

Relational Turning Point Events and Their Outcomes in College Teacher-
Student Relationships from Students' Perspectives

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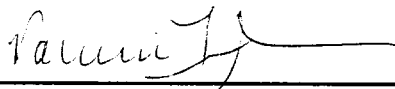
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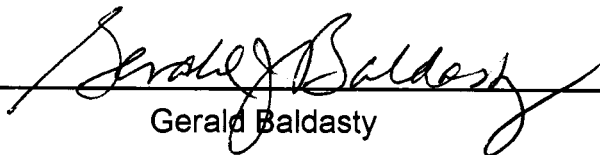


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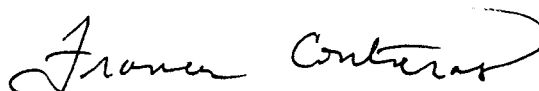
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Abstract

Relational Turning Point Events and Their Outcomes in College Teacher-Student Relationships from Students' Perspectives

Anthony Nicolas Docan

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This study investigates relational turning point events and their outcomes reported to occur by students in college teacher-student relationships. Six hundred and forty college students were asked if they could identify a turning point event with a college teacher. Students who were able to recall a turning point event ($n = 394$) completed open- and closed-ended survey questions pertaining to their perception of the turning point event, outcomes of the event, and their learning and motivation. Analysis of participants' responses yielded six meta-level categories of turning point events: *instrumental*, *personal*, *rhetorical*, *ridicule/discipline*, *locational*, and *other person*. Analysis of participants' responses also yielded 11 categories of outcomes of relational turning point events. Findings revealed that 80% of the reported events were perceived as positive, and 20% were judged to be negative. The findings also reveal that students who reported personal and locational turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help. Further, students who reported personal, locational, instrumental, and other person turning point events were more likely than not to report a

change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher. Finally, the results indicate that relational turning point events appear to affect students' cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation. In particular, students who reported instrumental, personal, and locational turning point events also reported increased cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation. Further, students who reported ridicule/discipline turning point events reported decreased cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation.

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DEDICATION

To Donald H. Wulff, who was a remarkable teacher and mentor.

To Sara, our bond, and the next part of our life.

To my parents for believing in me.

Chapter 1:

Introduction, Background, and Research Questions

Introduction

The teaching effectiveness literature is concerned primarily with how to best facilitate instructional outcomes such as student learning (Cortez, Gayle, & Preiss, 2006). Complex factors such as content relevance, teacher clarity, and teacher power are studied generally as either facilitating or detracting from certain outcomes. For example, college teachers' use of immediacy (Andersen, 1979; Christophel, 1990; Comstock, Rowell, & Bowers, 1995) and affinity-seeking behaviors (Frymier, 1994a), appropriate humor (Wanzer & Frymier, 1999), self-disclosure (Sorensen, 1989), and demonstration of care (Teven & McCroskey, 1997) have all been found to result in greater student learning. Research has also shown that teacher misbehavior (McPherson, Kearney, & Plax, 2006), inappropriate humor (Wanzer & Frymier, 1999), and antisocial influence communication (Lee, Levine, & Cambra, 1997; Richmond, 1990) tend to be detrimental to instructional outcomes.

Despite these often robust findings, the teaching effectiveness literature has been criticized for not offering an adequate explanation for why these outcomes occur. According to Cortez et al. (2006), for example, "teacher effectiveness involves a variety of different components and processes [and] it appears that *the interaction among the various elements has not been captured*" (p. 273, italics added). Looking more closely at some of the tacit assumptions in this literature is one place to find the connection between

behavior and outcomes in the instructional context. Specifically, I argue in this dissertation that the teaching effectiveness literature reflects the importance of *relational dimensions* present in the teacher-student dynamic. That is, the research focusing on the interplay between processes and outcomes often implies that there is some form of relationship between the student and teacher that is built or shaped by their (particularly the teachers') behaviors, an argument that I will explore further in this dissertation. Conceptualizing the interactions that occur between teachers and students as based in and shaped by their relational context may provide an explanation as to why certain outcomes arise. It may also open a host of additional processes to be explored.

The contention that instructional outcomes may be understood as occurring, at least in part, within a relationship between teachers and students has been made—or at least implied—by others. Teven (2001), for example, has argued that “in order to maximize learning, it is essential for teachers to develop a good relationship with their students, because the rapport established between teachers and students, in part, determines the interest and performance level of students” (p. 159). Likewise, DeVito (1986) mentions that the development of the teacher-student relationship “is viewed as the means by which more effective, efficient, and satisfying teaching and learning may take place” (DeVito, 1986, p. 53). These perspectives about teaching and the teacher-student relationship, however, are uncommon in the literature.

Focusing on the teacher-student dynamic as a relationship involves using what can be described as a *relational frame* (i.e., describing the student-teacher dynamic as relational *inherently*; see Duck, in press, for a larger discussion of the importance of taking a relational frame for interaction). Among other things, this frame opens up an assortment of issues to explore. For example, a salient occurrence identified in relationships is *relational turning points*. A relational turning point is “any event or occurrence that is associated with change in a relationship” (Baxter & Bullis, 1986, p. 470). Turning points typically affect other relational characteristics, such as closeness and relational satisfaction (e.g., Golish, 2000; Surra, 1987), are deemed important by partners (Baxter & Bullis, 1986), and often have a powerful effect on relational development (Masheter & Harris, 1986).

Whereas these findings are drawn from studies of romantic pairs, families, and friendships, turning points in teacher-student relationships may share these effects. More centrally for this study, turning points in this context may have important links to instructional outcomes, and the relational frame in which they occur may work to explain those linkages. Based in this reasoning, the current study investigates relational turning points reported by students to have occurred in teacher-student relationships and how these points affect student learning and motivation. In particular, and as the first step in a series of studies, it examines the specific types of events students report as relational

turning points in their relationships with teachers and explores how turning points affect students reported cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation. The critical incident technique (CIT), an underutilized, albeit well suited method for examining relational turning points, is used to generate and analyze data for this study. This dissertation also places the teaching effectiveness literature into a relational frame and calls for other scholars to make similar conceptualizations. Toward these ends, three bodies of literature are reviewed, including the teaching effectiveness, teacher-student relationship, and relational turning point literatures.

Background/Literature Review

Teacher-Effectiveness

What constitutes effective teaching is a question that has long intrigued teachers, researchers, and others concerned with the quality of education. Although there is no universal agreement about what effective teaching is (Tuckman, 1995), many scholars agree that “effective teaching is defined as that which causes students to learn and grow” (Giovannelli, 2003, p. 295). Research examining teacher effectiveness is vast and provides a starting point for understanding the ways that teachers affect their students. What teachers affect in students (i.e., learning) and the means by which they affect students (i.e., content relevance, affinity seeking) are discussed here.

What do Teachers Affect?

Research reflects that teachers can affect students in many ways. Of most concern in the teaching effectiveness literature, however, are instructional outcomes, or what results from instruction. Various types of learning, as well as student motivation overall, are perhaps the most commonly identified outcome variables studied in the teacher effectiveness literature. Examining these variables makes sense when considering that effective teaching is defined as “that which causes students to learn and grow” (Giovannelli, 2003, p. 295). I review briefly the outcome variables that have been the primary focus of research—cognitive learning, affective learning, behavioral learning, and motivation—in the following section in order to show the possible outcomes relevant to instructional processes that may be perceived as the result of turning points.

Cognitive learning. Cognitive learning focuses on knowledge acquisition and recall (Bloom, 1956). Bloom identified six levels of cognitive learning, including *knowledge* (recall of specific information), *comprehension* (grasping the meaning of material), *application* (using learned material in a new situation), *analysis* (breaking down material into its component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood), *synthesis* (putting parts together to form a new whole), and *evaluation* (making judgments on the basis of given criteria). The teacher effectiveness literature is concerned, overall, with how

teachers can best facilitate these processes for their students. Cognitive learning, for example, is closely connected to teacher clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001), credibility (Johnson & Miller, 2002), and immediacy (Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994a; Gorham, 1988; Johnson & Miller, 2002; McCroskey et al., 1996; Mottet & Beebe, 2001; Pribyl, Sakamoto, & Keaten, 2004; Richmond, 1990; Zhang & Zhang, 2006).

Affective learning. Affective learning addresses students' attitudes, beliefs, values, and feelings about what they learn (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964; Mottet, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006). Researchers have identified various levels of affective responses. Levels described as "lower" include learners being willing to receive and respond to classroom information (e.g., attending class). "Higher" levels, which are also more abstract, involve students modifying their values, attitudes, and beliefs (e.g., changing in worldview) (Krathwohl et al., 1964).

The teaching effectiveness literature is concerned primarily with how teachers stimulate students' affect and attitude toward the topic being taught. Affective learning, for example, has been shown to be positively related to teachers' use of affinity seeking (Myers, 1995; Roach, 1991), teacher credibility (Johnson & Miller, 2002; Russ, Simonds, & Hunt, 2002), and teacher immediacy (Teven & McCroskey, 1997).

Behavioral learning. Also commonly referred to as *psychomotor learning*, behavioral learning concerns the acquisition of behaviors or skills. Lower levels of behavioral learning involve learning reflexive actions and controlling behaviors, whereas higher-level behavioral learning concerns learning skilled movements or complex behaviors (Mottet & Beebe, 2006). As with the other types of learning, researchers concerned with teaching effectiveness examine how to best facilitate behavioral learning.

Although behavioral learning has received little attention in the literature compared to cognitive and affective learning (Mottet & Beebe, 2006), researchers have shown that it is positively related to teachers' use of immediacy behaviors (e.g., Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Neuliep, 1995, 1997). Because behavioral learning is not a component of many courses, however, it is often not measured in studies of teaching effectiveness.

Student motivation. Student motivation is conceptualized as a facilitator of learning outcomes (Christophel, 1990; Rodriguez, Plax, & Kearney, 1996). It is defined as a commitment to initiate and maintain involvement in the learning process and learning activities (Ames, 1990). Scholars of teaching effectiveness are concerned with what teachers do to facilitate student motivation. Some researchers, for example, have found that student motivation is linked to grades (Docan, 2006), teacher enthusiasm (Patrick, Hisley, & Kempler, 2000), teacher immediacy (Christensen & Menzel, 1997; Witt &

Wheless, 2001), and teacher communication of high expectations for students (e.g., asserting that students can do better and offering them help to do so) (Gorham & Millete, 1997).

Summary. Cognitive learning, affective learning, behavioral learning, and student motivation are the primary outcome variables studied in the teaching effectiveness literature. There are, however, many variables studied commonly in the literature that address the *means* by which teachers affect students' learning and motivation. These concepts are discussed next.

By What Means do Teachers Affect Students?

Each of the frequently studied variables that address the means by which teachers affect students is discussed here briefly. They include content relevance, clarity, credibility, immediacy, affinity seeking, humor, self-disclosure, power, and misbehavior.

Content relevance. Content relevance is defined as learners' perception of whether course content satisfied their personal needs, personal goals, and/or career goals (Keller, 1983). Keller (1987) identified six strategies that work to make content more relevant, including future usefulness of the material, present worth of the material, matching students' needs to the material, relating material to students' experience, modeling, and choice. The research literature reports that greater use of relevant strategies is related to increased state motivation to

learn, which refers to motivation to learn in a particular course (Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Frymier, Shulman, & Houser, 1996).

More frequent use of content relevance strategies is also associated with increased student affect toward course material and the instructor, and students' reports of empowerment (Frymier et al., 1996). Other studies report that students' perceptions of content relevance and interest in the subject area were the most important factors affecting students' motivation to learn (Cruickshank & Kennedy, 1986; Millette & Gorham, 2002; Newby, 1991).

Teacher clarity. Teacher clarity has been defined as "a cluster of teacher behaviors that results in learners gaining knowledge or understanding of a topic, if they possess adequate interest, aptitude, opportunity, and time" (Cruickshank & Kennedy, 1986, p. 43) and is "concerned with the fidelity of instructional messages" (Powell & Harville, 1990, p. 372). Teacher clarity, then, is argued to enable students to better understand a topic. One model of teacher clarity (Hines, Cruickshank, & Kennedy, 1985) offers three categories of clear teaching: the teacher stressing important aspects of content, explaining content by the use of examples, and assessing and responding to perceived deficiencies in understanding.

Another line of teacher clarity research examines teachers' lecture cues, which are behaviors that indicate important ideas for students to know and/or record. Findings in this line of research illustrate that when teachers utilize

organizational cues such as structured main points, student learning increased based on tests following the lecture (Titsworth, 2001, 2004). Further, studies of receiver apprehension demonstrate that clearer and more immediate teaching reduces receiver apprehension, which is the fear of not being able to adjust to others' messages (Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998; Wheelless, 1975). In a similar investigation, teacher clarity was positively related to higher student state motivation to learn, perceived cognitive learning, and positive affect (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000). Further, students who had the "clearer teacher" learned more, experienced less apprehension, and had increased positive affect for the teacher and the material (Chesebro, 2003).

Teacher credibility. Another commonly studied variable in the teacher effectiveness literature is credibility, defined as "the attitude of a receiver that references the degree to which a source is seen to be believable" (McCroskey, 1998, p. 80). Students who perceive their teachers as credible are better able to recall course information (Wheelless, 1975), report higher affective and cognitive learning (Johnson & Miller, 2002; Russ, Simonds, & Hunt, 2002; Teven & McCroskey, 1997), and are motivated to perform well academically (Frymier & Thompson, 1992; Martin, Chesebro, & Mottet, 1997). Teacher credibility also affects the personal dynamic that exists between the teacher and student. For example, students who perceive their teachers as credible engage in out-of-class communication (Myers, 2003; Nadler & Nadler, 2001), have

respect (Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2002), evaluate highly (Teven & McCroskey, 1997), and plan to enroll in additional courses with them (Nadler & Nadler, 2001). Further, teachers are perceived as more verbally and nonverbally immediate when they demonstrate competence, character, and/or caring (Johnson & Miller, 2002; Teven, 2001).

Immediacy. Immediacy refers to the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between communicators (McCroskey, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006; Richmond, Lane, & McCroskey, 2006; Witt, Wheelless, & Allen, 2006). It is perhaps the most frequently studied variable in the teacher effectiveness literature. The general principle behind immediacy is that “people approach what they like and avoid what they don’t like” (Mehrabian, 1981, p. 22).

Explanations of the impact of immediacy in the instructional context come from two perspectives. The arousal-attention explanation (Kelley & Gorham, 1988) posits that immediacy, arousal, attention, memory, and cognitive learning are closely linked with one another, and thus immediate behaviors affect student learning. The motivation explanation (Christophel, 1990a; Richmond, 1990) claims instead that teachers’ immediate behaviors are likely to increase students’ state motivation by stimulating students and directing their effort.

Individual studies examining teacher immediacy suggest a number of important findings regarding teacher effectiveness. For example, teacher immediacy influences students' willingness to talk (Menzel & Carrell, 1999), students' ratings of instruction (Moore, Masterson, Christophel, & Shea, 1996), and teacher credibility (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998). Increased teacher immediacy also leads to higher chances of teacher-student communication (Frymier, 1994a; Frymier & Houser, 2000), and being "perceived [as] caring is associated with increased affective and perceived cognitive learning in the classroom" (Teven & McCroskey, 1997, p. 8). Teven (2001) later argued that "in order to maximize learning, it is essential for teachers to develop a good relationship with their students, because the rapport established between teacher and students, in part, determines the interest and performance level of students" (p. 159).

Affinity seeking. Affinity seeking is "the active social communicative process by which individuals attempt to get others to like and feel positive toward them" (Bell & Daly, 1984, p. 91). Teachers' use of affinity seeking strategies has resulted in increased liking toward the instructor and cognitive and affective learning (Myers, 1995; Roach, 1991), student state motivation to study (Frymier, 1994a; Richmond, 1990), student satisfaction with teacher communication (Bell & Daly, 1984), perceived instructor credibility (Frymier &

Thompson, 1992; Prisbell, 1994a, 1994b), and motivation and enthusiasm for the class and content (Myers, 1995; Frymier, 1994a).

Frymier and Wanzer (2006) conclude that “across the research on teacher use of affinity-seeking, there are *10 strategies* that have consistently been positively associated with learning, motivation, credibility, or positive classroom climate” (p. 206, italics in original). These strategies include the following: facilitate enjoyment, optimism, assume equality, conversational rule-keeping, comfortable self, dynamism, elicit other’s disclosures, altruism, listening, and sensitivity.

Not all affinity-seeking behaviors lead to positive outcomes, however. Negative relationships between affinity-seeking behaviors and outcomes have been found, for example, when the teacher *concedes control* (e.g., the teacher allows his or her student to control the relationship or situation surrounding the two), offers a *reward association* (e.g., the teacher presents his or her self as an important figure that can reward the student for associating with him or her), or engages in self-inclusion (e.g., the teacher puts his or her self in position to participate in student’s social activities) (Frymier, 1994a; Richmond, 1990). Affinity-seeking, then, works in various capacities in that it can both facilitate and distract from important instructional outcomes.

Instructional humor. Humor in the classroom can come in many forms, but of most significance to the teacher effectiveness literature is the divide

between appropriate and inappropriate uses of humor as well as whether humor affects learning outcomes. Wanzer and Frymier (1999), for example, found that, according to students, appropriate teacher humor includes using related and unrelated humor, impersonations, nonverbal behaviors, disparaging humor, humorous props, sarcasm, and unintentional humor. Inappropriate humor includes making fun of a student, humor based on stereotypes, failed humor, sexual humor, sarcasm, swearing, joking about serious issues, personal humor, and sick humor. The literature also examines the effects of humor. For example, teacher humor can increase student interest and attention (White, 2001), reduce tension and improve the teacher-student relationship (Bryant & Zillman, 1988), and increase teacher-student rapport (Neuliep, 1991).

Perhaps more importantly, studies demonstrate a positive and significant relationship between humor and learning (e.g., Chapman & Crompton, 1978; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Vance, 1987; Wanzer & Frymier, 1999; Ziv, 1988). In his longitudinal analysis, Ziv found that students who were exposed to humorous messages throughout the duration of their class had higher test scores at the end of the semester than did students who were not exposed to such messages.

A related study also illustrates the power of using humor over the course of the semester: "[W]hile a particular bit of humor may not enhance retention and may not even be perceived as funny to a particular subject—an ongoing

teacher-student relationship in which humor has contributed to immediacy might affect arousal, retention, and learning” (Gorham & Christophel, 1990, p. 48). Further, in a recent meta-analysis of 20 studies examining the humor-learning relationship, the authors state that “our fundamental conclusion is that classroom humor produces some effects on learning, although the basic reasoning about humor and learning may be equivocal” (Martin, Preiss, Gayle, & Allen, 2006, p. 304).

But humor, like some of the variables discussed here, may not always have positive learning outcomes. Although the literature points overwhelmingly to the positive and significant relationship between humor and learning, some studies expose the problems of using humor in the classroom. In particular, humor that targets students in order to create a more positive learning environment can have negative consequences in the classroom (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006). Additionally, although humor may be appealing to students, it may also distract from the teacher’s message (Gorham & Christophel, 1990).

Self-disclosure. Teacher self-disclosure is defined as “a teacher’s sharing of personal and professional information about himself or herself in a believable way” (Goldstein & Benassi, 1994, p. 212). Self-disclosure has been found to increase class participation and students’ willingness to participate (Goldstein & Benassi, 1994). It is no surprise then, that instructors often use

humorous disclosures to increase liking with a class, although such disclosures can sacrifice classroom productivity (Downs, Javidi, & Nussbaum, 1988).

With regard to outcomes, McCarthy and Schmeck (1982) discovered that increased teacher self-disclosure was related to higher recall of material for male students of a male instructor, however, not for female students with male instructors. In another study, teachers perceived as “good” engaged in self-disclosure that included more intentional, honest, and positive self-disclosures (Sorensen, 1989). Similarly, Lannutti and Strauman (2006) found that teacher self-disclosure that was perceived by students to be more honest, positive, and intentional was associated with more positive evaluations of the instructor. Some researchers (e.g., Cayanus, 2004) also argue that positive teacher self-disclosure can help create a positive learning environment in that students may view the teacher as friendly and warm.

Ejsing (2007) highlights further that, although teacher self-disclosure has the potential to engage students and contribute to their learning, it may also be harmful. In particular, self-disclosures that have little to do with course content or are not linked to course content distract from students’ learning. Teacher self-disclosure, like other instructional variables, functions differently depending on the circumstances surrounding the variable itself.

Teacher power. Power is defined as “an individual’s potential to have an effect on another person’s or group of persons’ behavior” and “the capacity to

influence another person to do something” (Richmond, McCroskey, Davis, & Koontz, 1980, p. 38). Much of the research examining power in the classroom examines the effects of various types of power (e.g., legitimate, coercive, reward) on learning outcomes. Richmond and McCroskey (1984), for example, found that expert and referent power were positively related with student learning, whereas legitimate and coercive power were negatively related.

Other studies have examined influence techniques used by teachers in the classroom, referred to as Behavioral Alteration Techniques (BATs). McCroskey, Richmond, Plax, and Kearney (1985) found that “prosocial” BATs, which are perceived as potentially rewarding (e.g., “You always do such a good job”) were positively related to affective learning. Conversely, antisocial BATs, which are perceived as potentially punishing (e.g., “I will give you an ‘F’ if you don’t do your work”) were negatively related to affective learning. Similarly, Plax, Kearney, McCroskey, and Richmond (1986) found that “teachers’ use of pro-social messages to alter student behavior tends to increase student perceptions of the teacher’s immediacy, which in turn leads to greater affective learning” (p. 54). Consistent results emerged for cognitive learning: When teachers used prosocial messages, cognitive learning increased; however, antisocial messages were negatively related to cognitive learning.

More recent research on teacher power produced similar results. For example, Richmond (1990) found prosocial influence communication to be

positively related to student motivation, whereas antisocial influence communication was negatively related to student motivation. In a particularly useful study, Roach (1994) studied patterns of instructor power over the entire semester. One finding relevant to the teaching effectiveness literature was that teachers' use of antisocial BATs (e.g., punishment from teacher) significantly increased at the end of the semester. At the same time, there was also a significant drop in student affective learning. Interestingly, students are more likely to resist teachers who use antisocial BATs than prosocial BATs (Lee, Levine, & Cambra, 1997; Plax, Kearney, & Downs, 1986).

Teacher misbehavior. Teacher misbehaviors are those behaviors identified by students that irritate, demotivate, or substantially distract them from learning (Kearney, Plax, Hays, & Ivey, 1991; McPherson, Kearney, & Plax, 2006). Kearney et al. (1991) surveyed students about teacher misbehaviors and found three broad categories of teacher misbehavior, which include acting incompetent, offensive, and indolent. The five most frequently cited misbehaviors were teachers' use of putdowns or sarcasm, early dismissal or being absent from class, failure to remain on subject, testing that the students thought was unfair, and lectures that were considered boring. Teacher misbehavior has been linked to more negative affect toward the course (Wanzer & McCroskey, 1998), decreased motivation to complete coursework

(Gorham & Christophel, 1992), and less cognitive learning (Gill, 1994; Roach, 1997).

Recent research also demonstrates that when teachers express anger, negative affect often develops in students (McPherson, Kearney, & Plax, 2006). Further, student motivation and judgments of their teachers' effectiveness are adversely affected by teacher misbehavior, even when teachers display high degrees of immediacy (Kelsey, Kearney, Plax, Allen, & Ritter, 2004).

What Can We Conclude about Effective Teaching?

Effective and ineffective teaching practices exist. Although most of the teaching effectiveness literatures does not prescribe explicitly what teachers should and should not do, it does point to both effective and ineffective teaching practices, at least from the perspective of students. Using content relevance strategies (e.g., relating material to students' experience), for example, increases students' motivation to learn (Cruickshank & Kennedy, 1986; Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Frymier, Shulman, & Houser, 1996; Millette & Gorham, 2002; Newby, 1991) and affect toward course and the instructor, as well as students' reports of empowerment (Frymier et al., 1996).

Further, the literature implies that teachers should also be clear (e.g., explain content by the use of examples; Hines, Cruickshank, & Kennedy, 1985), as clear teaching tends to increase state motivation to learn (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000), cognitive learning (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000; Titsworth,

2001, 2004), and positive affect for the teacher (Chesebro, 2003; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000). It may also reduce receiver apprehension (Chesebro, 2003; Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998). In addition to being clear and making content relevant, effective teaching may also entail appearing credible to students. Students' recall of course information (Wheeless, 1975), affective and cognitive learning (Johnson & Miller, 2002; Russ, Simonds, & Hunt, 2002; Teven & McCroskey, 1997), and motivation to perform well academically (Frymier & Thompson, 1992; Martin, Chesebro, & Mottet, 1997) all tend to increase when students perceive that their instructor is credible.

