, and desires of instructor behavior in the classroom is an important

component of understanding what an ideal instructor looks like in both FtF and OL classroom. While research has given attention to exploring various instructor behaviors, and identified a number of connections between these behaviors and student success in the classroom, lack of conceptual and operational distinctions between some of these behaviors and IE is evident. Given that the concept of IE has yet to be consistently and explicitly conceptualized or measured in the research, this study operationalizes IE as a combination of identified variables of interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, emotional intimacy, and trust. In theory, all variables have an impact on academic motivation individually, but given the emphasis placed on forming relationships in instructional textbooks and training, this study seeks to explore if a combination of these variables has a significant impact on student academic motivation.

RQ5: Does the linear combination of interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, emotional intimacy and trust predict student academic motivation in FtF/OL classroom.

Hypotheses

Exploring violations of students' value of instructor engagement using the RED factors from IAT (H1, H2). Current literature suggests that students value IE in the classroom, and that it has a significant impact on their academic motivation. Applying Interaction Adaptation Theory to instructional context, this study will test violations of students' value of instructor engagement in FtF and OL classrooms. Specifically, I aim to examine what happens when students' value of the presence of specific instructor behavior and actual instructor behavior match/do not match. According to IAT, if students value the presence of the "ideal" instructor behavior (i.e., instructor engagement), and that behavior is demonstrated in the classroom (i.e., instructors are perceived to employ instructor engagement - (A), the outcome should result in no violation of expectancy. A similar match occurs if students do not value the

presence of the “ideal” instructor behavior (i.e., instructor engagement), and instructors do not engage in such a way (i.e., do not employ instructor engagement - (A).

Next, according to IAT, if students value the presence of the “ideal” instructor behavior (i.e., instructor engagement), but instructors do not engage in such a way (i.e., actual instructor behavior is not instructor engagement - A), a divergence occurs, causing a negative violation of expectations. Finally, if students do not value the presence of the “ideal” instructor behavior (i.e., instructor engagement), and such behavior is enacted by the instructor (i.e., instructor demonstrates instructor engagement - (A), the valence associated with presence/absence of expectancy for the “ideal” behavior determines the valence of the violation. Since it is not clear whether the violation of expectations in this last case is a positive or a negative one, examining this would help advance application of IAT in an instructional context. Below is a matrix that demonstrates existence or absence of violations based on the combination of a student’s value of instructor engagement and presence/absence of instructor’s engagement.

	Students VALUE IE (Interaction Position)	Students DO NOT VALUE IE (Interaction Position)
Instructors ENGAGE (Actual behavior)	No violation	Could be “+” or “-” (H2)
Instructors DO NOT ENGAGE (Actual behavior)	Negative violation (H1)	No violation

Figure 1. Matrix of violations based on student values and instructors’ implementation of IE

H1: When students value instructor engagement, and instructors do not demonstrate instructor engagement, a negative violation of expectations occurs.

H2: When students do not value instructor engagement, but instructors demonstrate engagement, the value that students place on instructor engagement determines the type of violation that occurs (negatively valenced value causes a negative violation, positively valenced value causes a positive violation).

Identifying the existence of a relationship between student value of instructor engagement and student motivation (H3, H4). Student academic motivation is impacted by a number of variables. It is hypothesized that student's requirement of instructor engagement in the classroom is one of these variables. According to IAT, required behavior is highly anticipated and fundamentally needed, thus driving motivation and desire for other elements and influencing student's overall impressions of the course, the instructor, and education more than the other two variables. While students may find certain factors expected (e.g., an experienced instructor) or desired (e.g., an empathetic instructor) in an ideal instructor, if these factors are not met, students could potentially still feel motivated to learn.

For example, if the student's requirement is to have a knowledgeable instructor (R), who is experienced (E) and empathetic (D), but the instructor of the course is new to teaching, thus not as knowledgeable or empathetic, initial iteration of IAT posits that it is the absence of knowledge that a student finds absolutely necessary that will likely have the highest impact on motivation, as experience and empathy may not have as significant of an impact. Requiring something and not receiving it is more likely to violate student's expectations than something that is expected or preferred in an ideal instructor.

Interestingly, later research found that there may be some contextual influence that could potentially question that tenet. For example, Floyd and Burgoon (1999) found that IAT's initial assumptions that Expectations should be placed higher than Desires in the hierarchy of factors that influence interaction were not consistent, reporting results of an experiment where desires prevailed over expectations. In that, they called for further examination of the relationship between the RED factors to add specificity to basic tenets of IAT. To answer this call, the next set of hypotheses tests the order of RED factors, examines what happens when student expectations are met, and predicts how violations of expectations influence student motivation. It is predicted that in cases of no violations the requirement (R factor) of instructor engagement is the variable that will have the highest impact on student motivation, as it is presumed to be the variable with the strongest influence among the RED factors.

H3: For those participants who report no violation between valuing instructor engagement and actual instructor behavior, the requirements (R) factor is the variable that will account for the greatest amount of variance in academic motivation.

H4: If violations between student expectations of instructor engagement and actual instructor behavior occur, the valence that students place on that violation is what influences their academic motivation (positive violation will increase student motivation; negative violation will decrease student motivation).

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

Participants

I recruited participants at Wayne State University via email blast and a Snippets tool (a short announcement to WSU faculty, students and employees that contained a text teaser, a graphic, and a link to the survey), and through two public Listservs: CRTNet (A listserv for National Communication Association members) and AOIR (a listserv for the Association of Internet Researchers members). Additionally, students within the Communication Department at Wayne State University were recruited using SONA system. Recruiting participants through these various means aimed to diversify the sample. The survey (see Appendix B and C) was open to students of 18 years or older of any program, year/status, or sex, who have taken at least one college level course (FtF or OL) within one year of the start date of the launch of the survey. This ensured currency of self-reported data.

Participants were 709 students, 521 of whom reported on FtF courses, and 188 of whom reported on OL courses. The mean age of participants was 27.09 years ($SD = 10.58$) and ranged from 18 to 70 years. Approximately 63.55% of participants were female ($n = 450$), 22.8% were male ($n = 162$), 0.8% were non-gendered/non-specific ($n = 6$), and 91 participants chose not to disclose their sex (for separation by condition, and other demographics, see Tables 2 and 3). Most of the participants reported being recruited by SONA system (46.8%) and via invitation from a professor (31%), with the remainder indicating recruitment through email without further clarification (5.5%), CRTNet ListServ (2.5%), AOIR ListServ (0.8%), and unspecified other means (0.6%). A total of 69.3% of participants indicated undergraduate status, followed by 18% graduate – masters studies, 7.4% graduate – Ph.D. studies, and 5.3% indicating “other” academic status. Finally, participants attended various institutions, predominantly a university (98.1%, $n =$

609), with the rest attending a community college (1%, $n = 6$), a career college (0.6%, $n = 4$), and “other” type of institution (0.3%, $n = 2$).

Table 2

Face-to-face Participant Demographics (N = 521)

Demographics	Frequency	Percent
Sex		
Male	129	24.8
Female	332	63.7
Non-gendered/Non-specific	3	.6
Unidentified	57	10.9
Age		
18	29	5.6
19	44	8.4
20	48	9.2
21	57	10.9
22	50	9.6
23	33	6.3
24	24	4.6
25 – 30	80	15.5
31 – 40	43	8.4
41 – 50	29	5.2
51 – 60	23	4.6
61 –	4	.8
Unidentified	60	11.5
Academic Level		
Undergraduate	313	60.1
Graduate	130	25.
Unidentified	78	15
Institution Type		
Community college	5	1
Career college	458	87.9
University	4	.8
Unidentified	54	10.4

Table 3

Online Participant Demographics (N = 188)

Demographics	Frequency	Percent
Sex		
Male	33	17.6
Female	118	62.8
Non-gendered/Non-specific	3	1.6
Unidentified	34	18.1
Age		
18	5	3.4
19	13	8.8
20	16	10.9
21	16	10.9
22	17	11.6
23	10	6.8
24	4	2.7
25 – 30	26	13.9
31 – 40	15	7.8
41 – 50	15	7.8
51 – 60	6	3.1
61 –	3	1.5
Unidentified	41	22.3
Academic Level		
Undergraduate	120	63.8
Graduate	28	14.9
Unidentified	40	21.3
Institution Type		
Community college	1	.5
Career college	0	0
University	151	80.3
Other	36	19.2

Disciplinary representations within the participants in both groups are demonstrated in Figures 2 and 3 below.

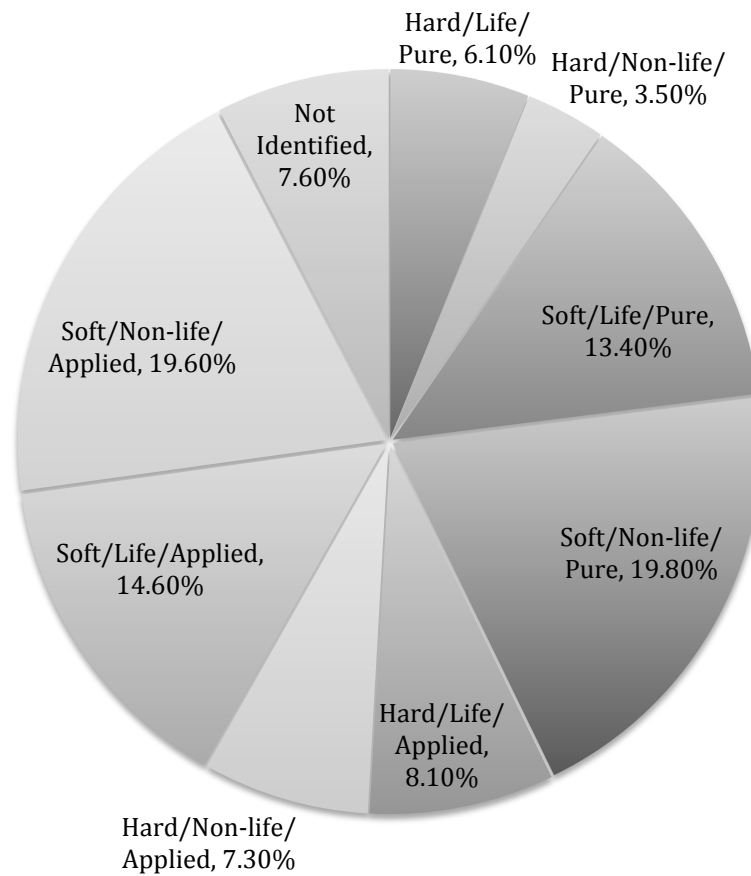


Figure 2. Discipline Representation in Face-to-Face Participants ($N = 521$). Soft/Non-life/Pure (SNP, 19.8%, $n = 103$), Soft/Non-Life/Applied (SNA, 19.6%, $n = 102$), Soft/Life/Applied (SLA, 14.6%, $n = 76$), Soft/Life/Pure (SLP, 13.4%, $n = 70$), Hard/Life/Applied (HLA, 8.1%, $n = 42$), Hard/Non-life/Applied (HNA, 7.3%, $n = 38$), Hard/Life/Pure (HLP, 6.1%, $n = 32$), Hard/Non-life/Pure (HNP, 3.5%, $n = 32$), and not identified (7.6%, $n = 40$).

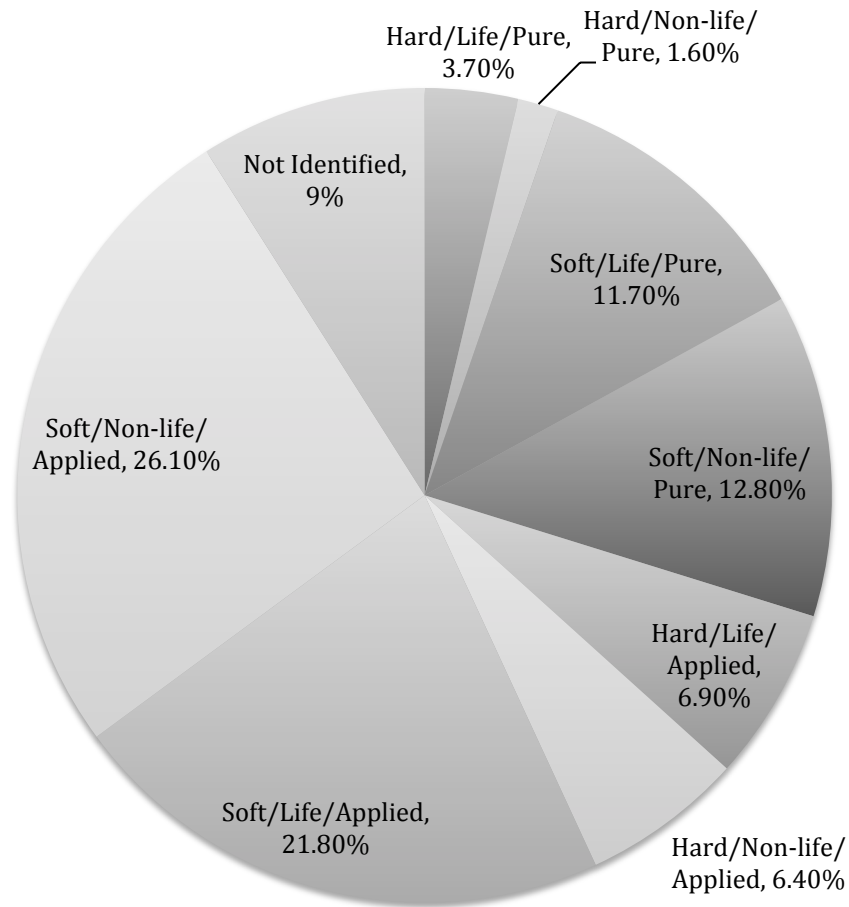


Figure 3. Discipline Representation in Online Participants ($N = 188$). Discipline representation in the OL group ($N = 188$, see Figure 3) was as follows: SNA (26.1%, $n = 49$), SLA (21.8%, $n = 41$), SNP (12.8%, $n = 24$), SLP (11.7%, $n = 22$), HLA (6.9%, $n = 13$), HNA (6.4%, $n = 12$), HLP (3.7%, $n = 7$), HNP (1.6%, $n = 3$), and not identified (9%, $n = 17$).

Power analysis. An a priori power analysis indicated that I needed 134 participants to have 80% power for detecting a moderate size effect (0.10) when employing the acceptable .05 criterion of statistical difference; 171 participants to have 90% power for detecting a moderate size effect (0.10) when employing the acceptable .05 criterion of statistical difference; or 204 participants to have 95% power for detecting a moderate size effect (0.10) when employing the

acceptable .05 criterion of statistical difference. Since most of the questions required analysis of each group separately (FtF and OL students), the number of participants in each group had to reach calculated numbers (i.e., 134, 171, or 204). In the end, after closing the survey and dismissing incomplete and less than 70% complete responses, I received a total of 709 responses, with $N = 521$ in the FtF group, and $N = 188$ in the OL group, reaching a 95% power for detecting a moderate size effect (0.10) when employing the acceptable .05 criterion of statistical difference in the FtF group, and 90% power for detecting a moderate size effect (0.10) when employing the acceptable .05 criterion of statistical difference in the OL group.

Instruments

Requirements, expectations, and desires (RED factors). RED factors of general instructor behaviors were measured using short answer open-ended questions (see Appendixes B or C). Open-ended questions asked participants to think about various instructor behaviors in the FtF/OL classroom and identify top three behaviors they considered to be necessary, anticipated, and preferred. Examples from a different context were offered to help participants understand each behavior (e.g., “in the context of work, someone may require that his/her boss provide a computer with up-to-date software, and a place to work, for him/her to be successful. That same person may expect his/her boss to outline the dress code policy and work flow process, as those are the norms governing workplaces. Finally, s/he may desire that his/her boss allow him/her to telecommute at least 1 day a week, and allow him/her the creative freedom to innovate in the workplace”).

Discipline distinction. A discipline classification scheme was integrated into the instrument to help separate the results based on participant’s individual disciplines, and to further examine potential disciplinary influences on students’ perceptions of instructor behavior in both

FtF and OL classrooms. Biglan's (1973) discipline classification system (see Figure 4) is perhaps the most frequently used when grouping disciplines (see Jones, 2011). The scheme separates disciplines based on three different dimensions: hard versus soft (paradigmatic development), pure versus applied (presence of practical application), and life versus non-life (presence or absence of living organisms). This classification has been tested empirically in a number of follow up studies, and has been found to be a valid conceptual framework (see Muffo & Langston, 1981; Smart & Elton, 1982; Smith, Heindel, & Torres-Ayala, 2008; Stoecker, 1993). Examples of additional disciplines were added to the original scale to help participants locate their disciplines easier.

	Hard science-oriented		Soft social sciences and humanities	
	Life	Non-life	Life	Non-life
	scholarship involves the study of life	scholarship is not concerned with living or organic objects	scholarship involves the study of life	Scholarship is not concerned with living or organic objects
Pure education areas	SUCH AS: Biology, Biochemistry, Genetics, Physiology	SUCH AS: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Geology, Astronomy, Oceanography	SUCH AS: Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, Political Science, Area Study	SUCH AS: Linguistics, Literature, Communication, Creative Writing, Economics, Philosophy, Archaeology, History, Geography
Applied concerned with practical application of subject matter	SUCH AS: Agriculture, Psychiatry, Medicine, Pharmacy, Dentistry, Horticulture	SUCH AS: Civil Engineering, Telecommunication Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Computer Science	SUCH AS: Recreation Arts, Education, Nursing, Conservation, Counseling, HR Management	SUCH AS: Finance, Accounting, Banking, Marketing, Journalism, Library and Archival Science, Law, Architecture, Interior Design, Crafts, Arts, Dance, Music

Figure 4. Adjusted Biglan's (1973) discipline classification scale used in the survey to help participants easily identify their discipline field. Participants who were unable to identify their discipline with examples in the table were offered the opportunity to manually enter their discipline field as well.

Scales. All scales used for this study were modified in wording to be applicable in both FtF and OL contexts and were adjusted to move in the same direction as to the order of agreement for question to question consistency (strongest disagreement or lowest level of satisfaction was always assigned a score of 1, and the strongest agreement or highest satisfaction was always assigned a score of 5).

Before the analyses were conducted, when needed, some items were reverse coded. To examine the validity and reliability of all scales, factor analyses and Cronbach's alpha tests were conducted. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) examined factor loadings on each scale in each of the conditions (FtF and OL) using principal components factor analysis with Oblimin rotation (to check for correlated factors). Extracted variances of 40% or more were deemed acceptable (see Gorsuch, 1983), who noted that extracted variances of 40% - 50% reflect an adequate factor structure for self-reported measurements). Significance of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) suggested that factor analyses for all scales yielded distinct and reliable factors given the data used, and that if another sample was obtained and the analysis repeated, the resulting factors would be consistently the same (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

To assess internal consistency of each scale, and each factor within, the Cronbach's alpha statistic, based on standardized item scores for a set of unidimensional items, was calculated. The scores signified consistency of each participant's answers to the items within the scale. All of the reliability scores for each factor were greater than .74 using Cronbach's alpha, indicating strong internal consistency of each construct (Cronbach, 1951).

Interaction. Learner-instructor interaction was measured using an adaptation of an instrument developed by Kuo and colleagues (2013), who reported a reliability of $\alpha = .88$. Given that the instrument was originally developed for blended environments, it was deemed sufficient

to evaluate both FtF and OL instructor-student interaction. In this scale, a 5 point Likert-type scale of 1=strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree were used to measure students perceptions of student-instructor interaction during the course with a total of 6 statements (see Table 4).

Keyser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p < .05$, indicated that the six items in the FtF group loaded on two factors, with factor 1 (items 1, 2, and 5) accounting for 52.47% and factor 2 (items 3, 4, and 6) accounting for 11.94% of the total variance. The correlation between the two factors was .59. In the OL group all six items loaded on a single factor, and accounted for 48.9% of the total variance. Cronbach's Alpha for scale reliability for FtF group was $\alpha = .80$ (for items 1, 2, and 5), $\alpha = .86$ (for items 3,4, and 6), and $\alpha = .85$ ($n = 174$) for OL group. Potential differences and explanations for the differences in factor loadings are examined in the results section of this dissertation. For the purposes of this research, interaction was treated as a single factor for OL participants, and as a 2-factor for FtF participants (student-directed interaction, items 1, 2, and 5; and instructor-directed interaction, items 3, 4, and 6).

Table 4

The Interaction Scale

Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course **course number filled in from answer to question 9**, which you selected for this survey:

- I had numerous interactions with the instructor during the class.
 - I asked the instructor my questions through different means appropriate to the class setting (e.g., instant messaging or e-mail; office hour; after class).
 - The instructor regularly asked questions for students to discuss.
 - The instructor answered my questions in a timely fashion.
 - I replied to the messages from the instructor.
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- I received enough feedback from my instructor when I needed it.
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Note. participants are instructed to answer each item according to the following scale: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) agree; (5) strongly agree

Immediacy. To measure students' perceptions of instructor's immediacy, the Verbal Immediacy Behaviors Scale (VIS) adapted by Wolfe and Waters (2013) from Gorham (1988) was used. Gorham's (1988) scale has been used widely in a number of research studies, presenting acceptable reliability ranging from .86 to .94 (see Baker, 2004; Christensen & Menzel, 1990; Christophel, 1990). There has been concern that Gorham's VIS was not effective (see Robinson & Richmond, 1995), yet later studies (e.g., Baker, 2004) continued to confirm high reliability ($\alpha = .90$), and no other valid measure of verbal immediacy has been developed. Wolfe and Waters (2013) have addressed these concerns by completing both a factor analysis and internal consistency estimates of reliability, and constructed a more parsimonious scale by removing 4 items, two of which carried low correlation ($r < .30$) and two of which solely loaded on one of the factors. As a result, the Gorham scale was left with 13 valid items (a 2-factor scale, as indicated by Wolfe and Waters (2013), although specific items for each factor were not identified). Furthermore, since no scale to measure immediacy in the online environment exists, I made minor wording modifications, such as take out words "in and out of class" to make the measure more neutral to both FtF and OL conditions, and combined two items "converses before/after class" and "has conversed with me before/after" based on pilot testers' feedback about the confusion regarding lack of differences in these two questions. In this scale, a 5 point Likert-type scale of 1 = never to 5 = very often was used to measure students perceptions of instructor's verbal immediacy behaviors with a total of 12 statements (see Table 5).

KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p < .05$ in both FtF and OL groups; all 12 items loaded on two factors in both groups. In the FtF group both factors

accounted for 56.71% of the total variance, with factor 1 (items 1, 2, and 4 - 11) accounting for 47.09%, and factor 2 (items 3 and 12) for 9.62%. The correlation between the two factors was .24. In the OL group both factors accounted for 56.17% of the total variance, with factor 1 (items 1, 2, and 4-11) accounting for 47.61%, and factor 2 (items 3 and 12) accounting for 8.56%. The correlation between the two factors was .42. Scale reliability was next conducted to check the internal consistency of all 12 items in the scale within each of the two groups, with “scale if deleted” selected. Cronbach’s Alpha was $\alpha = .90$ ($n = 485$, the FtF group), and $\alpha = .91$ ($n = 165$, the OL group). No items in either of the groups, if deleted, would have contributed to a stronger reliability of the scale. Next, examination of the reliability of each of the factors within the scale for each of the two groups was conducted. Cronbach’s Alpha for scale reliability in the FtF group was $\alpha = .92$ ($n = 485$) for the first factor (items 1, 2, and 4 - 11), and $\alpha = .73$ ($n = 487$) for the second factor (items 3 and 12). Cronbach’s Alpha for scale reliability in the OL group was $\alpha = .92$ ($n = 165$) for the first factor (items 1, 2, and 4 - 11), and $\alpha = .74$ ($n = 165$) for the second factor (items 3 and 12).

In previous research (see Gorham, 1988) all items in the original scale loaded on a single factor, yet Wolfe and Waters (2013) did find two factors (although it is unclear as to which items loaded on which factor). In this most current research items loaded on two separate factors in both groups as well. Further investigation of the factor revealed that in both groups same items loaded on the same factors, indicating a natural division of two separate themes: two items that loaded on the second factor strictly related to extracurricular conversations, whereas the rest of the items were more related to well-established immediacy techniques, such as inclusive, caring and encouraging communication. Given these significant findings, it was deemed necessary to make note of the separate factors, thus all further analysis was conducted using two separate

factors: Immediacy by extracurricular conversations (which included 2 items), and Immediacy by encouragement (which included 10 items). Further analyses treated this instrument as a two-factor scale.

Table 5

The Immediacy Scale

Below is a series of statements that describe the ways some people behave while talking with or to others. You are asked to indicate how well each statement applies to your instructor's communication with students in the course [course number filled in from answer to Q9], which you selected for this survey. For each statement, choose the number that most closely describes your instructor's behavior.

- My instructor used personal examples
- My instructor asked questions/encouraged talking
- My instructor discussed irrelevant student thoughts
- My instructor used humor
- My instructor has conversed with me
- My instructor referred to class as "our/we"
- My instructor provided individual feedback
- My instructor asked how students feel about work
- My instructor invited students to call/meet
- My instructor asked questions soliciting opinions
- My instructor praised students
- My instructor discussed unrelated materials

Note: participants are instructed to answer each item according to the following scale: (1) never; (2) rarely; (3) occasionally; (4) often; (5) very often

Teaching presence. The teaching presence factor of the Community of Inquiry measurement created by Arbaugh and colleagues (2008) was used to measure this construct (reliability $\alpha = 0.94$). In this scale, a 5 point Likert-type scale of 1 = strongly disagree to 5 =

strongly agree was used to measure student perceptions of instructor's teaching presence in the classroom with a total of 13 statements. These statements were separated into three sections, each corresponding to the area of teaching presence exhibited by the instructor (i.e., design and organization, facilitation, and direct instruction, see Table 6).

Since teaching presence has never been applied in FtF environments, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was ran to check internal validity of the instrument. KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p < .05$ in both FtF and OL groups (0.97 for FtF, and 0.94 for OL). For the FtF group all items loaded on a single factor, and accounted for 71.93% of the total variance. Scale reliability was $\alpha = 0.97$ ($n = 478$). In the OL group, however, the items loaded on two factors, accounting for 73.55% of the total variance. Further examination of the pattern matrix in the OL group revealed that item 13 loaded on two factors simultaneously. As a result, this item (teaching presence item 13, "the instructor provided feedback in a timely fashion") was removed from the scale in both FtF and OL groups, and factor analysis was re-ran. The second round of EFA revealed similar results. Items loaded on a single factor in a FtF group, accounting for 73.2% of the total variance, and on two factors in the OL group, accounting for 74.68% of the total variance, with factor 1 (items 5 - 12) accounting for 67.51%, and factor 2 (items 1 - 4) accounting for 7.17%. Item 13 was excluded from all further analyses.

The internal reliability of the full scale in the OL group (with all items included) was $\alpha = 0.96$ ($n = 166$), and within the two subscales $\alpha = 0.92$ ($n = 167$, items 5 - 12), and $\alpha = 0.96$ ($n = 166$, items 1 - 4). Previous research (see Shea et al., 2006) found same factor loadings within this subscale when tested in the OL courses, contributing the first set of items to instructional design and organization, and the second set to directed facilitation. Given the separate factor extractions within the OL group, a confirmatory factor analysis was ran in the FtF group to

explore potential loadings with a fixed two-factor solution. The results indicated that the groups of items (1 - 4 and 5 - 12) loaded on the same factors as the OL group, accounting for 67.51% and 7.17% of the variance, respectively. The internal reliability of these subscales was $\alpha = 0.96$ ($n = 478$, items 5 - 12) and $\alpha = 0.94$ ($n = 485$, items 1 - 4). While FtF group results did confirm a possible two-factor scale, given the exploratory factor analysis loadings, a one-factor solution was used for the FtF group, and two factors teaching presence - clarity and teaching presence - helpfulness were used for the OL group. Theoretical implications of the differences in factor-loadings within two groups are discussed in results section.

Table 6

The Teaching Presence Scale

As you continue thinking about the instructor of your past course referenced in this survey, indicate your agreement with the statements below:

- The instructor clearly communicated important course topics.
 - The instructor clearly communicated important course goals.
 - The instructor provided clear instructions on how to participate in course learning activities.
 - The instructor clearly communicated important due dates/time frames for learning activities.
 - The instructor was helpful in identifying areas of agreement and disagreement on course topics that helped me learn.
 - The instructor was helpful in guiding the class towards understanding course topics in a way that helped me clarify my thinking.
 - The instructor helped to keep course participants engaged and participating in productive dialogue.
 - The instructor helped keep the course participants on task in a way that helped me learn.
 - The instructor encouraged course participants to explore new concepts in this course.
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- Instructor actions reinforced the development of a sense of community among course participants.
 - The instructor helped to focus discussion on relevant issues in a way that helped me to learn.
 - The instructor provided feedback that helped me understand my strengths and weaknesses relative to the course's goals and objectives.
 - The instructor provided feedback in a timely fashion.
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Note: participants are instructed to answer each item according to the following scale: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) agree; (5) strongly agree

Emotional Intimacy. Emotional intimacy was measured using the Emotional Intimacy Scale (EIS), developed by Sinclair and Dowdy (2005), carrying a reliability of $\alpha = .88$. Although this scale has not been used in instructional contexts, it was the only scale available that focused on perceived emotional intimacy in one's close relationship, that was brief, and that was not exclusive to assessing a couple's emotional intimacy. This scale was developed using participants who were involved in a highly supportive relationship, a condition highly desirable for instructor-student communication as well (Frisby & Martin, 2010). Similar context transitions (from education to another context) have been made in other studies that explored relationships between pediatricians and parents (LaBelle, Odenweller, Myers, 2015), and priests and parishioners (Horan & Raposo, 2015). This scale was used in a study that measured emotional closeness in intercultural friendships, yielding a reliability of $\alpha = .91$ for the US sample and $\alpha = .93$ for the Romanian sample (Maier et al., 2013). The EIS measure is a 5 point Likert-type scale of 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree that was adapted in this study to measure emotional intimacy that students felt towards their designated instructor with a total of 5 statements (see Table 7).

KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p < .05$ in both groups, and in both conditions items loaded on a single factor, accounting for 77.76% of the total variance in

FtF group, and 73.42% of the total variance in OL group. Cronbach's Alpha for scale reliability was $\alpha = .93$ ($n = 478$) for FtF group, and $\alpha = .91$ ($n = 165$) for OL group.

Table 7

The Emotional Intimacy Scale

Using a scale below, indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course [course number filled in from answer to Q9], which you selected for this survey:

- This instructor completely accepted me as I am.
- I could openly share my deepest thoughts and feelings with this instructor.
- This person cared deeply for me.
- This person would willingly help me in any way.
- My thoughts and feelings were understood and affirmed by this instructor.

Note: participants are instructed to answer each item according to the following scale: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) agree; (5) strongly agree

Trust. A portion of multidimensional Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS) developed by McAllister (1995) was used to assess participants' level of affect-based trust. McEvily and Tortotiello (2001) identified this scale as a "state-of-the art" measure in organizational research, carrying reliability of $\alpha = .89$ (McEvily & Tortotiello, 2011). A 5 point Likert-type scale of 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree measured participants' agreement with statements regarding instructor they select for this survey. Some items were modified slightly to draw participant focus to their relationships with their instructors, rather than peers at work (as intended by the original measure). For example, instead of reading "this person," the question read "this instructor" (see Table 8). KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p < .05$ in both groups, and in both conditions items loaded on a single factor, accounting for 77.1% of the total variance in FtF group, and 76.3% of the total variance in OL group. Cronbach's

Alpha for scale reliability was $\alpha = .93$ ($n = 476$) for FtF group, and $\alpha = .92$ ($n = 162$) for OL group.

Table 8

The Trust Scale

Using a scale below, indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course [course number filled in from answer to question 9], which you selected for this survey:

- We had a sharing relationship. We could both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.
- We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was unable to continue in class
- I could talk freely to my instructor about difficulties I was having at school and knew that (s)he would want to listen.
- If I shared my problems with this instructor, I knew (s)he would respond constructively and caringly.
- I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our relationship

Note: participants are instructed to answer each item according to the following scale: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) agree; (5) strongly agree

Instructor Engagement. A hypothetical instructor's profile was created to examine student values of perceived instructor engagement. This profile was derived from the literature review presented at the beginning of this study, and incorporated behaviors from all 5 concepts of interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, emotional intimacy, and trust. This approach was selected due to its appropriateness and strength for providing an instrument uniquely suitable to a specific topic, and ability to create a hypothetical instructor using real life characteristics taken directly from existing research (thus, significantly reducing investigator bias, Schoenberg & Ravdal, 2010). The descriptive storytelling-nature of the scenario aimed to engage the participants, as well as help them visualize the "ideal" instructor. The profile was developed with

careful consideration given to avoiding tailoring it to FtF or to OL courses, so that participants taking the survey in either of the two conditions received the same description. Thus, the profile was neutral, and was applicable to either delivery mode of course delivery. Five independent readers reviewed three profiles and provided recommendations for wording revisions, as well as suggestions on the strength of the profile. Pilot testing of the survey revealed a need for some grammar and mechanical adjustments to the profile, but overall the description was determined to be strong enough to hold up in the live survey.

Academic Motivation. Motivation was measured using an adjusted Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS, Guay, Vallerand, & Blanchard, 2000). SIMS measures intrinsic motivation in field and laboratory settings. This measure was developed to apply to three specific contexts: education, interpersonal relationships, and leisure (sport). Given that this study's main focus was on the first two contexts, this measure appeared to be a good fit for this research. In the originally developed and tested scale, a 7 point Likert-type scale of 1 = does not correspond at all to 7 = corresponds exactly was used to measure intrinsic student motivation to go to college with a total of 16 statements. These statements measured intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, external regulation, and a-motivation, according to self-determination theory. Questions 4, 8, 10, and 14 were reverse coded. While the originally developed scale was deemed to have good construct validity, recent testing (Martin-Albo, Nunez, Navarro, 2009) proposed elimination of two items from the scale to improve internal consistency of subscales. As a result, the final scale held a total of 14 statements.

Furthermore, pilot testing revealed that 7 answer options were too confusing to the surveyors, as they questioned the differences between, for example, "corresponds a little" and "corresponds some." It appeared that having 5 choices would yield less surveyor confusion; so

two answer choices were dropped, leaving the scale as 5-point Likert type. Participants were asked to indicate the number that best described the reason they engage in the course (see Table 9 for a full scale). The internal consistency of the four subscales in the original development (Guay et al., 2000) and a follow up (Martin-Albo et al., 2009) were .77 and .81 for the amotivation, .86 and .87 for the external regulation, .80 and .82 for the identified regulation, and .95 and .84 for the intrinsic motivation, respectively.

Principal axis factor analysis was conducted. Results of both FtF and OL groups showed KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity to be significant at $p < .000$ in both groups, and accounted for 63.35% of the total variance in FtF group, and 63.52% of the total variance in OL group. The Keyser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.87 (FtF group) and 0.84 (OL group), suggesting factor analysis yielded distinct and reliable factors given the data used. Results indicated that same items loaded on the identical three factors in each group. The first factor combined previously established items of intrinsic motivation (items 1, 5, 9, and 11) and identified regulation (items 2, 6, and 12) and accounted for 35.90% of variance in the FtF group and 34.68% of variance in the OL group. The second factor confirmed items for external regulation (items 3, 7, and 13), accounting for 18.58% of variance in the FtF group and 21.08% of variance in the OL group. The third factor confirmed items for amotivation (items 4, 8, 10, and 14), accounting for 8.86% of variance in the FtF group and 7.76% of variance in the OL group. A PAFA extracting four factors did not yield confirmatory results.

Next, reliability was checked for the entire scale, as well as subscales for each of the groups. Within the FtF group, Cronbach $\alpha = .75$ ($n = 470$) for the entire scale (all 14 items), $\alpha = .91$ ($n = 470$) for the first factor (intrinsic motivation and identified regulation combined), $\alpha = .84$ ($n = 471$) for the second factor (external regulation), and $\alpha = .86$ ($n = 471$) for the third factor

(amotivation). Within the OL group, Cronbach $\alpha = .82$ ($n = 160$) for the entire scale (all 14 items), $\alpha = .91$ ($n = 160$) for the first factor (intrinsic motivation and identified regulation combined), $\alpha = .79$ ($n = 160$) for the second factor (external regulation), and $\alpha = .89$ ($n = 160$) for the third factor (amotivation).

Since the literature review identified intrinsic motivation as the primary driving factor in influencing student academic motivation, the intrinsic motivation/internal regulation factor was used to test all hypotheses and research questions in this study.

Table 9

The Academic Motivation Scale

Now that you thought about the instructor of your course extensively, imagine yourself being back in that class. How do you feel about pursuing college education as a result of your experiences in this particular course? Select the description most suited to each statement below:

- I think that college education is interesting.
 - I am doing it for my own good.
 - I am supposed to do it.
 - There may be good reasons for college education, but personally I don't see any
 - I think college education is pleasant
 - I think college education is good for me
 - I think college education is something I have to do
 - I am pursuing college education but I am not sure if it is worth it
 - College education is fun
 - I don't know; I don't see what college education brings me
 - I feel good pursuing college education
 - I believe college education is important to me
 - I feel I have to pursue college education
 - I am pursuing college education, but I am not sure it is a good thing to pursue.
-

Note: participants are instructed to answer each item according to the following scale: (1) does not correspond at all; (2) corresponds some; (3) corresponds moderately; (4) corresponds a lot; (5) corresponds exactly

Procedure and Design

I collected data using a cross-sectional online survey (see Appendix B and C). This survey method was selected because of its ability to be administered to a large number of participants from various types of institutions, and with various disciplinary designations at one time. Cross-sectional study design provides data that presents answers to research questions and hypotheses as representative of the time in which data was collected. Furthermore, it afforded the opportunity to allow participants to report their internal reactions at the same time as they reported on the past experiences related to those internal reactions. The purpose of this study was not on collecting data over a period of time to explore the history and the change in perceptions (which is the focus of longitudinal design method), but on collecting data based on the most recent experience. Since with time experiences may fade, student status may change, and resulting feelings of instructor-student communication may become less memorable, and given the investigative nature of this study that aimed to establish most recent findings regarding posed questions, a cross-sectional survey method was deemed to be the most appropriate. A self-report questionnaire measurement method in a researcher not-present format was administered through Qualtrics website (<http://www.qualtrics.com>, a commercial online survey hosting website). Non-random sampling procedure was implemented.

Institutional Review Board's concurrence of exemption was confirmed, and departmental and Graduate School funding was secured to help with costs of recruiting volunteers for various survey testing stages, participant gift card drawing offer, and compensating the work of a second coder.

Survey construction. The survey contained a number of sections. After completing an Information Sheet (see Appendix D), respondents were presented with the first section, where they were asked to indicate their academic discipline. A table was used (see Figure 4) to help them answer this question. Participants were also informed that if they were unsure as to the table's section choice, they could manually enter their chosen major and let the researcher determine the area of the table where the discipline belonged. A total of 146 participants (14%) chose to manually enter their discipline, with 39 of these participants (26.7%) also selecting both the table option and the manually entry option. Of the 39 participants who chose both option, everyone indicated the correct table cell based on their text entry in the discipline section (which helped support the validity of the table).

Next, participants were presented with a randomly assigned question that determined them into one of the two conditions – FtF or OL. Since the instrument contained questions for both FtF and OL students, random question selection approach offered the opportunity to collect results so that one mode of delivery was not privileged by its primacy in a survey order, and to prevent data bias. Essentially, participants were randomly assigned a screening question that asked them if in the past year they have taken an online course or if they have taken a FtF course. If participants answered “yes,” the survey continued by asking questions addressing that course and that particular mode of delivery, and omitted the other mode of delivery questions. If the participant answered “no,” he/she was asked if he/she has ever taken a course in the other mode of delivery. If the participant answered “yes” to the second question, the survey then proceeded to ask the rest of the questions with that particular mode of delivery in mind. If the participant answered “no” to the second randomly assigned mode of delivery question as well, the survey thanked the participant for his/her time and ended.

The next section of the survey requested information about the course to which participants referred in the remainder survey, as well as solicited answers to questions pertaining to instructor behaviors in that particular course. That section explored the participant's perceptions and expectations of instructor behavior in the classroom (FtF or OL). Open-ended questions were used first. This option was chosen to supersede all scales and the hypothetical instructor scenario to avoid priming participants and to subject them to deeper cognitive processing, which is more likely at the earlier stages of survey administration (Krosnik & Alwin, 1987). Following open-ended questions, likert-type scale questions were used. Given the intent of this study to seek participant's view on expectations of instructor behavior in the classroom, the open-ended questions were also used to ensure that responses reflected the views of the participants, and not those of the researcher or existing literature.

The final section of the survey contained questions that collected basic demographic data, including participants' age and sex, current college status, the types of institutions where the students took surveyed courses, and course delivery experiences (FtF vs. OL). In the final question of the survey participants were also asked if there was anything further they wished to share with the researcher, allowing them to leave any final comments regarding the instrument or its content.

Participants were able to take the survey any time during the collection process, and had the option of answering any or some of the questions without being excluded from the study. All answers remained confidential. IP addresses of survey participants were not recorded to preserve confidentiality.

Pilot testing. The next stage included pilot testing of the survey instrument. To avoid unclear or ambiguous questions and to check the instrument for clarity and consistency, I first

administered a test survey to 10 students (five FtF students and five OL students) by asking an instructor to advertise the opportunity for survey testing in an upper level undergraduate course. Volunteers were asked to commit to at least 1 hour for this stage. The version of the survey was offered online, and each question contained an essay box to allow volunteers enter their comments regarding the quality and strength of each question. Participants were specifically instructed to note any concerns or questions they had about the survey, its format, or wording in these text boxes. Initial testing stage revealed some confusion between the meaning of “required” and “expected” behaviors. Testers asked for further clarification of the differences, and some noted that examples would strengthen their understanding. As a result, these questions were reworded, and an example for each of the behaviors in a different context (workplace context) was offered to help participants determine their own answers and to avoid priming future participants’ answers.

Some scales were also revised with visual or textual changes to display in a more participant-friendly format. For example, majority of the participants expressed a desire to break down larger scales into smaller sections to make them easier to comprehend. Large scales were adjusted accordingly to strengthen the instrument. Volunteers in the first wave of testing were paid for their time and efforts with a \$50 e-gift card of their choice. All records from this round were deleted to preserve the anonymity of survey testers.

In the second round of testing twenty participants (10 who responded to a FtF course questions, and 10 who responded to an OL course questions) were asked to simply “take” the survey to test its clarity and its administration (i.e., flow of questions, overall display and presentation, absence of any technical glitches, etc.). A second wave of adjustments was made to strengthen the quality of the instrument. As a result of second round of testing, some display

adjustments were made, “Next” and “Previous” page buttons were added, and other minor corrections in wording were instituted. Volunteers in the second wave of testing were paid for their time and efforts with a \$15 e-gift card to Starbucks. All records from this round were deleted to preserve the anonymity of survey testers.

Since both stages of testing revealed a need to adjust a few questions, an amended survey was submitted and approved by the Institutional Review Board.

Survey administration. After pilot testing changes were implemented and the Institutional Review Board approved the amended survey, an invitation for participation and a link to the survey was sent out. Providing a link in the initial communication prevented the need for participants to respond directly to the researcher assuring confidentiality of all responses and preventing coercion. Consenting participants followed the link to a Qualtrics website, where an Information Sheet informed participants of their rights. The survey with questions pertaining to this study followed.

Upon completion of the survey, participants were also offered the opportunity to be entered into a drawing to win one of twenty-five \$50 Amazon e-gift cards. If they chose to be entered into the drawing, they followed a link to a different survey to enter their email address and their first name. If selected as a winner, an electronic gift card was issued to that email address to prevent direct connection between the researcher and the participant. The second survey for the drawing served three purposes: (1) it separated participant’s responses from his/her email address, blinding the results and preventing coercion so that first survey responses were not linked in any way to the individual participants; (2) it offered the researcher a way to contact the winners via email, blinding participant’s address and personal information; and (3) it recorded an IP address of the entrant (the intent was disclosed to the participant) to prevent

him/her from attempting a survey multiple times for the purposes of being entered multiple times in a drawing. It was my hope that if the participants knew up front that multiple entries from the same IP address were going to be thrown out, he/she would not attempt to take the survey multiple times just to be entered into a drawing. Once the survey closed, I selected 25 email addresses using a random numbers table. The winners were issued electronic gift cards for their efforts. It should also be noted that participants who took this survey through the SONA Study Participants system offered through Wayne State University could also receive extra credit for their participation (also approved by IRB).

In the end, study was open to participation for a period of nine weeks, receiving 983 entries into the main study, and 452 number of entries into a gift card drawing.

Data Analyses

SPSS version 23.0 was used to run all statistical analyses in this research study. For the preliminary analyses, descriptive statistics were collected to understand the profile of FtF and OL students. Testing of hypotheses was done through multiple regression analyses. Correlational analyses were conducted to assess the relationships between the RED factors of FtF and OL students. Any comparisons between the two groups were analyzed using chi-square analysis.