The literature on effectiveness also provides support for teachers' use of immediate behaviors, as they are linked to an increase in student motivation and learning (Christophel, 1990; Kelley & Gorham, 1988; Richmond, 1990; Teven, 2001; Teven & McCroskey, 1997), students' willingness to talk (Menzel & Carrell, 1999), students' ratings of instruction (Moore, Masterson, Christophel, & Shea, 1996), and teacher credibility (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998). Further, effective teaching often involves the use of affinity seeking strategies (e.g., facilitating enjoyment), as student liking toward the instructor and cognitive and affective learning (Myers, 1995; Roach, 1991), state motivation to study (Frymier, 1994a; Richmond, 1990), satisfaction with teacher communication (Bell & Daly, 1984), perceived instructor credibility (Frymier & Thompson, 1992;

Prisbell, 1994b), and motivation and enthusiasm for the class and content have been shown to increase (Myers, 1995; Frymier, 1994a).

Using appropriate humor and self-disclosure may likewise be elements of effective teaching. The use of humor thought to be appropriate (e.g., humor related to the course or topic; Wanzer & Frymier, 1999) can increase student interest and attention (Davies & Apter, 1980; White, 2001), reduce tension and improve the teacher-student relationship (Bryant & Zillman, 1989), increase teacher-student rapport (Neuliep, 1991), and increase learning (e.g., Chapman & Crompton, 1978; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Martin et al., 2006; Vance, 1987; Wanzer & Frymier, 1999; Ziv, 1998). Further, appropriate and effective self-disclosures (e.g., intentional, honest, positive self-disclosures) (Sorensen, 1989) can increase class participation and students' willingness to participate (Goldstein & Benassi, 1994) and help create a positive learning environment in that students may view the teacher as friendly and warm (Cayanus, 2004).

The teaching effectiveness literature also calls to attention the use of power and misbehavior. In particular, researchers demonstrate the usefulness of employing some forms of power such as prosocial behavioral alteration techniques (e.g., expert, referent, reward), as they are positively related to student learning (McCroskey et al., 1985; Richmond & McCroskey, 1984), immediacy (Plax et al., 1986), and motivation (Richmond, 1990). Antisocial techniques (e.g., legitimate, coercive), on the other hand, are likely to have the

opposite effect on these outcomes. Teaching effectiveness also involves refraining from what are labeled misbehaviors (e.g., use of putdowns, failure to remain on subject) as lower affect toward the course (Wanzer & McCroskey, 1998), decreased motivation to complete coursework (Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Kelsey et al., 2004), and less cognitive learning may result (Gill, 1994; Roach, 1997). Further, effective teaching typically involves refraining from inappropriate use of humor (Gorham & Christophel, 1990) and of self-disclosure (Ejsing, 2007).

The teaching effectiveness literature, then, has found a number of behaviors that facilitate (or harm) outcomes such as learning and motivation. A review of this literature also suggests some underlying issues needing further exploration.

Lack of Theoretical Frame

As noted at the outset of this dissertation, the teaching effectiveness literature, although extensive and pragmatic in nature, does not have an underlying theoretical frame that helps put these findings into a larger context or explain why they occur the way that they do. In particular, researchers do not often provide explanations as to why many of these instructional processes (e.g., affinity seeking, power, misbehavior) affect one another.

As also noted previously, one way to address possible explanations for the connection between teacher behavior and student outcomes is to look more

closely at what unites this literature implicitly. Specifically, there appear to be *relational dimensions* present in the teacher effectiveness literature. That is, relationships in this context, as in others, develop through interaction, are maintained through communication (Canary & Dainton, 2006), and entail a bond that unites partners (McCall, 1970). Although recognized by some scholars (e.g., DeVito, 1986; Teven, 2001), these relational dimensions have not been fully explored as of yet.

Whereas overt discussion of a teacher-student relationship is rare, many scholars who focus on teaching effectiveness seem to recognize *implicitly* that a relationship exists between teachers and students. This recognition can best be seen when comparing work on teaching effectiveness with the ways that “relationship” is defined in general. It can also be understood when looking at relevant concepts within relationships, which is elaborated next.

There are many definitions for what a relationship entails. Kelley et al. (1983), for example, offer this definition: “[T]wo people are in a relationship with one another if they impact one another, if they are interdependent in the sense that a change in one person causes a change in the other and vice versa” (p. 38). Globally, the teaching effectiveness literature studies the impact of interdependent people—the teacher and student—and, more specifically, how a change in teacher behavior affects outcomes in students.

Relational scholars further remark that a relationship involves a bond that connects individuals (Ellis, 1981; McCall, 1970). The connection that exists between teacher and student appears determined in part by teacher immediacy. A closer look at the teacher effectiveness literature alludes to some of the relational dimensions that underlie the connection between behavior and outcome. As noted, one variable explored commonly in the teaching effectiveness literature is immediacy, which is defined as the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between communicators (Richmond et al., 2006; Witt et al., 2006). Measuring closeness or distance suggests the presence of a connection or bond, whether weak or strong, between teacher and student.

According to Hinde (1979), relationships involve affect. Interpersonal affect can occur only within the context of a relationship, and entails a social bond that unites the interactants (McCall, 1970). The teaching effectiveness literature has also focused on relational affect. For example, research shows that greater use of content relevance strategies and clarity is associated with increased student affect toward the instructor (Chesebro, 2003; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000; Frymier et al., 1996).

Other scholars remark that a relationship exists when there is mutual recognition of being perceived by another (Wilmot, 1995) or when the actions of partners take into account that of the other (Weber, 1947). Within the teaching

effectiveness literature, studies examining content relevance suggest aiding student learning by matching students' needs to the material and relating material to students' experience (e.g., Keller, 1987). When a teacher relates course material to students' experience, the teacher takes into account the actions and experiences of those students. Such an approach points again to the relational nature of the teacher-student dynamic.

Other relational dimensions appear in the teacher effectiveness literature, but they are not recognized overtly as relational. For example, findings suggest that students who perceive their teachers as credible engage in out-of-class communication (Meyers, 2003; Nadler & Nadler, 2001) and plan to enroll in additional courses with them (Nadler & Nadler, 2001). Higher levels of credibility, in this case, may facilitate the connection between teacher and student. For some scholars, a relationship is a connective principle in that the relationship lies in the bond of interactants (Ellis, 1981). Credibility, in addition to facilitating a connection, can also shape future interactions: how the student will perceive a teacher in the future, whether the student will come to office hours, if the student plans to enroll in other classes with the instructor, for example.

The above discussion highlights that the teaching effectiveness literature is united, at least implicitly, by a concern with relational processes and factors. These constructs (e.g., immediacy, relational affect, credibility) demonstrate the

existence of a relationship in that partners have an impact on one another (Kelley et al., 1983), there is mutual recognition of being perceived by another (Wilmot, 1995), partners take into account that of the other (Weber, 1947), and that relationships involve affective, emotional aspects (Hinde, 1979). These are some of the primary elements that connect or create a bond between individuals (Ellis, 1981; McCall, 1970).

But the implicitness of this connection in most of the effectiveness research means that the literature may not account for these relational elements as accurately as it can. An assumption made in much of the research on teaching effectiveness, for example, is that variables remain relatively static over time. To measure teacher immediacy, for example, students are often asked to indicate the degree to which their teacher uses particular behaviors (e.g., touches others on the shoulder or smiles; McCroskey & Teven, 1999). This type of measurement accounts for the teacher's overall use of a behavior and, as a result, treats such a variable as largely static or unchanging. Duck (1990) would argue that relationships are studied as "finished business" in much of the teaching effectiveness literature. Treating relationships as "unfinished business," on the other hand, recognizes that relationships are inherently processual and subject to change (Duck, 1990; Wood, 2000).

A relational frame contextualizes instructional processes (e.g., compliance gaining) into the relationships within which those processes occur.

This framing opens up a way of looking at and understanding those processes and suggests new processes to investigate. The next section highlights existing studies that conceptualize the teacher-student relationship as a relationship, discusses what a relational frame involves, and elaborates on why such a theoretical frame might benefit the teacher effectiveness literature.

The Teacher-Student Relationship

This section of the literature review discusses (1) existing models and studies that recognize the teacher-student dynamic as a relationship, and (2) some of what a relational frame involves. Existing models and individual studies provide some of the ways in which relational processes have been incorporated into instructional communication scholarship, and we can see some of the variables most likely to be part of a relational framing for understanding why certain behaviors affect learning outcomes.

Existing Conceptions of the Teacher-Student Relationship

Models. Three noteworthy models recognize the teacher-student relationship more broadly. In one model, Lowman (1984, 1994) begins by identifying three independent sources of influence on student learning—the student, instructor, and course—each of which, he argues, are closely linked. Stemming from this perspective, as well as a vast body of teacher effectiveness research, Lowman outlines the *two-dimensional model of effective college teaching*. This model holds that “the quality of instruction results from a college

teacher's skill at creating both *intellectual excitement* in and *interpersonal rapport* with students—the kinds of emotions and relationships that motivate them to do their best work” (p. 20).

In the model, Lowman highlights that issues of control and affection are always present. Further, he identifies characteristics of interpersonal rapport: warmth, openness, student-centeredness, and predictability. He also provides specific behavioral recommendations for fostering personal relationships with students such as learning students' names, coming to class early and chatting informally with students, announcing and holding office hours, soliciting feedback from students, using egalitarian language, and treating some students individually (e.g., students under special pressure).

A similar model, referred to as the *alignment model of teaching effectiveness* (Wulff, 1985, 2005) illustrates that the instructional process, and ultimately teaching effectiveness in higher education, centers around the professor, student, content, context, and most importantly, student learning. These integral components of the alignment model of teaching effectiveness are interrelated and change constantly. Wulff (2005) illuminates that “[i]t is certainly important to focus independently on the context, students, content, instructor, and learning, but it is equally important to consider the interactions among these various components” (p. 12). Wulff (1985, 2005) also provides strategies for alignment, including rapport, structure, engagement, and

interaction. Rapport “is established through interpersonal communication that creates the working relationships between instructor and students” (p. 8).

Rapport-building strategies (e.g., using inclusive language, considering students’ prior knowledge) function to align students and professors.

A third model conceptualizes the professor-student relationship along a continuum of relational development (DeVito, 1986) similar to the many developmental stage models of romantic relationships (e.g., Altman & Taylor, 1973; Knapp, 1984). DeVito (1986) outlines four assumptions of the model: (1) teaching can be described as a relational process from initial contact, intimacy, and dissolution; (2) teacher-student interaction that assists teaching and learning depends in part on the development of an interpersonal relationship; (3) the development of a relationship between student and teacher will lead to greater satisfaction and more effective learning; and (4) a failure in teaching can be attributed to the ineffectiveness of the relational development process. DeVito illustrates that a good teacher-student relationship is not the only goal of teaching; “rather, the development of the interpersonal relationship is viewed as the means by which more effective, efficient, and satisfying teaching and learning may take place” (p. 53).

Each of these models—the two-dimensional model of effective college teaching, the alignment model of teaching effectiveness, and the developmental model of the teacher-student relationship—embrace the relationship between

teacher and student. They do so in different ways, however, by focusing on particular elements of the teaching and learning process. Importantly, however, these models intimate some of the relationship-related factors in the teacher-student dynamic, draw a link between the teacher-student relationship and outcomes, and elucidate some of the variables likely to be part of a relational framing for understanding why certain behaviors are effective. Each model discusses teacher-student interaction more broadly, yet it also presents the need to better understand students' perspective of interaction and teaching effectiveness. A number of individual studies that recognize the teacher-student dynamic as a relationship provide further illumination.

Individual studies. Graham, West, and Schaller (1992) provide a brief elaboration of the nature of teacher-student relationships. They argue that "teacher-student relationships are interpersonal in nature, consistent with other types of interpersonal relationships, and reflect interactants' desire for positive outcomes" (p. 12). They also lament that relational variables (e.g., power) can be enacted with an implicit agreement between student and teacher, and it is that understanding that characterizes their relationship.

According to this line of thought, relational communication behaviors facilitate classroom communication. These arguments led Graham et al. to examine whether relational behaviors contribute to an outcome important to all teachers: teacher satisfaction. Their findings indicated that interpersonal

competence, immediacy, and negative humor (e.g., “excuse me while I interrupt you”) contribute to teacher job satisfaction. This informs us that satisfaction is to some degree within the teacher’s control in that they can develop a repertoire of relational skills. More importantly, perhaps, if we conceptualize teaching as a relational process, we realize that effective interpersonal communication skills are required to achieve satisfying outcomes (Graham et al., 1992).

Frymier and Houser (2000) also illuminate the teacher-student dynamic as a relationship. They argue that,

[b]oth teachers and students have goals they wish to achieve. The achievement of those goals depends on the teacher and students’ ability to negotiate with one another and resolve conflict. These are communication intensive activities that go on in all relationships. (p. 208)

In addition to highlighting a goals-based perspective within teacher-student relationships, Frymier and Houser discuss how teacher-student relationships are different from a similar kind of relationship: friendship. The teacher-student relationship does not typically have the equality associated with friendship and has time restraints (i.e., the expectation that interaction among teacher and student will decrease after the course comes to an end) not typical of most friendships. These differences, however, do not necessarily affect the basic functioning of communication in relationship development and maintenance (Frymier & Houser, 2000). Their conceptualization of the teacher-student

relationship as goal-based also coincides with the argument that interpersonal relationships are goal-driven (Canary, Cody, & Manusov, 2003).

Within their study, Frymier and Houser (2000) argue that communication skills identified as important for interpersonal relationships are also recognized as important in the teacher-student dynamic, and, thus, such a dynamic constitutes an interpersonal relationship. With regard to effective teaching, students in their study were asked about their perceptions of the importance of communication skills, including referential skill, ego support, conflict management, regulative skill, verbal immediacy, conversational skill, nonverbal immediacy, narrative skill, persuasion, and comforting. Students reported that referential skill, ego support, and conflict management were perceived as important to effective teaching, and that referential skill, ego support, and immediacy have a strong relationship with student learning and motivation. Frymier and Houser's study therefore lends support to the argument that particular interpersonal communication skills facilitate outcomes such as student learning and motivation.

In a recent investigation, Dobransky and Frymier (2004) also conceptualize the teacher-student dynamic as an interpersonal relationship and thus defined by core dimensions of interpersonal relationships, including control, trust, and intimacy (Millar & Rogers, 1976). Millar and Rogers posit that the ways control is shared, the level of intimacy, and the amount of trust help

define a relationship. In their study, Dobransky and Frymier (2004) found that “students who engage in out of class communication have relationships that are more interpersonal in nature than students who do not engage in out of class communication with teachers” and “students who perceived their teachers as exhibiting higher levels of shared control, trust, and intimacy reported greater learning” (p. 211). As such, their study provides evidence that students conceive of the dynamic with their professors as a relationship. More importantly, perhaps, these relational variables (e.g., shared control, trust, and intimacy) appear to affect instructional outcomes.

Summary. Each of the models and individual studies discussed provides insight about the relational dimension of the teacher-student dynamic and provide support for taking a relational frame when studying teacher effectiveness. These studies show that the dynamic between teachers and students includes relational elements such as control and affection (Lowman, 1984, 1994), requires strategies such as rapport building (Wulff, 1985, 2005), develops through distinct stages (DeVito, 1986), entails relational communication behaviors (i.e., competence, immediacy, humor) (Graham et al., 1992), is goal-based like other types of relationships and brings with it the expectation of interpersonal skill (Frymier & Houser, 2000), and involves shared control, trust, and intimacy (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004), all of which ultimately

affect instructional outcomes. In short, the teacher-student dynamic appears to reflect a relationship and should be studied as such.

Relational Frame

The teaching effectiveness literature examining relational dimensions implicitly, and the literature that conceptualizes the teacher-student dynamic as a relationship directly, provide a starting point for understanding the many complexities inherent in such a relationship. If we want to provide a more complete understanding of the ways in which thinking of the teacher-student dynamic as a relationship forwards our understanding of teaching outcomes, an elaboration of what constitutes a relational frame is needed.

A relational frame contextualizes instructional or other processes (e.g., compliance gaining) into the relationships within which those processes occur. This contextualization opens up a way of looking at and understanding those processes as well as provides new processes to investigate. A relational frame, in other words, offers a lens with which to view interaction. Such a frame involves much of what the existing models and individual studies about student-teacher relationships address: not only that a relationship between teachers and students exists but that it includes relational elements such as control and affection (Lowman, 1984, 1994), develops through distinct stages (DeVito, 1986), entails relational communication behaviors (Graham et al., 1992), is goal-based like other types of relationships (Frymier & Houser, 2000), and

involves shared control, trust, and intimacy (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004). A relational frame also points researchers toward other features and processes inherent in relationships, some of which are outlined next.

Features. There are a number of features or properties of relationships key to the relational frame advanced here (see Wood, 2000, for a larger discussion of these variables). One feature is that relationships have *unique content*, meaning that there are particularities of partners, their interactions, and the nature of the relationship they create (e.g., Druger, 1998). Not only are teacher-student relationships distinct from other types of relationships, but each teacher-student interaction is itself unique in some way. For example, an interaction between a teacher and student in the hallway before class, their discussion about a particular topic during office hours, and communication during a class discussion all create a dynamic that can occur only by those two individuals at that particular time and place.

Alongside relationships having their own uniqueness, however, they also have a *systemic character*. One characteristic of the systemic nature of relationships is the interdependency inherent in relationships (Parks, 2007); all processes, structures, and practices affect one another. In other words, relationships can be viewed as systems in which all parts interact and interrelate to influence one another (Allport, 1968). For example, the spatial arrangements and decorations of a room can influence interaction (Mehrabian,

1976). Specifically, seating arrangements in a classroom or the layout of furniture in a teacher's office may affect teacher-student interaction both within a single interaction and over the long-term (e.g., a student might feel uncomfortable sitting too close to her professor during office hours and later share this with other students in the class, which in-turn may affect how other students perceive and communicate with the teacher). Conceiving of relationships as having a systemic character aids in recognizing the many factors that are involved in relationships.

Relationships also involve a *processual nature* in that they develop and change—sometimes gradually and sometimes quickly—over time. DeVito's (1986) stage model discussed earlier accounts for this feature of relationships. Some teacher-student relationships, for example, may develop from simple classroom interactions to deeper, more meaningful exchanges of personal information during out-of-classroom interactions. On the other hand, some teacher-student relationships may be brief, entail little disclosure of personal information, and/or develop into a "meaningless," mundane relationship for either or both parties. The processual nature of relationships highlights that relationships change, a feature of relationships that is explored in the current study.

These relational characteristics—unique content, systemic character, and processual nature—are important elements of the relational frame guiding

the current study. In addition to these features, there are more specific relational processes central to the frame advanced here.

Relational processes. Relational processes, which are constituted through change (Turner, 2003) and shape and express relationships (Wood, 2000), are studied commonly from a dialectical approach. Dialectics are tensions between contradictory impulses (Baxter, 1988, 1990, 1993; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998; Rawlins, 1992) and are continuous processes that infuse and affect relational dimensions such as intimacy (Baxter, 1990). Dialectical processes work both within a relationship and between the relationship and external systems.

The literature on relational dialectics identifies three main dialectics (Baxter, 1988, 1990, 1993; Baxter & Montgomery, 1998; Rawlins, 1992). The dialectic of *integration/separation* involves the internal tension of connection and autonomy, where partners may struggle to find a balance between spending time connected and together, and maintaining a sense of autonomy or independence. The external form constitutes inclusion and seclusion, where partners may want to be either included into larger systems or keep their relationship private.

The dialectic of *stability/change* explains the internal tension of predictability and novelty, which refers to the tension of partners wanting consistency and familiarity versus desiring newness and change. Externally,

conventionality, and uniqueness may be at play in that the partners may experience tensions between conforming to social expectations versus upholding the relationship's unique qualities. As well, the dialectic of *expression/privacy* manifests internally as a tension between openness and closedness, where partners may struggle between how much and what to disclose versus keeping it private. The external form constitutes revelation versus concealment, which encapsulates the tension between revealing the relationship to others and keeping it hidden. These processes demonstrate the continual shaping and reshaping of relationships.

Relational partners must typically respond to dialectical processes (Baxter, 1990; VanLear, 1998). Some of these responses are *selection* (satisfying one need and ignoring the other), *separation* (meeting both needs by satisfying each one in separate situations), and *neutralization* (meeting both needs, but neither fully). Relational partners thus experience and respond to dialectics, which both shape and transform their relationship.

The relational frame advanced here recognizes and accounts for the changing nature of relationships. It does so, however, by focusing on specific, memorable events that play a significant role in shaping these processes. A line of work often aligned with relational processes, and consistent with a dialectical approach that assumes change is inherent to relationships, focuses on *relational turning points*. A relational turning point is "any event or

occurrence that is associated with change in a relationship" (Baxter & Bullis, 1986, p. 470). Turning points, according to Bolton (1961), may constitute "breakthrough points at which some ambiguous matter 'jells,' jump points where there is a sudden surge in affective involvement, points of decommitment from past relations or identities, etc." (p. 237).

Surra and Huston (1987) categorize four broad categories of turning points, which direct our attention to both why and how relationships sometimes change. An *intrapersonal/normative turning point* occurs when an individual evaluates him or herself, the partner, or relationship against an ideal or standard (e.g., thinking that the other relational partner is too serious). A *dyadic turning point* occurs in interaction with another person (e.g., a heated argument). Another type of turning point, *social network*, takes place when an individual or a group of individuals from either or both partner's social network affects the relationship. A *circumstantial turning point* occurs when an event perceived beyond the dyad's control affects the relationship (e.g., moving to a new location). Turning points are powerful in that they shape how a relationship changes over time. A more extensive discussion of relational turning points is offered in the final section of the literature review.

Summary. The type of relationship of concern in this dissertation is the teacher-student relationship. As noted, the primary argument of this paper is that the teaching effectiveness literature may benefit from the awareness that

teacher behavior is embedded in a relationship between the teacher and student. Research that makes such an assumption is encased in a rich grounding that may explain why things, like immediacy, work as they do and why certain outcomes occur.

A relational frame contextualizes instructional processes into the relationships within which those processes occur. This opens up a way of looking at and understanding those processes and opens up new processes to investigate. A relational frame may urge scholars to differentiate more clearly what constitutes unique patterns, behaviors, and events for the teacher-student relationship.

A relational frame also demonstrates that relationships are dynamic and changing entities: They entail a processual nature marked by changes in amplitude, salience, scale, sequence, and pace/rhythm (Werner & Baxter, 1994); they involve dialectical processes (Baxter, 1993; Baxter & Montgomery, 1998; Rawlins, 1992), and even more indicative of change, they are likely marked by relational turning points (Baxter & Bullis, 1986, p. 470). Although a relational frame opens up an assortment of issues to explore, relational turning points are perhaps one of the most salient factors identified in relationships as they affect outcomes such as closeness and relational satisfaction (e.g., Golish, 2000; Surra, 1987), are deemed important by partners (Baxter & Bullis, 1986), and often have a powerful effect on relational development (Masheter & Harris,

1986). A more comprehensive discussion of relational turning points, which further sets the stage for the current study, is provided next.

Relational Turning Points

Bolton (1961) coined the term *turning point*. In his discussion of the evolution of mate selection from acquaintance to marriage, he conceives of turning points as events in which relationship parties experience change in their relationship. Bolton's study of turning points experienced by newly married couples was the first of several analyses of turning points in close relationships. Since Bolton's analysis, other scholars have introduced concepts similar to the turning point, including *transition point* (Levinger, 1983), *critical event* (Planalp & Honeycutt, 1985), *transition phase* (Masheter & Harris, 1986), *relational transition* (Conville, 1988), and *relational turning point* (Baxter & Bullis, 1986). To date, however, the term used most commonly is relational turning point, which is defined as "any event or occurrence that is associated with change in a relationship" (Baxter & Bullis, 1986, p. 470). Relational turning points have been studied in close relationships and academic relationships, each of which is discussed next.

Turning point analyses in close relationships. Studies of relational turning points have focused predominantly on romantic relationships (e.g., Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Baxter & Montgomery, 1996; Bolton, 1961; Bullis, Clark, & Sline, 1993; Conville, 1988; Graham, 1997; Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald, & Cate, 1981;

Levinger, 1983; Lloyd & Cate, 1985; Masheter & Harris, 1986; Pawlowski, 1998; Surra, 1987). Some studies have examined relational turning points in family relationships (Golish, 2000) and in friendship (Johnson, Wittenberg, Haigh, Wigley, Becker, Brown, & Craig, 2004; Johnson, Wittenberg, Villagran, Mazur, & Villagran, 2003). That turning point analyses have focused almost solely on romantic, family, and friendship relationships is not surprising considering that these relationships, particularly marital, are studied most often in the literature on relational processes (e.g., Baxter & Braithwaite, 2006). More telling with regard to the current study, however, are studies examining turning points in academic relationships.

Turning point analyses in academic relationships. A limited number of studies have examined relational turning points in the academic arena. One of these is by Barge and Musambira (1992) who examined turning points in chair-faculty relationships. The authors had 86 faculty members recall as many turning points as they could remember, select the most memorable turning point, and describe it in detail. After, faculty members completed a questionnaire about their perception of the relationship before and after the turning point as well as how the turning point influenced the discussion of a variety of topics with their chair.

Barge and Musambira discovered seven types of turning points: *performance evaluation, recognition, support, trustworthiness, job interference,*

outside interaction, and interpersonal discussion. Respondents described trustworthiness turning points as most problematic (e.g., contributed to greatest negative change in perceptions of the relationship). On the other hand, when chairs pursued benevolent goals, they were perceived as moving the relationship in positive directions. Chairs engaging in what were judged as impersonal or selfish goals were perceived as moving the relationship in a negative direction.

Bullis and Bach (1989a, 1989b) also examined turning points in academic relationships. Their focus was on the mentee-mentor organizational relationship and, more specifically, the graduate student-professor relationship. Bullis and Bach interviewed 26 graduate students using the retrospective interview technique (RIT), which requires participants to identify relational turning points on a graph and indicate changes in a single variable over time. Students also completed an organizational identification questionnaire.

The authors derived nine types of turning points from their data: *academic recognition, perceived similarity, mutual confirmation, advising, personal bonding, relational clashes, relational evolution, relational decline, and miscellaneous.* Bullis and Bach report that the presence of advising was associated with an increase in identification with the department, and the presence of relational clashes was associated with a decrease in identification

with the department. They call for future analyses of additional outcome variables (e.g., job satisfaction, personal satisfaction, turnover).

Only one published study to date has analyzed turning points in faculty-undergraduate student relationships. O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas (1992) argue that one factor that may affect students' dropout rate is interaction with faculty (Tinto, 1975), and, as such, they examined turning points in student-faculty relationships. Using the RIT, 52 college seniors were asked to "recall turning points pertinent to an out-of-the-ordinary (either very positive or very negative) and recent relationship with an instructor" within the classroom environment (p. 282). Participants were also asked to rate their change in enthusiasm (outcome variable) based on 25% intervals.

The results indicate two macro-categories of turning points divided into six sub-categories. The first category was labeled *perception of instructional communication competence and character* (including subcategories perceived competence and character), and the second was labeled *perception of instructor's management style* (including learning climate, course administration style, rhetorical sensitivity, and feedback). O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas (1992) conclude that the undertaking of such research adds further "to our understanding the 'how,' 'why,' and 'so what' of student-faculty relational dynamics instrumental in furthering optimal learning" (p. 290).

Although in many ways a strong investigation, O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's study had a number of limitations. First, their sample consisted of only 52 students, all of whom were seniors. Second, their analysis was of only one outcome variable: enthusiasm. Finally, their use of the RIT did not capture contextual, event-specific information about the turning point.

O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas do, however, call for further investigations into the relational turning points experienced by students and teachers in their relationships with one another. In their call, the authors argue that "ultimately, the undertaking of such research can only add further to our understanding the 'how,' 'why,' and 'so what' of student-faculty relational dynamics instrumental in furthering optimal learning and learning satisfaction" (p. 290). This dissertation takes up their call.

Research Questions

The current study advances O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's (1992) research by its specific focus on how instructional outcomes are reported to be affected by turning points. It advances other studies in the teacher effectiveness literature by using a relational frame, which points toward an investigation of points of change, among other relational characteristics. Whereas taking a relational frame ultimately requires all perspectives to be understood, this dissertation begins with the students' perspective, as instructional outcomes (e.g., students' learning and motivation) are of central concern to effective

teaching and are typically measured from the students' perspective or achievements. Specifically, students' recall of relational turning points, which account for the processual nature of relationships, are explored. Similar to other studies of turning points (e.g., Golish, 2000; Surra & Huston, 1987), there are, conceivably, different types of relational turning points in the professor-student context. Discovering these different turning points is the first step in understanding how they might affect outcomes.

Toward this end, a research question is posed:

RQ 1: What specific types of events do students report as relational turning points in teacher-student relationships?

Baxter and Bullis (1986) report that, "participants retrospectively cast their relationship development as a series of positive and negative turning points" (p. 490). We know little, however, about how students portray turning points with their teachers. Further, the teaching effectiveness literature is concerned with what constitutes effective teaching, which is "that which causes students to learn and grow" (Giovannelli, 2003, p. 295). Although most of the teaching effectiveness literatures does not prescribe explicitly what teachers should and should not do, it does point to both effective and ineffective (i.e., positive and negative) teaching practices. Discovering the *valence* (i.e., positive or negative charge) of particular turning points will provide a baseline for judging what events students perceive as generally positive and generally

negative. An indication of valence may also provide an initial understanding of how relational turning points affect instructional outcomes such as learning and motivation:

RQ 2: What relational turning points with their professors do students report as generally positive and generally negative?

In addition, the current study investigates the reported outcomes of relational turning point events. Seeing that a relational turning point is “any event or occurrence that is associated with change in a relationship” (Baxter & Bullis, 1986, p. 470), there are potentially countless changes that could occur. Most previous studies (e.g., Golish, 2000; O’Neill & Todd-Mancillas, 1992) of relational turning points examine only one outcome variable (e.g., closeness, enthusiasm). Given the complexity of the teacher-student dynamic and the factors that have associated with it, the current study attempts to investigate multiple perceived outcomes related to turning point events:

RQ3: What are the outcomes of relational turning point events as reported by students?

The relational turning point literature largely examines how particular turning points (e.g., a hug) affect an outcome variable (e.g., perceptions of closeness). Some evidence, for example, suggests that turning points in teacher-student relationships affect the outcome of enthusiasm (O’Neill & Todd-Mancillas, 1992). Turning points in the instructional context, however, may

affect many other outcomes. It is possible, for example, that particular turning points with their teachers affect students' perceptions of the teacher, other teachers, self-confidence, and career aspirations. Toward this end, a research question is posed:

RQ4: What is the relationship between relational turning point events and outcomes of relational turning point events?

Turning points may affect or be perceived to affect *specific* outcomes identified in the teaching effectiveness literature. Common teacher effectiveness variables explored to date in the literature—content relevance, clarity, credibility, immediacy, affinity seeking, humor, self-disclosure, power, and misbehavior—all of which either are arguably relational dimensions or affect relationships in some way, have also been found to influence learning and motivation (e.g., Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000; Richmond et al., 2006). Further, some evidence suggests that turning points in teacher-student relationships affect the outcome of enthusiasm (O'Neill & Todd-Mancillas, 1992). Turning points may also affect or be perceived to affect other instructional outcomes key to the teaching effectiveness literature. Seeing that relational turning points are key moments in the development of relationships (e.g., Masheter & Harris, 1986), and that relational dimensions (e.g., immediacy) affect instructional outcomes, relational turning points should also have an impact on important instructional outcomes (e.g., motivation).

One such instructional outcome is *cognitive learning*, which concerns students' knowledge acquisition or recall (Bloom, 1956). Cognitive learning has been positively related to teacher clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001), credibility (Johnson & Miller, 2002; Russ, Simonds, & Hunt, 2002), immediacy (Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994a; Gorham, 1988; Johnson & Miller, 2002; McCroskey et al., 1996; Mottet & Beebe, 2001; Pribyl et al., 2004; Richmond, 1990; Zhang & Zhang, 2006), humor (Ziv, 1988), and affinity seeking (Myers, 1995; Roach, 1991), and negatively related to teacher *misbehavior* (Gill, 1994; Roach, 1997). Cognitive learning is clearly a widely examined outcome variable.

Cognitive learning has been found to be affected by a host of elements that have relational dimensions (e.g., immediacy, humor, credibility). Relational turning points, which often have a powerful effect on relational development (Masheter & Harris, 1986) and are often particularly salient occurrences identified in relationships, may also affect students' cognitive learning. Seeing that relational dimensions affect students' cognitive learning and that turning points affect outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, enthusiasm), a research question examining how relational turning points may change cognitive learning is posed:

RQ 5: What happens to perceived cognitive learning following relational turning point events?

Another form of learning, *affective learning*, has been studied in some depth. Specifically, teacher credibility (Johnson & Miller, 2002; Russ, Simonds, & Hunt, 2002), immediacy (Teven & McCroskey, 1997), and affinity seeking (Myers, 1995; Roach, 1991) have all been found to increase affective learning. Further, teacher clarity leads to increased positive affect for the teacher and the material (Chesebro, 2003). On the other hand, teacher *misbehavior* has been linked to lower affect toward the course (Wanzer & McCroskey, 1998).

Affective learning, arguably the most valid indicator of student learning (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992; Mottet & Beebe, 2006) and also a widely examined outcome variable, has been found to be influenced by a host of elements (e.g., affinity seeking, immediacy, misbehavior) that have relational dimensions. Relational turning points, which have been shown to influence the development of relationships (Masheter & Harris, 1986), may also change students' affective learning. Considering that relational dimensions influence students' affective learning, and turning points affect outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, enthusiasm), a research question investigating how relational turning points may alter affective learning is offered:

RQ 6: What happens to affective learning following relational turning point events?

Student motivation, which is a commitment to initiate and maintain involvement in the learning process and learning activities (Ames, 1990), may

also be affected by relational turning points. Student motivation has been found to be positively related to teacher clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000), credibility (Frymier & Thompson, 1992; Martin, Chesebro, & Mottet, 1997), and immediacy (Christensen & Menzel, 1997; Witt & Wheelless, 2001). Further, researchers have found that teachers' use of affinity seeking strategies can lead to increases in student motivation and enthusiasm for the class and its content (Myers, 1995; Frymier, 1994a) and to higher levels of student state motivation to study (Frymier, 1994a; Richmond, 1990). Additionally, prosocial influence communication is positively related to student motivation, whereas antisocial influence communication is negatively related to student motivation (Richmond, 1990), and teacher misbehavior has been linked to decreased motivation to complete coursework (Gorham & Christophel, 1992).

Student motivation, the third widely examined outcome variable, has also been found to be influenced by a host of elements that have relational dimensions (e.g., credibility, immediacy). Relational turning points, which affect relationships even more directly, perhaps, may also affect students' motivation. Seeing that relational dimensions such as immediacy and self-disclosure affect students' motivation, and that turning points influence outcomes, a final research question examining how relational turning points may affect student motivation is asked:

RQ 7: What happens to student motivation following relational turning point events?

Chapter 2:

Research Methods

The current study examines students' perceptions of relational turning points in the teacher-student relationship, and it suggests what may result from these turning points. This chapter discusses previous methods used to study relational turning points and lays out the methods and procedures used in the current study.

Previous Methods Used to Study Turning Points

All published studies of relational turning points have examined *retrospective* (i.e., past) accounts of relational turning points. The most common method is the retrospective interview technique (RIT). Baxter and Bullis (1986) explain that the

RIT asks each respondent to identify all of the turning points in his or her relationship since time of first meeting, plotting these points on a graph whose abscissa axis represents monthly intervals from time of first meeting until the time of the interview and whose ordinate axis reflects some index of relationship commitment, most commonly the estimated likelihood of marriage from 0% to 100%. (p. 476)

Other research, however, has used the case study method to investigate retrospective relational turning points (e.g., Conville, 1988; Levinger, 1983; Masheter & Harris, 1986). Masheter and Harris, for example, used individual

interviews, joint dialogue construction, interpretations of intentions, and interpretations of effectiveness as data to explore the turning points among a divorced couple who became friends. Conville (1988) examined what he referred to as “relational transitions” in the narrative accounts of two spouses over a one-year period. Similarly, Lvinger (1983) based his analysis of transition points on interview data collected from a divorced couple.

These two methods have provided ample reports of turning points in relationships. The RIT, although useful for discovering specific turning points however, brings with it numerous drawbacks. In particular, it involves the analysis of only one dependent variable, usually commitment or relational satisfaction in romantic relationships (e.g., Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Bolton, 1961; Surra, 1987) and closeness or relational satisfaction in family and friendship relationships (e.g., Golish, 2000; Johnson et al., 2003; Johnson et al., 2004). Turning points discovered in such studies (e.g., first kiss, meeting partner’s parents) likely affect a variety of relationship-related variables beyond commitment and satisfaction, however. Likewise, the literature on student-teacher turning points suggests multiple outcomes of turning points.

The RIT further limits the researcher from capturing in-depth accounts of the turning point itself. Instead, many times participants are asked only to identify multiple turning points (e.g., engaging in conflict, meeting partner’s friends), and contextual, situation specific detail is lost. Studies that use the

case study method, on the other hand, gain a richer account of the turning points but often at cost of using small samples and a limited range of participants, and thus limiting the breadth of the analysis. Specifically, it is unlikely that the results of case studies can be applied easily to other situations, even if closely related. In part because of the limitations of both techniques, the current study suggests a different method that may capture the strengths and avoid some of limitations of the most commonly used methods in turning point studies.

The Critical Incident Technique

Turning points have been conceptualized as critical moments in which an important change occurred (Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Planalp & Honeycutt, 1985). Given this conceptualization of turning points as pivotal and memorable experiences, the critical incident technique (CIT)'s theoretically consistent research approach is used as the method for generating and analyzing data for this study. Developed by Flanagan in 1954, the CIT is a common method for studying retrospective accounts in an array of contexts. According to Flanagan, "the critical incident technique outlines procedures for collecting observed incidents having special significance and meeting systematically defined criteria" (p. 327). The CIT,

essentially involves asking a number of respondents to identify events or experiences that were 'critical' for some purpose. These incidents are

then pooled together for analysis, and generalizations about the event or activity are drawn from the commonalities of the incidents. (Kain, 2004, p. 71)

This method has been used for a wide variety of applications. Kain notes that the CIT has been used for job requirements, selection and evaluation criteria, training programs, counseling, and when the researcher is interested in discovering shared patterns among a specific group. Researchers using the CIT, for example, have examined workers' motivation (Machungwa & Schmitt, 1983), stressful events encountered by students (Cotterell, 1981), collaborative planning among teachers (Kain, 1997), faculty experiences with diverse students (Ugwu, 2005), and supervisor-subordinate negotiation (Meiners & Miller, 2004).

The CIT has also proven to be useful for the analysis of occupation-related issues experienced by airline pilots, research personnel, air traffic controllers (Flanagan, 1954), store managers (Andersson & Nilsson, 1964), growth group leaders (Cohen & Smith, 1976), secondary school teachers (Engelking, 1986; Tripp, 1993; Wodlinger, 1990), principals (Fris, 1992), speech professionals (Stano, 1983), and women's self actualization groups (Woolsey, 1986). The CIT is a good form of data collection and analysis for a variety of purposes as it allows the researcher to solicit and analyze retrospective

accounts, prompts participants to provide accounts of their first hand experiences, and requires a thorough and systematic analysis of data.

Using the CIT to Study Relational Turning Points

As noted, relational turning points are events or occurrences that are associated with change in a relationship (Baxter & Bullis, 1986). Given that relational turning points are conceptualized as *experienced by* relationship partners (e.g., Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Johnson et al., 2003), an analysis of turning points requires that data capture their experiences. Kain (2004) remarks that the “appeal of the critical incident technique of research lies largely in this systematic approach to inquiry—into what significance others place on given events” (p. 72). It is also useful in that it offers guidelines for participants to focus on a single turning point event. Specifically, the CIT asks respondents to tell a story and explain why it is significant or important for a given context (Kain, 2004). By focusing on a specific event, the contextual and case-specific nature of the phenomena under investigation is captured.

The CIT “consists of a set of specifically defined procedures for collecting observations of human behavior in such a way as to make them useful in addressing practical problems” (Nyquist, Bitner, & Booms, 1985, p. 197). It allows researchers to examine effective and ineffective behaviors in a variety of contexts, as well as provide practical solutions for future behavior (Flanagan, 1954; Kain, 2004). The CIT’s practical approach and focus on effective and

ineffective behaviors coincides well with the current study's emphasis on teaching effectiveness, which is ultimately aimed at promoting student learning and growth (Giovannelli, 2003).

Methods for the Current Study

The procedures for the current study are based on the five steps for conducting the critical incident technique recommended by Flanagan (1954) and later rearticulated by Woolsey (1986) and Kain (2004). Each of these steps is discussed next.

Step One: General Aims

The first step in using the CIT involves providing a clarification of the general aim of the activity to be studied, or a general statement of objectives (Flanagan, 1954). As articulated previously, the current study aims to discover relational turning points and the reported effects of the turning points in terms of instructional outcomes.

Step Two: Plans and Specifications

The second step, outlined clearly by Woolsey (1986), involves deciding "(a) which persons will make the observations; (b) which individuals, activities or groups will be observed, and (c) which of their behaviours or experiences will be observed" (p. 244). For the current study, students were asked to make observations by providing a detailed description of a previous experience of an event that they experienced as a relational turning point with a teacher.

Participants who were able to recall a turning point completed open-ended questions about the turning point. All participants completed questions pertaining to demographics.

Step Three: Collecting the Data

There are a number of options for collecting data using the CIT. Some of these options include conducting individual interviews, having participants complete questionnaires, or examining existing written records (Flanagan, 1954; Kain, 2004). Whatever the approach, the CIT “invites respondents to tell a story and explain why it is significant for a given context” (Kain, 2004, p. 74).

Questionnaires were used for the current study for a number of reasons. They allow the researcher to collect and analyze responses from a large sample, and the sample size aids in generalizing the findings to other similar samples. Questionnaires are also ensured confidentiality and anonymity. The use of questionnaires is recommended, especially when dealing with potentially sensitive information (Keyton, 2001), such as the possibility of students and teachers reporting negative turning points.

The use of questionnaires is also advantageous as they allow participants time to consider the event of focus. Participants in the current study were given prompts to aid in recollecting an important incident (Kain, 2004; see the Appendix for the questionnaires). Scholars who use the CIT recommend having participants spend time recollecting details surrounding the critical

incident to engage their thinking about the incident itself (e.g., Anderson & Wilson, 1997). As such, participants in the present study were asked to describe the physical location, time of day, and other details where the event occurred. They were also asked to discuss, in detail, the relational turning point and asked follow-up questions about what resulted from the turning point, whether the turning point was perceived as positive or negative, where it occurred (e.g., classroom, office), and other questions related to the event.

Participants were also asked to complete a series of closed-ended, Likert-type questions based on the relational turning point they discuss. Anderson and Wilson (1997) remark that this is a common approach in CIT studies. A similar approach was taken by Barge and Musambira (1992) in their analysis of turning points in chair-faculty relationships. They had participants select the most memorable turning point in their relationship with their department chair, and describe it in detail. After, participants completed a closed-ended questionnaire pertaining to their perception of the effects of the turning point. In addition to answering open-ended questions about the relational turning point itself, participants in the present study completed scales measuring their cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation before and after the turning point occurred. Each of these scales is discussed at the end of this chapter.

Step Four: Analyzing the Data

The fourth step for using CIT, according to Woolsey (1986), “consists of an analysis of thematic content, arrived at by inductive reasoning” with the objective of providing “a detailed, comprehensive and valid description of the activity studied” (p. 248). Flanagan (1954) suggests that categories should be formed inductively (i.e., categories will arise from the data). In other words,

inductive category construction is a tentative, interactive process, where the researcher sorts incidents into groups...A researcher might do an initial sort, starting with incidents that are nearly identical and moving to incidents that blur categories. As the inductive piling up of incidents occurs, categories are created. (Kain, 2004, p. 76)

Flanagan (1954) advises starting with a small sample of incidents and sorting them into piles of related content. After establishing tentative categories, he suggests providing definitions for each category and then classifying additional incidents into each category. Flanagan also promotes redefining and redeveloping categories as needed until all incidents have been classified.

Finally, the

larger categories are subdivided into smaller groups and the incidents that describe very nearly the same type of behavior are placed together. The definitions for all the categories and major headings should then be

re-examined in terms of the actual incidents classified under each. (p. 345)

Flanagan also suggests how to label and organize the data: The data should be organized logically, the titles of categories should convey meaning in themselves, and the headings should be comprehensive and representative of the data. The current study follows these guidelines.

Step Five: Interpreting and Reporting Findings

The final step for using the CIT involves accounting fully for the four previous steps (Flanagan, 1954): making clear the general aims, plans and specifications, data collection, and analysis of data. Further, the researcher should discuss external validity and limitations of the study.

The aim of the study is usually not a functional description of the activity as carried on by this sample but rather a statement relating to all groups of this type. In order to avoid faulty inferences and generalizations, the limitations imposed by the group must be brought into clear focus.

Similarly, the nature of judgments made in collecting and analyzing the data must be carefully reviewed. (Flanagan, 1954, p. 345)

Flanagan also argues that the value of the results should also be highlighted. The current study utilizes each of the five above mentioned steps, and the following section details the processes for coding the open ended data and for determining the strength of the quantitative measures.

Coding Processes

Open-ended Responses

Turning point events. To begin analysis, I placed each of the 394 responses to the survey question asking students to describe the turning point event on individual index cards and read each response multiple times. Then, I used a constant comparison approach to develop themes, which involved noting similarities and differences among responses and continually referring to previously coded responses for comparison (Flanagan, 1954; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

From this process, I created tentative categories based on similarities among responses. For example, one of the 394 responses stated, "My teacher would not accept my doctor's note and ridiculed me in front of class." I noted on paper similarities and differences of this response compared to others. Further, I then noted that another student's response that stated, "During class, my teacher saw me whispering to my friend and began attacking us with harsh words," was similar to the previous response in that both mentioned being ridiculed. This similarity was recorded, labeled temporarily as "ridicule," and compared to other responses.

After establishing these initial categories, I developed tentative definitions for each category. I wrote definitions to define the fundamental character of each category. Throughout this process, I redefined, added,

combined, and revised the categories. During the analysis process, the larger categories were subdivided into smaller groups and the incidents that described very nearly the same type of behavior were placed together. Finally, I re-read the actual incidents classified under each category, and re-examined and clarified the major headings and definitions for all the categories and subcategories.

As noted, analysis of the data yielded six large categories of turning point events, some of which were subsequently divided into more specific sub-categories. I labeled the six large categories of relational turning point events *instrumental, personal, rhetorical, ridicule/discipline, locational, and other person*. These categories, as well as their 14 sub-categories are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three.

To establish reliability, two coders were trained to code each of the 394 turning point events into one of 14 categories (see Appendix B for the codebook). Although there is no established criterion for the level of agreement necessary, Andersson and Nilsson (1964) suggest that it is acceptable if independent coders can correctly classify 75% to 85% of the incidents into the categories and 60% to 70% into the subcategories. The percentage of agreement between the independent coders in the current study was 93.4% for the larger categories and 83.2% for the sub-categories.

To assess inter-coder reliability, an overall Cohen's kappa statistic was calculated for all categories combined, as well as for each of the six larger categories. Cohen's kappa estimates consensus between two coders after correcting the percent-agreement figure for the amount of agreement that could be expected by chance alone. Stemler (2004) posits that kappa values from .41 to .60 are moderate and values above .60 are substantial. High or excellent reliability has been placed at .75 (Banerjee et al., 1999; Ellis, 1994).

In this study, intercoder reliability was assessed as follows. I compared each coder's categorization for each of the participants' responses. Intercoder reliability on all 394 responses coded for the 14 categories was high ($\kappa = .82$).

The fourteen categories were then collapsed into six larger-categories, also yielding high intercoder reliability ($\kappa = .85$). The percentage of agreement for each larger category was calculated. Percentage of agreement for each larger category was acceptable (*instrumental* = 88.8%, *personal* = 88.5%, *rhetorical* = 91.0%, *ridicule/discipline* = 90.3%, *locational* = 84.0%, *other person* = 85.7%).