Coding and analysis of RED factors. To answer research questions 1, 2, and 3 that asked about students' requirements, expectations and desires of various instructor behaviors in FtF and OL classrooms, as well as explored the differences between these RED factors based on mode of delivery, a content analysis of open-ended answers was conducted. The behaviors were inductively analyzed based on a common theme using constant comparison method (Lindlof, 1995). Individual instructor behaviors identified in the participants' descriptions were coded as units of analysis. Each behavior was considered as a unit of analysis, and each new unit of

analysis was first given its own category. Once categories were created, overarching themes/definitions were identified. Units of analysis that fall in the same category were combined together, while those that have not yet been created were given its own category. After 25% of the units of analysis had been coded, a formative check of reliability was conducted. A second coder tested reliability of coding, any disagreements were resolved through meaningful discussion, and category revisions were made. After formative check of reliability, the rest of the units of analysis were categorized. A summative check of reliability was conducted by random selection of 10% of the categories and coded by a second coder ($\alpha = 0.92$). Results were then interpreted and reported using chi-square analysis.

Justification for using an existing typology. Erdle and Murray's (1986) typology was used as a coding guide (see Table 10). In this study, Erdle and Murray assessed the frequencies of various task- and interpersonally- oriented behaviors of instructors teaching course in various discipline fields. Over a three-year period students' perceptions of teaching effectiveness were assessed using student evaluations and correlated with academic disciplines and specific classroom teaching behaviors. This was the only known to date typology that was developed as a result of classroom observations of instructor behaviors in various discipline fields, and that was subjected to principal-components analysis and Cronbach's alpha reliability testing (the same testing was conducted on all scales used in the remainder of this study). Reasons for selecting this typology were threefold. First, the typology was developed from qualitative observations of instructor behaviors in the classroom, and then quantitatively tested to triangulate the results. The interpersonal nature of my study and the goals of identifying both desirable and undesirable interpersonal instructor behaviors fit well with the nature of my current study. Secondly, using a developed instrument was intended to foster replicability and validity of the instrument (Rourke

& Anderson, 2004). Since Erdle and Murray's (1986) typology has not been verified in follow up studies and is somewhat dated, my study allowed for validity and currency testing of this instrument. Finally, researchers observed instructor behaviors in various disciplines, including arts and humanities, social science, and natural science fields. Given that this dissertation study was also interested in potential impact of discipline on students' expectations of instructor behaviors, this instrument was determined to be a good fit.

Typology revisions. As a first step, the existing typology was reviewed for clarity, internal validity, and code consistency. As a result, several changes were made to ensure that each category was exhaustive and mutually exclusive. First, given some initial intercoder confusion of the meaning of the category of disclosure, its title was adjusted to include the term *course*. The goal was to strengthen the clarity of a category's title so it could be consistent with behaviors included within. The rapport category included behaviors associated with disclosing personal information (i.e., self-disclosure), while the category of disclosure contained behaviors focused on revealing course information (i.e., course disclosure). Thus, the title was adjusted to read course disclosure.

Secondly, conceptual definitions were created for each category based on the information provided in the original study, and some minor revisions were made to existing examples of behaviors. One of the major limitations of the original typology was that categories were not conceptually defined, and separation of behaviors into each of the categories was based solely on factor loadings ran in the study. Therefore, definitions were carefully created using representative examples of behaviors from the original study, refined through meaningful discussions with the independent coder using a representative sample of the collected data from the current study, and adjusted in wordings to be more specific and to provide for mutually

exhaustive coding. It should be noted that the typology uses similar terms as those in the existing literature, yet operationalization of these terms is, at times, different, and the implications of these differences are addressed in the discussion section of this dissertation. The refinement process also revealed that the original pacing category did not include mutually exclusive behaviors, as each of the existing examples within the category already fit into other categories (e.g., “lectures follow a logical sequence” and “sticks to the point in answering students’ questions” both fit into organization category). Thus, the category was removed from the codebook. Finally, a rule enforcement category was added to the typology to include instructor behaviors that aim to maintain classroom order and enforce a code of conduct.

Thirdly, categories of media use and use of graphs were merged under a title of media use to update currency of behaviors included within. For instance, “uses graphs or diagrams to facilitate explanation” is clearly a part of integrating media into a lecture, and “writ[ing] key terms on blackboard or overhead screen” fit with “using aids to illustrate concepts.” A conceptual definition for this category was then adjusted to include uses of media and various online technologies.

In the end, after revising the original typology of 14 categories, the revised instrument contained 12 categories (where two were merged, one was deleted, and a category of other was added). All adjustments are identified in italics in Table 11.

Table 10

Adjusted Typology with Categories of Instructor Behaviors (with Conceptual Definitions)

Rapport

This category is concerned with interpersonally-oriented instructor behaviors towards the student when supporting his/her learning process, including being available, concerned, patient and professional.

- Offers to help students with problems, *exhibits patience with technical challenges*
- Interested in students' ideas
- Sensitive to students' feelings
- Available for consultation outside of class
- Talks with students before/after class
- Tolerant/*respectful* of other points of view
- Concerned that students understand subject matter
- Knows individual students by name
- Flexible regarding deadlines and requirements
- Praises students for good ideas
- *Open to communication*
- *Quick/prompt/timely responses to student questions*
- *Exhibits professionalism, promptness, and attentiveness to student concerns*
- *Exhibits fairness*

Interest

This category encompasses behaviors that are directed towards helping students understand the subject matter and exhibit instructor's intellectual presence while supporting and enhancing student motivation to learn, and curiosity towards the content

- Relates subject matter to current events
- Describes personal experiences relevant to subject matter
- States own point of view on controversial issues
- Focuses on controversial issues within subject matter
- Points out practical applications of concepts
- Relates subject matter to student interests or activities
- Gives everyday, real-life examples to illustrate concepts
- Presents challenging, thought-provoking ideas
- *Is knowledgeable, credible, competent, and engaging*
- ***Shows strong interest in subject matter** (moved from Rapport)*
- *Employs various teaching methods to appeal to different learning styles*
- *Assigns work relevant to course learning objectives*

Course Disclosure

This category looks specifically at how the instructor develops an entire course experience by being transparent and forthcoming. The behaviors are catered towards helping students succeed in their learning process by providing clear expectations, orienting them towards important elements, and explaining mistakes.

- Advises students about how to prepare for tests or exams
- Tells which topics are most important for exam purposes
- Tells exactly what is expected on tests or in assignments
- Provides sample exam questions
- Makes students aware of overall objectives of course
- Advises students about how to prepare assignments
- Suggests organizational schemes for learning material
- Suggests ways of memorizing complicated ideas
- *Exhibits clarity of expectations*
- *Reminds students of upcoming deadlines*
- *Timely feedback/grades*
- *Clarity of communication*
- *Provide support by explaining content, mistakes, assignments, etc.*
- *Timely feedback and return of grades*
- *Clearly communicating deadlines and assignment expectations*
- *Clear instructions*

Organization

This category looks specifically at how the instructor prepares for and arranges a lecture or a course session, and how he/she helps students understand each individual lecture and the materials presented.

- Gives preliminary overview of a lecture
- Puts outline of lecture on blackboard or overhead screen
- Organizes lecture by means of a list of points
- Uses headings and subheadings to organize lectures
- Periodically summarizes points already made

- Previews topics to be covered in future lectures
- Reviews topics covered in previous lecture
- States objectives of each lecture
- Explains how each topic fits into the course as a whole
- *Consistently and regularly updates lecture materials with most recent research and examples*

Interaction

This category encompasses behaviors that call for the instructor to be actively and frequently involved in the classroom, and to participate with students in order to facilitate learning and push/promote/encourage a satisfactory learning experience.

- *Attends class regularly*
- Expects students to answer questions directed to class
- Encourages participation in classroom discussion
- Asks questions of class as a whole
- Asks questions of individual students
- Encourages questions or comments during lectures
- Encourages students to think independently
- Incorporates students' ideas into lecture
- *Engages in course discussions*

Speech clarity

This category includes behaviors that are associated with instructor's ability to effectively use a specific form of nonverbal communication, paralanguage, and to be lucidly understood.

- *Speaks loudly and clearly*
- *Does not mumble*
- *Speaks at a good rate*
- *Uses pauses effectively*
- *Pronounces words correctly*
- *Speaks English well*

Expressiveness

This category includes instructor behaviors that are specifically focused on the performance aspect of information that is aimed to engage students through strong public speaking elements.

- ***Tells jokes or humorous anecdotes** (moved from Interest)*
- Speaks in a dramatic or expressive way
- Smiles or laughs while teaching
- *Entertaining, energetic, and enthusiastic in delivery*
- *Clearly passionate about the subject*
- *Demonstrates desire to teach*

Emphasis/ Reinforcement

These behaviors are focused on helping students understand a specific concept or learning element by explaining or highlighting information as asked by students or necessitated by course content

- Uses concrete examples to explain abstract principles
- Gives several examples of each concept
- Stresses most important points related to a theory or concept
- *Explains topics in depth*
- *Repeats information when necessary*

Mannerisms

These behaviors are concerned with the way instructors utilize gestures and body language when teaching

- ***Exhibits facial gestures or expressions** (moved from expressiveness)*
- ***Gestures with hands or arms** (moved from expressiveness)*
- *Moves around the room*

Use of graphs/Media use

This category of behaviors is concerned with instructor's use of supplementary audio and visual materials (e.g., notes, online LMS, videos, various forms of technology)

- Uses graphs or diagrams to facilitate explanation
- Writes key terms on blackboard or overhead screen
- Uses audiovisual aids to illustrate concepts
- Uses a variety of different activities or media formats

- *Knows how to work and operate the LMS*
- *Adapts materials to the medium*
- *Provides learning materials in variety of formats*
- *Tech savvy*

Vocabulary

These behaviors demonstrate instructor's ability to use language in a creative/understandable way

- *Does not use big words that students do not understand*
- *Explains subject matter in informal, colloquial language*
- *Exhibits literacy*
- *Exhibits quality and accuracy of typing*

Rule Enforcement

These behaviors are associated with the instructor's efforts to maintain order in a classroom by enforcing and upholding a code of conduct.

- *Effectively manages the classroom*
- *Exhibits zero tolerance for disruptive students*

Other

Note. Wording placed in italics are additions or adjustments to Erdle and Murray's (1986) typology.

** Identifies examples that have been moved from original to a new location (origin is identified in parenthesis)

Coding process. Each short answer to each of the nine RED questions was coded as a single unit of analysis. For the purposes of analysis only clearly identified behaviors were analyzed. Ossorio (2006) conceptualized behavior "as an attempt on the part of an individual to bring about some state of affairs – either to effect a change from one state of affairs to another, or to maintain a currently existing one (Ossorio, 2006, p. 49, in Bergner, 2011). Thus, for the purposes of this study, instructor behavior was then conceptualized as any action directed towards the students for the purposes of supporting their learning. Initially, two coders (myself

and a hired outside coder) independently coded 150 units and identified a number of behaviors that did not clearly fit the existing typology, which resulted in codebook revision (see Appendix E). Through meaningful discussion with the independent coder, I made necessary adjustments to the instrument clarifying conceptual definitions and adding additional exemplars, leaving a total of 12 exhaustive and mutually exclusive categories.

Next, we used the new typology to code 200 more units to determine if any further changes were necessary. Here we also paid attention to the “Other” category, to see if any new themes would emerge. Indeed, we made further amendments to the revised typology to better represent our data, which resulted in the addition of 1 more category (*rule enforcement*) in the original typology, to bring the total number of categories to 13. This category included behaviors that were associated with the instructor’s efforts to maintain a classroom by enforcing rules and code of conduct. Examples in this category included “classroom management,” and “no tolerance for disruptive students.”

This typology was used to code 150 more units, at which time it was deemed to be sufficient to proceed with independent coding of the remainder of units (see Table 10 for a list of the behaviors and their conceptual definitions). We established intercoder reliability by coding 10% of the randomly selected units ($\kappa = 92.3\%$), and discussed and resolved any disagreements in a follow-up meeting.

Finally, it should be noted that while every effort was made to instruct participants to answer as clearly as they can when identifying each required, expected, and desired instructor behaviors, some answers remained extremely unclear, and, as such, could not be placed in any of the existing categories (e.g., “quite,” “assignments,” “to want to want to finish the classwork

each week,” “react,” “usable,” “lgqx.”). As a result, “Other” category contained 145 units of unusable data (2% of total units). These units were discarded from further analysis.

CHAPTER 5 RESULTS

Research Questions Results

Research Questions 1 and 2 Results

To examine research questions 1 and 2, which asked about students' RED factors in FtF and OL classrooms, an existing Erdle and Murray's (1986) typology of interpersonally oriented instructors behaviors was used and further extended to deductively code the data. Results of the research questions 1 and 2 are reported next. For each category I provide a conceptual definition created as a result of this study, followed by data exemplars and identified frequencies (for a full list of frequencies see Table 11).

Rapport. This category is concerned with interpersonally-oriented instructor behaviors towards the student when supporting his/her learning process, including being available, concerned, patient and professional. It is important to note that this category encompasses unique behaviors that focus on both creating a supportive connection with individual students, and also exhibiting instructor flexibility and fairness to all students. This is a slightly different view of typical rapport behaviors that are discussed in the existing literature, and explanation of this view is offered in the discussion. Data examples of instructor behaviors that fall into this category include: availability outside of classroom to answer questions and concerns, being interested in student ideas, knowing student names, providing prompt responses to student questions, being interested in student ideas, exhibiting fairness and tolerance of opposing views, etc. (for additional exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 42.2% ($n = 1881$), and in OL data was 47.6% ($n = 732$). This category was the most frequently named required, expected, and desired instructor behavior by both FtF and OL students. This was the only category of behaviors that emerged similarly in both datasets.

Interest. This category encompasses behaviors that are directed towards helping students understand the subject matter and exhibit instructor's intellectual presence while supporting and enhancing student motivation to learn, and curiosity towards the content. Examples of instructor behaviors within this category include: relating subject matter to current events, pointing out practical applications of concepts and sharing personal experiences, employing various teaching methods to appeal to different learning styles, and assigning work relevant to course learning objectives, etc. (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 18.1% ($n = 807$), and in OL data was 11.2% ($n = 172$).

Course disclosure. This category looks specifically at how the instructor directs an entire course experience by being transparent and forthcoming. The behaviors are catered towards helping students succeed in their learning process by providing clear expectations, orienting them towards important elements, and explaining mistakes. Some exemplar behaviors included in this category are advising students about how to prepare for tests, exams, and assignments; and suggesting organizational schemes for learning material (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 10% ($n = 443$), and in OL data was 21.7% ($n = 334$).

Organization. This category looks specifically at how the instructor prepares for and outlines a lecture or a course session, and how he/she helps students understand each individual lecture and the materials presented. Examples of instructor behaviors that fall within this category include presenting an outline of a lecture, organizing a lesson by means of points, headings, and subheadings, and updating lecture with most current research and examples (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 5.8% ($n = 260$), and in OL data was 7.5% ($n = 115$).

Interaction. This category encompasses behaviors that call for the instructor to be actively and frequently involved in the classroom, and to participate with students in order to facilitate learning and push/promote/encourage a satisfactory learning experience. Examples of behaviors that are coded into this category include: encouraging student participation in classroom discussion, incorporating student ideas into a lecture, joining in discussions, etc. (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 6% ($n = 267$), and in OL data was 3% ($n = 46$).

Speech clarity. This category includes behaviors that are associated with instructor's ability to effectively use paralanguage, and to be lucidly understood. Examples of behaviors coded included speaking at a good rate, pronouncing words correctly, speaking loudly and clearly, etc. (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 3.3% ($n = 149$), and in OL data was 1.1% ($n = 17$).

Expressiveness. This category includes instructor behaviors that are focused on the way instructor presents course material. These behaviors are concerned with the performance aspect of information that is aimed at creating interest and motivation to learn the material by implementing effective public speaking elements. Examples of expressive behaviors include smiling or laughing while lecturing, delivering with entertainment, energy, and enthusiasm, and demonstrating passion and desire for teaching and the subject matter (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 7.5% ($n = 335$), and in OL data was 2.3% ($n = 36$).

Emphasis. These behaviors are focused on helping students understand a specific concept or learning element by explaining or highlighting information as asked by students or necessitated by course content. Examples of emphasis behaviors include using concrete

examples to explain abstract principles, stressing most important points related to a theory or concept, and repeating information when necessary (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 1.5% ($n = 66$), and in OL data was 0.2% ($n = 3$).

Mannerisms. These behaviors are concerned with nonverbal elements of instructor behaviors, such as gestures and body language. Examples of mannerism behaviors include: exhibiting facial gestures or expressions, gesturing, and moving around the room (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 0.4% ($n = 17$), and no mentions in the OL data.

Use of graphs/media use (merged category). This category of behaviors is concerned with instructor's use of supplementary audio and visual materials (e.g., notes, online LMS, various forms of technology). Behaviors in this category include using graphs or diagrams to facilitate explanation, using a variety of different activities or media formats, and being tech savvy (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 2.1% ($n = 95$), and in OL data was 3.2% ($n = 49$).

Vocabulary. These behaviors demonstrate instructor's ability to use language in a creative/understandable way. Examples of behaviors include being able to explain subject matter in informal, colloquial language; and exhibiting quality and accuracy of typing (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 0.2% ($n = 11$), and in OL data was 0.4% ($n = 6$).

Rule enforcement (a newly created category). These behaviors are associated with the instructor's efforts to maintain order in a classroom by imposing and upholding a code of conduct. Behaviors in this category include "Effectively manages the classroom" and

“Exhibiting zero tolerance for disruptive students” (for a full list of exemplars see Table 10). Total number of references for this category of behaviors in FtF data was 0.3% ($n = 12$), and no mentions in the OL data.

Table 11

Percentage of FtF Behaviors Referencing Each Category and Total Units Coded (N=4458)

<u>Instructor Behavior</u>	<u>Number of Requirements references</u> (% of total n / % within category)	<u>Number Expectations references</u> (% of total n / % within category)	<u>Number of Desires references</u> (% of total n / % within category)	<u>Total number of references</u> (% of total n / % within category)
Rapport	563 12.6% / 29.9%	672 15.1% / 35.7%	646 14.5% / 34.4%	1881 42.2% / 100%
Interest	288 6.5% / 35.7%	249 5.6% / 30.8%	270 6.1% / 33.5%	807 18.1% / 100%
Course disclosure	213 4.8% / 48.1%	137 3.1% / 30.9%	93 2.1% / 21%	443 10% / 100%
Expressiveness	87 2% / 26%	90 2% / 26.7%	158 3.5% / 47.3%	335 7.5% / 100%
Interaction	112 2.5% / 42%	85 1.9% / 31.8%	70 1.6% / 26.2%	267 6% / 100%
Organization	106 2.4% / 40.8%	107 2.4% / 41.2%	47 1.1% / 18%	260 5.8% / 100%

Speech clarity	69 1.5% / 46.3%	45 1% / 30.2%	35 0.8% / 23.5%	149 3.3% / 100%
Media use	29 0.7% / 30.6%	33 0.7% / 34.7%	33 0.7% / 34.7%	95 2.1% / 100%
Emphasis	29 0.7% / 43.9%	17 0.4% / 25.8%	20 0.4% / 30.3%	66 1.5% / 100%
Mannerisms	7 0.2% / 41.2%	5 0.1% / 29.4%	5 0.1% / 29.4%	17 0.4% / 100%
Rule enforcement	2 < 0.05%/ 16.6%	5 0.1% / 41.7%	5 0.1% / 41.7%	12 0.3% / 100%
Vocabulary	4 0.1% / 36.4%	6 0.1% / 54.5%	1 <0.03% / 9.1%	11 0.2% / 100%
Other	25 0.6% 21.8%	45 1% / 39.1%	45 1% 39.1%	115 2.6% / 100%

Table 12

Percentage of OL Behaviors Referencing Each Category and Total Units Coded (N=1538)

<u>Instructor Behavior</u>	<u>Number of Requirements references</u> (% of total n / % within category)	<u>Number Expectations references</u> (% of total n / % within category)	<u>Number of Desires references</u> (% of total n / % within category)	<u>Total number of references</u> (% of total n / % within category)
Rapport	250 16.3% / 34.2%	246 16% / 33.6%	236 15.3% / 32.2%	732 47.6% / 100%
Course Disclosure	135 8.8% / 40.4%	116 7.5% / 34.7%	83 5.4% / 24.9%	334 21.7% / 100%
Interest	51 3.3% / 29.6%	60 3.9% / 34.9%	61 4% / 35.5%	172 11.2% / 100%
Organization	53 3.4% / 46.1%	38 2.5% / 33%	24 1.6% / 20.9%	115 7.5% / 100%
Media use	10 0.7% / 20.4%	19 1.2% / 38.8%	20 1.3% / 40.8%	49 3.2% / 100%
Interaction	11 0.7% / 23.9%	16 1% / 34.8%	19 1.2% / 41.3%	46 3% / 100%
Expressiveness	10 0.65% / 27.8%	7 0.5% / 19.4%	19 1.2% / 52.8%	36 2.3% / 100%

Speech clarity	10 0.65% / 58.8%	2 0.1% / 11.8%	5 0.3% / 29.4%	17 1.1% / 100%
Vocabulary	3 0.2% / 50%	3 0.2% / 50%	0	6 0.4% / 100%
Emphasis	3 0.2% / 100%	0	0	3 0.2% / 100%
Mannerisms	0	0	0	0
Rule enforcement	0	0	0	0
Other	7 0.5% / 25%	12 0.8% / 42.9%	9 0.6% / 32.1%	28 1.8% 32.1%

Research Question 3 Results

To answer research question 3, which asked whether there would be differences between the two comparison groups (FtF vs. OL), I first examined frequencies and mentions of each category (see Tables 11 and 12). Most notable frequency counts between categories showed that rapport was named most frequently as a required, expected, and desired instructor behavior by both FtF (42.2%) and OL (47.6%) students, outperforming the secondly most frequently named behavior in each mode of delivery by more than half. The second most frequently named category differed between the modes of delivery, with FtF students naming interest (18.1%), and OL students naming course disclosure (21.7%). Only FtF students named the rule enforcement (0.3%) and mannerisms (0.4%) categories; OL students made no mentions of these behaviors. Expressiveness was named fourth desired behavior by FtF students (3.5%), more often than

course disclosure (2.1%) and organization (1.1%), while in OL students it was named less frequently (1.2%) than course disclosure (5.4%) and organization (1.6%). Media use was named more frequently than interaction as both an expected and desired behavior by OL students, but less frequently as a required, expected, and desired behavior by FtF students.

Some note-worthy frequencies results occurred within a few categories as well. Rapport was less required (29.9%) and more expected (35.7%) and desired (34.4%) by FtF students, but more required (34.2%) and less expected (33.6%) and desired (32.2%) by OL students (even though much more equally distributed among the REDs in OL students mentions). Course disclosure was almost twice more required (40.4%) than desired (24.9%) by OL students, and more than twice more required (48.1%) than desired (21%) by FtF students. Expressiveness was more desired by both FtF (47.3%) and OL (52.8%) students than required or expected. Interaction was more required (42%) than desired or expected by FtF students, whereas less required (23.9%), and more desired (41.3%) and expected (34.8%) by OL students.