Following reliability assessments, and in order to do the analysis of the research question and hypotheses, I examined all of the data. The responses in which coders agreed (e.g., both coders rated the response into the same category) were classified into their appropriate categories (e.g., as a "3"). For each participant response disagreed upon by the coders, I read the participants'

responses multiple times, consulted with the codebook for classification, reviewed coders' responses, and made a final categorization.

Outcomes of turning point events. In addition to reporting a turning point event, participants were asked to discuss the outcome of the turning point. As with the analysis of turning point events, I used a constant comparison approach to develop themes, which involved noting similarities and differences among reported outcomes and continually referring to previously coded responses for comparison (Flanagan, 1954; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). From this process, tentative categories were created based on similarities among outcomes reported. After establishing these initial categories, I developed initial definitions for each category. Definitions were written to define the fundamental character of each category. Throughout this process, I redefined, added, combined, and revised the categories. Finally, I re-read the actual incidents classified under each category, and re-examined and clarified the major headings and definitions for all the categories.

Analysis of the data yielded 12 categories of outcomes of turning point events. These 12 categories of outcomes of relational turning point events can be found in Table 5 and are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three.

To establish reliability, two coders were trained to code the presence or absence of each of the 12 outcomes for all 394 participants, totaling 4,728 observations (see Appendix B for the codebook). To assess inter-coder

reliability, an overall Cohen's kappa statistic was calculated for all categories combined. Intercoder reliability on all 394 responses coded for the 12 categories was acceptable as indexed by Cohen's kappa ($\kappa = .73$). Cohen's kappa statistic was also calculated for each of 12 the categories. See Table 1 for a summary of intercoder reliability. Eleven of the twelve categories yielded acceptable reliability scores. One category, *change in perceptions of/appreciation for the college or college department and/or its opportunities*, did not receive an acceptable intercoder reliability score, and was subsequently dropped from the analysis.

Quantitative Measures

In addition to an open-ended questionnaire, students were asked to characterize the valence of their reported turning point and complete three closed-ended questionnaires, each of which relates to instructional outcomes. These questionnaires measure reported cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation.

Valence of turning point event. Participants were asked to characterize the valence of their reported turning point based on 6 items: positive, negative, or neither positive or negative; good, bad, or neither good or bad; satisfying, unsatisfying, or neither satisfying or unsatisfying; pleasant, unpleasant, or neither pleasant or unpleasant; liked it, disliked it, or neither liked or disliked it; and harmless, harmful, or neither harmless or harmful. *Alpha* reliabilities

revealed that the valence-based items were answered consistently ($\alpha = .97$). A valence variable was then created using these six items. Participants' scores ranged from 6 (highly negatively valenced) to 18 (highly positively valenced).

Seven percent of responses ($n = 28$) had scores ranging from 9 and 15, thus not indicating clearly a positive or negative valence. The majority of turning points, however, were rated as very negatively valenced (received a score ranging from 6 to 8; $n = 75$, 19.1%) or very positively valenced (received a score from 16 to 18; $n = 292$, 73.9%), and were recoded as either positive or negative. As a result, 367 turning points reported by participants were rated as either positive ($n = 292$, 79.6%) or negative ($n = 75$, 20.4%), and these were used to answer Research Question Four.

Cognitive Learning Measure. Cognitive learning, which focuses on knowledge acquisition and recall (Bloom, 1956), was measured using the Cognitive Learning Measure (CLM) in the current study. Participants were asked to complete the CLM to measure their cognitive learning both before and after the turning point. Cognitive learning has proven to be difficult to measure. Using standardized tests to measure cognitive learning, for example, is problematic as such tests are limited to specific content areas and do not necessarily test what students learned in their particular course. Measuring cognitive learning by final grades given in a class also poses issues, as grades may have little relation to material taught, are often influenced by other factors

such as attendance and participation, and instructors and students may be hesitant sharing such information (Mottet, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006).

As a result, researchers have turned to measures that are more subjective in nature (e.g., Richmond, Gorham, & McCroskey, 1987; Richmond, Lane, & McCroskey, 2006). Richmond et al. (1987) admit that “what a person learns is a subjective matter no matter how it is measured” (p. 176); thus, scholars use students’ reports of their learning as a measure of cognitive learning.

Scholars have argued that students are able to estimate their learning accurately and have developed valid self-report learning measures. Richmond et al. (1987), the first to use such a measure, remark that,

[c]ollege students are adults with considerable experience in a school environment. We believe it is reasonable to expect them to estimate with considerable accuracy the amount they learn in a given class. In fact, it is likely that their estimate is at least as good as subjective grades provided by teachers in many classes or by tests administered in classes not based on clear behavioral objectives. (p. 581)

As a consequence, Richmond et al. developed the CLM, also referred to as the learning loss measure, which asks students to indicate how much they thought they learned in a particular course (on a scale from 0 to 9, with 0 indicating nothing learned, and 9 indicating learned more than any other class

ever taken). They are also asked how much they think they could have learned in the class had they had the ideal instructor (on a scale from 0 to 9). Then, they subtracted the score on the first scale from the score on the second to derive a variable labeled "learning loss," which was "intended to remove some of the possible bias with regard to estimated learning that could stem from being forced to take a class in a disliked subject" (p. 581). Lower scores represent greater learning. For their study, the correlation between the two scores was .94.

In a study conducted soon thereafter, Richmond, McCroskey, Kearney, and Plax (1987) mention that the only solution to measuring cognitive learning "when learning is to be assessed across disparate content areas in a single study" is to measure student perceptions of their own learning (p. 146). In another study using the CLM with a sample of 162 students, the test-retest reliability of the learning and learning loss scores over a five-day period were .85 and .88, respectively (McCroskey, Sallinen, Fayer, Richmond, & Barraclough, 1996). These were deemed satisfactory for the purposes of their study. Because the two cognitive learning instruments were single-item scales, no inter-item reliability estimates are possible.

The CLM has been used in many studies since its inception. These studies attempt to make a link between instructional variables and learning. For example, the CLM has been used in studies examining how teacher immediacy

(Baker, 2001; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994a; Gorham, 1998; Johnson & Miller, 2002; McCroskey et al., 1996; Mottet & Beebe, 2001; Pribyl et al., 2004; Richmond, 1990; Richmond et al., 1987; Rodriguez, Plax, & Kearney, 1996; Zhang & Zhang, 2006), student motivation (Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994a; Pribyl et al., 2004; Richmond, 1990), affective learning (Rodriguez et al., 1996), perceptions of upward mobility (Tibbles, 2006), teacher clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001), and teacher credibility (Johnson & Miller, 2002) affect, or appear to affect, cognitive learning.

More recently, scholars have investigated the validity of the CLM (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2000). Chesebro and McCroskey began with the argument that it cannot be taken as a given that students can accurately report how much they have learned in a particular class. One hundred and ninety two students watched videotaped lectures on the Toulmin model of argument. After, students completed a seven-item quiz pertaining to the lecture and the CLM. There was a “statistically significant and meaningful validity coefficient between student recall and student reports of their own learning” (p. 300). Chesebro and McCroskey (2000) claim that students can provide reasonably accurate reports of their learning. Richmond et al. (2006) also assert that this method of measuring cognitive learning, although imperfect, provides useful information concerning learning.

Affective Learning Scale. Affective learning, which addresses students' attitudes, beliefs, values, and feelings about what they learn (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964; Mottet, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006) was assessed using the Affective Learning Scale (ALS) (Kearney, 1994). This scale has been used consistently in studies of affective learning since its creation (e.g., Andersen, 1979; Kearney, Plax, Wendt-Wasco, 1985; Witt, Wheelless, & Allen, 2006). The ALS includes items pertaining to Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia's (1964) conception of affective learning and ranges from lower-order levels of affective learning (e.g., emotional response toward subject matter) to higher-order levels (e.g., behavioral commitment to adopt an idea and internalize it as a value) (Kearney, 1994). Students are asked to indicate their responses on scales from 1 to 7 on items regarding behaviors recommended in the course, content/subject matter of the course, course instructor, likelihood of engaging in behaviors recommended in the course, and likelihood of enrolling in another course of related content.

The ALS has demonstrated reliability and validity. *Alpha* reliabilities have ranged from .86 to .98 (e.g., Chory & McCroskey, 1999; Gorham, 1988; Kearney & McCroskey, 1980; Kearney et al., 1985; Richmond, 1990; Zhang & Zhang, 2006). Rubin et al. (1994) argue that the scale's construct validity is evidenced by its positive association with other affective-based measures such as measures of immediacy (e.g., Gorham, 1988; Kearney et al., 1985) and

prosocial message use (McCroskey et al., 1985; Plax et al., 1986). The ALS represents the universe or range of affective learning, and studies consistently obtain clean factor structures (Rubin et al., 1994). Participants were asked to complete the ALS to measure their affective learning both before and after the turning point.

Kearney (1994) remarks that the across studies, the ALS has been factored consistently as either a five-factor, two-factor, or one-factor solution. Further, Kearny explains that

Because the interfactor correlations are typically high (above .60), the most parsimonious interpretation of the affective learning measure is a single factor with all items having their primary loadings on the first unrotated factor. Thus, most researchers treat the affective measure as unidimensional. (p. 81)

In the current study, I ran exploratory factor analyses to examine the factorability of the ALS, consistent with the suggested use of the measure. For the ALS completed before the turning point, exploratory factor analysis using principal-components extraction indicated a single-factor solution, which produced an eigenvalue of 19.47, accounting for 97.4% of the variance. Loadings ranged from .98 to .99. For the ALS completed after the turning point, exploratory factor analysis using principal-components extraction indicated a single-factor solution, accounting for 97.0% of the variance. Loadings ranged

from .98 to .99. *Alpha* reliabilities revealed that the scale reliably measured affective learning (before turning point, $\alpha = .99$; after turning point, $\alpha = .99$). For the scale measuring affective learning before the turning point, item-total correlations were analyzed, and ranged from .97 to .99. For the scale measuring affective learning after the turning point, item-total correlations were analyzed, and ranged from .95 to .99. All items on the ALS were used for subsequent analysis. Missing values for the ALS (i.e., items that participants' skipped) were replaced with a series mean.

Student Motivation Scale. Student motivation, a facilitator of the learning outcomes (Christophel, 1990; Rodriguez, Plax, & Kearney, 1996), is defined as a commitment to initiate and maintain involvement in the learning process and learning activities (Ames, 1990). Participants in the present study were asked to complete the Student Motivation Scale (SMS) to measure their motivation both before and after the turning point. The SMS was originally a single-item semantic differential scale (Beaty, Behnke, & Froelich, 1980) and has since been expanded. The most commonly used form of the SMS is Christophel's (1990) version (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). It includes 12 items on a semantic differential scale, such as motivated-unmotivated, interested-uninterested, involved-uninvolved, and unstimulated-stimulated. The scale can be used to measure students' trait motivation for school, learning in general, or students' state motivation for a particular class or subject. The latter is of

concern in most studies examining the effects of instructional variables and was examined in the current study.

The SMS has been found to be both reliable and valid. Christophel (1990) reported reliability coefficients ranging from .95 to .96. Recent studies report reliability coefficients between .91 and .95 (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Jaasma & Koper, 1999; Myers, 2002; Myers & Knox, 2000; Myers & Rocca, 2000; Pribyl et al., 2004). Rubin et al., 1994 remark, "considerable evidence for the construct validity of these scales has been published" (p. 344). In particular, Beatty et al. (1980) found that students who were offered extra credit proportional to their comprehension of a lesson reported higher scores on the SMS than those who were not offered extra credit. Further, some studies indicate that variations of the SMS are associated with instructor's use of power and immediacy, and dimensions of student learning (Christophel, 1990; Richmond, 1990; Rubin et al., 1994).

The SMS has been factored consistently as a one-factor solution (e.g., Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; McCroskey, Richmond, & Bennett, 2006). Some studies (e.g., Pribyl et al., 2004), however, have found a two-factor solution. For the current study, I ran exploratory factor analyses to examine any potential factors underlying the variables. For the SMS completed before the turning point, exploratory factor analysis using principal-components extraction indicated a single-factor solution, which produced an eigenvalue of 11.82 and

accounted for 98.5% of the variance. Loadings ranged from .98 to .99. For the SMS completed after the turning point, exploratory factor analysis using principal-components extraction also indicated a single-factor solution, which produced an eigenvalue of 11.80, accounting for 98.3% of the variance. Loadings ranged from .98 to .99. *Alpha* reliabilities revealed that the scale reliably measured student motivation (before turning point, $\alpha = .99$; after turning point, $\alpha = .99$). For the scale measuring student motivation before the turning point, item-total correlations were analyzed, and they ranged from .98 to .99. For the scale student motivation after the turning point, item-total correlations were analyzed, and they ranged from .97 to .99. All items on the SMS were used for subsequent analysis. Missing values for the SMS (i.e., items that participants' skipped) were replaced with a series mean.

Table 1

<i>Intercoder Reliability</i>	
Outcome of Turning Point Event	Cohen's Kappa
Change in respect for teacher	.90
Change in trust, or perceptions of credibility/competence of teacher	.69
Change in perceptions of the relationship with teacher	.67
Change in own willingness to approach teacher or seek help	.54
Change in own willingness to approach other teachers or authority figures; change in how to approach other teachers or authority figures	.78
Change in perceptions of other teachers	.58
Change or contemplated/ing a change in decisions about major or minor, aspirations in field of interest, or attending graduate/law school	.71
Change in desire/ability to ask teacher for a letter of recommendation or professional reference, or would consider asking for one	.83
Change in own confidence in course, subject, academics in general, abilities, or self	.73
Change in student's humanization of teacher	.67
Taking another course <i>with instructor</i> or considered doing so	.81
Change in perceptions of/appreciation for the college or college department and/or its opportunities	.37

Chapter 3:

Results

This chapter presents the findings of the seven research questions discussed in Chapter One. It reports the types of events college students reported as relational turning points with their teachers, as well as the reported outcomes of these events. This chapter also presents the results of statistical analyses investigating the valence of reported relational turning point events, the relationship between relational turning points and reported outcomes, and how relational turning points appear to affect students' cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation.

Participants

In order to study the perspectives and experiences of a wide variety of college students (e.g., year in school, major, age), participants were solicited from courses that enroll students from a variety of majors, backgrounds, and grade levels. The sample for this study consisted of 640 students at a large northwestern university recruited from communication courses meeting general-education university requirements and that enroll students from a large number of undergraduate majors. Students were asked to participate in a study involving teacher-student interaction and, if they decided to participate, accessed a questionnaire on the Internet. The use of an Internet questionnaire

allowed students ample time to decide whether to take part in the study, ask the researcher questions, and ensure confidentiality.

Students were asked to report on experiences from a class other than the one from which they were sampled to help ensure confidentiality and anonymity. The questionnaire took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Participants were offered extra credit, and their participation was voluntary. Students who did not want to take part in the study or who were enrolled in multiple classes that were solicited for participation were given the option of completing an alternative extra-credit assignment. Twelve students chose this option.

Of those who did participate, six reported on a turning point with a K-12 teacher, thus their cases were deleted from the data set. Participants who were able to recall a turning point ($n = 394$, 62% of the overall sample) subsequently completed open-ended questions about the turning point. All participants completed questions pertaining to demographics. A total of 439 females and 194 males participated in the study, of which 280 females and 113 males were able to recall a turning point. Participants ranged in age from 16-49 with a mean age of 20.49 years ($SD = 2.57$).

Participants included first year ($n = 87$, 13.7%), sophomore ($n = 221$, 34.9%), junior ($n = 205$, 32.3%), senior ($n = 114$, 18%), and graduate students ($n = 2$, .3%) at the time the study was completed. Table 2 lists participants' year

in school at the time of the turning point event. Five participants did not report their class level. Participants identified themselves as White ($n = 371$, 58.5%), Asian ($n = 164$, 25.9%), Hispanic or Latino ($n = 27$, 4.3%), mixed race ($n = 27$, 4.3%), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander ($n = 20$, 3.2%), African American ($n = 14$, 2.2%), and other ($n = 11$, 1.7%). A summary of demographic information appears in Table 3.

Research Question One

Research Question One asked the following: What specific types of events do students report as relational turning points in teacher-student relationships? The responses to the following open-ended questions were analyzed using the techniques discussed in Chapter 2:

Please describe the physical location, time of day, and other details where the event occurred in as much detail as possible.

Please describe the *event* itself in as much detail as possible.

Specifically, what happened?

Analysis of participants' responses yielded six large or meta-level categories of turning point events, some of which included sub-categories. These categories include *instrumental* (discussion of grade; discussion of course assignment, course content, course more generally; discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships; discussion of course policy/rule), *personal* (discussion of coursework and personal information;

discussion of common interest; compliment; invitation; name used), *rhetorical* (lecture topic or claim; teaching style), *ridicule/discipline*, *locational*, and *other person*. Each is discussed below in more detail. Table 4 summarizes the types and frequency of turning point events reported.

Instrumental

Instrumental relational turning points ($n = 170$, 43.1%) consisted of events based largely on reports of the teacher helping or assisting a student with class or college-related issues/concerns. In most instances, the student approached the teacher seeking information or help with regard to the course or college more generally. Turning points labeled as instrumental did not include discussions of highly personal matters. Four subcategories emerged from the data: *discussion of grade*; *discussion of course assignment*, *course content*, *course more generally*; *discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships*; and *discussion of course policy/rule*.

Discussion of grade. Turning point events that were reported to occur when the student and teacher discussed a student's grade on an exam, assignment, or a final course grade were categorized as *discussion of grade*. Other applicable turning points included in this category consisted of a teacher grading a student's work while in their presence and subsequently discussing it with them, discussing consequences of a grade, and talking about how to make up a bad grade ($n = 21$, 5.3%). For example, one student wrote the following:

I scheduled a meeting to discuss a possible error in exam scores. I knocked on the professor's door to find that there was a miscommunication with the meeting time. I had come earlier than expected, but was welcomed in anyway. We looked over the scores to find that I was actually given a higher score when I had thought I was graded lower. The professor gave me the higher grade and assured me that the low test grade would not affect my overall grade and that I had nothing to worry about.

Another instrumental, grade-related turning point reported by a student entailed the following:

[T]he event took place in the teacher's office in the ... building at around noon. During a meeting over a grade I received on a paper, my teacher just told me flat out that she does not change grades. I received deductions that were undeserving and her only response was that she did not change grades. I inquired if that were merely for her own benefit, to save time, or if not acknowledging the possibility of her maybe making a mistake in grading a paper benefited in the learning process of education. She concluded that she would not change the grade or discuss it further.

In both cases, the primary focus of the event described was the grade discussion.

Discussion of course assignment, course content, course more generally.

Turning point events that were reported to occur when a student and teacher discussed an assignment (e.g., paper, upcoming or previous exam), course concept/topic, a student's progress/standing in course, or the course more generally comprised the current category ($n = 111$, 28.2%). For example, one student's discussion with her/his teacher about a class presentation served as a turning point:

In my class, we have to write a marketing plan that has to be 15 pages long, and we have to give a presentation by the end of the quarter. My team members and I were not sure how the presentation should be since the teacher did not give specific instructions. I decided to ask my instructor after the class is over.

Another student responded:

I went into my instructor's office hours to discuss my paper. I was discussing my paper with my instructor. He showed me some nifty ways to research the topic I was writing about. I sat in a chair and watched his directions.

As can be seen, the focus of this category was on talking about a course assignment, course content, or the course more generally.

Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships. This subcategory comprised turning points that were reported to occur when the main topic that a teacher and student discussed was college, a specific major or majors, what classes to take, independent study possibilities, job opportunities, job offers, future goals, studying abroad, and/or internship possibilities, and letters of recommendation ($n = 26, 06.6\%$). Some students approached their teacher for internship advice:

I was walking him to his car so I could talk with him about my internship options. I told him I had two candidates for places where I could intern and I asked his opinion of which one would be better suited to me in his opinion. He replied about each and was strongly in favor of one. I thanked him for meeting with me and we went our separate ways.

In a similar response, a student's instrumental request focused on a school-related opportunity:

There were many other people in the cafe other than myself and my professor. The event was when I asked him to write a recommendation for me. I am planning on studying abroad this summer and I needed a letter of recommendation from him. This meeting was when I was able to give him more information about myself.

As these examples indicate, the focus of this category was on interactions where discussion centered on a college, major, independent study, and/or internship.

Discussion of course policy/rule. Turning point events that occurred when a student and teacher discussed a course policy or rule (e.g., turning in an assignment late, extending a deadline, time to complete a test) or a teacher allowing students to have extra time on assignment/test were categorized as *discussion of course policy/rule* ($n = 12, 03.0\%$). This occurred in the following example:

It happened in the morning (approx. 9:20AM), at the end of class. In a classroom. I approached the teacher. A female grad student who was teaching the technical communication class. I asked why she had announced a pop quiz the day before, after I and several other students left the class early. I had notified her prior to this that I had a class far away right afterwards, and that some days I would be leaving early to make it to tests, quizzes, etc. on time.

In a similar discussion, one student perceived a change in her/his relationship with the instructor based on a conversation about missing class:

I had enrolled in the class because I thought it would be interesting. I went to the first day of class and although the teacher seemed nice, I thought that she would be relatively challenging. I knew that I would be

absent for a week in the quarter, and one of my concerns dealt with how my professors would react to this information. I thought of her as I would any other professor, and thought that there was a chance that she would not be very accommodating. However, I was pleasantly surprised when she reassured me that we would work it out together, and that she had no problems with me missing that one week of class. We spoke extensively about how I would keep in contact with her, and what I needed to do while I was away. It seemed like she really cared about giving me all the information I needed to know before I left.

As illustrated in the above examples, the focus of this category was on talk about a course policy or rule.

Personal

Turning point events based largely on the sharing of private, personal information, or if there was a specific, approach/affinity seeking behavior or statement intended for one person (e.g., compliment, invitation, name used) were labeled as *personal* ($n = 104, 26.4\%$). Five subcategories emerged from the data.

Discussion of coursework and personal information. Turning point events reported to occur when the teacher and student discussed *coursework* (e.g., paper, grade, participation, late work, course/topic/subject) or were in the context of the class (e.g., during class activity, after class) *and discussed*

personal information (e.g., includes discussion of events that happened in life (e.g., life experiences, recent tragedies/sickness, family, background, personal life, weekends) ($n = 46$, 11.7%) were labeled as *discussion of coursework and personal information*.

The following example illustrates one relational turning point event between a teacher and student coded in the current category:

I walked from the class ... with one of my teachers after class to discuss a term paper during her office hours. My teacher packed up her computer and we walked together to her office and I asked her about a personal story she had shared with the class a few days prior. She told me more details about the story and I then shared my thoughts and my boyfriend's reaction when I told him the story. The conversation then shifted to talk about how busy my quarter had been. I told her about work (I nanny for three families) and she asked me about the kids, if I enjoyed it, if I wanted to have kids of my own some day, and about the differences in upbringing from family to family (specifically how the children that go to a private Catholic school vs. the ones who do not).

We also talked about my mom and my close relationship with her.

These examples reflect this category's focus on the discussion of coursework and personal information.

Discussion of common interest. Turning point events reported to occur when a teacher and student discussed a common interest or experiences, either course related (e.g., chemistry research) or not course related (e.g., favorite car) were categorized as *discussion of common interest* ($n = 15, 3.8\%$). For example, one student remarked, "...after class... We began to talk about authors and found a common interest in Faulkner. I was just introduced to the author and he was writing his doctoral thesis on it." Another student reported that a turning point occurred when:

The class was asked if anyone knew the make/model/year of an automotive figure on an overhead projector in a course during my freshman year. The model car was a 1963 VW Type 1 Beetle. I raised my hand and nailed it dead on. I then went on to explain details which the model lacked, such as the standard production vent windows and a few other features. The teacher then mentioned that he was a VW Beetle enthusiast and owned a superbeetle. I stated that I also was a large VW enthusiast and had restored/customized a 1967 Beetle. We then talked for about ten more minutes during lecture about our vehicles.

As illustrated in the above example, the focus of this category was on a talk about a common interest.

Compliment. Turning point events reported to occur when a teacher provided a student with an expression of praise, commendation, or admiration

were categorized as compliments ($n = 21, 5.3\%$). Responses indicating that a teacher thanked or disclosed appreciation for a student's participation in class, complimented a student on their behavior in the classroom, or offered verbal or written praise on work returned to a student were labeled compliments. One student perceived a change in her/his relationship with the teacher in this event:

My professor came up to me before class and wanted to discuss my midterm paper. She told me that I received a 100% on the assignment and that the paper itself was brilliant. The professor then asked if she can use the paper as a sample essay for her future classes. I was flattered and at the same time proud of my personal achievement.