Next, a *chi-square* test was performed to examine the relationship between modes of delivery (FtF vs. OL), and top requirements, top expectations, and top desires of instructor behaviors. For this research question, I chose only top behaviors for mode of delivery comparison, since these were deemed the most significant by participants (as indicated in the surveys). Results showed that there were significant differences in distributions of all variables between the two groups ($p < .05$), indicating that some instructor behaviors happened more or less often than would be expected by chance alone according to teaching context (i.e., FtF or OL).

Requirements. The chi-square analysis for the top required behavior was $\chi^2 (11, n = 699) = 57.89, p < 0.5$. The omnibus chi-square was significant. An examination of residuals of the top

required behavior, as well as pairwise comparisons of the proportions (see Table 13 below), indicates that OL participants select rapport significantly more than FtF participants, although for both groups it is not happening more or less than would be expected by chance alone. FtF participants select interest significantly more than do OL participants, although for OL participants it is happening significantly less than would be expected. Course disclosure is being selected significantly more by the OL participants, where the selection is also occurring more often than would be expected; same behavior is occurring less often than would be expected in FtF group. Finally, both interaction and expressiveness occur significantly more often in FtF dataset than in the OL dataset, where participants in the OL group are selecting each behavior significantly less often than would be expected by chance alone. In sum, for the first group of required behaviors, it appears that rapport and course disclosure appear proportionately more often for the OL group, with course disclosure seeming to be much more important for the OL than for the FtF group. On the other hand, interest, interaction and expressiveness appear more often in FtF than in OL, where they do not seem to be as important.

Table 13

Crosstabulations of FtF vs. OL Top Requirements Behaviors

Row		Column			
		FtF	OL	Total	
Requirements	Rapport	Count	165	79	244
		Expected Count	179.8	64.2	244.0
		% within FtF / OL	32.0%**	42.9%**	34.9%
		Std. Res.	-1.1	1.8	
	Interest	Count	95	17	112
		Expected Count	82.5	29.5	112.0
		% within FtF / OL	18.4%**	9.2%**	16.0%
		Std. Res.	1.4	-2.3*	
	Course Disclosure	Count	85	60	145
		Expected Count	106.8	38.2	145.0
		% within FtF / OL	16.5%**	32.6%**	20.7%
		Std. Res.	-2.1*	3.5*	

Organization	Count	32	12	44
	Expected Count	32.4	11.6	44.0
	% within FtF / OL	6.2%	6.5%	6.3%
	Std. Res.	-.1	.1	
Interaction	Count	46	3	49
	Expected Count	36.1	12.9	49.0
	% within FtF / OL	8.9%**	1.6%**	7.0%
	Std. Res.	1.6	-2.8*	
Speech Clarity	Count	36	6	42
	Expected Count	30.9	11.1	42.0
	% within FtF / OL	7.0%	3.3%	6.0%
	Std. Res.	.9	-1.5	
Expressiveness	Count	33	1	34
	Expected Count	25.1	8.9	34.0
	% within FtF / OL	6.4%**	0.5%**	4.9%
	Std. Res.	1.6	-2.7*	
Emphasis	Count	8	0	8
	Expected Count	5.9	2.1	8.0
	% within FtF / OL	1.6%	0.0%	1.1%
	Std. Res.	.9	-1.5	
Mannerisms	Count	1	0	1
	Expected Count	.7	.3	1.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%
	Std. Res.	.3	-.5	
Media Use	Count	8	4	12
	Expected Count	8.8	3.2	12.0
	% within FtF / OL	1.6%	2.2%	1.7%
	Std. Res.	-.3	.5	
Vocabulary	Count	2	2	4
	Expected Count	2.9	1.1	4.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.4%	1.1%	0.6%
	Std. Res.	-.6	.9	
Other	Count	4	0	4
	Expected Count	2.9	1.1	4.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.8%	0.0%	0.6%
	Std. Res.	.6	-1.0	
Total	Count	515	184	699
	Expected Count	515.0	184.0	699.0
	% within FtF / OL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note. * indicates significance in standardized residuals at $p < 0.05$ level, one-tailed

** indicates significant difference in proportions of FtF/OL groups at $p < 0.05$ level

*** Rule Enforcement category was never identified as a top required behavior, thus, it has been excluded from the analysis

Expectations. The chi-square analysis for the top expected behavior was χ^2 (12, $N = 689$) = 52.54, $p < .05$. The omnibus chi-square was significant. An examination of residuals of the top expected behavior, as well as pairwise comparisons of the proportions (see Table 14 below), indicates that FtF participants selected interest and expressiveness significantly more than the OL participants, where the selection was much lower than would be expected by chance alone. OL participants named course disclosure significantly more than did FtF participants, and selections in this category occurred significantly less often than it would be expected by chance alone for the FtF participants, and significantly more often for the OL participants.

Table 14

Crosstabulations of FtF vs. OL Top Expectations Behaviors

Row		Column			
		FtF	OL	Total	
Expectations	Rapport	Count	222	86	308
		Expected Count	227.1	80.9	308.0
		% within FtF / OL	43.7%	47.5%	44.7%
		Std. Res.	-.3	.6	
Interest		Count	96	17	113
		Expected Count	83.3	29.7	113.0
		% within FtF / OL	18.9%**	9.4%**	16.4%
		Std. Res.	1.4	-2.3*	
Course Disclosure		Count	46	43	89
		Expected Count	65.6	23.4	89.0
		% within FtF / OL	9.1%**	23.8%**	12.9%
		Std. Res.	-2.4*	4.1*	
Organization		Count	38	15	53
		Expected Count	39.1	13.9	53.0
		% within FtF / OL	7.5%	8.3%	7.7%
		Std. Res.	-.2	.3	
Interaction		Count	27	7	34
		Expected Count	25.1	8.9	34.0
		% within FtF / OL	5.3%	3.9%	4.9%
		Std. Res.	.4	-.6	

Speech Clarity	Count	15	1	16
	Expected Count	11.8	4.2	16.0
	% within FtF / OL	3.0%	0.6%	2.3%
	Std. Res.	.9	-1.6	
Expressiveness	Count	39	2	41
	Expected Count	30.2	10.8	41.0
	% within FtF / OL	7.7%**	1.1%**	6.0%
	Std. Res.	1.6	-2.7*	
Emphasis	Count	2	0	2
	Expected Count	1.5	.5	2.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.4%	0.0%	0.3%
	Std. Res.	.4	-.7	
Mannerisms	Count	1	0	1
	Expected Count	.7	.3	1.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%
	Std. Res.	.3	-.5	
Media Use	Count	8	7	15
	Expected Count	11.1	3.9	15.0
	% within FtF / OL	1.6%	3.9%	2.2%
	Std. Res.	-.9	1.5	
Vocabulary	Count	0	1	1
	Expected Count	.7	.3	1.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.0%	0.6%	0.1%
	Std. Res.	-.9	1.4	
Rule Enforcement	Count	1	0	1
	Expected Count	.7	.3	1.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%
	Std. Res.	.3	-.5	
Other	Count	13	2	15
	Expected Count	11.1	3.9	15.0
	% within FtF / OL	2.6%	1.1%	2.2%
	Std. Res.	.6	-1.0	
Total	Count	508	181	689
	Expected Count	508.0	181.0	689.0
	% within FtF / OL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note. * indicates significance in standardized residuals at $p < 0.05$ level, one-tailed
 ** indicates significant difference in proportions of FtF/OL groups at $p < 0.05$ level

Desires. The chi-square analysis for the top desired behavior was $\chi^2 (10, N = 654) = 34.54, p < .05$. The omnibus chi-square was significant. An examination of residuals of the top desired behavior, as well as pairwise comparisons of the proportions (see Table 15 below), indicates that OL participants select rapport significantly more frequently than do FtF participants, although these selections are not happening significantly more or less than would be expected by chance alone. Furthermore, course disclosure is selected significantly more by the OL participants, where the selection is occurring more frequently that would be expected by chance alone. Finally, FtF participants chose expressiveness significantly more frequently than do OL participants, where the selection also occurs less than would be expected by chance alone. In sum, OL participants placed more importance on rapport and course disclosure, with course disclosure being placed proportionally much higher in the OL than in FtF groups; whereas FtF participants were more likely to choose expressiveness than were the OL students, who ranked that category of behavior much lower on their desired spectrum of behaviors.

Table 15

Crosstabulations of FtF vs. OL Top Desires Behaviors

Row			Column		Total
			FtF	OL	
Desires	Rapport	Count	215	92	307
		Expected Count	229.1	77.9	307.0
		% within FtF / OL	44.1%**	55.4%**	46.9%
		Std. Res.	-.9	1.6	
Interest	Interest	Count	92	21	113
		Expected Count	84.3	28.7	113.0
		% within FtF / OL	18.9%	12.7%	17.3%
		Std. Res.	.8	-1.4	
Course Disclosure	Course Disclosure	Count	31	25	56
		Expected Count	41.8	14.2	56.0
		% within FtF / OL	6.4%**	15.1%**	8.6%
		Std. Res.	-1.7	2.9*	

Organization	Count	14	6	20
	Expected Count	14.9	5.1	20.0
	% within FtF / OL	2.9%	3.6%	3.1%
	Std. Res.	-.2	.4	
Interaction	Count	21	8	29
	Expected Count	21.6	7.4	29.0
	% within FtF / OL	4.3%	4.8%	4.4%
	Std. Res.	-.1	.2	
Speech Clarity	Count	10	3	13
	Expected Count	9.7	3.3	13.0
	% within FtF / OL	2.0%	1.8%	2.0%
	Std. Res.	.1	-.2	
Expressiveness	Count	70	6	76
	Expected Count	56.7	19.3	76.0
	% within FtF / OL	14.3%**	3.6%**	11.6%
	Std. Res.	1.8	-3.0*	
Emphasis	Count	7	0	7
	Expected Count	5.2	1.8	7.0
	% within FtF / OL	1.4%	0.0%	1.1%
	Std. Res.	.8	-1.3	
Mannerisms	Count	4	0	4
	Expected Count	3.0	1.0	4.0
	% within FtF / OL	0.8%	0.0%	0.6%
	Std. Res.	.6	-1.0	
Media Use	Count	13	3	16
	Expected Count	11.9	4.1	16.0
	% within FtF / OL	2.7%	1.8%	2.4%
	Std. Res.	.3	-.5	
Other	Count	11	2	13
	Expected Count	9.7	3.3	13.0
	% within FtF / OL	2.3%	1.2%	2.0%
	Std. Res.	.4	-.7	
Total	Count	488	166	654
	Expected Count	488.0	166.0	654.0
	% within FtF / OL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note. * indicates significance in standardized residuals at $p < 0.05$ level, one-tailed

** indicates significant difference in proportions of FtF/OL groups at $p < 0.05$ level

*** Rule enforcement category was never identified as a top required behavior, thus, it has been excluded from the analysis

Research Question 4: Disciplinary Differences Results

To examine research question 4, which inquired about existence of disciplinary differences in students' requirements, expectations, and desires of various instructor behaviors, a chi-square analysis was conducted. Initial results showed that there were no significant differences in distributions of variables within the two groups, with the exception of the top expected behavior within the OL group, where $\chi^2 (56, N = 165) = 94.28, p < .05$; and the third expected behaviors within the FtF group, where $\chi^2 (91, N = 453) = 137.86, p < .05$. However, these results indicated a large number of expected counts < 5 : for instance, requirement 1, 66.7% of counts; requirement 2, 70.8%, and requirement 3, 87.5%. Thus, this data was in major violation of the χ^2 assumption that no more than 20% of expected counts be < 5 , as small expected values indicate that it is likely that the results are inflated. By convention, these results necessitated the use of Fisher's exact rather than the Pearson's p -value. Additionally, given that the number of rows and columns was greater than two, Cramer's V (the values of which are not dependent on N) was used to examine the strength of association between the variables. Results indicated that Cramer's V values were also weak, to suggest that, even if there were more counts in the various cells, it would still be necessary to conclude that there was no relationship between these particular variables.

Nevertheless, to make a concerted effort to answer this research question, I made a decision to combine my existing 8 variables into more rudimentary ones. Thus, I created new variables by scaling down existing 8 categories to just two. I repeated the process three times to end up with three basic rudimentary categories: in the first test my 8 variables were scaled down to two variables of just hard and soft discipline, in the second test – life and nonlife, and in the third test – pure and applied. I ran 3 different analyses first comparing hard to soft, then life to

nonlife, then pure to applied. All three tests came back failing the assumptions of no more than 20% of cells having undercounts, and all but one (i.e., expectation 3 in FtF group) indicated no significance. Based on my interpretation of results and my knowledge of the dataset, there was no reasonable explanation that third chosen expectation would have significance, when all other variables in other tests had none. Therefore, with a word of caution, it was concluded that the lack of significance in the omnibus Fisher's/chi-square tests is not merely due to a sample distribution of small counts, but rather to an actual lack of dependence of one variable on the other.

Research Questions 5 Results: Testing Impact of IE on Academic Motivation

To test RQ5, which examined if a linear combination of immediacy, interaction, teaching presence, emotional intimacy and trust would significantly predict internal student motivation in FTF/OL classrooms, multiple linear regression (MLR) was used. Using MLR helped determine which of the five independent variables, or combination of which, best predicted student motivation. The independent variables were immediacy, interaction, teaching presence, emotional intimacy and trust. The test was controlled for course level (e.g., undergraduate vs. graduate, etc.). A hierarchical multiple regression using an Enter method was used to test the model, with academic status entered in the first block, and the five predictors (interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, trust and emotional intimacy) in the second block.

FtF group results. The multiple regression analysis for the first block in the FtF group was significant, $F(1, 441) = 11.34, p < .05$, where 2.5% of the variance in academic motivation was accounted for by the graduate vs. undergraduate status of participants (see Table 16 below). The regression analysis for the second block was also significant $F(7, 434) = 20.58, p < .05$, where 24.3% of the variance in academic motivation was accounted for by interaction, teaching

presence, immediacy, trust and emotional intimacy, when holding the academic status of participants constant. The research question was supported, in that the block of variables did significantly predict motivation; however, only some of the variables emerged as significant predictors in and of themselves. Only student-directed interaction remained a positive predictor, but not instructor-directed interaction. Likewise, only immediacy by encouragement remained significant, not immediacy by irrelevance. Interestingly, the beta for teaching presence ($\beta = -.38$) was negative.

Table 16

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Academic Motivation in FtF (N = 442)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Academic level	.30	.09	.16**	.18	.08	.1*
Student-directed interaction				.15	.05	.16**
Instructor-directed interaction				-.07	.07	-.09
Teaching presence				-.38	.08	-.46***
Immediacy by irrelevance				.01	.04	.02
Immediacy by encouragement				.22	.09	.24*
Trust				.18	.06	.22**
Emotional intimacy				-.05	.07	-.06
R^2		.025			.27	
<i>F</i> for change in R^2		11.34**			20.58**	

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. *** = $p < .001$.

OL group results. The multiple regression analysis for the first block in the OL group was not significant, $F(1, 146) = .174, p = .68$, indicating that participants' academic status did not significantly contribute to variance in academic motivation (see Table 17 below). The results for the second block were significant, $F(7, 139) = 5.65, p < .05$, where 22.1% of the variance in academic motivation was accounted for by the addition of interaction, immediacy, and teaching presence, trust and emotional intimacy, when holding academic status of participants constant. Thus, once again, the linear combination of the five IE factors did significantly predict motivation; however, caution should be taken interpreting this result, as teaching presence was the only significant predictor of academic motivation ($p < .05$), with the beta also suggesting that teaching presence - clarity is a *negative* predictor of motivation, where one unit increase in teaching presence – clarity results in .31 unit decrease in academic motivation when holding other predictors constant.

Table 17

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Academic Motivation in OL (N = 147)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Academic level	.08	.19	.03	-.01	.19	-.004
Interaction				-.004	.11	-.004
Teaching presence – clarity				-.31	.15	-.37*
Teaching presence – helpfulness				-.04	.11	-.05
Immediacy by irrelevance				-.04	.09	-.04
Immediacy by encouragement				.04	.14	.04
Trust				.05	.12	.05
Emotional intimacy				-.08	.12	-.08
R^2		.001			.22	

F for change in R^2	.17	5.65***
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Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. *** = $p < .001$.

Testing Hypotheses

To test the remaining hypothesis (H1, H2, H3, and H4), a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses was conducted. A series of hierarchical multiple regressions were used, as these allowed for examination of the effect that various multiple independent variables had on a dependent variable beyond others that were controlled. To determine the primary driver of motivation, a fixed order of entry for independent variable tested the effects of certain predictors independent of influence of others, and control for the effects of covariates.

Hypothesis 1 Results. To test H1 (which predicted that when students value instructor engagement, and instructors do not demonstrate instructor engagement a negative violation of expectations occurs), I first selected cases of participants who recorded a violation between valuing IE and not seeing IE demonstrated in their course of reference. Next, to examine the value of violations, I conducted a one-sample t -test for each of the groups. A negative violation was recorded if the mean fell below 4, and a positive violation was recorded if the mean fell above 4.

FtF group results. For the FtF group ($N = 467$), 30.4% of participants ($n = 142$) selected “yes” to value and “no” to demonstrated; 23 participants did not complete the valence scale. Results of a one-sample t -test (see Table 19 below) indicated that students who valued IE but whose instructors did not demonstrate IE in the course of reference recorded a negative violation ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.3$), $t(118) = 24.86$, $p < .05$, two-tailed. This hypothesis was supported.

OL group results. For the OL group ($N = 153$), 41.8% of participants ($n = 64$) reported “yes” to value and “no” to demonstrated; 9 participants did not complete the valence scale.

Results of a one-sample *t*-test (see Table 19 below) indicated that students who valued IE but whose instructors did not demonstrate IE in the course of reference recorded a negative violation ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.27$), $t(53) = 17.1$, $p < .05$, two-tailed. This hypothesis was supported, but should be interpreted with caution given the low number of participants.

Table 18

Examining Violation of Expectations of IE

	<i>T</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	95% Confidence Interval
FtF valence of differences	24.86 ^{***}	118	2.97 (1.3)	[2.73 – 3.2]
OL valence of differences	17.1 ^{***}	53	2.94 (1.27)	[2.6 – 3.3]

Note. ^{***} = $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis 2 Results. Hypothesis 2 predicted that when students do not value instructor engagement, but their instructors enact instructor engagement, the value that students place on IE will determine the type of violation that would occur (negatively valenced value would cause a negative violation, and positively valenced value would cause a positive violation). In the FtF group, 62.2% ($n = 291$) indicated that their instructors demonstrated IE, vs. 37.8% ($n = 177$) who indicated that their instructors did not demonstrate IE. In the same FtF group, 90.4% ($n = 423$) indicated that they valued IE, vs. 9.6% ($n = 45$) who indicated that they did not value IE. I first selected cases of participants who reported that they did not value IE but whose instructors demonstrated IE in their course of reference. For the FtF group ($N = 467$), only 1.9% of participants ($n = 9$) selected “yes” to demonstrated IE, “no” to valuing IE. In the OL group, 42.25 ($n = 65$) indicated that their instructors demonstrated IE, vs. 57.8% ($n = 89$) who indicated that their instructors did not demonstrate IE. In the same group, 81.8% ($n = 126$) indicated that

they value IE, vs. 18.2% ($n = 28$) who indicated that they did not value IE. For the OL group ($N = 153$), only 2.6% ($n = 4$) reported “yes” to demonstrated, “no” to value. Given the extremely small number of participants in both groups that indicated that they do not value IE, which reduced the sample size that could be tested to an even smaller number, it was not possible to test this hypothesis. Discussion of the potential floor effect, and well as recommendations to reach saturation of future samples are offered in the limitation section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 3 Results. To test hypothesis 3, which predicted that for those participants who report no violation between valuing instructor engagement and actual instructor’s behavior, the requirements (R) factor is the variable that will account for the greatest amount of variance in motivation, I conducted a multiple linear regression using the questions that followed the hypothetical scenario of an “ideal” instructor. Multiple regression analysis helped explain the variance in academic motivation, as well as relative contributions of each of the RED factors to the total variance explained. First, only cases which reported no violation between valuing IE and demonstrated IE were selected. Next, a statistical regression with a forward method of entry was conducted. Forward method of entry allowed me to see the order in which three independent variables impacted the variance in student academic motivation.

FtF group results. The model was significant, $F(1, 311) = 15.41, p < 0.001$. Stepwise regression showed that only Expectation of IE was a significant predictor of academic motivation, accounting for 4.7% variance in academic motivation. Post-hoc analysis of a medium effect size indicated that the test carried 99% power ($1-\beta$). The hypothesis was not supported.

Table 19

Stepwise Regression Predicting Academic Motivation Using RED Factors in FtF (N = 312)

Model		<i>SS</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>MSq</i>	<i>F</i>
1	Regression	8.047	1	8.047	15.414***
	Residual	162.367	311	.522	
	Total	170.415	312		

Model Summary

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	<i>SEE</i>
1	.217 ^a	.047	.044	.72255

Note. *** $p < 0.001$

a. Predictors: (Constant), Expectations of IE

OL group results. Stepwise regression for this model did not identify any significant predictors. Results showed that none of the independent variables impact academic motivation in OL students. Enter method was used to evaluate individual predictor effect; the model was not significant, $F(3, 80) = 0.626$, $p = 0.6$. Post-hoc analysis of a medium effect size indicated that the test carried 82% power ($1 - \beta$). The hypothesis was not supported.

Table 20

Stepwise Regression Predicting Academic Motivation Using RED Factors in OL (N = 83)

Model		<i>SS</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>MSq</i>	<i>F</i>
1	Regression	1.208	3	.403	.626
	Residual	51.470	80	.643	
	Total	52.678	83		

Model Summary

	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	<i>SEE</i>
1	.151 ^a	.023	-.014	.80211

Note. a. Predictors: (Constant), Requirements of IE, Expectations of IE, Desires of IE

Hypothesis 4 Results. Finally, hypothesis 4 (which predicted that if violations between student expectations of instructor behavior and actual instructor behavior occur, the valence that students place on that violation is what influences their academic motivation) was tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Predictor of valence of differences was entered in the first block, and RED factors were entered in the second block.

FtF group results. The hierarchical regression analysis for the first block was significant, $F(1, 124) = 8.12, p < .05$, where 6.1% of variance in academic motivation was accounted for by valence that students place on the RED factors. The hierarchical regression analysis for the second block was also significant, $F(3, 121) = 2.64, p = .05$, where RED factors accounted for additional 5.8% variance in the model, but only valence was a significant predictor of motivation (requirements, $p = .16$; expectations, $p = .19$; desires, $p = .7$). Zero-order correlations showed that valence had the highest but small relationship with motivation ($r = .25$), followed by requirements ($r = .17$) and expectations ($r = .15$), and almost no relationship existed between desires and motivation ($r = .04$). Given that valence remained a significant predictor of motivation, even after controlling for REDs, hypothesis was supported.