In all of these events, the focus was on a compliment to a student by a teacher.

Invitation. Turning point events reported to occur when a teacher or student requested the other's presence or participation of the other, or a request to participate or be present or take part in something were categorized as *invitation* ($n = 8, 2.0\%$). Invitations were made for attendance at a meeting, going out to eat or for a walk, and to participate in a group or activity. For example, one student responded "My TA asked me to go for a walk outside and asked me on a date." Another student reported:

My professor approached myself and another student about entering a speech competition (the course itself was public speaking...) I was really flattered that he considered me a viable candidate and really wanted me

to enter this contest, but the day it was held I was already working so I was unable to go.

As evident in the above example, events in this category centered on an invitation by the teacher or student.

Name used. Turning point events reported by students that focused on the teacher using or failing to use the student's name were labeled within this category ($n = 14$, 03.6%). For example, one student reported a turning point with her/his teacher at a basketball game: "I saw my professor and he remembered my name. Out of 120 students in the class he remembered me!" Within the classroom context, another student responded:

My professor had a seating chart the first day of class and the next day [k]new everyone's names. This helped me get engaged in the class and the material. I felt like she [k]new me when she called me by my first name. This makes a huge difference and feel like I had a part in the class.

These reports exemplify a focus on the teacher using or not using a student's name as the turning point event.

Rhetorical

Turning points based largely on a teacher-directed behavior or statement intended for the entire class were labeled *rhetorical* ($n = 57$, 14.5%). Two subcategories include *lecture topic or claim* and *teaching style*.

Lecture topic or claim. Turning point events reported to occur when a teacher discussed a topic, made a claim, provided an example, or discussed experiences related to a topic, the course, or college *during lecture* were labeled *lecture topic or claim* ($n = 31, 07.9\%$). The following response is a turning point reported by one student:

The event occurred in ... Hall in the afternoon during a 2 hour lecture. A discussion was raised regarding the general acceptance of illegal immigrants in certain regions of the country and whether or not this was acceptable.

In a similar response, another student reported a turning point when:

Rather than being taught from an objective perspective, this particular professor immediately used this class as a platform to instill his own beliefs onto us. We were talking about race matters in America when he concluded that we should all be active in our fight against racism through any means, including violence and destruction of property.

As evident in the above examples, reports in this category centered on a teacher discussing a particular topic or making a particular claim during lecture.

Teaching style. Rhetorical turning points also concerned the teacher's style ($n = 26, 6.6\%$) or the manner by which the teacher engaged or failed to engage the students (e.g., informal, held everyone's attention, interacted in funny manner; used humor). Such turning points also included the manner by

which the teacher led discussion and a teacher's overt discussion of her or his teaching style. For example, one student reported the following:

[F]irst day of class I was just very impressed with the teacher's personality and teaching style. She had a great ability to catch and hold the attention of everyone in this huge lecture hall.

One teacher's discussion of her teaching style emerged as a turning point for a student when she

explained to the class that part of her teaching style was not to shy away from controversial or potentially touchy subject matter during class discussions. she believed that encouraging lively debate about real-world issues would improve the quality of the essays we were to write for the class. i remember that this was turning point for me because it represented one my first experiences outside of the high school environment where everything (especially subject matter) is so much more controlled and sterilized. i remember this event as being very refreshing, worthwhile, and effective.

As can be seen, the entries in this category involved the teacher's teaching style.

Ridicule/Discipline

Another larger category of turning points reported by students included being ridiculed or threatened by the teacher ($n = 31, 7.9\%$). Responses

mentioning ridicule entailed the teacher using language or behavior in what was perceived as a mocking or humiliating manner. Responses mentioning being disciplined entailed the teacher bringing the student to a state of order and obedience or punishing the student. The following event was reported as a turning point by one student:

There were 700 kids in the class. I was sitting in the center section, about half of the way back in the rows of seats. It was around the middle of the day in fall quarter. The professor for this class was not a very interesting professor. He was not engaging, and didn't really care about communicating with us. He more just was there to give his lecture the way he wanted to. He never encouraged questions or anything like that. So, one day during lecture, my friend leaned over to ask me a question (he whispered), and I whispered back the answer while writing on his paper the equation to use. In the middle of the whole lecture, my professor yells and points at me and says "If you have a question...ASK ME, I am the professor. That's what i am here for." He said these words in a very hostile voice that made everyone in the lecture look around to see who was bearing the brunt of this attack. I was so embarrassed and caught off guard by the attack that I didn't even respond to his flurry of anger.

As evidenced in the above example, the focus of this category was on a student being ridiculed or disciplined by the teacher.

Locational

Turning point events largely based on being in a different location or environment than normal with a teacher were categorized as *locational* ($n = 25$, 6.3%). Students' responses focused on seeing their teacher outside of the usual academic environment (e.g., bus stop), or the location or positioning of teacher was the primary factor that changed perception of other and/or relationship with the teacher. The following example illustrates the location-based nature of this type of turning point:

The class attended a culture event about the Philippines as an extra-credit opportunity. There was live entertainment, and the event took place during the evening. The event was on campus. The event celebrated the anniversary of the first wave of Filipinos that came to America. So there was a program filled with key-note speakers, videos, poetry, and other stuff. Also Filipino entertainment was provided in celebration. My teacher was present, and he stood next to me and some of my other classmates.

Similarly, students reported locational turning points off campus, including the following:

I was at the train station and went into the bathroom to wash my hands. Next to me was one of my professors from the previous quarter. I had to say hello just because it was so weird seeing her outside of school. I told her I had been in her class and how I enjoyed it. Then we talked about where we were traveling.

The focus of the entries placed in this category was the location of the teacher and student.

Other Person

The final category of turning points, labeled *other person*, includes turning points that reportedly occurred not because of the teacher's behavior, but instead as a result of someone else's behavior ($n = 7$, 1.8%). The majority of these turning points occurred because of a third party's interaction with the student. The following examples illustrate the *other person* category:

Early in the quarter, probably the 2nd week, another student came up to me during our 10-minute break in class. She asked me my name and then told me she would need to be absent from class one day the following week. She said our teacher had recommended for her to get the notes for that day from me.

Another reported,

The professor was sent out of the room and a lady from some sort of office came in and we discussed the good and bad teaching techniques

used by our professor. The lady created a memo for the professor telling her what we thought she could improve on for the rest of the quarter.

Those responses that were placed in this category pertained to a third party's behavior or statement.

Summary

The analysis of the types of relational turning point events between college teachers and students reveal six larger categories, some of which entail sub-categories. These larger categories include *instrumental*, *personal*, *rhetorical*, *ridicule/discipline*, *locational*, and *other person*. Overall, these categories represent one way to characterize relational turning point events between students and teachers.

Research Question Two

Research Question Two asked the following: What relational turning points with their professors do students constitute as generally positive and generally negative? Results for each turning point event category are reported below.

Instrumental Turning Point Events

As discussed in the methods section, each participant rated the valence that the event had for them, and the results indicated that the results were largely bipolar. Thus, the report of the event was categorized as either positive or negative. Chi square analyses were run for each of the six larger turning

point categories to assess the relative frequency of positive and negative values scores in each. When this omnibus test was significant, chi square analyses were run for each of the subcategories for those event types that had subcategories. The following results are organized based on the larger level categories, with the sublevels within the larger category reported after each larger category.

Instrumental Turning Points

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and *instrumental turning point events* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 162) = 59.28, p < .001$. Out of 162 students who reported an instrumental turning point event with their teacher, 130 (81%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Subcategories. The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *discussion of grade* was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 21) = 1.190, p = .275$. Out of 21 students who reported a discussion of grade turning point event with their teacher, 13 (62%) indicated that the turning point was negatively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *discussion of a course assignment, course content, or course more generally* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 104) = 61.538, p < .001$. Out of 104 students who reported a turning point event about a discussion

of a course assignment, course content, course more generally with their teacher, 92 (88%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 26) = 22.154, p < .001$. Out of 26 students who reported a turning point event about a discussion of a college, major, independent study, and/or internships, 25 (96%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *discussion of a course policy/rule* was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 11) = .091, p = .763$. Out of 11 students who reported a turning point event about a discussion of a course policy/rule with their teacher, 6 (55%) indicated that the turning point was negatively valenced.

Personal Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and *personal turning point events* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 100) = 84.64, p < .001$. Out of 100 students who reported a personal turning point event with their teacher, 96 (96%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Subcategories. The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *discussion of coursework and personal information* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 44) = 36.364, p < .001$. Out

of 44 students who reported a turning point event about a discussion of coursework and personal information with their teacher, 42 (95%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *discussion of a common interest* was also significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 14) = 0, p < .001$. Out of 14 students who reported a turning point event about a discussion of common interest with their teacher, 14 (100%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *compliment* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 20) = 0, p < .001$. Out of 20 students who reported a turning point event about a compliment, 20 (100%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding an *invitation* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 8) = 4.500, p = .034$. Out of 8 students who reported a turning point event about an invitation with their teacher, 7 (88%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding *name use* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 14) = 10.286, p = .001$. Out of 14 students who reported a turning point event about

name use with their teacher, 13 (93%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Rhetorical Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and *rhetorical turning point events* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 52) = 6.23, p = .014$.

Out of 52 students who reported a rhetorical turning point event with their teacher, 35 (67%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Subcategories. The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding a *lecture topic or claim* was *not* significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 29) = .862, p = .353$. Out of 29 students who reported a turning point event about a lecture topic or claim, about half, 17 (59%), indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and turning point events regarding *teaching style* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 23) = 7.348, p = .007$. Out of 23 students who reported a turning point event about teaching style, 18 (78%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Ridicule/Discipline Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and *ridicule/discipline turning point events* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 24) = 16.67, p < .001$. Out of 24 students who reported a ridicule/discipline turning point event

with their teacher, 22 (92%) indicated that the turning point was negatively valenced.

Locational Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and *locational turning point events* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 22) = 0, p < .001$. Out of 22 students who reported a locational turning point event with their teacher, 22 (100%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Other Person Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between *valence* and *other person turning point events* was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 7) = 0, p < .001$. Out of 7 students who reported an “other” turning point event with their teacher, 7 (100%) indicated that the turning point was positively valenced.

Summary

The findings indicate that instrumental turning point events, overall, were positively valenced significantly more often than they were negatively valenced. In particular, turning point events positively valenced include discussion of a course assignment, course content, or course more generally; and discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships. Findings were not significant for two types of instrumental turning points: discussion of grade and discussion of a course policy/rule. That is, they were not more likely to be valenced one way or another.

Personal turning point events, overall, were more likely to be positively valenced. Each of the four personal turning point events—discussion of coursework and personal information, common interest, invitation, and name use—were more likely to be positively than negatively valenced. Likewise, rhetorical turning point events, overall, were more likely to be positively valenced. In particular, teaching style was positively valenced; however, there was no significant difference in valence for lecture topic or claim. Ridicule/discipline turning point events were more likely to be *negatively* than positively valenced. Locational turning point events were more likely to be positively than negatively valenced as were other person turning point events.

Overall, these findings reflect that students report perceiving turning point events as largely positive or negative in nature. Further, students seem to recall positive turning point events most commonly, which may indicate that students' experiences of relational change with their teachers are often judged as positive changes, as opposed to negative.

Research Question Three

Research Question Three asked the following: What are the outcomes of relational turning point events as reported by students? Students' responses to the following open-ended questions pertaining to outcomes were analyzed using the techniques discussed in Chapter 2:

How did this turning point change your relationship with your teacher?

Please explain in detail and include why you think this event brought about this change.

Besides any potential changes in your learning or motivation in the course, what else, if anything, changed as a result of this turning point?

Why do you think this is the case?

Describe what interactions, if any, you have had with the teacher since this turning point.

Explain how, if at all, the turning point affected your personal or professional aspirations beyond your learning and motivation in the course.

Analysis of the data and intercoder reliability yielded 11 categories of outcomes of turning point events. Each of these categories is explicated below. See Table 5 for frequencies for each of the outcomes of turning point events.

Change in Respect for Teacher

Participants' responses that indicated a change in respect for the teacher, or esteem for or a sense of the worth or excellence of a teacher or a personal quality or ability of the teacher, were categorized as *change in respect for teacher* ($n = 100, 25.4\%$). In some instances, students indicated having more or less respect for their teacher: "This turning point made me give him more respect as a teacher," "I gained a lot of respect for my professor," "This caused me to lose respect for him," and "After his yelling at me, I lost my

respect for him as an educator.” Responses that indicated a change in perceived mutual respect between the teacher and student were also included in this category: “...it made me feel like we had greater mutual respect for each other” and “Our mutual respect for each other helps our relationship.” Overall, the focus of this category was on a change in respect for the teacher.

Change in Trust or Perceptions of Credibility/Competence of Teacher

Responses that indicated a change in trust with a teacher, or change in perceived credibility or competence of the teacher were categorized as *change in trust or perceptions of credibility/competence of teacher* ($n = 80, 20.3\%$). For example, responses indicated having *trust* (e.g., “I felt like I trusted him more,” “I trusted her”) or *distrust* (e.g., “I did not trust him now,” “I could not trust this professor, after this statement”) for the teacher. Student’s responses categorized in this category also indicated a change in credibility (e.g., “it gave him more credibility as a person,” “It also led me to discredit a lot of their personal opinion,” “he lost his credibility with me”) or competence of the teacher (e.g., “She was intelligent,” “I realized how intelligent my teacher was,” “I realized she was fairly incompetent in the subject matter”). As demonstrated, this category focuses on changes in perceptions of trust in, and credibility or competence of, the teacher with whom the turning point occurred.

Change in Perceptions of the Relationship with Teacher

Responses that indicated a change in perceptions (i.e., beliefs,

realizations) about the relationship between the student and the teacher with whom the turning point occurred were categorized as *change in perceptions of the relationship with teacher* ($n = 228, 57.9\%$). Some entries, for example, indicated a change in relationship label: "I began to see the professor as more than just a teacher but a friend and mentor," "it felt like I was talking now with a friend, an equal, not a distant instructor," "He went from being a teacher to a role model," and "it brought us to a 'friends' level."

Responses included in this category also indicated a change in the adjectives used to describe the relationship (e.g., "It became a more *personalized* relationship," "... the *personal* relationship with my teacher," "My relationship with him was more *personalized*," italics added), a change in the relationship equality or balance (e.g. "I think that this event somewhat put me on more of an equal ground with my teacher," "The event mentioned above brought about this change because the teacher allowed our relationship to move beyond one that is 'the teacher- one that is above the student' and 'student - one that must listen and is below the teacher' to equals."), or a change in perceptions of closeness or connectedness with the teacher (e.g., "I guess, in a certain way, it formed a closer bond," "I formed a connection with my professor that was special"). As can be seen, the focus of this category was on a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher.

Change in Own Willingness to Approach Teacher or Seek Help

Participants' responses that indicated a change in approaching, seeking help from, or willingness to approach or seek help from the teacher for which the turning point occurred were categorized as *change in own willingness to approach teacher or seek help* ($n = 223, 56.6\%$). Responses included approaching the teacher more (e.g., "I had more meetings with my TA just to talk about school and other courses," "I turn to him much more now") or less (e.g., "I avoided any kind of interaction that I could," "I never asked him for help again or talked to him"). Changes in feeling more willingness (e.g., "I did feel like I could approach her to ask a question way more than before the interaction," "I felt that I could go to my professor for advice on career plans or college plans") or less willing to approach the teacher after the turning point (e.g., "I think that if I did see the TA, I would try to avoid contact," "I have not had any interactions with this professor, nor would I ever want to in the future") were also included in this category. Finally, responses that indicated feeling comfortable or uncomfortable (e.g., "After that, I felt more comfortable going up and talking to him in class," "I think what changed was my comfort level in class like asking questions, going to office hours, etc.") in approaching the teacher. As illustrated, the focus of this category concerns a change in students' actual or willingness to approach or seek help from the teacher with who the turning point occurred.

Change in Willingness or How to Approach Other Teachers or Authority Figures

Participants' responses that indicated being more or less willing to approach or that were said to have affected how they would approach teachers or other authority figures were categorized as *change in willingness or how to approach other teachers or authority figures* ($n = 74, 18.8\%$). Responses included being more or less willing to approach other teachers or authority figures for help (e.g., "It added to my willingness to talk to my superiors, ask questions, and get guidance," "I am now hesitant to visit office hours and to speak with my teachers"), being more or less willing to approach and get to know other teachers or authority figures (e.g., "The turning point made me eager to reach out and get to know my other professors on a more personal basis," "The turning point has pushed me to get to know my teachers on a more personal basis"), and feeling more or less comfortable is approaching other teachers or authority figures (e.g., "It made me more comfortable with asking professors for help in general," "made me feel more comfortable talking to my teachers and asking for their help").

Students' responses that indicated how to approach teachers or authority figures in the future were also included in this category. For example, students mentioned that the turning point "changed...how I approach subsequent teachers," and more specifically, "It encouraged me to go to other office hours for my other classes," "I also learned that if you have a question, the best thing

to do is ask,” and “I look for small opportunities, usually through conversation or out of the formal class setting (either through office hours, social networking, other assisting opportunities, etc.) to develop these relationships.” In a discussion of the outcomes of the relational turning point with his/her teacher, one student responded that

I feel that with teachers you really have to put yourself out there tell them over and over again something that is important to you. They have so many students and if you don't show yourself to them you will always be lost in the crowd. You can't be afraid to ask for help.

The above responses illustrate that for some students, relational turning points with their teachers helped them realize how to approach teachers and authority figures in the future, including going to office hours, asking questions, assisting the teacher, and asking for help. As can be seen, the focus of this category was on a change in the students' willingness to approach or how to approach other teachers or authority figures.

Change in Perceptions of Other Teachers

Students' responses that indicated a change in perceptions (i.e., beliefs, judgments, realizations) of other teachers based on the turning point were categorized as *change in perceptions of other teachers* ($n = 86, 21.8\%$). Responses included generalizations about teachers' actions overall (e.g., “It made me realize that the teachers will help if you seek it out, otherwise, they

seem completely disconnected”), qualities that teachers in general possess (e.g., “I know now that professors can be very unfair, and selfish,” “they have... hobbies/interests other than teaching, that can make them unique”), and capabilities of teachers overall (e.g., “It made me realize the capacity that most teachers possess, if you give them a chance,” “For me it brought to my attention that professors can be helpful out side of the classroom arena”). Responses also included changes in perceptions of the importance of educators more broadly (e.g., “I realized how important educators really are”). As can be seen, the focus of this category is on a change in perceptions of other teachers as a result of the reported turning point.

Change or Contemplated a Change in Decisions about Major or Minor, Aspirations in Field of Interest, or Attending Graduate/Law School

Responses that indicated a change or contemplated change in a college major or minor, in aspirations in a particular field of interest, or in attending post-undergraduate school were included in this category. Example responses include the following: students who made statements about selecting or changing their major (e.g., “She inspired me to become a Communication major,” “I have decided not to pursue International Studies as my major”) or contemplated changing their major (e.g., “I am now contemplating a French minor because of the enthusiasm and passion this teacher passed on to me,” “Because he made me feel so belittled... I almost wanted to change my major,

because I was afraid that he would be like all of the other people in my major and possibly in my professional career”).

Responses that indicated a change in aspirations in a field of interest were also included in this category (e.g., “I... became interested in his profession and thought about pursuing law as a career, “I think that turning point has given me the aspiration to want to help less developed countries,” “I’m not interested in becoming a doctor anymore”). Some students reported that their aspirations changed drastically as a result of the turning point with their teacher. For example, one student remarked:

It definitely affected me as a student and individual. I switched out of being a science major and dropped my aspirations of working for NASA on the ISS program. I am now floundering about trying to decide what arts program I would like to be in or if I want to finish university at all.

Responses included in this category also included entries that involved changes in wanting to attend graduate or law school. For example, students mentioned, “I now hope to study... in law school because of this class” and

It did make me look more favorably at graduate school. I used to think grad students couldn't have a life or be human outside of their books and studying, but this showed me that they could and that I could go to graduate school without running the risk of becoming socially inept.

Overall, the focus of this category was on changes or contemplated changes with regard to a college major, aspirations in a particular field of interest, or attending graduate or law school.

Change in Desire/Ability to Ask Teacher for a Letter of Recommendation or Professional Reference, or Would Consider Asking for One

Students' responses that indicated having asked a teacher to write a letter of recommendation or provide a professional reference, or would consider doing so, were included in the current category ($n = 69, 7.5\%$). For example, as a result of the turning point with their teachers, students remarked, "After that, I asked him for a letter of recommendation as I was applying to colleges," "I turned to her for Letters of Recommendation in which she willingly wrote," "I have also used her as a reference to an honor society that I was then accepted into," and "I have also avoided using them as any sort of reference."

Students' responses indicating that they have considered asking their teacher for a letter of recommendation or professional references were also included in the current category, such as, "if I need a letter of recommendation in the near future I would probably ask," "if I ever need an educational reference I know she will do that for me," and "I know I will talk to her when I need recommendations for going abroad." Overall, then, the focus of this category was on a student asking for a letter of recommendation or professional

reference, or considered doing so, as a result of the turning point with their instructor.

Change in Own Confidence in Course, Subject, Academics in General, Abilities, or Self

Students' responses that indicated a change their abilities or confidence in their course, the academic subject being studied, academics in general, or in oneself were categorized as *change in own confidence in course, subject, academics in general, abilities, or self* ($n = 69, 17.5\%$). For example, students mentioned having gained or lost confidence in the course in which the turning point occurred (e.g., "I felt less confident in that class because I was afraid that the TA had a bad opinion of me"), in other courses (e.g., "...allowed me to feel more confident in other courses and my education"), as a student (e.g., "It made me lose my confidence as a student in myself," "I felt more confident in school"), and in one's self (e.g., "I'm more confident about myself," "It has taught me that I am a very smart, tough and determined young lady"). As the examples demonstrate, the focus of this category was on a change in students' confidence.

Change in Student's Humanization of Teacher

Students' responses that indicated a change in perception of their teacher as being more human were categorized as *change in student's humanization of teacher* ($n = 30, 7.6\%$). Responses included statements about

the teacher being more “human” such as, “This turning point simply made the teacher seem more ‘human’,” “So, I looked at the TA as more human,” and “He was more than just a geology professor, he was a kind, caring human being.” Some students also remarked that their teacher was more of a “person” and were included in the current category. For example, students mentioned, “The teacher became a person,” “I thought of him as more of a real person, rather than this almost supernatural human being,” and “I thought of him as more of a person instead of an annoying professor.” This category included statements about perceiving the teacher as more human as a result of a turning point with that teacher.

Taking or Considered Taking Another Course with Instructor

Responses that indicated having taken, currently taking, or considered taking another course with the same instructor were categorized as *taking or considered taking another course with instructor* ($n = 39, 9.9\%$). For example, students mentioned having taken the teacher with whom the turning point occurred for another course (e.g., “I had him for another class, and I did an independent study with him,” “I took one more course from her,” “I took another class by this prof,” “I took another French course from this professor spring quarter of my Freshman year”).

Students also reported that they have considered or planned on enrolling in another class with teacher (e.g., “I do look forward to taking another class

offered by him,” “I am looking to try and take one of her classes next quarter,” “I have asked if there will be any future courses I can take by him”). As can be seen, the focus of this category was on responses indicating having taken or considered taking the teacher for an additional class as a result of the turning point with that teacher.

Summary

The analysis of outcomes of reported relational turning point events between college teachers and students revealed eleven categories. These categories, summarized in Table 5, ranged from changes in perceptions of the teacher with whom the turning point occurred, to changes in perceptions of other teachers and authority figures, to changes in students' confidence. Overall, they represent one way to characterize the outcomes of relational turning point events between students and teachers.

Research Question Four

Research Question Four asked the following: What is the relationship between relational turning point events and outcomes of relational turning point events? Data used to answer this research question consisted of the previously discussed relational turning point event categories and outcomes of turning point events, all of which were derived from participants' responses to open-ended survey questions. To assess which event categories, if any, were reported to result in changes in outcome, I ran six chi-square tests, one for each

relational turning point event category with all possible outcomes.

For two of the outcomes—change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help and change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher—the presence of the outcome was greater than its absence. Specifically, the chi square test indicated that the relationship between relational turning point events and change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 394) = 6.86, p = .009$, and that the relationship between relational turning point events and change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 394) = 9.76, p = .002$.