Table 21

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Academic Motivation in FtF (N = 125)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Valence of differences	.19	.07	.25**	.22	.07	.3**
Requirements of IE				.1	.07	.14
Expectations of IE				.08	.06	.13

Desires of IE		.03	.07	.04
R^2	.06		.12	
F for change in R^2	8.12**		2.64*	

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

OL group results. The hierarchical regression analysis for the first block was not significant, $F(1, 55) = 2.65$, $p = .11$, where 4.6% of variance in academic motivation was accounted for by valence that students place on the RED factors. The hierarchical regression analysis for the second block was also not significant, $F(3, 52) = 2.53$, $p = .07$, where RED factors accounted for additional 12.1% variance in the model. However, analysis of variance indicated that the second model was significant $F(4, 52) = 2.61$, $p < .05$, and zero-order correlations showed that requirements had the highest but small relationship with motivation ($r = .25$), followed by desires ($r = .17$) and expectations ($r = .08$). Although the second model was not significant, it is possible that there was not enough power in this sample. Therefore, it would be adequate to go with a more liberal $p = .1$, accepting the significance of the second model with $p < .10$. After controlling for RED factors, and considering a much more moderate $p < .1$, valence emerged as a significant positive predictor of motivation. Therefore, taken with the zero-order correlations, H4 for the OL participants was supported. Nevertheless, results should be interpreted with caution, as after dismissing a number of invalid responses, the sample size was well below an a priori established sample size for even a small effect. Future research should obtain a much larger sample and re-test this hypothesis.

Table 22

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Academic Motivation in OL (N = 56)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2	
	B	$SE B$	β	B	$SE B$

	β					
Valence of differences	.16	.07	.21	.25	.10	.33*
Requirements of IE				.23	.12	.32
Expectations of IE				-.11	.11	-.17
Desires of IE				.13	.12	.17
R^2					.17	
		.05				
F for change in R^2		2.65			2.53	

Note. * = $p < 0.1$

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This study examined student values of instructor engagement, a concept that was (re)conceptualized and operationalized in this study. Overall, results indicate that students value IE as an instructor behavior in both FtF and OL classrooms, but demonstrate some differences in their preferences of various instructor behaviors depending on the mode of course delivery. Students also mentioned a number of instructor behaviors that they require, expect, and desire, with rapport emerging as a particularly important behavior. While no disciplinary differences in instructor behaviors were detected in students RED factors in FtF and OL courses, there were some notable differences between FtF and OL students. There also appears to be viable consequences of violating student expectations for IE behaviors in both FtF and OL classrooms, indicating that when students are exposed to “ideal” instructors, they hope for similar experiences in other courses but feel significantly worse about those instructors who do not carry the “ideal” instructor qualities. Finally, in general, results indicate that FtF and OL courses are different from each other, and that students in these courses appear to carry different expectations and interpretations for values of various instructor engagement behaviors. Thus, looking at and interpreting all results holistically, it is concluded that when comparing FtF and OL courses, researchers should exercise caution and not assume that what works in one mode of delivery regarding IE and instructor behavior could also work in another. A one-size fits all approach is not recommended, and each mode of course delivery should be treated and examined based on its unique characteristics, with concepts specifically designed for and tested in that particular mode.

Summary and Explanation of Results

Research Questions

RED Results (RQs 1, 2, and 3). The first set of research questions aimed to explore which students require, expect, and desire various valuable instructor behaviors that potentially student satisfaction and motivation in FtF and OL classrooms, and to examine the extent of any differences or similarities that may exist between the two modes of course delivery. To answer these questions, an existing Erdle and Murray's (1986) typology of interpersonally oriented instructor behaviors was first refined then used to code the data. Next, research question 3 was answered using chi-square analyses. The results are discussed below, starting with the typology, then transitioning to similarities and differences in the REDs for online and FtF classrooms.

Instructor behaviors. A number of changes were made to the original typology in order to fit the data. The first change made in this study was validation and further refinement of the existing coding typology. It is note-worthy to discuss added conceptual definitions of some categories, as they may not be reflective of the terms as they are currently operationalized in the literature, as well as contextualize these additions within existing research. In this section, I address these changes first, and then proceed to addressing differences and similarities between two groups. I also discuss how each behavior fits (or does not fit) within the IE framework presented in Chapter 2.

Rapport. First, the rapport category of the original typology does not exclusively include instructor behaviors that are typically associated with instructor rapport as it is examined in communication literature (i.e., prosocial behaviors enacted to build relationships of trust and to promote social interaction, see Catt, Miller, & Schallenkamp, 2007; Coupland, 2003; Gremler & Gwinner, 2000). In addition to behaviors that are intended to foster a personal connection with individual students (which is an important aspect of IE), the original typology also includes those

that are directly related to instructor flexibility and fairness in their teaching, which is important but not as critical to IE. It is possible that there is more than one factor to rapport behaviors, as indicated in the wide range of items included in exemplars of the original typology, this study, and other research conducted. In fact, Gremler and Gwinner (2000) singled out two dimensions of rapport: enjoyable interaction and personal connections; Reis (1972) considered rapport to be verbal in nature (i.e., knowing students by names), and Puccinelli and Tickle-Degnen (2004) considered the nonverbal aspects (such as leaning forward). Conant, Smart, and Kelly (1988) found that rapport with students included: availability, friendly demeanor, professionalism, positive attitude, constructive feedback, and student organization involvement. These behaviors were most closely aligned with behaviors included in the category of rapport in this study. Thus, in line with previous research, rapport should be conceptualized along two dimensions, one that is relevant to IE (i.e., relational rapport) and the other relevant to teaching as a whole (i.e., teaching rapport).

Interest. The next category, interest, encompasses instructor behaviors that are directed towards helping students understand the subject matter and exhibit instructor's intellectual presence while supporting and enhancing student motivation to learn, and curiosity towards the content. These behaviors are related to the teaching presence aspect of IE in both the OL and FtF classroom. Research shows that intellectual stimulation increases students' intrinsic motivation to learn, leading them to be more interested in the subject matter and more actively engaged in their courses (Bolkan, Goodboy, & Griffin, 2011; Bolkan, 2015; Harvey, Royal & Stout, 2003; Weber, 2003).

Course disclosure. Course disclosure behaviors within the updated typology look specifically at how the instructor develops an entire course experience by being transparent and

forthcoming, particularly with feedback. These behaviors are catered towards helping students succeed in their learning process by providing clear expectations, orienting them towards important elements, and explaining mistakes. When looked at in regards to IE, course disclosure fits best within the teaching presence category of behaviors (although is woven through interaction as well). Research shows that course satisfaction and student academic motivation are related to communication that addresses full disclosure regarding objectives of and expectations for various assignments, as well as their overall alignment to course subject matter. Gaytan and McEwen (2007) found that students need meaningful and timely feedback to demonstrate quality learning, Collier and Morgan (2008) conducted interviews with both faculty and students who reported that all valued clear communication regarding assignment expectations and deadlines, and both Porter (1997) and Chang and Smith (2008) emphasized the importance of clearly communicating course goals and objectives.

Organization. The next category of organization, also closely aligned with teaching presence behaviors in the IE framework, looks specifically at how the instructor prepares for and arranges a lecture or a course session, and how he/she helps students understand each individual lecture and the materials presented. Student learning and student course satisfaction relies heavily on good organizational structure of each lecture (Entwhistle & Tait, 1990; Feldman, 1989; Marks, 2000; Murray, 1991) and reflect quality teaching (Chambers, 1992) in that it helps orient students to importance of specific material presented (Schonwetter, Clifton, & Perry, 2002).

Interaction. Interaction category calls for the instructor to be actively and frequently involved in the classroom, and to communicate with students in order to facilitate learning and push/promote/encourage a satisfactory learning experience, thus clearly replicating the

interaction dimension of IE. Sebastianelli and Tamimi (2011) found that professor-student interaction is the most useful in learning content, and Dallimore et al. (2004) found that instructors who ask effective questions, incorporate both professor's and students' ideas and experiences, and actively facilitate discussions enhance their quality of participation in the learning experience.

Speech clarity. The speech clarity category of the adjusted typology includes behaviors that are associated with instructor's ability to effectively use a specific form of nonverbal communication, paralanguage, and to be lucidly understood. While some research found that paralanguage does not have a significant effect on learning (Kim & Kim, 2015), there are findings that report that students rate instructors with a standard North American accent much higher than those with other accents (Gill, 1994), and those who lack speech fluency have been reportedly linked to receiver apprehension (Wheless, Preiss, & Gayle, 1997). Thus, speech clarity becomes a significant element of instructor behaviors and could potentially impact other factors relevant to IE, such as interaction (e.g., ability to be clearly understood impacts meaning and comprehension) and emotional intimacy (e.g., ability to feel understood and affirmed by the instructor), although these may be more pronounced in FtF verses OL classrooms.

Expressiveness. Expressiveness instructor behaviors are specifically focused on the performance aspect of information that is aimed to engage students through strong public speaking elements. A number of researchers over the years have reported that students rate enthusiastic and expressive instructors much higher than those who do not demonstrate similar delivery characteristics (Abrami et al., 1982; Naftulin, Ward, & Donnelly, 1973; Ware and Williams, 1975), as well as express preference for dramatic and dynamic communication styles

in their instructors (Potter & Emanuel, 1990). This category is closely aligned with immediacy factor of IE (i.e., using humor and the presence of nonverbal elements).

Emphasis/reinforcement behaviors. The next category of emphasis/reinforcement behaviors, most closely aligned with the teaching presence component of IE, encompasses behaviors aimed towards helping students understand a specific concept or learning element by explaining or highlighting information as asked by students or necessitated by course content. Highly rated instructors use concrete examples, and repeat difficult ideas (Greimel-Fuhrmann and Geyer, 2003; Murray, 1983); and instructors in Cai and Wang's (2010) study put more emphasis on developing student understanding of the relationship between the subject matter and real-life using concrete examples.

Mannerisms. The mannerisms category of behaviors is concerned with the way instructors utilize gestures and body language when teaching. Studies show that instructor's use of gestures aids in teaching and retaining complex concepts (Lee, Keene, Lee, Holstein, Early, & Eley, 2009; Weinberg, Fukawa-Connelly, & Wiesner, 2015; York, 2015). This particular category of behaviors is most closely related to nonverbal immediacy aspect of IE. It could be argued that in order for students to feel fully affirmed by their instructors, they may need to see nonverbal gestures that exhibit care and emotional intimacy. This connection would also explain why online students (who did not indicate emotional intimacy as a factor in increasing their student motivation, to be discussed later) made no mentions of this category when naming their instructor behavior REDs.

Media use. Use of graphs/media use category is concerned with instructor's employment of supplementary audio and visual materials (e.g., notes, online LMS, videos, various forms of technology), and falls within the teaching presence dimension of IE. Using supplementary videos

helps students better understand and remember key points (e.g., helps to reduce cognitive load of learned material), and well as increases their learning motivation and course satisfaction (Chang & Smith, 2008; Choi & Johnson, 2005; Ljubojevic et al., 2014). Furthermore, Murray (1983) found that highly rated instructors are those who use graphs and diagrams and audiovisual aids in their teaching.

Vocabulary. The vocabulary category of instructor behaviors most closely aligned with the teaching presence dimension of IE. These behaviors demonstrate instructor's ability to use language in a creative/understandable way. This particular category was further clarified to include exemplars of "exhibiting literacy" and "exhibiting quality and accuracy of typing," as many participants mentioned the importance of instructor being able to exhibit both literacy and accuracy of typing. Existing research indicates that instructors who use language in effective way are able to help learners reduce their cognitive load and to not only understand presented material, but also be able to make meaningful connections between their own experiences and that newly acquired information (Kanuka & Garrison, 2004).

Rule enforcement. The final (and newly added) category of rule enforcement was included in the typology to account for a number of notable mentions by participants in this study. Falling within the teaching presence dimension of IE, rule enforcement brings attention to the relevance of instructor presence and control over the classroom climate. Classroom incivility is a major concern in higher education classrooms (for an exhaustive literature review see Burke, Karl, Beluchete, & Evans, 2013), and research consistently shows that it has both psychological and social consequences, as well as interferes with learning (Clark & Springer, 2007; Feldmann, 2001; Hirschy & Braxton, 2004). Since this study did not prime participants to specific instructor behaviors and, instead, asked participants to offer their own views, the fact that some participants

(only in FtF group) brought attention to rule enforcement as a valued behavior supports previous research that found that students express frustration with disruptive behaviors and expect to have a more civil classroom (Benton, 2007; Bjorklund & Rehling, 2009; Carbonne, 1999).

Similarities and differences in instructor behaviors and REDs between FtF and OL.

Among the 12 identified categories of instructor behaviors, 7 behaviors did not emerge with significant differences between the two groups, proportionally speaking (i.e., emphasis, mannerisms, rule enforcement, organization, speech clarity, vocabulary, and media use). Among these 7 behaviors, emphasis, mannerisms, and rule enforcement were only mentioned as a top behavior by FtF, and never at all mentioned by the OL participants (it should, however, be noted that even the overall counts for these categories were quite small). Additionally, regardless of mode of course delivery, proportions results indicate that students appreciate organization, speech clarity, and media use. Finally, significant differences emerged in identification of 5 instructor behaviors (i.e., rapport, course disclosure, interest, interaction, and expressiveness), with expressiveness emerging as the only behavior mentioned as a top required, expected, and desired by FtF students significantly more than OL students, and course disclosure emerging in all three top RED factors proportionately more frequently in OL than in FtF. These differences are addressed next.

Rapport. Results indicated that students in both FtF and OL courses similarly and consistently named rapport as their top required, expected, and desired instructor behavior. Although OL students nominated rapport behaviors proportionally more often than did FtF students, the proportional differences might be explained by the significant differences in the number of the FtF vs. the OL sample. In fact, standardized residuals indicated that the behaviors were not mentioned much more or less than would be expected by chance, indicating that

students in both modes place equal value on rapport's significance in their instructor-student communication. This supports previous research that found that instructor-student rapport is an important element of interpersonal relationships in the classroom, which is related to perceptions of classroom connectedness and predicts valuable student outcomes (Wilson, Ryan & Pugh, 2010), such as motivation (Estep & Roberts, 2015; Grantiz, Koernig & Harich, 2008), participation, affective and cognitive learning in FtF (Frisby & Martin, 2010; Frisby & Myers, 2008;) and attitudes and learning gains in OL classrooms (Kim & Thayne, 2015; Peltier, Drago, & Schibrowsky, 2003).

More specifically, in FtF rapport has been linked to instructor-student relationship building (Frymier, 2007), supporting this element as an important characteristic of an effective instructor (Catt, Miller, & Schallenkamp 2007; Frisby & Myers, 2008) and in some studies even claiming it to be a characteristic of an "ideal" instructor (McLaughlin & Erickson, 1981), once again suggesting links between past and current research when it comes to recognizing value of instructor engagement. Similarly, Conrad (2002) found that in OL courses students both wanted (i.e., desires) and expected (i.e., expectations) their instructors to become available to students by posting an early course message (before the official course start date), indicating the importance of early instructor-student rapport behaviors that could potentially alleviate student anxiety about the upcoming online course by providing both personal and instructional information, supporting the behaviors that exhibit instructor's availability both in and "outside" of class. When comparing FtF and OL student satisfaction in undergraduate allied health courses, Hale and colleagues (2009) also found that students similarly place value on instructor rapport as a predictor of student satisfaction.

What is more, some of the behaviors in this category also represent instructor engagement elements, such as “being sensitive to students’ feelings” (elements of emotional intimacy). Emergence of this category at the top of instructor behavior category in both FtF and OL student groups notably suggests that students across all types of courses, regardless of a mode of course delivery, recognize the significance of rapport as the most valuable instructor behavior. As a whole, it is quite clear from this study that instructor behaviors that the interpersonally oriented behaviors that fall within the category of rapport are similarly placed on the highest level of importance among both FtF and OL students.

Course disclosure and interest. Notable differences emerged in the second highest nomination of required/ expected/ desired instructor behaviors, suggesting the existence of influence of the mode of course delivery on a secondary level of values. Specifically, FtF students named interest, while OL student chose course disclosure, as the second most important behavior. In terms of IE framework, both of these behaviors are most closely aligned with teaching presence factor, but differences in the way these categories were nominated by FtF and OL participants are noteworthy. Previous research suggests that in FtF courses students are motivated to attend class if they consider the material and/or the instructor interesting (Gump, 2004), supporting the current finding where students reported valuing interest (i.e., instructor behaviors aimed towards helping them understand the subject matter and that exhibit instructor’s intellectual presence while supporting and enhancing student curiosity in the content). In fact, Hamza and Griffith (2006) found that students reported having a positive attitude towards their classroom environment when taught by instructors who educated from their massive experience, expressed interest in the subject matter they taught, communicated unique perspectives, developed and used a rich body of knowledge within their subject matter, and employed unique

and original teaching techniques. Contextualized with past research, it is possible to assume that FtF students place more value on instructors who exhibit interest behaviors before course disclosure behaviors.

OL participants placed course disclosure above interest, further suggesting emergence of potential differences that may exist between FtF and OL courses, and/or students within these courses. Since, generally, OL classrooms utilize asynchronous modes of communication that lack visual cues, it is possible that placing course disclosure above interests brings attention to the significance of OL course transparency (i.e., course disclosure). Given the mediated nature of teaching and learning, clarity of course expectations and grading is needed for a satisfactory OL course experience, whereas in a FtF classroom that transparency is much more apparent through instructor physical presence, and, thus, less “noteworthy.” This also could help explain absence of any mention of mannerisms by the OL students, with FtF students giving it some, but very small, notice. In line with asynchronous and lack of visual cues position, OL students may not place much value on nonverbal gestures and body language as important instructor behaviors.

Past research has also suggested that OL education is more a resource-based instruction, where students rely more on instructional material and less on the instructor than FtF students (Almala, 2005; Jonassen et al., 1995; Kelley et al., 2007), also finding that early course disclosure was important to OL students as it relieved their anxiety and encouraged comfort and familiarity with the upcoming course (Conrad, 2002). Students who experienced anxiety of the OL courses associated it with a fear of not getting the most important and pertinent information regarding course expectations, assignments, and deadlines, value transparent and clear reiteration of these expectations (Conrad, 2002; Teclehaimanot, You, & Marshall, 2015). Indeed, Hung and Chou (2015) confirmed that instructor’s role as a course designer and organizer was the most

valued role in students within OL courses, and Yusoff and Salimb (2012) found that clear articulation of course expectations was crucial to student success.

OL students are busy people who carry full-time jobs and family responsibilities (Smith, 2014); therefore, they expect to have clarity in course deadlines, assignment expectations, etc., so that they can plan their time wisely. Furthermore, asynchronous forms of communication may not allow student to have instant access to questions, so effective and transparent course design is something they feel is not only required, but also expected and desired for a satisfactory course experience. Thus, taking this finding together with the results of IE hypothesis testing (to be discussed later) that showed that IE behaviors did not impact academic motivation in OL students, it appears that in the OL environment students place less value on instructor engagement behaviors, and more on other elements, such as course design.

Expressiveness. Thirdly, students in FtF courses appeared to value the expressiveness category of instructor behaviors much stronger (as fourth on the list) than OL students (as seventh on the list). This category falls within the encouraging immediacy factor, and includes instructor behaviors that include the performance aspect of presenting information through strong public speaking elements, such as speaking in a dramatic or expressive way, and demonstrating passion and enthusiasm for the subject matter taught. FtF research frequently reports that expressiveness of instructors impacts student's motivation, suggesting that speaking in a dramatic or expressive way is a part of an appealing enthusiastic teaching style that is much more likely to motivate students to learn (Babad, 2007; Keller, Goetz, Hoy, & Frenzel, 2015; Kunter et al., 2008; Patrick, Hisley, & Kempler, 2000; Wood, 1998). Finding from this study add to existing research and suggest that while students do not necessarily place a required or

expected value on the engaging and enthusiastic way instructors present their material in the classroom, they do like such a presence, reacting to it quite favorably.

What is also interesting about this finding is that some literature suggests that students are far more likely to receive or believe inaccurate instructions from an instructor who is expressive in his/her delivery (Madsen, 2003), and are more likely to rate instructors higher based on the quality on their expressive delivery of content, than the quality of content delivered (Cashin, 1990). Even though that research is sparse and somewhat outdated, this study shows that the results still have some currency, in that expressiveness of the instructor is not just recognized, but highly desirable. There might be potential implications of such finding to future research that should examine how expressiveness of instructors may impact student motivation and learning in FtF classrooms.

Naturally, students need to experience instructor presence frequently, in order to assess his/her presentation style and to feel that enthusiasm. This may not be as easily accomplished in the OL environment. While it is not surprising that OL students put less value on these instructor behaviors given mostly asynchronous nature of online courses, readers are cautioned against dismissing or undervaluing these behaviors when teaching courses online. It is easy to presume that OL instructors communicate with students mostly via email and discussion board, and typical public speaking elements like speaking in a dramatic way or laughing and entertaining are more difficult to implement than in FtF courses. Nevertheless, many communication scholars imply that despite the asynchronous nature of OL education, typical public speaking components that employ expressiveness and demonstrate instructor enthusiasm and passion for the subject are not impossible to show. For example, instructors in Conrad's (2004) study who were new to OL teaching, reported an ability to express passion for the subject matter using supporting elements

of online platforms, such as opportunities for more “free-flowing exchange of ideas made possible by online for a to create a strong learning ethic” (p. 33). Similarly, Andresen (2009) reported that instructors are able to find new ways to express their enthusiasm for the subject matter by making discussions more intimate and by taking a more cognitive role in their teaching.

Furthermore, students in OL courses are much more likely to be motivated to learn and to be satisfied if their instructors demonstrate energy towards delivering course materials, and passion for the subject taught. For example, Gorham and Christophel (1990) and Stuart and Rosenfeld (1994) found that humor is an important element of OL that creates a supportive learning environment, and Imlawi and colleagues (2015) concluded that humor positively impacts student engagement in online courses and can be demonstrated in posts through use of humorous language, comic arts and videos, and that use of emojis and emoticons helps compensate for the absence of a “typical” nonverbal behavior, like facial expressions and paralanguage. Similarly, instructors in today’s OL classrooms are able to video record their lectures or conduct live online sessions, where they can easily create opportunities to visually show students their passion and interest for the subject, carry on expressive conversations, and utilize a variety of public speaking behaviors that will demonstrate instructor expressiveness.

Interaction. Finally, interaction behaviors were nominated significantly more by FtF participants than by the OL participants. These findings suggest that when it comes to evaluating the values of instructor behaviors in this category, mode of course delivery may have an impact. Whereas in FtF classrooms students require to have interaction with their instructor and their peers, in the OL classroom students do not feel the same. Similar findings have reported that FtF students prefer traditional courses to OL courses for their social aspects, suggesting that when

asked to choose between a FtF and OL course and their benefits, FtF courses are chosen for their interaction potential in which both learning can happen and interpersonal relationships are established (Paechter & Maier, 2010). It is not surprising, since research of large size FtF courses have consistently pointed out lack of student involvement in learning due to absence of much needed interaction (Cuseo, 2007; Geski, 1998). Coupled with present study, it appears that while a student would not necessarily require frequent interactions in the OL course, in a FtF course it appears to be important for a satisfactory learning experience.

Addressing Disciplinary Differences (RQ4). Answering the research question about disciplinary differences proved to be difficult due to lack of saturation in the collected data. Nevertheless, manipulation of intended coding by reducing collected data to more rudimentary categories (e.g., Hard vs. Soft, Pure vs. Applied, and Life vs. Non-life), and various tests conducted to attempt to answer the questions consistently pointed out that there may not be evidence of disciplinary differences in the current dataset of both groups. This finding is not surprising, since existing research (including Erdle and Murray's 1987 study used as a typology for coding instructor behaviors in this study) also suggests that there may not be disciplinary effects on preferences for instructor behavior preferences. While consistency between the original study and current study is reassuring, results should be taken with extreme caution, given the lack of data necessary to conduct confirmatory testing of this research question.

Examining impact of IE on internal academic motivation (RQ5). The last research questions examined if a linear combination of interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, emotional intimacy, and trust would significantly predict internal student academic motivation. On the surface, it appears that indeed, the combination of the five factors does significantly predict student motivation; however, closer inspection of the results suggests modifications are

necessary. In the FtF group the only significant predictors were student-directed interaction, immediacy by encouragement, and trust, whereas teaching presence and emotional intimacy were negative predictors. Thus, it appears that IE in FtF mainly consists of interaction, immediacy, and trust, and not teaching presence and intimacy, which could hinder motivation. These exact same three sets of behaviors have also been identified by past research as contributors to student motivation. Both Dobransky and Frymier (2004) and Jaasma and Koper (1999) found positive relationships between student academic motivation and immediacy, interaction, and trust, which helps corroborate current findings.

When considering the negative impact of teaching presence in FtF classes, these results may be expected because this particular set of behaviors was originally conceptualized and operationalized specifically for the OL environments. It is also possible that behaviors associated with teaching presence seemed too restricting to FtF students, and they did not feel more motivated by the fact that their instructors were so involved in the classroom. Perhaps they felt like the student-centered learning is lost if the instructor spend a large amount of time explaining course concepts or directing interactions, and, instead much prefer student-directed interactions and development of social and interpersonal relationships (Paechter & Maier, 2010). In fact, they did nominate emphasis quite rarely, and the factor of instructor-directed interaction did not predict academic motivation in this model either (also carrying a negative beta).

Emergence of emotional intimacy, the other set of behaviors that carried negative betas, was interesting as well. A careful examination of the dataset brought attention to comments made by some participants, that could potentially explain why emotional intimacy not only failed to emerge as a predictor, but even carried a negative effect. Specifically, a FtF participant added comments at the end of the survey that suggested that there was something entirely strange about

the hypothetical instructor presented in the survey (e.g., “the hypothetical instructor sounded really creepy – I do not want to share my intimate life story with my instructor, I just want them to teach me”). It is possible that there are limits as to how much intimacy and emotional closeness is acceptable to have with the instructor, and participants recognize when these limits are crossed, reacting negatively.

It also appears that IE may look very different in the OL context than what was conceptualized in this study. In the OL group, teaching presence (clarity factor) was a *negative* predictor of academic motivation. These findings were surprising, yet could be partially explained by the fact that students in OL environments are self-directed, and the more set the instructors are on enforcing and communicating course deadlines and expectations, the less students feel in control over their learning in terms of pacing themselves. In fact, Dewar and Whittington (2000) suggested that some online learners struggle with and express dissatisfaction regarding set deadlines. Perhaps in this particular sample participants also felt that set goals and due dates restricted them in their learning on their own time. It is possible that for this dataset, these restrictions on their time could have created a negative effect on their academic motivation. It is also possible that teaching presence – clarity behaviors are better conceptualized as interaction behaviors put forth in the RED typology. This would also explain the negative effect on motivation, since OL students placed significantly less value on interaction behaviors when nominating the REDs.

Teaching presence – helpfulness, interaction, immediacy, and trust did not come up as significant predictors of academic motivation in this dataset. These results were surprising, given existing literature support these each of these has been associated with changes in academic motivation (e.g., Shea & Bidjerano, 2010, for helpfulness; Paechter & Maier, 2010, for

interaction; LaRose & Whitten, 2000, for immediacy, Marx, 2011, for trust). Upon careful examination of the dataset, a possible impact of a small sample of the OL group may help explain my inability to replicate previous research. It is also possible that the sample of OL participants was not representative of the population on which previous research was conducted. In fact, examination of frequencies indicated that 49% of the OL group participants came from Wayne State University, an institution that is considered to be a part of a traditional face-to-face model of education. Thus, future testing should strive to seek a more diverse representative sample for OL participants. Finally, it is also possible that IE is not that relevant in OL course environments, as it may not impact internal academic motivation in a way that was hypothesized. Based on other results it does appear to be desired or, possibly, even expected, so future research would bode well to examine this further.

Hypothesis Results

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis, which predicted that when students value IE and instructors do not demonstrate it, a negative violation of expectations occurs, was supported. Participants in both FtF and OL groups reported that when they valued IE behaviors, yet the instructor on which they were reporting did not enact these behaviors, they felt significantly worse about that instructor. This finding further substantiates existing research that cautions against violating expectations of positive instructor behaviors. Frymier and Weser (2001) suggest that students enter classrooms with certain expectations of how their instructor will communicate with them. When these expectations are violated, satisfaction and academic motivation can be negatively impacted. Sidelinger and colleagues (2015) reported that when instructors employed ineffective communication behaviors (such as inappropriate conversations and frequent disclosures), student course satisfaction decreased, and others also found that when observed

instructor behaviors negatively violated expectations, individuals responded more negatively (DiVerniero & Hosek, 2011; Lannutti & Strauman, 2006). There is also some challenge to instructor-student relationships as well, as Miller and colleagues reported that, for example, when instructors violate student expectations of instructor disclosure, students may view them as less credible. Hypothesis testing of this study further confirms that negative violations of instructor communication do occur when students' expectations of instructor engagement are not met.

When looking at these results in combination with RQ5, it is also interesting to see that the combination of IE behaviors did not contribute to academic motivation. However, when a clear picture of an "ideal" instructor is drawn, and that image is compared to behaviors of participants' instructors, expectations are negatively violated. What is possible, then, is that students may expect "ideal" instructor behaviors, but do not necessarily require or desire them. This expected connection, once again, is evident in the results of the third hypothesis tested (to be discussed later).

Hypothesis 2. Testing of the second hypothesis, which predicted that when students do not value IE, but instructors demonstrate IE, the value that students place on IE determines the type of violation that occurs) could not be completed. A floor effect may explain the inability to test this hypothesis (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, & Liao, 2004). An investigation of initial responses within both groups showed that a significantly small number of participants indicated not valuing IE in the first place, indicating a distinct limit for potential responses where most of the participants would score, which would end up limiting testing potential. It is also highly possible that a small number of participants would indicate not valuing IE in the first place, making it difficult to reach power in testing this hypothesis. As is, after discounting most of the

participants' responses to this question, I was left with an extremely small sample size, making it impossible to test this hypothesis. Recommendations to reach saturation of future samples are discussed in the limitation section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 3. To test hypothesis 3, which predicted that for those participants who report no violation between valuing IE and actual instructor's behavior, the requirements (R) factor is the variable that will account for the greatest amount of variance in motivation, followed by expectations (E) factor, followed by desires (D) factor. With this hypothesis, this study applied elements of interaction adaptation theory to instructional contexts of both FtF and OL environments and aimed to answer the call made by Floyd and Burgoon (1999), which asked to add specificity to IAT by exploring the relative importance of each of the three RED factors to each other. The hypothesis was not supported in either group, and in the FtF group expectation emerged as the only significant predictor. Given consistent findings that indicate the significant role that expectations of instructor behaviors play on student's academic motivation, it is possible that a small sample size of OL group limited test power, and a larger sample could help substantiate these suppositions.

Initial iteration of IAT identified the requirements of interaction was the most influential factor, followed by expectations and then desires (Burgoon, Stern, & Dillman, 1995), whereas later research (see Floyd & Burgoon, 1999), noted that desires supersede expectations when it comes to predicting interaction adaptation in communication between same-sex strangers. Given the extremely limited amount of research done in identifying the relational value of RED factors, this study intended to address the call of exploring the relative importance of the three RED factors.

While results of the OL courses did not yield significant results due to small sample, in FtF group expectations of IE emerged as the only significant predictor of student satisfaction. These results, taken together with findings from RQ5 and H1 (which, once again, brought to light the importance of expectations as a significant RED factor), may not be as surprising, given an extensive research in expectancies and expectancy violations that supports that when students' expectations for instructor behavior are violated, their academic motivation tends to decrease (Houser 2004; 2005; 2006). Furthermore, the results of this study show that in instructional setting expectations of IE appear to supersede both requirements and desires for IE, indicating that perhaps in the classroom socially acceptable instructor behaviors, and expectations of instructor behavior based on prior experience and knowledge significantly impact how motivated student feel in their studies. And while biological requirements or personal preferences for an IE instructor may not be as important to students, expectations of IE do appear make a difference in FtF courses.

Results also indicate that the context of an interaction may play a significant role in the hierarchy of REDs. For instance, research in deception encounters showed requirements as the most important factor (Burgoon, Stern, Dillman, 1005; Le Poire & Yoshimura, 1999), research in initial impression formation encounters showed desires to supersede expectations (Floyd & Burgon, 1999), and the current study in teaching encounters indicates that in FtF higher education classrooms expectations are most prevalent in impacting interaction. Future research should continue replicating the results and examining the relative importance of each of the RED factors based on the context of interactions to strengthen existing theory.

Hypothesis 4 (expectancy violations and IAT). This hypothesis tested the impact of violations of student expectations of IE, by predicting that the valence that students place on that

violation would influence their academic motivation when expectations and instructor behavior did not match. Results revealed that in the FtF group valence does, indeed, influence academic motivation as the primary factor (although that relationship was relatively small, suggesting caution in generalizability of these findings), and that RED factors had very little association after controlling for valence. In the OL group, on the other hand, requirements of IE had the highest (although relatively small) relationship, followed by valence, then desires and expectations. What is interesting about this finding is that in the OL requirements appear to emerge ahead of valence, whereas in the FtF course valence led the influence on motivation. It is possible that OL participants felt stronger about requiring IE than FtF participants did, and valence they placed on violations did not impact these feelings as much as their requirements of IE did.

It is also interesting that one of the RED factors emerged as a significant predictor at all, given findings that the measure developed in this dissertation to examine the impact of IE behaviors on academic motivation did not reach significant results. Perhaps there is something to be said about the influence of fantasy vs. reality when it comes to understanding these results. When participants were asked to report on whether or not they felt academically motivated when their instructor enacted IE, the results were not significant. Yet when a hypothetical “ideal” instructor was described, perhaps they felt like there may be someone out there who is clearly the perfect ideal for them when it comes to teaching, someone they imagine being the best for the job. That image, that “ideal” instructor, in turn, appears to be enough to internally motivate them, and they then feel that they absolutely require such a person to be a part of their learning.

Nevertheless, examining expectancy violations of IE when accounting for RED factors provides further support to existing theory. Participants in both FtF and OL classrooms, whose

expectancies of “ideal instructor” behavior (IE) were not met (they valued IE, but their instructors of current course did not demonstrate IE behaviors), reported feeling significantly worse about their current instructors. These results corroborate previous research conducted by Stephens et al (2009) who looked at the impact of violations on instructors’ REDs and found that, for instance, when instructors’ REDs about the formality of email message requests sent by their students were violated, instructors liked students who violated their REDs less, viewed them as less credible and were less likely to comply with their request. This research combined with current results suggests that when students value “ideal instructor” qualities identified in this study, but their expectations of having such a person as their current instructor are not met, their academic motivation is impacted as well.

Implications for Theory

Conceptualizing IE

This study focused on developing a strong conceptualization and operationalization of IE. Extensive and exhaustive literature review revealed that interaction, teaching presence, immediacy, emotional intimacy and trust could all be elements that make an “ideal” instructor in both FtF and OL classrooms. However, tests of the model revealed some challenges, as well as major differences in modes of delivery. Not only did teaching presence appear to be a negative predictor of academic motivation (and was the only significant predictor in the OL group), but in the FtF group the only significant predictors were student-directed interaction, immediacy by encouragement, and trust. Furthermore, emotional intimacy was a negative predictor in a FtF group. These findings suggest that together these elements may not have influence on academic motivation as theorized based on existing research. Instead, it appears that IE in the FtF environment consists of an interactive, encouraging, and trusting instructor who respects student-

teacher boundaries. This also means that emotional intimacy and instructor-directed interaction are not as valuable as the pedagogy literature suggests. These results suggest that there appear to be clearly-defined limits to the amount of instructor involvement in the student-instructor relationship; and that while engaging in student-driven interactions, encouraging students, and developing trust does impact student motivation, overstepping these relationships by imposing instructor-driven interaction and emotional intimacy may endanger both the relationship and, most important, academic motivation. Some influence or potential interaction with other factors may also influence current outcomes. Perhaps there may have been a shift in requirements, expectations, and desires for an “ideal” instructor whose qualities may no longer include behaviors associated with emotional intimacy, or who do not find that emotional intimacy behaviors (that may also be expressed via instructor-directed interaction) motivate students towards their academics.

Similarly, in the OL environments, IE may not be as important or as clear of an indicator of academic motivation as once theorized. While some results appear to be in line with existing research, suggesting how different elements of instructor behaviors impact student academic motivation, the full picture of IE’s impact in the OL course remains to be established. It is clear from the results of hypotheses and research questions testing that FtF and OL differ in many ways, and it is possible that the image of an “ideal” instructor differs with the mode of course delivery. However, readers should be cautious interpreting the outcomes of the OL group, as many results were reached based on a limited sample, challenging their generalizability. Therefore, as implications of this study, it appears that a modified version of IE is more suited for a FtF classroom, where students are more open to IE behaviors. In the OL environment,

however, it appears that research should continue examining communication behaviors most appropriate for the OL classroom, where IE may not be as appropriate as once theorized.

Methodological Implications

Refining existing typology. Extensions and adjustments were made to existing typology of interpersonally-oriented instructor behaviors to account for reported data, adding to existing research by providing a more refined list of categories of instructor behaviors in both FtF and OL classrooms. Furthermore, each category was given a conceptual definition, and instructor behaviors within each major category were adjusted in wordings to be more specific and to provide for mutually exhaustive coding. Since rapport category appeared to carry such a high importance to participants in both studies, and indicated a wide range of exemplars, some beyond traditionally conceptualized rapport behaviors, further research focusing specifically on identifying various factors of rapport could continue strengthening our understanding of various aspects of instructor rapport, as well as their contributions to both IE behaviors and student academic motivation in FtF and OL classrooms.

In addition, a rule enforcement category was created to extend existing typology to include instructor behaviors that aim to maintain classroom order and enforce a code of conduct. It should be noted that while the behaviors in the rule enforcement category were not given a lot of attention by participants, these behaviors were named only by students in the FtF classroom, bringing to light the interesting difference in student perceptions of what is required for a satisfactory experience in a traditional FtF classroom vs. the OL classroom. While incivility is prevalent in the OL classroom (Burke et al, 2013), it is known to manifest itself differently in more individually-directed way (e.g., demands for special treatment and informal communication with the instructors, Galbraith & Jones, 2010; flaming, Wildermuth & Davis,

2012; Hiltz, 1986). It is possible that incivility is not as visible or to the OL students within a classroom as it is to the FtF students, thus they either place less value on instructor behaviors that maintain classroom harmony, or simply assume that these behaviors would be handled and do not feel the need to single them out. Such a supposition is also worthy of further investigation.

In sum, important contributions to the existing typology of valuable instructor behaviors extend current research through replication, validation, and extension of the instrument, as well as by adding online instructor behaviors to be included.

Development of scales. Given some interesting findings in exploratory factor analyses, some attention to scales is warranted. First, and most important, it became evident that scales did not perform similarly (in terms of factor extraction) in both conditions. Only three of the five scales (i.e., immediacy, emotional intimacy, and trust) performed similarly in both FtF and OL environments. The other two scales (i.e., interaction and teaching presence) extracted different number of factors between the two conditions. These results indicate that although every attempt was made to make the wording of these scales fit both conditions, such adaptation could have potentially contributed to the variability with which items within each scale were interpreted. Furthermore, it might be possible that interpretation of items by participants is dependent on the mode of delivery, further supporting the general findings of this study that student interpretations of values of various instructor behaviors differ between FtF and OL modes of course delivery. These findings imply that students look at instructor behaviors differently depending on the mode of course delivery, further implying the need to treat these two types of courses as individual and not necessarily comparable to each other.

The interaction scale consisted of 6 items. EFA revealed that all items loaded on one scale in the OL setting, but on two in the FtF setting. It became evident that two factors within

the FtF setting had to do with the direction of the interaction: three items dealt with student-directed interaction (students initiated interaction such as “I had numerous interactions with the instructor during the class,” etc.), and the other three items dealt with instructor-directed interaction (instructors had to initiate interaction, such as “the instructor regularly asked questions for students to discuss,” etc.). It should be noted that confirmatory factor analysis with extracting all items on one factor was also successful, and having only 6 items in the scale further suggests that in the future with appropriate testing this scale could potentially be used as a one-factor scale. Nevertheless, separation of scale items based on the direction of interaction is noteworthy. What can be inferred from this finding is that there may exist a difference in transparency of who initiates the interaction. In a FtF classroom, it appears to make more of a difference to students when their instructor acts in a student-centered way, whereas in the OL environment that behavior maybe more fluid and less distinct. Clear separation of this in FtF and not in the OL environments suggests that there are more distinct values placed by students on the direction with which communication flows.

Next, the immediacy scale results suggest that further testing of the instrument is warranted. While the original development of the scale (Gorham, 1988) indicated it to be a one-factor scale, current research (also extending results of Wolfe and Waters, 2013) shows that there was a consistent separation within the items into two factors in both FtF and OL. Items indicated that there are immediacy behaviors that are enacted through having extracurricular conversations, and those enacted through encouragement. Attention is clearly given to the content of immediacy behaviors. Specifically, while having conversations about things unrelated to specific course content (i.e., irrelevant thoughts and unrelated materials, labeled extracurricular conversations) may be an aspect of developing a good instructor-student

relationship, it is separate from the other immediacy behaviors (i.e., Immediacy through encouragement). In fact, just like out-of-class vs. in-class communication differ in their content and their purposes (Myers, 2004), it is possible that discussing irrelevant thoughts and unrelated materials vs. providing encouragement directed to support student's learning in a particular course may have a separate factor effect here as well. Further testing and replication of these findings within the immediacy factors will continue to strengthen theory.

The EFA for the teaching presence scale showed two factors in OL mode of delivery, but only one in a FtF mode. And while a confirmatory factor analysis extracting the teaching presence concept on two factors yielded the same separation in FtF as it did in the OL group, these findings imply that mode of delivery may have an influence on the way this particular set of behaviors manifests itself. Previously, the teaching presence concept has not been applied to FtF settings, yet behaviors that fall within its category are typical of a traditional classroom setting as well (such as "being helpful in guiding the class towards understanding course topics in a way that help students clarify thinking," and "helping to keep course participants engaged and participating in productive dialogue," which are reminiscent of the interest category of instructor behaviors in the existing typology). In the OL group, the scale exhibited two previously extracted factors of course organization and directed facilitation further supporting previous research (see Shea et al., 2006). MacFarland and Hamilton (2005) found that design of an online course impacts its effectiveness in that a careful organization of materials helps reduce students' cognitive load. Factors identified in this study demonstrate separate emphasis on instructor expectations for each of these areas – instructors should develop a course well by organizing and clearly articulating their instructions in various areas of their online course (i.e., course organization, which is theoretically done prior to the actual course run), and then, once

the course is active and students are actively engaging, instructors should facilitate learning throughout the duration of the course (i.e., directed facilitation, where the focus is less on creating and providing instructions and more on actual facilitation of learning). This separation of two factors is consistent with a course disclosure and interest categories from the existing typology of behaviors. Contrary to learner-centered interactive OL settings (where students are able to non-sequentially access materials at any point of the duration of the course), FtF courses are more instructor-centric (White and Ptoeger, 2004). Thereby, it is likely that the lines between course organization and actual facilitation of learning become more blurred, where organization of the course is more or less flexible, and the separation of specific elements such as “clearly communicating course topics” and “providing clear instructions” is done *during* class lecture, causing a potential merge with directed facilitation of learning.

Finally, neither emotional intimacy nor interpersonal trust scales have been applied to instructional settings of both FtF and OL classrooms. Both scales performed very well in this study (contributing to above 73% variance, and carrying an above .91 reliability), indicating that they might be a good fit for instructional communication studies in future research.

Practical Implications

As the results of research questions and hypotheses were interpreted, it became evident that FtF and OL modes of course delivery are unique in many teaching and learning ways. It was clear that participants interpreted some scales in each mode differently, further supporting the conclusion that what works in one mode may have a different effect in the other. For example, in the comments area of the survey, a FtF student reacted to a hypothetical instructor scenario by saying “I wish every instructor I have was like this one,” whereas an OL student wrote “this instructor sounds like a creep.” And while these are just a few examples, these comments should

not be dismissed quickly. In essence, it appears that comparing FtF and OL courses may be as effective as comparing apples to oranges. While they may share common goals and objectives in terms of reaching learning outcomes, each has its unique characteristics and expectations.

Based on this research, it appears that students consider instructor behaviors based on the mode of course delivery, which they choose, and not based on their general expectations of instructors that they then transfer to the courses they take. For instance, while they may expect their instructors in a FtF course to exhibit behaviors that retain and enhance their interest in the subject matter, in OL course they are more interested in learning as much as they can and as soon as they can about course expectations and assignment requirements. These differences suggest that students come into their education with varying views about how their ideal instructors should behave; and, in general, these views seem to differ based on the mode of course delivery they are choosing to engage in. With that, as research moves forward, it should be noted that comparing FtF and OL courses when it comes to specific expectations of instructor behaviors as they contribute to academic motivation is not recommended. In those studies, each mode of course delivery should be given its own individual attention outside of its dependence or comparison to the other.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Although results of this research offered explanations of students expectations for various instructor behaviors in both FtF and OL classrooms, as well as offered valuable knowledge regarding how these various behaviors impact student motivation in the classroom, there are a few limitations to the study that should be noted.