I conducted another series of analyses using chi-square tests to look for the reported presence or absence of the two outcomes (i.e., change in willingness to approach the teacher/seek help and perceptions of the relationship with teacher) found overall to have been more likely to have occurred than not to have occurred for each type of relational turning point event. The results are reported below and summarized in Table 6.

Instrumental Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between instrumental turning point events and a change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 170) = 1.91, p = .167$. Out of 170 students who reported an instrumental relational turning point with their teacher, 94 (55%) indicated that there was a change in their willingness to approach the

teacher or seek help.

A chi-square test indicated that there was a statistical trend suggesting a relationship between instrumental turning point events and a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher, $\chi^2 (1, N = 170) = 3.39, p = .066$. Out of 170 students who reported an instrumental turning point with their teacher, 97 (57%) indicated that there was a change in their perception of their relationship with the teacher. This result is not statistically significant, however.

Personal Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between personal turning point events and a change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 104) = 16.96, p < .001$. Out of 104 students who reported a personal relational turning point with their teacher, 73 (70%) indicated that there was a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between personal turning point events and a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 104) = 20.35, p < .001$. Out of 104 students who reported a personal relational turning point with their teacher, 75 (72%) indicated that there was a change in their perception of their relationship with the teacher.

Rhetorical Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between rhetorical turning point events and a change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 57) = 2.97, p = .085$. Out of 57 students who reported a rhetorical relational turning point with their teacher, 22 (39%) indicated that there was a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between rhetorical turning point events and a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 57) = 1.42, p = .233$. Out of 57 students who reported an instrumental turning point with their teacher, 24 (42%) indicated that there was a change in their perception of their relationship with the teacher.

Ridicule/Discipline Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between ridicule/discipline turning point events and a change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 31) = .290, p = .590$. Out of 31 students who reported a ridicule/discipline relational turning point with their teacher, 14 (45%) indicated that there was a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between

ridicule/discipline turning point events and a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 31) = 1.58, p = .209$. Out of 31 students who reported a ridicule/discipline turning point with their teacher, 12 (38%) indicated that there was a change in their perception of their relationship with the teacher.

Locational Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between locational turning point events and a change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was moderately significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 25) = 3.24, p = .072$. Out of 25 students who reported a locational relational turning point with their teacher, 17 (68%) indicated that there was a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between locational turning point events and a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 25) = 6.76, p = .009$. Out of 25 students who reported a locational turning point with their teacher, 19 (76%) indicated that there was a change in their perception of their relationship with the teacher.

Other Person Turning Point Events

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between other person turning point events and a change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help was not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 7) = .143, p = .705$. Out of 7 students

who reported an other person relational turning point, 3 (43%) indicated that there was a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help.

The chi-square test indicated that the relationship between other person turning point events and a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher was moderately significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 7) = 3.57, p = .059$. Out of 7 students who reported an other person turning point with their teacher, one (14%) indicated that there was a change in their perception of their relationship with the teacher; therefore, the relationship was negative.

Summary

The findings indicate that in two relational turning point outcomes—change in willingness to approach the teacher or seek help and change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher—the *presence* of the outcome was statistically greater than its absence. In particular, students who reported personal turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help. Additionally, students who reported locational turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help. Further, the students who reported personal, locational, instrumental, and other person turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher. These findings suggest that turning point events have the potential to change a diversity of outcomes. Further, turning

point events appear to influence future interactions between the teacher and student.

Although these findings are limited to only two outcome categories, the actual outcomes of relational turning points may be stronger. Because students in the current study were asked general, open-ended questions (e.g., "Besides any potential changes in your learning or motivation in the course, what else, if anything, changed as a result of this turning point?"), each student did not respond to the entire gamut of possible changes. An elaborated discussion of this issue is explored in the next chapter.

Research Question Five

Research Question Five asked the following: What happens to perceived cognitive learning following relational turning point events? Perceived cognitive learning and learning loss scores were used to answer this research question.

Perceived Cognitive Learning

Two methods of analysis were used to explore possible differences in students' perceived cognitive learning for diverse relational turning points with their professors. First, a repeated measures ANOVA was run with perceived cognitive learning before and after as the within subjects variable. Second, individual repeated measures *t* tests were run to examine differences in perceived cognitive learning scores before and after the turning points.

To begin, a repeated measures ANOVA was performed to detect

significant differences in changes of perceived cognitive learning. The ANOVA on turning point events yielded a significant main effect on perceived cognitive learning, Wilks' lambda = .901, $F(5, 388) = 8.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$.

Because the omnibus test was significant, follow-up tests were conducted using six repeated measures t tests, one for each event type. The results indicated a significant difference in perceived cognitive learning for students reporting instrumental turning point events, $t(169) = -6.317$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .19$. Students' reports of their cognitive learning were significantly higher after instrumental turning point events ($M = 6.51$, $SD = 2.23$) than before the events ($M = 5.44$, $SD = 1.86$).

Follow-up tests also indicated a significant difference in perceived cognitive learning for students reporting personal turning point events, $t(103) = -9.017$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .44$. Students' reports of their cognitive learning were significantly higher after personal turning point events ($M = 7.62$, $SD = 1.35$) than before the events ($M = 6.20$, $SD = 1.73$).

Likewise, the follow-up repeated measures t test indicated a significant difference in perceived cognitive learning for students reporting rhetorical turning point events, $t(56) = -3.676$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .19$. Students' reports of their cognitive learning were significantly higher after rhetorical turning point events ($M = 6.09$, $SD = 2.75$) than before the events ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 2.71$).

Further, the test for perceived cognitive learning for students reporting

ridicule/discipline turning point events also reflected a significant difference, $t(30) = -2.946$, $p = .006$, $\eta^2 = .22$. Students' reports of their cognitive learning were significantly lower after ridicule/discipline turning point events ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 2.56$) than before the events ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 2.25$).

The follow-up repeated measures t test also indicated significant differences in perceived cognitive learning for students reporting locational turning point events, $t(24) = -5.059$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .52$. Students' reports of their cognitive learning were significantly higher after locational turning point events ($M = 7.16$, $SD = 1.91$) than before the events ($M = 6.24$, $SD = 1.90$).

Finally, the results of the follow-up repeated measures t test indicated significant differences in perceived cognitive learning for students reporting other person turning point events, $t(6) = -2.500$, $p = .047$, $\eta^2 = .51$. Students' reports of their cognitive learning were significantly higher after other person turning point events ($M = 6.86$, $SD = 2.12$) than before the events ($M = 5.43$, $SD = 2.07$). See Table 7 for a summary of these results.

Summary. Findings from the repeated measures ANOVA indicate a significant main effect for perceived cognitive learning. Further, repeated measures t tests indicated significant differences in perceived cognitive learning scores before and after turning point events. In particular, perceived cognitive learning scores increased following instrumental, personal, rhetorical, locational, and other person turning point events. Perceived cognitive learning

scores *decreased* following ridicule/discipline turning point events. These results suggest that perceived cognitive learning increases or decreases following relational turning point events, depending on the nature of the event, with decreases occurring with events that were the most negative in nature.

Learning Loss

As above, two methods of analysis were used to explore possible differences in students' learning loss for diverse relational turning points with their teachers. First, a repeated measures ANOVA was run with perceived learning loss before and after as the within subjects variable. Second, individual repeated measures *t* tests were run to examine differences in learning loss scores before and after the turning points.

To begin, a repeated measures ANOVA was performed to detect significant differences in changes of learning loss. The ANOVA on turning point events yielded a significant main effect on learning loss, Wilks' lambda = .958, $F(5, 388) = 3.417$, $p = .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$.

Follow-up tests were conducted using six repeated measures *t* tests, one for each event type. The results indicated a significant difference in learning loss for students reporting instrumental turning point events, $t(169) = -1.967$, $p = .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Students' reports of their learning loss were significantly lower after instrumental turning point events ($M = 1.04$, $SD = 2.00$) than before the events ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 1.79$). Note that lower scores indicate higher learning.

The results also indicated a significant difference in learning loss for students reporting personal turning point events, $t(103) = 3.382, p = .001, \eta^2 = .10$. Students' reports of their learning loss were significantly lower after personal turning point events ($M = .19, SD = .96$) than before the events ($M = .72, SD = 1.66$).

There was not a significant difference in learning loss for students reporting rhetorical turning point events, $t(56) = .326, p = .745, \eta^2 = .01$. Although not significant, students' reports of their learning loss were lower after rhetorical turning point events ($M = 1.37, SD = 2.23$) than before the events ($M = 1.46, SD = 2.41$).

The test for learning loss for students reporting ridicule/discipline turning point events was significant, $t(30) = -2.522, p = .017, \eta^2 = .17$. Students' reports of their learning loss were significantly higher after ridicule/discipline turning point events ($M = 2.81, SD = 2.60$) than before the events ($M = 1.84, SD = 2.53$).

The results of a repeated measures t test indicated moderately significant differences in learning loss for students reporting locational turning point events, $t(24) = 1.89, p = .071, \eta^2 = .13$. Students' reports of their learning loss were lower after locational turning point events ($M = .80, SD = 1.87$) than before the events ($M = 1.16, SD = 1.81$).

The results of a repeated measures t test indicated non-significant

differences in learning loss for students reporting other person turning point events, $t(6) = .548$, $p = .604$, $\eta^2 = .05$. Students' reports of their learning loss were lower, although insignificantly, after other person turning point events ($M = .57$, $SD = 1.51$) than before the events ($M = .71$, $SD = 1.60$). See Table 8 for a summary of these results.

Summary. Findings from the repeated measures ANOVA indicate that there was a significant main effect on learning loss. Further, repeated measures t tests indicated significant differences in learning loss scores before and after turning point events. In particular, learning loss scores decreased significantly following instrumental and personal turning point events, and decreased moderately, but not significantly, in locational turning point events. Learning loss scores *increased* following ridicule/discipline turning point events. These results suggest that learning loss increases or decreases following relational turning point events, depending on the nature of the event, with increases occurring with events that were the most negative in nature.

Research Question Six

Research Question Six asked the following: What happens to students' reported affective learning following relational turning point events? Consistent with the previous analyses, two methods were used to explore possible differences in students' affective learning for diverse relational turning points with their professors. First, a repeated measures ANOVA was run with affective

learning before and after as the within subjects variable. Second, individual repeated measures t tests were run to examine differences in affective learning scores before and after the turning points.

First, a repeated measures ANOVA was performed to detect significant differences in changes of affective learning. The ANOVA on turning point events yielded a significant main effect on affective learning, Wilks' lambda = .899, $F(5, 388) = 8.711$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .10$.

Follow-up tests were conducted using six repeated measures t tests, one for each event type. The results indicated a significant difference in affective learning for students reporting instrumental turning point events, $t(169) = -2.966$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .05$. Students' reports of their affective learning were significantly higher after instrumental turning point events ($M = 4.83$, $SD = 1.40$) than before the events ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .99$).

The results also indicated a significant difference in affective learning for students reporting personal turning point events, $t(103) = -6.278$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .28$. Students' reports of their affective learning were significantly higher after personal turning point events ($M = 5.48$, $SD = 1.30$) than before the events ($M = 4.91$, $SD = 1.08$).

There was no significant difference in affective learning for students reporting rhetorical turning point events, $t(56) = -1.388$, $p = .171$, $\eta^2 = .03$. Students' reports of their affective learning were higher, although not

significantly, after rhetorical turning point events ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.39$) than before the events ($M = 4.49$, $SD = .98$).

The test for affective learning for students reporting ridicule/discipline turning point events reflected a significant difference, $t(30) = 4.225$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .37$. Students' reports of their affective learning were significantly lower after ridicule/discipline turning point events ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.13$) than before the events ($M = 4.65$, $SD = .94$).

Likewise, the results of a repeated measures t test indicated significant differences in affective learning for students reporting locational turning point events, $t(24) = -3.375$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .32$. Students' reports of their affective learning were significantly higher after locational turning point events ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 1.47$) than before the events ($M = 4.69$, $SD = 1.27$).

The results of a repeated measures t test also indicated significant differences in affective learning for students reporting other person turning point events, $t(6) = -3.440$, $p = .014$, $\eta^2 = .66$. Students' reports of their affective learning were significantly higher after other person turning point events ($M = 5.56$, $SD = 1.66$) than before the events ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 1.38$). See Table 9 for a summary of these results.

Summary. Findings from the repeated measures ANOVA indicate a significant main effect on affective learning. Further, repeated measures t tests indicated significant differences in affective learning scores before and after

turning point events. In particular, affective learning scores increased following instrumental, personal, locational, and other person turning point events. Affective learning scores *decreased* following ridicule/discipline turning point events. These results suggest that affective learning increases or decreases following relational turning point events, depending on the nature of the event, with decreases occurring with events that were the most negative in nature.

Research Question Seven

Research Question Seven asked the following: What happens to students' reported motivation following relational turning point events? As before, two methods of analysis were used to explore possible differences in students' motivation for diverse relational turning points with their professors. First, a repeated measures ANOVA was run with student motivation before and after as the within subjects variable. Second, individual repeated measures *t* tests were run to examine differences in student motivation scores before and after the turning points.

As before, a repeated measures ANOVA was performed to detect significant differences in changes of student motivation. The ANOVA on turning point events yielded a significant main effect on student motivation, Wilks' $\lambda = .931$, $F(5, 386) = 5.707$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .07$.

Follow-up tests were conducted using six repeated measures *t* tests, one for each event type. The results indicated a significant difference in motivation

for students reporting instrumental turning point events, $t(169) = -2.575$, $p = .011$, $\eta^2 = .04$. Students' reports of their motivation were significantly higher after instrumental turning point events ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 1.26$) than before the events ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.25$).

The results also indicated a significant difference in motivation for students reporting personal turning point events, $t(103) = -4.615$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$. Students' reports of their motivation were significantly higher after personal turning point events ($M = 5.15$, $SD = 1.02$) than before the events ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.26$).

There was not a significant difference in motivation for students reporting rhetorical turning point events, $t(56) = -1.138$, $p = .260$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Students' reports of their motivation were higher, although not significant, after rhetorical turning point events ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 1.40$) than before the events ($M = 4.45$, $SD = 1.16$).

The test for motivation for students reporting ridicule/discipline turning point events reflected a significant difference, $t(28) = 3.990$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .36$. Students' reports of their motivation were significantly lower after ridicule/discipline turning point events ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.23$) than before the events ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.12$).

Likewise, the results of a repeated measures t test indicated significant differences in motivation for students reporting locational turning point events, t

(24) = -2.819, $p = .010$, $\eta^2 = .25$. Students' reports of their motivation were significantly higher after locational turning point events ($M = 5.14$, $SD = 1.31$) than before the events ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.46$).

The results of a repeated measures t test indicated no significant differences in motivation for students reporting other person turning point events, $t(6) = -1.527$, $p = .178$, $\eta^2 = .28$. Students' reports of their motivation were higher, although not significantly so, after other person turning point events ($M = 5.44$, $SD = 1.16$) than before the events ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 1.76$). See Table 10 for a summary of these results.

Summary. Findings from the repeated measures ANOVA indicate that there was a significant main effect on student motivation. Further, repeated measures t tests indicated significant differences in student motivation scores before and after turning point events. In particular, student motivation scores increased following instrumental, personal, and locational turning point events. Student motivation scores *decreased* following ridicule/discipline turning point events. These results suggest that student motivation increases or decreases following relational turning point events, depending on the nature of the event, with decreases occurring with events that were the most negative in nature.

Table 2

Year in School at Time of Turning Point Event

<i>Year</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
H.S. Student in College Class	2	0.51
First year	131	33.24
Sophomore	137	34.77
Junior	94	23.86
Senior	28	7.11
Graduate Student	1	.25
Not reported	1	.25

Table 3

Characteristics of Participants

Characteristic	Able to recall	Unable to recall	Entire sample
Sex			
Female	<i>n</i> = 280	<i>n</i> = 159	<i>n</i> = 439 (69.2 %)
Male	<i>n</i> = 113	<i>n</i> = 81	<i>n</i> = 194 (30.6 %)
Not reported	<i>n</i> = 1	<i>n</i> = 0	<i>n</i> = 1 (00.2 %)
Age			
16	<i>n</i> = 2	<i>n</i> = 0	<i>n</i> = 2 (00.3 %)
18	<i>n</i> = 31	<i>n</i> = 18	<i>n</i> = 49 (07.7 %)
19	<i>n</i> = 76	<i>n</i> = 131	<i>n</i> = 137 (21.6 %)
20	<i>n</i> = 121	<i>n</i> = 75	<i>n</i> = 196 (30.9 %)
21	<i>n</i> = 91	<i>n</i> = 48	<i>n</i> = 139 (21.9 %)
22	<i>n</i> = 49	<i>n</i> = 18	<i>n</i> = 67 (10.6 %)
23	<i>n</i> = 9	<i>n</i> = 9	<i>n</i> = 18 (02.8 %)
24-49	<i>n</i> = 14	<i>n</i> = 12	<i>n</i> = 26 (04.1 %)
Not reported	<i>n</i> = 1	<i>n</i> = 0	<i>n</i> = 1 (00.2 %)
			<i>Mean</i> = 20.49
			<i>SD</i> = 2.57
Race/Ethnicity			
African American or Black	<i>n</i> = 9	<i>n</i> = 5	<i>n</i> = 14 (02.2 %)
American Indian or Alaska Native	<i>n</i> = 2	<i>n</i> = 2	<i>n</i> = 4 (00.6 %)
Asian	<i>n</i> = 84	<i>n</i> = 80	<i>n</i> = 164 (25.9 %)
Hispanic or Latino	<i>n</i> = 20	<i>n</i> = 7	<i>n</i> = 27 (04.3 %)
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	<i>n</i> = 8	<i>n</i> = 12	<i>n</i> = 20 (03.2 %)
White, not of Hispanic origin	<i>n</i> = 254	<i>n</i> = 117	<i>n</i> = 371 (58.5 %)
Mixed race	<i>n</i> = 14	<i>n</i> = 13	<i>n</i> = 27 (04.3 %)
Middle Eastern	<i>n</i> = 2	<i>n</i> = 4	<i>n</i> = 6 (00.9 %)
Not reported	<i>n</i> = 1	<i>n</i> = 0	<i>n</i> = 1 (00.2 %)
Year in School			
First year	<i>n</i> = 42	<i>n</i> = 45	<i>n</i> = 87 (13.7 %)
Sophomore	<i>n</i> = 137	<i>n</i> = 84	<i>n</i> = 221 (34.9 %)
Junior	<i>n</i> = 130	<i>n</i> = 75	<i>n</i> = 205 (32.3 %)
Senior	<i>n</i> = 79	<i>n</i> = 35	<i>n</i> = 114 (18.0 %)
Graduate Student	<i>n</i> = 2	<i>n</i> = 0	<i>n</i> = 2 (00.3 %)
Not reported	<i>n</i> = 4	<i>n</i> = 1	<i>n</i> = 5 (00.8 %)

Table 4

<i>Turning Point Events</i>	
Turning Point Event	Frequency
<i>Instrumental</i>	<i>n</i> = 170 (43.1%)
Discussion of grade	<i>n</i> = 21 (05.3%)
Discussion of course assignment, course content, course more generally	<i>n</i> = 111 (28.2%)
Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships	<i>n</i> = 26 (06.6%)
Discussion of course policy/rule	<i>n</i> = 12 (03.0%)
<i>Personal</i>	<i>n</i> = 104 (26.4%)
Discussion of coursework and personal information	<i>n</i> = 46 (11.7%)
Discussion of common interest	<i>n</i> = 15 (03.8%)
Compliment	<i>n</i> = 21 (05.3%)
Invitation	<i>n</i> = 8 (02.0%)
Name used	<i>n</i> = 14 (03.6%)
<i>Rhetorical</i>	<i>n</i> = 57 (14.5%)
Lecture topic or claim	<i>n</i> = 31 (07.9%)
Teaching style	<i>n</i> = 26 (06.6%)
<i>Ridicule/Discipline</i>	<i>n</i> = 31 (07.9%)
<i>Locational</i>	<i>n</i> = 25 (06.3%)
<i>Other Person</i>	<i>n</i> = 7 (01.8%)

Table 5

<i>Outcomes of Turning Points</i>	
Outcome of Turning Point Event	Frequency/ Presence
Change in respect for teacher	<i>n</i> = 100 (25.4%)
Change in trust, or perceptions of credibility/competence of teacher	<i>n</i> = 80 (20.3%)
Change in perceptions of the relationship with teacher	<i>n</i> = 228 (57.9%)
Change in own willingness to approach teacher or seek help	<i>n</i> = 223 (56.6%)
Change in own willingness to approach other teachers or authority figures; change in how to approach other teachers or authority figures	<i>n</i> = 74 (18.8%)
Change in perceptions of other teachers	<i>n</i> = 86 (21.8%)
Change or contemplated/ing a change in decisions about major or minor, aspirations in field of interest, or attending graduate/law school	<i>n</i> = 69 (17.5%)
Change in desire/ability to ask teacher for a letter of recommendation or professional reference, or would consider asking for one	<i>n</i> = 69 (17.5%)
Change in own confidence in course, subject, academics in general, abilities, or self	<i>n</i> = 69 (17.5%)
Change in student's humanization of teacher	<i>n</i> = 30 (7.6%)
Taking another course <i>with instructor</i> or considered doing so	<i>n</i> = 39 (9.9%)

Table 6

Relationships between Turning Point Events and Outcomes

Categories	Change in Willingness to Approach the Teacher or Seek Help					Change in Perceptions of the Relationship with the Teacher				
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>n</i>	% of <i>n</i> that indicated a change	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>n</i>	% of <i>n</i> that indicated a change	<i>p</i>
<i>Instrumental</i>	1.91	1	170	55	= .167	3.39	1	170	57	= .066
<i>Personal</i>	16.96	1	104	70	< .001	20.35	1	104	72	< .001
<i>Rhetorical</i>	2.97	1	57	39	= .085	1.42	1	57	42	= .233
<i>Ridicule/discipline</i>	.290	1	31	45	= .590	1.58	1	31	38	= .209
<i>Locational</i>	3.24	1	25	68	= .072	6.76	1	25	76	= .009
<i>Other Person</i>	.143	1	7	43	= .705	3.57	1	7	14	= .059

Table 7

Perceived Cognitive Learning Before and After Turning Point Events

Categories	Subcategory	Before Turning Point		After Turning Point		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>				
<i>Instrumental</i>		5.44	1.86	6.51	2.23	-6.317	169	< .001*	.19
	Discussion of grade	5.62	1.80	5.05	2.36	1.101	20	= .284	.06
	Discussion of course assignment, course content, course	5.33	1.89	6.76	2.06	-7.055	110	< .001*	.31
	Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships	6.46	1.27	7.65	1.16	-4.297	25	< .001*	.43
	Discussion of course policy/rule	3.92	1.56	4.33	2.81	-.508	11	= .622	.02
<i>Personal</i>		6.20	1.73	7.62	1.35	-9.017	103	< .001*	.44
	Discussion of coursework and personal information	5.89	2.00	7.54	1.53	-6.101	45	< .001*	.45
	Discussion of common interest	6.40	1.06	7.47	1.13	-5.172	14	< .001*	.66
	Compliment	6.67	1.68	7.91	1.18	-3.595	20	= .002*	.39
	Invitation	6.13	2.17	7.63	1.51	-3.550	7	= .009*	.64
	Name used	6.36	1.01	7.57	1.16	-2.880	13	= .013*	.40
<i>Rhetorical</i>		4.74	2.71	6.09	2.75	-3.676	56	= .001*	.19
	Lecture topic/claim	5.03	2.55	5.32	2.93	-.769	30	= .448	.02
	Teaching style	4.38	2.90	7.00	2.26	-4.474	25	< .001*	.44
<i>Ridicule/ discipline</i>		5.55	2.25	4.26	2.56	-2.946	30	= .006*	.22
<i>Locational</i>		6.24	1.90	7.16	1.91	-5.059	24	< .001*	.52
<i>Other Person</i>		5.43	2.07	6.86	2.12	-2.500	6	= .047*	.51

Note: * indicates a significant difference.