First, while every effort has been made to increase the generalizability of findings by reducing homogeneity of the sample and recruiting participants from variety of institutions,

increasing participant educational institution variety could further strengthen this survey. Homogenous populations of college students recruited from one or two research institutions, in a public speaking class, etc., limit our understanding of instructional feedback since students may be too early in their education to make effective assessments or offer experiences that can be easily transferred to other disciplines, higher courses, etc.

Trees et al. (2009), for example, asked students to focus on feedback received from their very first speech, which may have influenced the outcomes reported in the study. Students may still have been new to college, new to the instructor, or new to the assignment to adequately assess the impact that feedback had on their perceptions of instructor credibility and facework. Whereas in a graduate participant pool students may be used to and, in fact, welcoming of feedback due to higher expectations of performance in graduate school and past experiences with education (Duijnhouwer et al., 2012). Both the large sample size and the difference in student status are considered likely to increase generalizability of the research findings. Similarly, sampling instructors for a satisfaction with online education survey Wasilik and Bolliger (2009) found that study participants drawn from a single university may have potentially created a limited generalizability sample for their findings. Generally, researchers warn against using samples of participants from the same institution or drawn from populations of one particular discipline to generalize findings regarding relational contexts, as the sample is not representative of the entire American or global population (Artino Jr., 2009; Bailenson, Shum, Atran, Medin, & Coley, 2002; Baym et al (2007); Rovai et al., 2009).

Although strong attempts have been made to diversify the sample of participants by opening up the survey to students outside of Wayne State University participants' pool, the sample was still significantly filled with students from this University. While students were

drawn from various disciplines, the fact that they belong to one institution brings attention to a style of teaching that might be unique to this institution's teaching expectations. As a result, students who reported on teaching behaviors may have inherently swayed the results in one way or another. Future research would bode well to continue attempting to diversify the sample by aiming to reach out to various types of institutions, or perhaps conduct research outside of the University so as to give as many diverse participants as possible the opportunity to voice their opinions regarding their views of significance of various instructor behaviors.

Second, while the intent to create a randomly selected condition (FtF vs. OL) for every new participant was successful, the overall sample was significantly skewed towards the FtF mode of delivery, yielding about a 3:1 ratio of a FtF to OL participants. One explanation for the skewed sample includes a possibility that online students are not as likely to engage in the online surveys due to their potential burnout with technology (after all, taking an online class requires them to spend a lot of time on their computers, and it is possible that they were not as inclined to participate in the survey as much as FtF participants were). Another explanation for the skewed sample was the fact that much of the participant sample came from student of Wayne State University. It is also possible that online classes are not as popular or as frequently offered as FtF classes. In fact, the latest institutional research and analysis data available for the semester of Fall 2014 (the semester prior to which the survey rolled out) showed that there were 27,578 enrolled students (including undergraduate, graduate, and professional levels, see "Wayne State University"), and 5,535 students took online courses that semester (see "Fall 2014"), showing about a 4:1 ratio of total students enrolled to those who were taking an online course that semester. This ratio is pretty close to the 3:1 ratio of FtF to OL participants in the current survey. While power analysis still yielded a convincing strength for the results of both groups, it would

still be desirable to have a more proportionate turnout of online participants. Future research should aim to collect data from a more equally balanced sample of participants within each independent group, paying close attention to increasing the number of online sample for stronger power and generalizability of results.

Thirdly, creating a hypothetical profile of an instructor instead of using a reference to an actual instructor (such as a video of an instructor who exhibits instructor engagement qualities) could have limited the strength of participant reactions to these behaviors. Sometimes participants who take surveys are given hypothetical situations to evaluate and report upon, instead of real-life scenarios that were experienced by participants. For example, Frymier et al. (2008) study asked participants to evaluate hypothetical situation in which teacher humor was employed. Inability to report on the actual use of the humor behaviors may have limited the ability to identify its presence (or its salience), thus, bringing to question its true-life effect on the students. Similarly, in this study, the written profile requiring participants to visualize this instructor may not have been as effective as a video or an actual experience with a real person. Future research might consider setting up an experimental condition where student have the opportunity to experience the “hypothetical instructor” scenario through actual presentation and/or participation opportunities.

Fourthly, qualitative analysis of RED factors revealed some interesting limitations and, thus, possibilities for future research. Some codes were more prevalent than others, and within major categories of codes some behaviors appeared much more frequently than others. For example, while gesturing was not as desired within a category of expressiveness, humor and desire to teach appeared much more consistently. Similarly, some categories appeared to be more general than they should have been in identifying smaller categories of specific behaviors. For

instance, among frequent mentions in a category of rapport were mentions of instructors being “kind,” “reachable via email,” and “knowing students by name.” While all three behaviors fall within a larger category of rapport, it should be noted that these three are quite unique behaviors, and while an instructor may be “kind” to a student, he/she may not necessarily know the student’s name, or be accessible via email. Future research should address limitations of this qualitative approach, carefully explore each behavior within a larger code category, and evaluate most frequently mentioned behaviors. This information would be useful when writing or developing specific behavior expectations for instructors in FtF and OL courses. Furthermore, this adjusted typology should serve as a foundation for creating an instrument that measure instructor behaviors as perceived by students in both FtF and OL courses. Triangulating the results of this qualitative approach with a quantitative instrument should help assess both validity and reliability of the typology, as well as measure student perceptions of various RED factors in relation to identified instructor behaviors.

Fifthly, it was not possible to test one of the hypotheses due to an extremely small number of participants that answered question about violation of expectations for Hypothesis 3. In the current sample, only 9 participants in FtF group and 4 participants in the OL group reported not valuing instructor engagement, but their instructors enacting instructor engagement. The hypothesis predicted that the value that students place on IE will determine the type of violation that would occur (negatively valenced value would cause a negative violation, and positively valenced value would cause a positive violation), but it was not possible to test the hypothesis. While the significantly small number of students reporting absence of valuing IE is an indication that, in general, students are much more likely to value IE behaviors than not to value them, further examination of this is warranted. Setting up an experimental condition that

would manipulate this violation would help ensure a reasonable size-sample is collected in order to test this hypothesis.

Finally, triangulating quantitative results and conclusions by more qualitative and in-depth interpretive methodologies could help strengthen the results and findings, as well as increase our general understanding of human communication behavior (Benoit & Holbert, 2008). It is not uncommon for results of the quantitative research to contradict qualitative findings. For example, in a study of the impact of metacognitive treatment in online discussions, where students were asked to evaluate the quality of their own contributions, quantitative results indicated that there was a decrease in quantity of messages and a decrease in quality measures of cognitive dialogue. Qualitative analysis of the feedback provided by students, however, showed that there may have been some benefits to implementing categorization of own discussion contributions, as some students indicated that they worked to improve the quality of their discussions based on evaluation of their earlier work (Flowers & Cotton, 2007). Similarly, some studies are completed with various methodologies used to help strengthen the findings or increase the profitability of findings. Williams (2006) combined participant observation with a field experiment, while Benoit & McHale (2003) used grounded theory and a quantitative content analysis to strengthen the findings. Thus, some participant interviews or perhaps more personalized observations might help strengthen the qualitative aspects of the findings.

Conclusion

In conclusion, employing a parallel method of study in this dissertation brought attention to both similarities and differences in student values of FtF and OL instructor behaviors, as well as influences that modes of course delivery bring to the forefront. Students in both types of courses appear to equally value rapport behaviors as their top choice for feeling satisfaction with

their overall course experience and to feel internally motivated towards their academics. It also emerged that FtF students feel most motivated by instructor behaviors that support student-directed interaction, exhibit immediacy through encouragement, and develop trust. Despite support from previous literature, emotional intimacy appears to have a negative effect on academic motivation, and instructors are cautioned against exhibiting these behaviors in populations of students most similar to the sample used for this dissertation.

Research should also continue examining “ideal” instructor behaviors in the OL courses using information collected in this study, as some differences in the way mode of delivery impacts student perceptions of instructor behaviors that internally motivate students towards their academics did emerge. Finally, in general, there is a lot to be said about the significance of understanding student values of various instructor behaviors. Participants in both groups shared meaningful information that, once again, supports that in order for learner-centered environments to be effective and internally motivating, responses for most required, expected, and desired instructor behaviors should come from students, and not from faculty or administrators. The most valuable data that provides fruitful results and offers explanations for students’ internal motivation towards learning is much more likely to come from the learners who carry certain expectations for various instructor behaviors based on modes of course delivery. Thus, when intending to generalize results to a larger population and draw informed conclusions regarding student values of various instructor behaviors, I cannot stress enough how imperative it is to always ask a question: was this course taken face-to-face or online?

APPENDIX A

Instructor Engagement Literature Review Codebook

Round 1

Label something as “Keep for Analysis”

If the article uses the term “instructor engagement” to identify or describe a specific instructor behavior in a higher education classroom

Label as “mentioned in another study”

If the term “instructor engagement” is used only as a term or concept identified by another study (e.g., “Roblyer and Wiencke (2004) developed a rubric to assess and encourage interaction in distance courses. The elements they found to be essential to the “interaction equation” includedevidence of instructor engagement” (Noyes, 2008, p.22)

****Note: please write down the study where the term is taken from*

Label as “general term/not TO student”

If the term is used as a general term that does not describe a behavior exhibited by the instructor and directed specifically toward a student or students to enhance teaching/learning practices. (“Furthermore, instructor engagement in the complicated process of assessing such student growth leads to increased insight into qualitative assessment” (Hoyt, 2012, p.98) or “These treatments demand intensive instructor engagement with an enormous amount of student writing.”

If the authors use the concept in any context BUT instructor TO student engagement. (For example, “instructor engagement with CMS”, Bulger, Almeroth et al)

Label as “other”

If the article does not fall within other categories, code as “other,” then provide a description

Round 2

The goal of this round is to answer the following research question: How is Instructor Engagement conceptualized and/or operationalized in the study?

1. Label “C” if the article conceptualizes IE. Identify how it conceptualizes IE
2. Label “O” if the article operationalizes IE (how does it measure it). Identify the measure
3. Identify the category that “IE” falls in in your article (for example, authors may look at Instructor Engagement as the quality or quantity of instructor feedback)
4. Identify course mode of delivery (O – Online, FtF – Face-to-face, H – hybrid, U – unclear)
5. Identify methodology used (survey, participant observation, interview, experiment, etc.) to explore IE
6. Year of publication
7. Place of publication – name (Com Monographs, NCA paper, etc.) and classification (scholarly journal, thesis, dissertation, conference proceedings, etc.)

Round 3

1. Mode of Course Delivery
 - OL – Online
 - FtF – Face-to-Face
 - Hybrid
 - Unclear/Not identified
2. Tools/Method Used

- Identify method used (e.g., survey, case study, mixed method, lit review, observation, etc.) If the concept is mentioned in recommendations/future directions/etc., note that
3. Identify how the study conceptualized Instructor Engagement. What is used to describe this particular behavior in the study? If the authors do not conceptualize the concept, code as “none”

First do a general document search for “engagement.” Make sure that when you find it, it is talking about instructor’s engagement with the students. Then look in the text around the term (the paragraph) and identify if there is a conceptualization of IE used. How do authors define IE in their article?

4. Identify how IE is operationalized. Do authors identify specific measures? For example, quality and quantity of feedback are essential to demonstrate true level of engagement (so they measure feedback). Or “level of support and responses to discussion posts” (so they operationalize it by support and response in discussions). You will have to scan the entire article to find this.
5. Function code:

If you were to select a concept below that the authors are referencing or clearly applying to their definition of IE – what would it be? For example, if the article’s author talks specifically about the communication exchange, and nothing else, then they are saying that IE is a function of Interaction. If they are talking about the importance of using first names, reaching out to students by reducing psychological distance (humor or self-disclosure, for example), then IE is a function of Immediacy. If there is something else (other elements that are not defined in any of the existing conceptualizations), then mark

as other. My definition of IE says that it is a tired process – there is Interaction, there is Immediacy, there is Teaching presence (so a combination of all existing things like exchange of information, addition of elements like self-disclosure and humor and first-name basis, active participation and frequent feedback,), AND also additional elements of TRUST and EMOTIONAL INTIMACY. If you see the article talking specifically about the importance of trust and/or emotional connections between T and S, then you would mark this as other. You may also have somewhere it is literally unclear what they are talking about. Just put UNCLEAR here.

Use definitions below to see which one fits the author's definition of IE. For example, if they just talk about the quantity of feedback and regular communication back and forth – it will go in Interaction. If they talk about the quality of communication that, for example, INCLUDES connectedness and rapport, that is immediacy. If they talk about the connectedness that ALSO demonstrates trust and connection where it flows both ways (like the student would feel a sense of loss if the instructor was gone, and the instructor is truly caring about student's progress in class AND personal circumstances of the instructor), then it goes in IE.

- Interaction – two way communication exchange between the instruction and the student
- Teaching presence - careful planning of course delivery, active participation in educational processes, and direct instruction on behalf of the instructor
- Immediacy - verbal and nonverbal behavior that communicates closeness, interaction, self-disclosure, and praise, as well as reduces psychological and physical distance among relational partners

- Other. This is where we are “looking” for the behavior that would fall under my definition of IE - instructor engagement is a shared exchange that is mutual, intimate, intentional and reciprocal, meant to foster a supportive relationship between the instructor and the student that aims to significantly minimize or reduce any potential power structure or role-based communication that may exist between the two communicators.

APPENDIX B**Face-to-face Instrument**

In order to take this survey, you must be a student currently enrolled in a degree-seeking program at a higher education institution.

SECTION 1

The first set of statements asks for your general opinion in regards to your experiences with instructors. Please use your past experience when answering these questions.

(the first question of the survey is assigned randomly – participants either begin with this survey’s first question – online course question first – or with the other survey, where the face-to-face question comes first)

1. Within the past year have you taken a college level face-to-face course (course where majority of the content is delivered in writing or orally, and you were required to attend regular classroom meetings)?

Yes

No

(if participant answers “yes,” the next three questions pop up. If participant answers “no”, survey skips to question 5)

2. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the face-to-face classroom, think about behaviors you consider being *necessary* for you to have a satisfying course experience. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *require* from your instructor in the face-to-face class?

Top required behavior _____

Second best required _____

Third best behavior _____

3. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you consider to be anticipated, perhaps as a result of social norms, or your past experiences with instructors. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *expect* from your instructor in the face-to-face class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third best behavior _____

4. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you personally prefer; perhaps they help you accomplish certain goals, or help you feel most motivated to learn. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *desire* from your instructor in the face-to-face class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third desired behavior _____

(At this point survey skips the next 4 questions and continues to Section 2)

5. Within the past year have you taken a college level online class (an online class is a course where all content is delivered online? An online course typically has no face-to-face meetings)?

Yes

No

(if participants answers "yes" – next three questions pop up. If participant answers no, a response pops up: "Thank you for taking this survey. Since you have not taken an online or a

face-to-face course within this past year, you are not eligible to participate in this survey. We appreciate your time.”)

6. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you consider being *necessary* for you to have a satisfying course experience. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *require* from your instructor in the online class?

Top required behavior _____

Second best required _____

Third best behavior _____

7. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you consider to be anticipated, perhaps as a result of social norms, or your past experiences with instructors. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *expect* from your instructor in the online class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third best behavior _____

8. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you personally prefer; perhaps they help you accomplish certain goals, or help you feel most motivated to learn. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *desire* from your instructor in the online class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third desired behavior _____

SECTION 2

The next set of questions asks you to think back to your most recent experience in your ONLINE/FACE-TO-FACE [mode is filled in based on answers to questions 1 or 5] college class. If you took multiple courses in the last year, choose one ONLINE/FACE-TO-FACE [mode is filled in based on answers to questions 1 or 5] course that you remember most or where the instructor stood out for one reason or another. Respond to the next set of survey questions keeping this one course and its instructor in mind.

9. Name the course (fill in the blank, for example: English Comp 1, or Algebra. Please do not use course abbreviation, such as ENG100)

10. What level was this course?

- Undergraduate
- Graduate

11. Approximately how many students were enrolled in this class (fill in the blank with a specific number; if you do not know, make your best estimate or enter “not sure”)

_____ (fill in the blank)

12. What was your instructor’s sex?

- Male
- Female

13. What was your instructor’s age? (fill in the blank with a specific number)

_____ (if you are not sure, make your best estimate)

14. What was the status of your instructor (if known)

- Full-time
- Adjunct

- Graduate teaching assistant
- Other _____ (please fill in the blank)
- Unknown

15. On a scale below how much did you enjoy your class?

Enjoyed a great deal – enjoyed much – somewhat enjoyed – enjoyed a little – did not enjoy at all

16. On a scale below how much did you enjoy your instructor?

Enjoyed a great deal – enjoyed much – somewhat enjoyed – enjoyed a little – did not enjoy at all

17. *[Question measures interaction]* Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course you selected for this survey:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- I had numerous interactions with the instructor during the class.
- I asked the instructor my questions through different means appropriate to the class setting (e.g., instant messaging or e-mail; office hour; after class).
- The instructor regularly asked questions for students to discuss.
- The instructor answered my questions in a timely fashion.
- I replied to the messages from the instructor.
- I received enough feedback from my instructor when I needed it.

18. Select all the means by which you communicated with your instructor during this course:

(multiple choice boxes to select)

Email Phone Skype/Facetime/Webcam Virtual Classroom
Office (Face-to-face) Library (Face-to-face)

Public Place (e.g., coffee shop)

Other _____ (fill in the blank)

19. [*Question measures immediacy*] Below is a series of statements that describe the ways some people behave while talking with or to others. You are asked to indicate how well each statement applies to your instructor's communication with students in the course you selected for this survey. For each statement, choose the number that most closely describes your instructor's behavior.

never – rarely – occasionally – often – very often

- Uses personal examples
- Asks questions/encourages talking
- Discusses irrelevant student thoughts
- Uses humor
- Has conversed with me
- Refers to class as “our/we”
- Provides individual feedback
- Asks how students feel about work
- Invites students to call/meet
- Asks questions soliciting opinions
- Praises students
- Discusses unrelated materials

20. [*Question measures teaching presence*] As you continue thinking about the instructor of your past course referenced in this survey, indicate your agreement with the statements below:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- The instructor clearly communicated important course topics.

- The instructor clearly communicated important course goals.
- The instructor provided clear instructions on how to participate in course learning activities.
- The instructor clearly communicated important due dates/time frames for learning activities.
- The instructor was helpful in identifying areas of agreement and disagreement on course topics that helped me learn.
- The instructor was helpful in guiding the class towards understanding course topics in a way that helped me clarify my thinking.
- The instructor helped to keep course participants engaged and participating in productive dialogue.
- The instructor helped keep the course participants on task in a way that helped me learn.
- The instructor encouraged course participants to explore new concepts in this course.
- Instructor actions reinforced the development of a sense of community among course participants.
- The instructor helped to focus discussion on relevant issues in a way that helped me to learn.
- The instructor provided feedback that helped me understand my strengths and weaknesses relative to the course's goals and objectives.
- The instructor provided feedback in a timely fashion.

21. [*Question measures emotional intimacy*] Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course you selected for this survey:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- This instructor completely accepts me as I am
- I can openly share my deepest thoughts and feelings with this instructor
- This person cares deeply for me

- This person would willingly help me in any way
- My thoughts and feelings are understood and affirmed by this instructor

22. [*Question measures trust*] Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course you selected for this survey:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.
- We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was unable to continue in class
- I can talk freely to my instructor about difficulties I am having at school and know that (s)he will want to listen.
- If I shared my problems with this instructor, I know (s)he would respond constructively and caringly.
- I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our relationship

23. [*Question measures academic motivation*] Now that you thought about the instructor of your course extensively, imagine yourself being back in that class. How do you feel about pursuing college education as a result of your experiences in this particular course? Select the description most suited to each statement below.

(1) does not correspond at all, (2) corresponds very little, (3) corresponds a little, (4) corresponds moderately, (5) corresponds enough, (6) corresponds a lot, (7) corresponds exactly.

- 1) I think that college education is interesting.
- 2) I am doing it for my own good.
- 3) I am supposed to do it.

- 4) There may be good reasons for college education, but personally I don't see any
- 5) I think college education is pleasant
- 6) I think college education is good for me
- 7) I think college education is something I have to do
- 8) I am pursuing college education but I am not sure if it is worth it
- 9) College education is fun
- 10) I don't know; I don't see what college education brings me
- 11) I feel good pursuing college education
- 12) I believe college education is important to me
- 13) I feel I have to pursue college education
- 14) I am pursuing college education, but I am not sure it is a good thing to pursue.

The next set of questions presents you with an example of a hypothetical instructor who exhibits a set of very specific behaviors. Answer the next set of questions with this particular hypothetical instructor in mind.

[Question measures Instructor Engagement] This instructor encourages talking, uses humor and personal examples, and praises students for their efforts. The instructor is available for questions through different means, such as office hours, phone, emails, instant messaging, etc. The instructor answers questions in a timely manner and carries on content as well as personal related conversations with individual students, as well as with the entire class. The instructor encourages students to communicate difficulties they may be having in and out of school, and students trust the instructor and share their thoughts and feelings freely. The instructor is seen less as a “teacher” and more as a “person” or a “peer.” The instructor is willing to help in any way possible and responds to any communicated problems constructively and caringly. The instructor

seems to have a sharing relationship with students. The instructor is approachable and truly cares about students.

24. To what extent would you feel it *necessary* for your ideal instructor to exhibit the behaviors discussed in the above prompt?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(do not require at all) *(very much require)*

25. To what extent would you *anticipate or expect* your ideal instructor to exhibit behaviors discussed in the above prompt?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(do not expect at all) *(very much expect)*

26. To what extent would you personally *prefer* your ideal instructor to exhibit behaviors discussed in the above prompt?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(do not desire at all) *(desire very much)*

27. How satisfied would you be with having this person as your instructor for every **Face-to-**

face/Online [*the mode is filled in based on the type of course the student was responding on for this survey*] class you take from now on?

highly satisfied – somewhat satisfied – neither satisfied nor dissatisfied – somewhat dissatisfied – highly dissatisfied

28. If you had the opportunity to choose an instructor for a future course, would you want this hypothetical person as your course instructor?

Yes

No

29. How motivated would you feel to continue your education if you had this person as your instructor for every class you take from now on?

highly motivated – motivated – somewhat motivated – motivated very little – not motivated at all

Now think back to the class you referenced in the beginning of this survey – course

(_____) [here Qualtrics will fill in the name of the course student entered in question 10].

30. Did the instructor of the course you took (_____) [here Qualtrics will fill in the name of the course student entered in question 10] match the hypothetical instructor's behaviors?