Table 8

Learning Loss Before and After Turning Point Events

Categories	Subcategory	Before Turning Point		After Turning Point		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>				
<i>Instrumental</i>		1.33	1.79	1.04	2.00	-1.967	169	= .05*	.02
	Discussion of grade	1.81	1.99	2.81	2.38	-1.745	20	= .096	.13
	Discussion of course assignment, course content, course	1.30	1.70	.89	1.79	2.406	110	= .018*	.05
	Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships	.58	1.36	-.039	1.40	2.361	25	= .026*	.18
	Discussion of course policy/rule	2.42	2.39	1.67	2.39	1.267	11	= .231	.13
<i>Personal</i>		.72	1.66	.19	.96	3.382	103	= .001*	.10
	Discussion of coursework and personal information	.93	1.82	.30	.84	2.368	45	= .022*	.11
	Discussion of common interest	.20	1.15	.00	.53	1.000	14	= .334	.07
	Compliment	.76	1.41	.00	1.14	2.129	20	= .046*	.19
	Invitation	1.38	2.33	.63	.92	1.342	7	= .222	.21
	Name used	.14	1.41	.07	1.33	.179	13	= .861	.01
<i>Rhetorical</i>		1.46	2.41	1.37	2.23	.326	56	= .745	.01
	Lecture topic/claim	1.39	2.53	1.55	2.47	-.543	30	= .591	.01
	Teaching style	1.54	2.32	1.15	1.91	.817	25	= .422	.03
<i>Ridicule/discipline</i>		1.84	2.53	2.81	2.60	-2.522	30	= .017*	.17
<i>Locational</i>		1.16	1.82	.80	1.87	1.89	24	= .071	.13
<i>Other Person</i>		.71	1.60	.57	1.51	.548	6	= .604	.05

Note: * indicates a significant difference.

Table 9

Affective Learning Before and After Turning Point Events

Categories	Subcategory	Before Turning Point		After Turning Point		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>				
<i>Instrumental</i>		4.51	.99	4.83	1.40	-2.966	169	= .003*	.05
	Discussion of grade	4.55	1.04	4.22	1.56	.782	20	= .443	.03
	Discussion of course assignment, course content, course	4.46	.95	4.88	1.36	-3.509	110	= .001*	.10
	Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships	4.74	1.13	5.26	1.17	-2.157	25	= .041*	.16
	Discussion of course policy/rule	4.49	.92	4.50	1.63	-0.019	11	= .985	.01
<i>Personal</i>		4.91	1.08	5.48	1.30	-6.278	103	< .001*	.28
	Discussion of coursework and personal information	4.86	1.03	5.62	1.28	-5.966	45	< .001*	.44
	Discussion of common interest	4.81	1.04	5.58	1.27	-2.924	14	= .011*	.38
	Compliment	5.40	1.15	5.63	1.33	-1.407	20	= .175	.09
	Invitation	4.56	.967	4.88	1.35	-1.803	7	= .114	.32
	Name used	4.63	1.10	5.03	1.30	-1.144	13	= .273	.09
<i>Rhetorical</i>		4.49	.98	4.74	1.39	-1.388	56	= .171	.03
	Lecture topic/claim	4.50	.86	4.45	1.41	.221	30	= .827	.01
	Teaching style	4.48	1.13	5.08	1.31	-2.282	25	= .031*	.17
<i>Ridicule/discipline</i>		4.65	.94	3.66	1.13	4.225	30	< .001*	.37
<i>Locational</i>		4.69	1.27	5.35	1.47	-3.375	24	= .003*	.32
<i>Other Person</i>		4.49	1.38	5.56	1.66	-3.440	6	= .014*	.66

Note: * indicates a significant difference.

Table 10

Student Motivation Before and After Turning Point Events

Categories	Subcategory	Before Turning Point		After Turning Point		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>				
<i>Instrumental</i>		4.32	1.25	4.63	1.26	-2.575	169	= .011*	.04
	Discussion of grade	4.63	1.18	3.84	1.37	1.610	20	= .123	.11
	Discussion of course assignment, course content, course	4.23	1.24	4.73	1.16	-3.837	110	< .001*	.12
	Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships	4.69	1.15	5.18	.96	-1.930	25	= .065	.13
	Discussion of course policy/rule	3.81	1.54	3.99	1.70	-.255	11	= .804	.01
<i>Personal</i>		4.65	1.26	5.15	1.02	-4.615	103	< .001*	.17
	Discussion of coursework and personal information	4.37	1.37	5.14	1.00	-4.140	45	< .001*	.28
	Discussion of common interest	4.31	.94	4.97	.89	-3.069	14	= .008*	.40
	Compliment	5.39	1.24	5.51	.95	-.712	20	= .484	.03
	Invitation	4.46	1.15	4.98	1.14	-2.123	7	= .071	.39
	Name used	4.90	.87	4.91	1.20	-.055	13	= .957	.01
<i>Rhetorical</i>		4.45	1.16	4.71	1.40	-1.138	56	= .260	.02
	Lecture topic/claim	4.58	.929	4.43	1.44	.550	30	= .586	.01
	Teaching style	4.30	1.39	5.04	1.30	-1.912	25	= .067	.13
<i>Ridicule/discipline</i>		4.59	1.12	3.51	1.23	3.990	28	< .001*	.36
<i>Locational</i>		4.66	1.46	5.14	1.31	-2.819	24	= .010*	.25
<i>Other Person</i>		4.76	1.76	5.44	1.16	-1.527	6	= .178	.28

Note: * indicates a significant difference.

Chapter 4:

Discussion

In this dissertation, I have argued that the teaching effectiveness literature reflects the importance of relational dimensions present in teacher-student interactions. That is, although the teacher-student relationship is rarely recognized explicitly in this literature, researchers often examine processes that are fundamental to relationships (e.g., immediacy, self-disclosure). Further, using a relational frame contextualizes instructional processes into the relationships within which those processes occur and offers a lens for looking at and understanding those processes. It also suggests new processes to examine. In particular, I investigate a particularly salient factor identified as occurring in relationships—relational turning points—and explore how they appear to affect instructional outcomes.

This chapter interprets the results reported in Chapter Three. The results extend and offer new insight into both the literature on relational turning points and the larger body of teacher-effectiveness literature. This chapter begins with a general description of the findings of the current study. I then offer a discussion of specific conclusions about relational turning points in the college teacher-student relationship, relational turning points in the academic context, and relational turning points more broadly. A more general discussion of how these results contribute to the teacher-effectiveness literature as well as the

usefulness of a relational frame follows. The limitations of this study and questions to ask in future research are both incorporated within this discussion and developed more fully at the end of this chapter.

Description of Findings

The current study found that 62% ($n = 394$) of students were able to recall a relational turning point with a previous college teacher. Analysis of participants' responses yielded six meta-level categories of turning point events.

Analysis of participants' responses also yielded 11 categories of outcomes of relational turning point events. The findings revealed that 80% of the reported events were perceived as positive, and 20% were judged to be negative.

The findings of the current study also revealed that students who reported personal and locational turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in their willingness to approach the teacher or seek help. Further, students who reported personal, locational, instrumental, and other person turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher.

The current study also examined what happens to instructional outcomes (i.e., cognitive learning, affective learning, student motivation) following turning point events. Students who reported instrumental, personal, and locational turning point events also reported increased cognitive learning, affective

learning, and student motivation. Additionally, students who reported ridicule/discipline turning point events reported decreased cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation. Collectively, these results offer a large set of findings to help in our understanding of relational turning points students experience in their relationships with their teachers, as well as how turning points contribute to instructional outcomes.

Contributions to the Relational Turning Point Literature

The findings from this study contribute to our understanding of relational turning points in a variety of academic and non-academic contexts, relational turning points more broadly, teaching effectiveness, and using a relational frame. Specifically, the current study expands our understanding of relational turning points in teacher-student relationships, relational turning points in the academic context, and the nature of relational turning points in all contexts.

Relational Turning Points in Teacher-Student Relationships

Prior to the current investigation, only one published study (O'Neill & Todd-Mancillas, 1992) examined relational turning points in college teacher-student relationships. The authors found two macro-categories of turning points (i.e., perception of instructional communication competence and character and perception of instructor's management style), and they learned that turning points affect students' enthusiasm. Given its larger scope, the current study extends O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's research, and a number of conclusions

are offered. In particular, the following conclusions are discussed: Relational turning points are a feature of teacher-student relationships; relational turning point events appear to be positive or negative experiences; relational turning point events are dynamic; and turning point events lead to relational change and other types of change.

Relational turning point events are a feature of teacher-student relationships. Similar to O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's (1992) findings, the students in the current study were "able to readily identify" relational turning point events with previous college teachers. Sixty-two percent ($n = 394$) of participants in the present investigation reported that they were able to recall a turning point event with a teacher. It appears that a significant number of students experience relational turning point events with their teachers.

These turning points of course, differ in nature. The turning point events discovered in the current study include *instrumental* (discussion of grade; discussion of course assignment, course content, course more generally; discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships; discussion of course policy/rule), *personal* (discussion of coursework and personal information; discussion of common interest; compliment; invitation; name used), *rhetorical* (lecture topic or claim; teaching style), *ridicule/discipline*, *locational*, and *other person*.

Relational turning point events appear to be positive or negative experiences. In the current study, participants were asked to rate their reported turning point event using six items pertaining to valence (e.g., good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant). The results indicate that 79.6% ($n = 292$) of relational turning points were reported as positive and 20.4% ($n = 75$) whereas reported as negative. Similarly, results from previous research (O'Neill & Todd-Mancillas, 1992) demonstrate that students perceive turning points with their teachers as positive or negative. Baxter and Bullis (1986) likewise report that, "participants retrospectively cast their relationship development as a series of positive and negative turning points" (p. 490). Relational turning point events, then, appear to be positive or negative experiences, and this was evidenced again in the current study.

A closer examination of these turning point events provides further understanding of which types are deemed positive and which types are deemed negative, however. In the current study, turning point events reported as positive include discussions of a course assignments, course content, the course more generally, college, majors, independent study options, and internships. Personal turning point events, overall, were also deemed positive, including discussions of coursework and personal information, talking about common interests, giving or receiving an invitation, and having one's name used.

Turning point events involving teaching style, location, and other persons were also reported as positive. Although they did not test for significant differences, O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas (1992) argue that positive turning point events involved the teacher demonstrating expert knowledge, establishing a positive classroom learning environment (e.g., using students' names, providing support), demonstrating skill in administering the course (e.g., offering extra office hours), anticipating and responding to students' needs and viewpoints, and providing constructive feedback on coursework. Clearly, positive turning point events come in many forms; however, both studies illuminate that they often involve attending to students' interests and needs.

On the other hand, many students in the current study reported that turning point events including discussions of grades and course policies were negative events. Both O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's (1992) and the current study point toward the conclusion that negative relational turning points may occur in teacher-student relationships because of issues surrounding grades. More research is needed to examine this possibility, however.

O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas also assert that negative turning point events involved instances in which an instructor lacked knowledge on a subject matter, was unable to develop appropriate grading procedures, and failed to meet a professional standard of behavior, develop a learning environment conducive to student participation, fulfill course administration duties (e.g., was late to class,

unavailable during office hours), and anticipate and respond to students' personal needs or viewpoints. In the current study, students regarded ridicule or discipline turning point events as negative. Negative turning point events, then, appear to come in a variety of forms as well. In particular, teachers failing to meet what O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas (1992) regard as "professional standard[s] of behavior" (p. 284), were a part of negative relational turning point events reported by students in both studies.

Relational turning point events, or at least those that came to mind quickly for the respondents, are deemed as either very positive or very negative by students. Both positive and negative turning point events come in various forms, which intimates their dynamic and multifaceted nature. Generally, positive turning points entail acting on students interests and needs, whereas negative turning points frequently involve failing to meet students' needs or expectations.

Relational turning point events are dynamic. In their analysis of relational turning point events, O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas (1992) advance two macro-categories and six sub-categories of turning point events: *perception of instructional communication competence and character* (perceived competence and character) and *perception of instructor's management style* (learning climate, course administration style, rhetorical sensitivity, and feedback). The current study extends their work by providing six macro-categories, some of

which are divided into sub-categories: *instrumental* (discussion of grade; discussion of course assignment, course content, course more generally; discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships; discussion of course policy/rule), *personal* (discussion of coursework and personal information; discussion of common interest; compliment; invitation; name used), *rhetorical* (lecture topic or claim; teaching style), *ridicule/discipline*, *locational*, and *other person*.

Upon a closer examination, there are notable similarities and differences between these two typologies of turning point events. Both studies address relational turning point events based on the use of a student's name, a course policy or course administration style, grading, and the location at which the turning point event occurred. When comparing these studies, three types of turning points appear to align more closely, however.

In particular, being ridiculed or disciplined by a teacher was a common theme in both studies. Although they do not provide a separate category for this type of turning point event, O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas (1992) refer to issues of ridicule in their sub-categories of *character* (e.g., students commented that their professor was "condescending to students," "yelled at the students," and "made derogatory remarks") and *rhetorical sensitivity* (e.g., one student reported that a teacher stated, "Didn't you listen to me during lecture when I assigned the project?"). Similar types of turning point events were found in the current study

and subsequently labeled *ridicule/discipline*. For some students, then, being ridiculed by their teacher appears to change their relationship.

Another relational turning point event common in both studies concerned the teacher's style. O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's (1992) sub-categories of *perceived competence* and *learning climate*, as well as the current study's subcategory *teaching style*, address the manner by which the teacher engaged or failed to engage the student. For example, both studies discuss relational turning point events based on the teacher using humor, being enthusiastic about their teaching, and presenting lectures that were difficult to follow. A teacher's style, then, also appears to facilitate relational turning points for some students.

Finally, both studies found that one-on-one interactions in which the student and teacher engaged in what students described as a more "personal interaction" facilitated a relational turning point. O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's (1992) sub-category *rhetorical sensitivity*, in-part, addressed getting to know teachers on a more personal level, as well as one-on-one interactions whereby teachers were described as understanding, helpful, receptive, and friendly. In the current study, the macro-category, *personal*, entailed the sharing of private, personal information, or the presence of a specific, approach/affinity seeking behavior or statement (e.g., compliment, invitation, name used). One-on-one interactions that involved sharing personal information and/or when the teacher

is perceived as receptive appear to facilitate relational turning points for students. The commonalities between O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's and the current study demonstrate that a diverse range of events work to facilitate relational turning points for students.

Although previous research, specifically O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's 1992 study, and the current investigation have important crossover, the differences between the two also help advance our understanding of relational turning points in college teacher-student relationships. Perhaps the most salient difference is that O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's typology of turning point events focuses on students' judgments *of the professor* (e.g., perception of instructional communication competence and character, perception of instructor's management style), whereas the typology advanced in the current study focuses on perceptions *of events* (e.g., discussion of common interests).

In previous research, turning points events have been conceptualized broadly as *intrapersonal/normative* (individual evaluates him or herself, the partner, or relationship against an ideal or standard), *dyadic* (occurs in interaction with another), *social network* (individual from either or both partner's social network affects the relationship), or *circumstantial* (an event beyond the partners' control affects the relationship) (Surra & Huston, 1987). Similarly, the typology advanced in the current study offers a description of turning point events that involve dyadic (e.g., labeled *instrumental, personal,*

ridicule/discipline), social network (e.g., labeled *other person*), and circumstantial (e.g., labeled *locational*) turning point events. The general typology for turning point events asserted by Surra and Huston (1987) is therefore represented effectively in the typology advanced in the current study aimed at the teacher-student relationship.

Bullis et al. (1993) intimate that a typology of turning point events in any context should account for the entire spectrum of events. The typology of relational turning point events articulated in the current study is descriptive of actual events and accounts for a wide range of behaviors enacted in the teacher-student context. The macro-categories in the current study clearly describe the nature of turning point events in adjective form (e.g., instrumental, personal, rhetorical), and the sub-categories offer a specific classification of events. The descriptive focus on types of events in the current study versus perceptions more generally offers a richer account of the many interactions that teachers and students engage. The typology advanced here also recognizes the diverse contexts in which teachers and students interact (e.g., *rhetorical* or during lecture, *personal* which is often one-on-one).

The current study elucidates that relational turning point events in college teacher-student relationships are dynamic. First, a diverse range of events can facilitate turning points, including using of a student's name, discussing a course policy, grading, ridiculing, sharing personal information, or interacting in

a new environment, for example. Second, turning point events can occur in virtually any context of interaction (e.g., during a fieldtrip, lecture, office hours, walking around campus, in public, in a hallway). Finally, turning point events appear come in a number of types in the teacher-student context: Dyadic, social network, and circumstantial. Overall, then, relational turning point events are dynamic in that nearly any event may work as a turning point for a student, turning points can occur in all communication contexts, and can vary in type.

Turning point events are perceived to lead to relational change and to other types of change. Sixty-two percent of participants in the current study indicated that they not only experienced a turning point event with a teacher, but that the turning point event changed their relationship with their teacher. Participants in the current study were prompted to explain how their relationship with their teacher changed. For example, students reported that the turning point event changed their perceptions of the relationship with the teacher (i.e., change in relationship label, adjectives used to describe the relationship, relationship equality), respect for the teacher, trust or perceptions of credibility/competence of teacher, willingness to approach the teacher or seek help, and chances of taking another course with instructor.

Upon further analysis, the current study found that personal and locational turning point events appeared more likely than not to shift students' willingness to approach their teacher or seek help and the student's perception

of their relationship with their teacher. Further, students who reported instrumental and other person turning point events were more likely than not to report a change in perceptions of the relationship with the teacher. The actual outcomes of relational turning points may be stronger, however. Students in the current study were asked general, open-ended questions about the changes, and as a result each student did not respond to the entire gamut of possible changes. Future studies might consider using closed-ended items when asking students to report on the wide-ranging effects of relational turning points.

The current investigation not only elucidates that turning point events change students' perceptions of the relationship with their teacher, but that communication between the student and teacher is reported to change after the turning point. For example, students indicated that, as a result of the turning point, they would be more or less willing to approach their teacher, seek help, or take another class with the teacher. The relational turning point for many students either facilitated a continued relationship (e.g., "This event changed my relationship with my TA... I felt as though I could come up to my TA anytime and ask her questions") or the termination their relationship (e.g., "This turning point completely changed our relationship... she avoids me when I see her... I do the same"). Turning points between teachers and students, then, can affect their relationship quite dramatically (i.e., can enhance or terminate the

relationship) and in various ways (i.e., willingness to communicate, perceptions of trust, respect for the other).

Turning point events, however, also appear to have wider ranging effects than changing the relationship in which the turning point occurred. Students in the current study reported changes in perceptions of and future actions toward *other teachers* as a result of the turning point their teacher. For example, students reported a change in their perceptions of other teachers more generally (i.e., their capabilities, being more or less human), willingness to approach other teachers or authority figures, and how to approach other teachers or authority figures. Relational turning points in the teacher-student context have dynamic, wide-reaching effects.

Even more powerful, perhaps, is the finding that many students who reported a relational turning point also indicated resulting changes in their own sense of self, confidence, and aspirations. In particular, students reported changes or having contemplated changes in decisions about a major or minor, aspirations in field of interest, attending graduate or law school, and confidence in a course, subject, academics in general, abilities, or oneself. These results corroborate with and extend O'Neill and Todd-Mancillas's (1992) study, which reports that relational turning points are closely connected to student dropout rates and enthusiasm in the course. Specifically, they sound that turning points

have strong reported effects on students' education- and career-related decisions and perceptions of self.

In addition to changing relationships with their teachers, perceptions of and actions toward other teachers and authority figures, and sense of self, confidence, and aspirations, turning point events also appear to affect instructional outcomes. In this study, the results indicate that relational turning point events appear to affect students' cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation. More specifically, students who reported instrumental, personal, and locational turning point events also reported increased cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation. Further, students who reported ridicule/discipline turning point events reported decreased cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation.

Summary. The above discussion argues that relational turning point events are a feature of teacher-student relationships; relational turning point events appear to be positive or negative experiences; relational turning point events are dynamic; and turning point events lead to relational change and other types of change. These conclusions advance our understanding of relational turning points in college teacher-student relationships and confirm the assertion that turning point events can have a strong impact for students. The findings from the current study, however, also contribute to understanding of relational turning points in academic relationships more broadly as well.

Relational Turning Points in Academic Relationships

Within the academic context, previous studies have examined turning points in chair-faculty (Barge & Musambira, 1992) and faculty-graduate student relationships (Bullis & Bach, 1989a, 1989b). Across all of these relational contexts—chair-faculty, faculty-graduate student, and teacher-student—five similarities in turning points events arise. These similarities—evaluation, support or disclosure of personal information, outside interaction, recognition, and advising—advance our understanding of relational turning points in the academic context.

In all three academic contexts studied, relational turning points arise concerning *evaluation*. In chair-faculty relationships, for example, the most common type of relational turning point revolved around performance evaluation (Barge & Musambira, 1992) in which department chairs conducted formal or informal performance evaluations and made promotion and tenure decisions. Evaluation also worked as a relational turning point in faculty-graduate student relationships (Bullis & Bach, 1989b). Turning points for some graduate students, for example, occurred when they met with faculty members to discuss grades.

Similarly, students in the current study reported turning points occurring as a result of discussing a grade with a teacher or a course policy or rule. Although differing depending on relationship type, it appears that the evaluative

nature of certain interactions in the academic environment facilitates relational turning points. Evaluation is also a characteristic that distinguishes relational turning point events in the academic context from other contexts, an idea which is explored further later in this chapter.

Another type of relational turning point identified across each academic relational context concerns the *sharing of personal information and/or giving of support*. For example, turning point events reported include faculty members discussing personal problems with the department chair (Barge & Musambira, 1992), graduate students receiving support beyond that was expected (Bullis & Bach, 1989b), and in the current study, students and teachers discussing personal information.

Similarly, *relational clashes* also are prevalent in each of these three contexts. Faculty remarked on relational turning points with chairs as the result of confrontations (e.g., about tenure) and job interferences (e.g., infringing on workplace rights) (Barge & Musambira, 1992). Graduate students reported relational turning points stemming from being reprimanded or having their ideas overturned by a faculty member (Bullis & Bach, 1989b). In the current study, some undergraduates reported relational turning points that involved being ridiculed or disciplined by their teachers. Interactants in the academic context, then, may experience relational turning points based on the sharing of personal information, giving and receiving support, and relational clashes.

Chair-faculty relationships, faculty-graduate student relationships, and teacher-undergraduate student relationships also experience relational turning points prompted by “outside interaction” (Barge & Musambira, 1992) or the location where interaction occurs. In Bullis and Bach’s (1989b) examination of faculty-graduate student relationships, graduate students reported turning point events occurring “beyond the confines of the professional realm” (e.g., playing racquetball or interacting at a party with a faculty member). Similarly, Barge and Musambira (1992) report “outside interaction” as a common relational turning point event between chairs and faculty, referring to activities outside the workplace (e.g., dinner, travel to conventions). The theme of locational turning points events, which were based on being in a different location or environment than normal with a teacher (e.g., field trip, seeing and talking with teacher in public), also arose in the current study. Place or location, then, may facilitate relational turning points in the academic context.

Another noteworthy theme found with regard to relational turning points in the academic context concerns *recognition*. In their analysis of relational turning points in chair-faculty relationships, Barge and Musambira (1992) found “recognition,” which refers to any event where the chair expressed confidence in the abilities of the faculty member, to be a common relational turning point. Graduate students reported that academic recognition (e.g., faculty member recognizing the student’s worth, or vice versa) was also a relational turning

point event with their professors. In the current study, undergraduates likewise reported on relational turning points concerning recognition, including receiving a compliment, inviting their teacher or being invited to an event, or having their name used by their teacher. For many people, being recognized appears to be desired in the academic context, and, more specifically, works as a relational turning point.

Findings from the current study on teacher-student relationships, as well as previous results regarding faculty-graduate student relationships (Bullis & Bach, 1989b), demonstrate that *advising* can prompt a turning point. Graduate students, for example, mentioned relational turning points occurring as a result of seeking and receiving “advice regarding their courses of study, department requirements, proposed projects, grades, and specific courses” (Bullis & Bach, 1989b, p. 207).

Similarly, the most common relational turning point events (43.1%) identified in the current study were instrumental in nature and often involved advice giving about a course assignment, course content, course policies or rules, the course more generally, college, majors, independent studies, and/or internships. Although other relational turning points instrumental in nature arose in chair-faculty relationships (e.g., providing research support) (Barge & Musambira, 1992), advising was not identified as a common relational turning point in chair-faculty relationships. This finding highlights the advisor-advisee

roles inherent in the teacher-student relationship both at the undergraduate and graduate levels, and that relational turning points are a salient feature of these relationships.

To date, scholars have not articulated relational turning point events that occur *across* academic relational contexts. In chair-faculty, faculty-graduate student, and teacher-student relationships, overall, five similarities in turning points events are evident. These similarities—evaluation, support or disclosure of personal information, outside interaction, recognition, and advising—advance our understanding of relational turning points in the academic context. They also help explain that relationships in the academic context have *unique content* (Wood, 2000). In other words, there are particulates of the academic relationship that make it unique, similar to, and different from relationships in other contexts.