Yes

No

(Question 31 appears ONLY if the answers to questions 28 and 30 do not match)

31. Since you answered [YES/NO – filled in from question 28] to wanting the hypothetical person as a future instructor, and [YES/NO – filled in from question 30] to the hypothetical instructor matching your course of reference's instructor, please tell us how you feel about the differences?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(1-3) these differences made me feel a lot worse about my instructor of the course of reference [course XXXXX – fill in course number] – (4) these differences do not matter – (5-7) these differences made me feel a lot better about my instructor of the course of reference [course XXXXX – fill in course number]

SECTION 3

The last set of questions will permit us to assess the representativeness of the sample.

32. How did you hear about this survey?

- CRTNet ListServ
- AOIR ListServ
- Invitation from a professor/announcement posted in class
- Other (please specify) _____ (text box appears)

33. What is your sex?

*Male

*Female

34. What is your age (please fill in the blank in complete years)?

* _____ (please fill in blank)

35. What is your current academic status?

- undergrad 1 year
- undergrad 2 year
- undergrad 3 year
- undergrad 4 year
- undergrad 5 year
- grad school masters
- grad school phd
- other _____ (please fill in blank)

36. What type of institution

- Community college
- University
- Career college
- Other (fill in blank)

37. Any additional comments you would like to share?

_____ (essay box appears)

Thank you for taking time to complete this survey. I appreciate your time and your efforts.

If you have any questions or would like to follow up on the results, feel free to contact me at

ec9145@wayne.edu

Appendix C

Online Instrument

In order to take this survey, you must be a student currently enrolled in a degree-seeking program at a higher education institution.

The first set of statements asks for your general opinion in regards to your experiences with instructors. Please use your past experience when answering these questions.

(the first question of the survey is assigned randomly – participants either begin with this survey’s first question – online course question first – or with the other survey, where the face-to-face question comes first)

1. Within the past year have you taken a college level online class (an online class is a course where all content is delivered online? An online course typically has no face-to-face meetings)?

Yes

No

(if participant answers “yes,” the next three questions pop up. If participant answers “no”, survey skips to question 5)

2. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you consider being *necessary* for you to have a satisfying course experience. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *require* from your instructor in the online class?

Top required behavior _____

Second best required _____

Third best behavior _____

3. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you consider to be anticipated, perhaps as a result of social norms, or your past experiences with instructors. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *expect* from your instructor in the online class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third best behavior _____

4. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the online classroom, think about behaviors you personally prefer; perhaps they help you accomplish certain goals, or help you feel most motivated to learn. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *desire* from your instructor in the online class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third desired behavior _____

(At this point survey skips the next 4 questions and continues to Section 2)

5. Within the past year have you taken a college level face-to-face course (course where majority of content is delivered in writing or orally, and you were required to attend regular classroom meetings)?

Yes

No

(if participants answers "yes" – next three questions pop up. If participant answers no, a response pops up: "Thank you for taking this survey. Since you have not taken an online or a

face-to-face course within this past year, you are not eligible to participate in this survey. We appreciate your time.”)

6. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the face-to-face classroom, think about behaviors you consider being *necessary* for you to have a satisfying course experience. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *require* from your instructor in the face-to-face class?

Top required behavior _____

Second best required _____

Third best behavior _____

7. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the face-to-face classroom, think about behaviors you consider to be anticipated, perhaps as a result of social norms, or your past experiences with instructors. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *expect* from your instructor in the face-to-face class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third best behavior _____

8. As you think about various instructor behaviors in the face-to-face classroom, think about behaviors you personally prefer; perhaps they help you accomplish certain goals, or help you feel most motivated to learn. In the field below enter top three behaviors you *desire* from your instructor in the face-to-face class?

Top desired behavior _____

Second best _____

Third desired behavior _____

SECTION 2

The next set of questions asks you to think back to your most recent experience in your ONLINE/FACE-TO-FACE [mode is filled in based on answers to questions 1 or 5] college class. If you took multiple courses in the last year, choose one ONLINE/FACE-TO-FACE [mode is filled in based on answers to questions 1 or 5] course that you remember most or where the instructor stood out for one reason or another. Respond to the next set of survey questions keeping this one course and its instructor in mind.

9. Name the course (fill in the blank, for example: English Comp 1, or Algebra. Please do not use course abbreviation, such as ENG100)

10. What level was this course?

- Undergraduate
- Graduate

11. Approximately how many students were enrolled in this class (fill in the blank with a specific number; if you do not know, make your best estimate or enter “not sure”)

_____ (fill in the blank)

12. What was your instructor’s sex?

- Male
- Female

13. What was your instructor’s age? (fill in the blank with a specific number)

_____ (if you are not sure, make your best estimate)

14. What was the status of your instructor (if known)

- Full-time

- Adjunct
- Graduate teaching assistant
- Other _____ (please fill in the blank)
- Unknown

15. On a scale below how much did you enjoy your class?

Enjoyed a great deal – enjoyed much – somewhat enjoyed – enjoyed a little – did not enjoy at all

16. On a scale below how much did you enjoy your instructor?

Enjoyed a great deal – enjoyed much – somewhat enjoyed – enjoyed a little – did not enjoy at all

17. *[Question measures interaction]* Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course you selected for this survey:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- I had numerous interactions with the instructor during the class.
- I asked the instructor my questions through different means appropriate to the class setting (e.g., instant messaging or e-mail; office hour; after class).
- The instructor regularly asked questions for students to discuss.
- The instructor answered my questions in a timely fashion.
- I replied to the messages from the instructor.
- I received enough feedback from my instructor when I needed it.

18. Select all the means by which you communicated with your instructor during this course:

(multiple choice boxes to select)

Email Phone Skype/Facetime/Webcam Virtual Classroom

Office (Face-to-face)

Library (Face-to-face)

Public Place (e.g., coffee shop)

Other _____ (fill in the blank)

19. [*Question measures immediacy*] Below is a series of statements that describe the ways some people behave while talking with or to others. You are asked to indicate how well each statement applies to your instructor's communication with students in the course you selected for this survey. For each statement, choose the number that most closely describes your instructor's behavior.

never – rarely – occasionally – often – very often

- Uses personal examples
- Asks questions/encourages talking
- Discusses irrelevant student thoughts
- Uses humor
- Has conversed with me
- Refers to class as “our/we”
- Provides individual feedback
- Asks how students feel about work
- Invites students to call/meet
- Asks questions soliciting opinions
- Praises students
- Discusses unrelated materials

20. [*Question measures teaching presence*] As you continue thinking about the instructor of your past course referenced in this survey, indicate your agreement with the statements below:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- The instructor clearly communicated important course topics.
- The instructor clearly communicated important course goals.
- The instructor provided clear instructions on how to participate in course learning activities.
- The instructor clearly communicated important due dates/time frames for learning activities.
- The instructor was helpful in identifying areas of agreement and disagreement on course topics that helped me learn.
- The instructor was helpful in guiding the class towards understanding course topics in a way that helped me clarify my thinking.
- The instructor helped to keep course participants engaged and participating in productive dialogue.
- The instructor helped keep the course participants on task in a way that helped me learn.
- The instructor encouraged course participants to explore new concepts in this course.
- Instructor actions reinforced the development of a sense of community among course participants.
- The instructor helped to focus discussion on relevant issues in a way that helped me to learn.
- The instructor provided feedback that helped me understand my strengths and weaknesses relative to the course's goals and objectives.
- The instructor provided feedback in a timely fashion.

21. [*Question measures emotional intimacy*] Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course you selected for this survey:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- This instructor completely accepts me as I am
- I can openly share my deepest thoughts and feelings with this instructor

- This person cares deeply for me
- This person would willingly help me in any way
- My thoughts and feelings are understood and affirmed by this instructor

22. [*Question measures trust*] Using a scale below indicate your agreement with the statements about the instructor of the course you selected for this survey:

strongly disagree – disagree – neither agree nor disagree – agree – strongly agree

- We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.
- We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was unable to continue in class
- I can talk freely to my instructor about difficulties I am having at school and know that (s)he will want to listen.
- If I shared my problems with this instructor, I know (s)he would respond constructively and caringly.
- I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our relationship

23. [*Question measures academic motivation*] Now that you thought about the instructor of your course extensively, imagine yourself being back in that class. How do you feel about pursuing college education as a result of your experiences in this particular course? Select the description most suited to each statement below.

(1) does not correspond at all, (2) corresponds very little, (3) corresponds a little, (4) corresponds moderately, (5) corresponds enough, (6) corresponds a lot, (7) corresponds exactly.

15) I think that college education is interesting.

16) I am doing it for my own good.

- 17) I am supposed to do it.
- 18) There may be good reasons for college education, but personally I don't see any
- 19) I think college education is pleasant
- 20) I think college education is good for me
- 21) I think college education is something I have to do
- 22) I am pursuing college education but I am not sure if it is worth it
- 23) College education is fun
- 24) I don't know; I don't see what college education brings me
- 25) I feel good pursuing college education
- 26) I believe college education is important to me
- 27) I feel I have to pursue college education
- 28) I am pursuing college education, but I am not sure it is a good thing to pursue.

The next set of questions presents you with an example of a hypothetical instructor who exhibits a set of very specific behaviors. Answer the next set of questions with this particular hypothetical instructor in mind.

[Question measures Instructor Engagement] This instructor encourages talking, uses humor and personal examples, and praises students for their efforts. The instructor is available for questions through different means, such as office hours, phone, emails, instant messaging, etc. The instructor answers questions in a timely manner and carries on content as well as personal related conversations with individual students, as well as with the entire class. The instructor encourages students to communicate difficulties they may be having in and out of school, and students trust the instructor and share their thoughts and feelings freely. The instructor is seen less as a “teacher” and more as a “person” or a “peer.” The instructor is willing to help in any way

possible and responds to any communicated problems constructively and caringly. The instructor seems to have a sharing relationship with students. The instructor is approachable and truly cares about students.

24. To what extent would you feel it *necessary* for your ideal instructor to exhibit the behaviors discussed in the above prompt?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(do not require at all) *(very much require)*

25. To what extent would you *anticipate or expect* your ideal instructor to exhibit behaviors discussed in the above prompt?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(do not expect at all) *(very much expect)*

26. To what extent would you personally *prefer* your ideal instructor to exhibit behaviors discussed in the above prompt?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(do not desire at all) *(desire very much)*

27. How satisfied would you be with having this person as your instructor for every **Face-to-face/Online** *[the mode is filled in based on the type of course the student was responding on for this survey]* class you take from now on?

highly satisfied – somewhat satisfied – neither satisfied nor dissatisfied – somewhat dissatisfied – highly dissatisfied

28. If you had the opportunity to choose an instructor for a future course, would you want this hypothetical person as your course instructor?

Yes

No

29. How motivated would you feel to continue your education if you had this person as your instructor for every class you take from now on?

highly motivated – motivated – somewhat motivated – motivated very little – not motivated at all

Now think back to the class you referenced in the beginning of this survey – course

(_____) [here Qualtrics will fill in the name of the course student entered in question 10].

30. Did the instructor of the course you took (_____) [here Qualtrics will fill in the name of the course student entered in question 10] match the hypothetical instructor's behaviors?

Yes

No

(Question 31 appears ONLY if the answers to questions 28 and 30 do not match)

31. Since you answered [YES/NO – filled in from question 28] to wanting the hypothetical person as a future instructor, and [YES/NO – filled in from question 30] to the hypothetical instructor matching your course of reference's instructor, please tell us how you feel about the differences?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(1-3) these differences made me feel a lot worse about my instructor of the course of reference [course XXXXX – fill in course number] – (4) these differences do not matter – (5-7) these differences made me feel a lot better about my instructor of the course of reference [course XXXXX – fill in course number]

SECTION 3

The last set of questions will permit us to assess the representativeness of the sample.

32. How did you hear about this survey?

- CRTNet ListServ
- AOIR ListServ
- Invitation from a professor/announcement posted in class
- Other (please specify) _____ (text box appears)

33. What is your sex?

*Male

*Female

34. What is your age (please fill in the blank in complete years)?

* _____ (please fill in blank)

35. What is your current academic status?

- undergrad 1 year
- undergrad 2 year
- undergrad 3 year
- undergrad 4 year
- undergrad 5 year
- grad school masters
- grad school phd
- other _____ (please fill in blank)

36. What type of institution

- Community college
- University
- Career college

- Other (fill in blank)

37. Any additional comments you would like to share?

_____ (essay box appears)

Thank you for taking time to complete this survey. I appreciate your time and your efforts.

If you have any questions or would like to follow up on the results, feel free to contact me at

ec9145@wayne.edu

APPENDIX D**Research Information Sheet**

Title of Study: *Exploring the Concept of Instructor Engagement*

Principal Investigator (PI): Daria S. LaFave
Department of Communication
Wayne State University
ec9145@wayne.edu

Purpose:

You are being asked to be in a research study of student values of instructor engagement in the classroom because you are currently a resident of the United States, and a student enrolled in a higher education course, or have recently completed a higher education course. This study is being conducted at Wayne State University.

Study Procedures:

If you take part in the study, you will be asked to take an online survey that will involve answering questions regarding your values and expectations of various instructor behaviors in the classroom (online or face-to-face).

- The questions will ask you to provide some basic demographic information (gender, age, current school status, type of a course you took), and seek your opinions about various instructor behaviors in the classroom.
- You will have the option of not answering some of the questions and still be able to remain in the study if you choose.
- The survey must be completed in one sitting; it cannot be saved and returned to later.
- The survey should take no more than 30 minutes to complete
- Once the survey has been completed, there will be no additional time commitment; no other surveys or follow-ups will be required.
- At the end of the survey, you will be asked if you wish to be entered into a drawing for one of twenty five, \$50 gift cards. If you wish to be entered, you will be taken to a different screen and asked to enter your first name and email address. This information will be kept separate from your answers.

Benefits

- As a participant in this research study, there will be no direct benefit for you; however, information from this study may benefit other people now or in the future.

Risks

By taking part in this study, you may experience the following risks:

At one point in the survey you will be presented with a hypothetical scenario that describes the “ideal” instructor. As a result, you may experience minor feelings of sadness or distress when comparing your real life instructor to this “ideal” instructor.

Costs

There will be no costs to you for participation in this research study.

Compensation

If you choose to do so, you can enter your first name and email address for a chance to win one of twenty five, \$50 gift certificates.

Confidentiality:

All information collected about you during the course of this study will be kept without any identifiers.

Voluntary Participation /Withdrawal:

Taking part in this study is voluntary. You are free to not answer any questions or withdraw at any time. Your decision will not change any present or future relationships with Wayne State University or its affiliates.

Questions:

If you have any questions about this study now or in the future, you may contact Daria LaFave at the following phone number (313) 577-2943. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, the Chair of the Institutional Review Board can be contacted at (313) 577-1628. If you are unable to contact the research staff, or if you want to talk to someone other than the research staff, you may also call (313) 577-1628 to ask questions or voice concerns or complaints.

Participation:

By completing the survey you are agreeing to participate in this study. Participation in this research is for residents of the United States over the age of 18; if you are not a resident of the United States and/or under the age of 18, please do not complete this survey.

APPENDIX E

REDs Analysis Codebook

Place a unit of analysis into an existing category. Use the dictionary definition of the term when deciding which category to place it in. If there is a question of deciding where to placing a code (ability to place into two or more categories), go back to the question that was asked – what are your requirements of instructor behavior in the classroom? The focus should always be on how can instructor help the student have a satisfactory course experience while supporting the learning process.

Categories of Instructor Behaviors

Rapport

This category is concerned with interpersonally-oriented instructor behaviors towards the student when supporting his/her learning process, including being available, concerned, patient and professional.

- Offers to help students with problems, exhibits patience with technical challenges
- Interested in students' ideas
- Sensitive to students' feelings
- Available for consultation outside of class
- Talks with students before/after class
- Tolerant/respectful of other points of view
- Concerned that students understand subject matter
- Knows individual students by name
- Flexible regarding deadlines and requirements
- Praises students for good ideas

- Open to communication
- Quick/prompt/timely responses to student questions
- Exhibits professionalism, promptness, and attentiveness to student concerns
- Exhibits fairness

Interest

This category encompasses behaviors that are directed towards helping students understand the subject matter and exhibit instructor's intellectual presence while supporting and enhancing student motivation to learn, and curiosity towards the content

- Relates subject matter to current events
- Describes personal experiences relevant to subject matter
- States own point of view on controversial issues
- Focuses on controversial issues within subject matter
- Points out practical applications of concepts
- Relates subject matter to student interests or activities
- Gives everyday, real-life examples to illustrate concepts
- Presents challenging, thought-provoking ideas
- Is knowledgeable, credible, competent, and engaging
- ****Shows strong interest in subject matter**** (moved from Rapport)
- Employs various teaching methods to appeal to different learning styles
- Assigns work relevant to course learning objectives

Course Disclosure

This category looks specifically at how the instructor develops an entire course experience by being transparent and forthcoming. The behaviors are catered towards helping

students succeed in their learning process by providing clear expectations, orienting them towards important elements, and explaining mistakes.

- Advises students about how to prepare for tests or exams
- Tells which topics are most important for exam purposes
- Tells exactly what is expected on tests or in assignments
- Provides sample exam questions
- Makes students aware of overall objectives of course
- Advises students about how to prepare assignments
- Suggests organizational schemes for learning material
- Suggests ways of memorizing complicated ideas
- Exhibits clarity of expectations
- Reminds students of upcoming deadlines
- Timely feedback/grades
- Clarity of communication
- Provide support by explaining content, mistakes, assignments, etc.
- Timely feedback and return of grades
- Clearly communicating deadlines and assignment expectations
- Clear instructions

Organization

This category looks specifically at how the instructor prepares for and arranges a lecture or a course session, and how he/she helps students understand each individual lecture and the materials presented.

- Gives preliminary overview of a lecture

- Puts outline of lecture on blackboard or overhead screen
- Organizes lecture by means of a list of points
- Uses headings and subheadings to organize lectures
- Periodically summarizes points already made
- Previews topics to be covered in future lectures
- Reviews topics covered in previous lecture
- States objectives of each lecture
- Explains how each topic fits into the course as a whole
- Consistently and regularly updates lecture materials with most recent research and examples

Interaction

This category encompasses behaviors that call for the instructor to be actively and frequently present in the classroom, and to communicate with students in order to facilitate learning and push/promote/encourage a satisfactory learning experience.

- Attends class regularly
- Expects students to answer questions directed to class
- Encourages participation in classroom discussion
- Asks questions of class as a whole
- Asks questions of individual students
- Encourages questions or comments during lectures
- Encourages students to think independently
- Incorporates students' ideas into lecture
- Engages in course discussions

Speech clarity

This category includes behaviors that are associated with instructor's ability to effectively use a specific form of nonverbal communication, paralanguage, and to be clearly understood.

- Speaks loudly and clearly
- Does not mumble
- Speaks at a good rate
- Uses pauses effectively
- Pronounces words correctly
- Speaks English well

Expressiveness

This category includes instructor behaviors that are specifically focused on the performance aspect of information that is aimed to engage students through strong public speaking elements.

- ****Tells jokes or humorous anecdotes**** (moved from Interest)
- Speaks in a dramatic or expressive way
- Smiles or laughs while teaching
- Entertaining, energetic, and enthusiastic in delivery
- Clearly passionate about the subject
- Demonstrates desire to teach

Emphasis/ Reinforcement

These behaviors are focused on helping students understand a specific concept or learning element by explaining or emphasizing information as asked by students or necessitated by course content

- Uses concrete examples to explain abstract principles
- Gives several examples of each concept
- Stresses most important points related to a theory or concept
- Explains topics in depth
- Repeats information when necessary

Mannerisms

These behaviors are concerned with the way instructors utilize gestures and body language when teaching

- ****Exhibits facial gestures or expressions**** (moved from expressiveness)
- ****Gestures with hands or arms**** (moved from expressiveness)
- Moves around the room

Use of graphs/Media use

This category of behaviors is concerned with instructor's use of supplementary audio and visual materials (e.g., notes, online LMS, videos, various forms of technology)

- Uses graphs or diagrams to facilitate explanation
- Writes key terms on blackboard or overhead screen
- Uses audiovisual aids to illustrate concepts
- Uses a variety of different activities or media formats
- Knows how to work and operate the LMS
- Adapts materials to the medium
- Provides learning materials in variety of formats
- Tech savvy

Vocabulary

These behaviors demonstrate instructor's ability to use language in a creative/understandable way

- Does not use big words that students do not understand
- Explains subject matter in informal, colloquial language
- Exhibits literacy
- Exhibits quality and accuracy of typing

Rule Enforcement

These behaviors are associated with the instructor's efforts to maintain order in a classroom by enforcing and upholding a code of conduct

- Effectively manages the classroom
- Exhibits zero tolerance for disruptive students

Other

Any codes that do not fit into the existing categories will be placed here.

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ABSTRACT**WHAT DO STUDENTS VALUE? EXPLORING INSTRUCTOR BEHAVIORS IN FACE-TO-FACE AND ONLINE HIGHER EDUCATION CLASSROOMS**

by

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Instructor behaviors in face-to-face (FtF) and online (OL) classrooms have been heavily examined in existing literature as influencing factors on academic motivation and student satisfaction with courses. As a result, many are being strongly emphasized in instructor trainings as essential elements of an ideal instructor. However, little is known about the values that students place on various instructor behaviors, and whether or not these values differ depending on mode of delivery (FtF vs. OL). This dissertation seeks answers to these questions by conducting a systematic literature review and a cross-sectional survey of FtF and OL students. As a result of an exhaustive analysis of current research, a conceptualization of instructor engagement (IE) as the “ideal” behavior needed to capture all levels of instructor-student interaction is developed. Based on the review, an operationalization of IE as a combination of interaction, immediacy, teaching presence, emotional intimacy, and trust is also tested. The requirements, expectations, and desires (RED) factors framework of the Interaction Adaptation Theory is used as a theoretical foundation for understanding students’ values of instructor behaviors. Results indicate that students value IE as an instructor behavior in both FtF and OL classrooms, but carry different values of IE behaviors depending on the mode of course delivery.

A combination of identified IE behaviors was found to predict academic motivation in both types of courses, and negative consequences of violating student expectations for IE behaviors in both FtF and OL classrooms also emerged. It was also concluded that IE (as conceptualized in the study) is better suited for FtF environments, and not as applicable in OL courses. Finally, given many differences found in student values of various behaviors when comparing FtF and OL classrooms, it was concluded that researchers should exercise caution when examining and comparing these modes of delivery in relationship to IE and other instructor behaviors.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Communication has been in my blood since I stepped in my very first communication class at the University of Illinois Springfield, where I earned both my BA in Liberal Studies and an MA in Communication after moving to the US from Russia at the age of 18. After taking a 5-year break, I returned to graduate school to earn my PhD from Wayne State University in 2016. I study online education and instructor-student relationships, and hope some day to move into an administrative side where I can truly impact the growth and success of online education.