These findings also point to the idea that academic culture is marked by particular processes (i.e., evaluation, recognition, advising) and, more specifically, that these processes may be crucial in the development of relationships in this context. Future research might examine relational turning points in other academic relationships (e.g., staff-faculty, chair-undergraduate student, staff-graduate and undergraduate student, and graduate student-undergraduate student relationships) to assess how relational turning points differ depending on department culture and/or academic culture more generally.

Relational Turning Point Literature

In addition to contributing to and extending the relational turning point literature in the teacher-student and academic context, the current study also extends the relational turning point literature more generally. In particular, it provides impetus to examine under-studied relationships, argues that the study of relational turning points allows for the understanding of the larger context in which those relationships operate, validates and extends Surra and Huston's (1987) four broad categories of turning points, and raises important questions about the possible wide-ranging impact of relational turning points.

Studies of relational turning points have focused predominantly on romantic relationships (e.g., Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Baxter & Montgomery, 1996; Bolton; 1961; Bullis, Clark, & Sline, 1993; Conville, 1988; Graham, 1997; Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald, & Cate, 1981; Levinger, 1983; Lloyd & Cate, 1985; Masheter & Harris, 1986; Pawlowski, 1998; Surra, 1987) and some studies have examined relational turning points in family relationships (Golish, 2000) and in friendship (Johnson, Wittenberg, Haigh, Wigley, Becker, Brown, & Craig, 2004; Johnson, Wittenberg, Villagran, Mazur, & Villagran, 2003). The current study, however, expands the relational contexts often examined and calls attention to the argument that relational turning points occur in many types of relationships.

Examining relational turning points in specific types of relationships (i.e., teacher-student, friendship) provides insight, not only into those relationships, but also into the larger context in which those relationships operate.

Researchers might consider taking a similar approach in future studies. For example, an analysis of relational turning points in doctor-patient relationships may allow us to better understand communication and/or relationships in the healthcare context. Such an analysis may shed light on features, processes, or challenges experienced within this context.

In addition to expanding the boundaries of types of relationships studied, the current study both validates and extends Surra and Huston's (1987) four broad categories of turning points. Each of these types of turning points— intrapersonal/normative (e.g., "I recall being surprised because no other professor had gone out of his/her way to offer help outside the classroom before"), dyadic (e.g., "We began to talk about authors and found a common interest in Faulkner"), social network (e.g., "The professor was sent out of the room and a lady from some sort of office came in and we discussed the good and bad teaching techniques used by our professor"), and circumstantial (e.g., "I was at the train station and went into the bathroom to wash my hands. Next to me was one of my professors from the previous quarter. I had to say hello.")— were evident in the current study's data. Surra and Huston's categories of

turning point events, then, apply to the college teacher-student relationship as well.

Although Surra and Huston's (1987) four-part conceptualization of turning points is evident in college teacher-student relationships, it does not fully capture the entire gamut of turning points in this context, and therefore, may not be entirely explanative for other contexts as well. In particular, rhetorical turning point events (teacher-directed behaviors or statements intended for the entire class) do not fit within Surra and Huston's conceptualization of turning points. Specifically, their conceptualization does not account for turning points that occur as a result of a behavior or statement made by one individual to two or more individuals and that creates relational change.

Rhetorical turning point events, however, may occur in relational contexts other than the teacher-student relationship. For example, in a group of friends having lunch together, one friend might make a comment directed to the entire group that works as a turning point for one of multiple of the friends in the group (e.g., "I am much happier with the president's decisions these days!"). Similarly, in a meeting with her employees, a manager might make a claim about the lack of store sales, which in-turn may work as a relational turning point for one or more employees (e.g., "We really need to move our product like never before."). If identified as a turning point event, such instances do not fit clearly as dyadic (there are more than two people present and such messages

are targeted toward everyone present), normative (receivers of the message may not be comparing the message or relationship to some norm), social network (there is no third party enacting the behavior), or circumstantial (the event is under the participants' control, and not under the control of some other factor such as one having to move to a new city).

The current study, therefore, provides impetus to examine rhetorical turning point events in other relational contexts and if appropriate, add a fifth category to the current four-type categorization of turning point events. Seeing that other individuals may be present during interpersonal interactions (i.e., family and friends in the home, colleagues at work, miscellaneous others in public) and that messages are sent to groups or audiences (i.e., in speeches, at meetings, during dinners) (for more on interpersonal communication in public, see Goffman, 1959), there is reason to believe that relational turning points rhetorical in nature occur. A *rhetorical turning point event* can be defined as a behavior or statement made by one individual to two or more individuals that creates relational change.

Finally, the current study's argument that relational turning point events change more than the relationship (i.e., they may involve changes in self confidence, perceptions of others, instructional outcomes) raises important questions about the possible wide-ranging impact of relational turning point events. Relational turning point studies, for example, have been conducted to

understand the rate of change in relationships (e.g., Huston et al., 1981), reasons for turning points (e.g., Llyod & Cate, 1985), how particular events function to create change in relationships (e.g., Baxter & Bullis, 1986; Johnson et al., 2004), and organizational socialization (e.g., Bullis & Bach, 1989a). Although studies report that turning point events affect relational features such as closeness and satisfaction (e.g., Golish, 2000; Surra, 1987), there may be other relevant, important effects worthwhile to examine (i.e., in one's sense of self, abilities, perceptions of others, future actions). These additional changes may also then play a key role in the development of the relationship in which the turning point occurred (e.g., a rejected kiss [turning point event] may not only decrease relational satisfaction, but general confidence or assertiveness, which may have an affect on the relationship at a later time, as well as other relationships). Future studies should explore this possibility.

The current study is informed by previous relational turning point studies, yet also offers a number of extensions. In particular, it calls for the study of under-examined relationships, argues that the study of relational turning points allows for the understanding of the larger context in which those relationships operate, validates and extends Surra and Huston's (1987) four broad categories of turning points, and raises important questions about the possible wide-ranging impact of relational turning points.

Contributions to the Teaching Effectiveness Literature

In addition to an analysis of specific turning point events and their reported outcomes for students in college teacher-student relationships, the current study argues that the teacher effectiveness literature reflects the importance of relational dimensions present in the teacher-student dynamic, albeit rarely explicitly recognizes these dimensions. Further, it advances the use of a relational frame, or lens with which to view interaction, to study the teacher-student dynamic. The current study makes at least two significant contributions to the teacher effectiveness literature, and these are discussed below.

Using a Relational Frame Accounts for and Links Previously Examined Variables

The current study used a relational frame to investigate instructional processes, and in particular, provides a typology of relational turning point events between teachers and students and an analysis of their outcomes. Perhaps of greater implication to the larger body of teaching effectiveness literature, however, the findings of the current study account for and therefore provide support for the continued study of key variables that address how teachers affect students. The findings of the current study, in addition to the relational frame, also help connect these variables that address how teachers affect students in a meaningful way.

The teaching effectiveness literature has focused on nine primary variables (i.e., content relevance, clarity, credibility, immediacy, affinity seeking, humor, self-disclosure, power, and misbehavior) believed to address how teachers affect students. That these variables are evident throughout the data in the current study provides support for the notion that the literature seems to account for instructional elements that are critical or important to students (i.e., teacher clarity, self disclosure). Students in the current study, for example, reported on turning point events related to content relevance, and in particular, teachers failing to match students' needs to the material (i.e., in the category of *lecture topic/claim*). Other students reported turning points concerning teacher clarity (i.e., *teaching style*), immediacy (i.e., *name used*), affinity seeking (i.e., *discussion of coursework and personal information*), instructional humor (i.e., *teaching style*), self-disclosure (i.e., *discussion of common interest*), and teacher power and misbehavior (i.e., *ridicule/discipline*).

Issues of teacher credibility arose both as an integral part of a turning point event (e.g., "He...literally c[a]me into class, open[ed] the course book and start[ed] reading") and as an outcome of the turning point event (e.g., "...he lost his credibility with me."). Using a relational frame, then, does not disregard the many variables previously examined that address how teachers affect students. Instead, it accounts for and validates the issues addressed in previous teacher

effectiveness studies. The relational frame advanced here, however, provides a richer understanding of these often seemingly disparate variables.

Although extant literature examines key variables that address how teachers affect students, it does not often put these findings into a larger context. Cortez et al. (2006) assert that “teacher effectiveness involves a variety of different components and processes [and] it appears that the interaction among the various elements has not been captured” (p. 273). The current study argues that the underlying feature or glue that enables and mediates these components and processes is the relationship between teacher and student. As argued in Chapter One, the teaching effectiveness literature is united, albeit implicitly by relational dimensions; however, the results of the current study provide an additional warrant for the argument that the teacher-student relationship captures the interplay of these seemingly disparate elements.

In this study’s analysis of relational turning points—one of the most salient factors identified in relationships—a host of instructional variables identified throughout the literature were evident (e.g., self disclosure, immediacy, humor). The underlying factor that brought these variables to fruition (or created space for and explains their existence) was that of the relational turning point, and more generally, the relationship between student and teacher. The relational turning point events reported by students, and their

many accompanying instructional variables, could occur only within the existence and nature of the teacher-student relationship.

Further, relationships themselves are inherently systemic (Wood, 2000): All processes, structures, and practices affect one another. In other words, relationships can be viewed as systems in which all parts interact and interrelate to influence one another (Allport, 1968). Recognizing the systemic nature of relationships helps explain not only that instructional variables and processes are linked by the relationship, but that the systemic functioning of the relationship works to affect outcomes as well. To offer an analogy, the teacher-student relationship works as the larger ecosystem that enables the functioning of diverse elements (i.e., plants, animals, water) or instructional variables and processes.

Behaviors (e.g., turning point events, self disclosure, humor, immediacy) and their effects on outcomes (e.g., perceptions of the relationship, learning, motivation, confidence, aspirations) occur because of the inherently systematic nature of the teacher-student relationship. Recognizing the systemic nature inherent in teacher-student relationships works not only to link these behaviors to outcomes, but opens up a host of issues to explore, as demonstrated by an analysis of relational turning points in the current study. Systems, however, are continually developing and changing, an argument which is explored next.

Using a Relational Frame Recognizes that Instructional Variables and Relationships are Unfinished Business

An assumption made in much of the research on teaching effectiveness is that variables remain relatively static over time. To measure teacher immediacy, assertiveness, responsiveness, credibility, and attractiveness, for example, students are asked typically to indicate their perceptions of such variables on a global level (e.g., "please indicate your impression of your teacher"; McCroskey, Valencic, & Richmond, 2004). Although strong analyses in many ways, this type of measurement accounts for the teacher's overall use of a behavior and, as a result, treats such a variable as largely unchanging. Variables, and relationships between teachers and students more generally, are often studied as "finished business" (Duck, 1990) in the teaching effectiveness literature. Conversely, conceptualizing relationships as "unfinished business" acknowledges that relationships are processual innately (Duck, 1990; Wood, 2000).

The current study recognizes that both relationships and instructional variables/outcomes are "unfinished business" in that they change over time. Its examination of a powerful element of change in relationships, the relational turning point, helps us understand that students are able to identify significant moments of change in their relationships, and as a result of these changes,

outcomes such as learning, motivation, perceptions of their relationships with teachers, and self-confidence may also change.

The current study serves only as one example of accounting for the inherent change in teacher-student relationships, however. Future studies, for example, might conduct longitudinal analyses of individual teacher-student relationships, examine dialectical tensions and how they prompt change, and elaborate a detailed stage model of teacher-student relationships that also accounts for common change points between stages. A relational frame opens up many other issues to explore as well, some of which are outlined later in this chapter.

Limitations of the Current Study

Whereas there are many interesting results from this study, there are also some limitations to consider when interpreting these results. These limitations concern the issue of the individual level of analysis of relational turning points, limitations of measurement, the nature of the sample, and the lack of data regarding frequencies of relational turning points. These limitations also point toward future avenues of research on relational turning points in the college teacher-student relationship.

Perhaps most noteworthy, and although similar to previous turning point studies (e.g., Johnson et al., 2003; O'Neill & Todd-Mancillas, 1992) in that data were collected from only one relational partner, the current study did not take a

fully dyadic approach to data collection despite its relational frame. An individual level analysis is limited to understanding relational turning points from the perspective of only one interactant. Duck (1994) highlights that the responses of both partners in dyadic transactions provide and shape definitions of relational meanings of interactions and social acts. Taking a dyadic approach, although challenging to conduct, would have allowed for an understanding of how teachers and students' interactions affected one another, if teachers and students agree in their identification of turning points, and relationship talk surrounding turning points.

The current study's focus on students' experiences, however, is still useful as it taps into the phenomenon under investigation. Baxter and Bullis (1986) highlight that "although a relationship is a jointly realized social entity, each relationship party holds his or her own perceptions of that construction process" (p. 473). Further, Duck (1994) argues, "two people in a relationship do quite often take different views of things" (p. 128). The current study offers a report of students' perceptions or views of turning points in relationships with their teachers, and is the first major step in a series of teacher-student turning point analyses. A similar analysis of relational turning points, but from teachers' perspective would provide a more well rounded understanding of turning points in the teacher-student relationship. Similarly, a longitudinal, observational

analysis of teacher-student interaction, supplemented with participant interviews, may provide an even richer understanding of this relational dynamic.

Another limitation of this study involves the issue of measurement. Although the cognitive and affective learning scales used in the study are used commonly in teacher effectiveness studies and appear to be reliable and valid, they also present a limitation. In particular, students' reports (or perceptions) of their own learning may not be accurate indicators of actual learning. It has been argued, for example, that self-reports of cognitive learning reflect a halo effect based on students' perceptions of instructors' attitudes toward themselves and peers (Hess, Smythe, & COM 451, 2001).

In their assessment of learning measures, Hess et al. (2001) assert the following argument:

Nisbett and Wilson (1977) said that people who are asked to report information they cannot access may attempt to reconstruct it based on available information. If students cannot accurately access how much they have learned, how might they reconstruct it? In his self-perception theory, Bem (1972) argued that people infer attitudes from their own behaviors. Students who have a better attitude toward their class and instructor may have a more positive involvement in the class, and thus, infer that they are, in fact, learning more. (pp. 202-203)

It is possible that instead of affecting students' learning directly, relational turning points affect students' perceptions of their teachers' attitudes towards them.

Further, turning point events that are evaluated as positive may facilitate changes in the instructional environment (i.e., perceptions of the teacher's attitude) and work to motivate students. In turn, this motivation may lead students to study harder, attend class more often, and ultimately learn more in the class (Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Frymier, 1994b). On the other hand, turning point events judged to be negative may affect outcomes adversely. There is reason to believe, however, that the cognitive learning measure is a valid measure as Chesebro and McCroskey (2000) found a "statistically significant and meaningful validity coefficient between student recall and student reports of their own learning" (p. 300). Future studies of relational turning point events between college teachers and students might consider tracking multiple classes and using exam scores as indicators of cognitive learning.

Another limitation in this study concerns the sample. Although the sample for the current study ($N = 640$) was adequate in size for generalizability to the students within the university in which the data were gathered, participants were solicited from a large, public research institution. The results of the current study cannot necessarily be generalized to smaller institutions or

community colleges. The nature of smaller colleges, for example, tends to encourage more interaction and closer relationships between students and faculty, potentially altering the frequency, saliency, and nature of turning points in those institutions. Although similar turning point events and outcomes might occur elsewhere, future studies should examine if relational turning points differ depending on the college itself.

A third limitation of the current study concerns the lack of data regarding how often and how many relational turning points college students have experienced. Purposefully, students were asked to identify only one relational turning point event and to discuss it in detail. Students who reported on a turning point may have experienced only one turning point in their entire college career, or the one that they reported could have been one of many. Future studies should examine frequencies more closely, as the *amount* and *timing* of turning point events may affect a host of variables, including relationships developed or the lack thereof with future teachers, graduation and dropout rates, and instructional outcomes (e.g., does the frequency of turning points experienced with a teacher over the duration of a single class affect students' learning and motivation?).

A related limitation concerns the manner by which students were asked if they could recall a turning point. After participants read a description of the study and directions, they were asked to decide whether they had experienced a

turning point with a teacher:

Only if you are unable to recall a turning point event, click "unable" below. Otherwise, leave blank and click "Next."

According to messages that they sent me, some students selected "unable" mistakenly, as it visually appeared to be the only possible answer selection given that the "previous," "next," and "back" buttons were at the bottom of the webpage. In cases where the students emailed me while the study was still ongoing, I was able to reset their survey. A few other participants told me that they had accidentally clicked "unable to recall," and soon thereafter the survey ended; however, they did not contact me to fix the problem. Therefore, it is likely that more than 394 participants in this study have experienced a relational turning point with a college teacher. Future studies should provide clearer options for participants (e.g., "Are you 'able' or 'unable' to recall a relational turning point with a college teacher?").

Finally, the actual outcomes of relational turning points may be wider-reaching than demonstrated in the current study. Because students in the current study were asked general, open-ended questions (e.g., "Besides any potential changes in your learning or motivation in the course, what else, if anything, changed as a result of this turning point?"), each student did not respond to the entire gamut of possible changes. As such, future studies might consider using closed-ended items when asking students to report on the wide-

ranging effects of relational turning points. Items could be developed based on the many outcomes of turning points discovered in the current study (e.g., "On a scale ranging from 1-7, please rate the degree to which this relational turning point changed how you interact with other teachers and/or authority figures.>").

Directions for Future Research

A major strength of this study is its heuristic nature: The relational frame opens up an assortment of other instructional issues to investigate and does so with an underlying contention about the nature of communication in the instructional context. In line with this, future studies should examine relational turning points from college teachers' perspective, utilize a dyadic approach to study relational turning points, examine relational turning points in other academic relationships, develop stage models of teacher-student relationships, and examine relational dialectics in teacher-student relationships.

To get a more complete understanding of the process, researchers need to examine relational turning points from college teachers' perspective as well as assess the ways in which teachers and students work together in their understanding of the event. Seeing that relationships involve interdependence (Wood, 2000), develop through interaction (Canary & Dainton, 2006), are maintained through communication (Canary & Dainton, 2006), and entail a bond that unites partners (McCall, 1970), teachers' experiences must be

captured to understand the complexities of relational turning points with students.

A study similar in nature to the current analysis of turning points (i.e., large sample, use of the CIT) may provide telling similarities and differences when compared with students' reporting of turning points, and such a study is currently in process. Further, that the present study found that turning point events appeared to affect student outcomes (e.g., students' perceptions of their relationships with their teachers, learning, motivation, aspirations), leads to additional questions about *teacher* outcomes. How, for example, are teachers' perceptions of their relationships with students affected by relational turning points? How are important teacher outcomes such as teacher efficacy, job satisfaction, and motivation (see Mottet et al., 2006) affected by relational turning points with their students?

In addition to gaining teachers' perspective of relational turning points with their students, a more dyadic approach is necessary. The use of the RIT, although it has limitations, might prove to be a useful first step in taking a dyadic approach. Participants (teacher and student pairs) could be asked by an interviewer individually to "identify all of the turning points in your relationship with him/her since the time of first coming into contact." If turning points are reported, the interviewer could then use probes to see if teachers and students agree in their identification of turning points, to gain an understanding of how

teachers and students' interactions affected one another, and to analyze relationship talk surrounding turning points.

An additional study investigating turning point events as they occur rather than as they occurred (i.e., retrospective) would allow for a more fine-tuned and potentially accurate analysis of behaviors that facilitate or create turning points. Video cameras should be used to capture classroom and office interactions between teacher and students, although human subjects concerns would have to be weighed carefully in such recordings. The researcher could then find and analyze the turning point event on video footage. Teachers and students could be asked to keep a log of turning point events that occurred throughout the academic term. Follow-up interviews with participants might also lead to additional findings about perceptions of turning point interactions and their relationship. Such an approach would also allow the researcher to examine changes in students' learning (demonstrated via test scores), classroom participation, and interaction with the teacher and other students.

In addition to examining relational turning points in college teacher-student relationships, future research should examine relational turning points in other academic relationships (e.g., staff-faculty, chair-undergraduate student, staff-graduate and undergraduate student, and graduate student-undergraduate student relationships) and assess if relational turning points differ depending on department culture and/or academic culture more generally. Such analyses

would provide insight into academic relationships more generally and can help answer questions such as the following: What is it that makes academic relationships unique? What features, processes, or challenges experienced within the academic context are illuminated by turning point analyses?

A relational frame opens up an assortment of other instructional issues to investigate. Keeping in mind that change is inherent in relationships (Wood, 2000), stage models of teacher-student relationships that identify when and how stages change have the opportunity to advance previous models of the teacher-student relationship (DeVito, 1986) and provide a fuller explanation and description of this dynamic between teachers and students. Questions such as these can be asked: What are the stages of teaching assistant-undergraduate student, teacher-undergraduate student, and professor-graduate student relationships? What prompts change from one stage to the next? At what stage, if any, is student learning at its peak? How can teachers facilitate their relationships with students to arrive at a stage optimal for learning?

As noted earlier in this dissertation, a relational frame also points toward an examination of relational dialectics. Dialectical theory asserts that dialectics or tensions occur between contradictory impulses (Baxter, 1993; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998; Rawlins, 1992) and are continuous processes that infuse and affect relational dimensions (Baxter, 1990).

Some studies have already involved dialectical theory to study the classroom setting. Using data from relationships with his own students, Rawlins (2000) uses dialectical theory to examine teaching as a mode of friendship. Further, Prentice (2006) asserts three dialectics from her analysis of the classroom setting (i.e., participate-remain silent during class discussions, predictable-novel classroom activities, managing personal time and class time). Future studies should examine *relational* as well as interaction dialectics teachers and students experience. Such an analysis may not only contribute to our understanding of dialectical theory but, more importantly for the teaching effectiveness literature, advance our understanding of tensions teachers and students face, provide useful strategies to deal with these tensions, and reveal how dialectics may play a role in instructional outcomes.

The future directions for research advanced here—examining relational turning points from college teachers' perspective, utilizing a dyadic approach to study relational turning points, examining relational turning points in other academic relationships, developing stage models of teacher-student relationships, and investigating relational dialectics in teacher-student relationships—will further our understanding of teacher effectiveness and instructional processes more generally. A relational frame, however, opens up many other issues worthy of exploration.

Summary

In this dissertation, I have asserted that the teaching effectiveness literature echoes the importance of relational dimensions present in the teacher-student dynamic. Although the teacher-student relationship is rarely explicitly recognized in the teaching effectiveness literature, the literature does often examine processes that are fundamental to relationships (e.g., immediacy, self-disclosure). Further, I argued that using a relational frame enables a lens for looking at and understanding instructional processes, as well as presents new processes to explore. In the current study, I examined one of the most salient factors of human relationships—the relational turning point—as well as how turning points appear to affect instructional outcomes.

The results of the current study expand and present new insight into the literature on relational turning points and the larger body of teacher-effectiveness literature. In particular, turning point events reported by students ranged from instrumental, personal, rhetorical, ridicule/discipline, locational, and other person events. Participants also reported various outcomes of turning point events (e.g., change in willingness to approach teacher or seek help, change in own self-confidence). Relational turning point events also appear to affect students' cognitive learning, affective learning, and motivation. As important, perhaps, the current study paves the way for future studies of

relational turning points in the academic context and argues for the use of a relational frame when investigating instructional issues.

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Appendix A Questionnaire

A *relationship* involves a series of interactions between two individuals known to each other. One event that occurs in many human relationships is referred to as a *relational turning point*, which is “any event or occurrence that is associated with change in a relationship.” Please think of a time in which an event occurred between *you and a college teacher you have had in the past* that changed your dynamic/relationship with him/her. The turning point you discuss can be an event you consider to be positive, negative, or not characterized as positive or negative. Please think carefully before beginning this questionnaire.

Only if you are unable to recall a turning point event, click "unable" below. Otherwise, leave blank and click “Next”.

1. Please describe the physical location, time of day, and other details where the event occurred in as much detail as possible:

2. Please describe the *event* itself in as much detail as possible. Specifically, what happened?

3. How did this turning point change your relationship with your teacher? Please explain in detail and include why you think this event brought about this change.

4. Besides any potential changes in your learning or motivation in the course, what else, if anything, changed as a result of this turning point? Why do you think this is the case?

5. Describe what interactions, if any, you have had with the teacher since this turning point.

6. Explain how, if at all, the turning point affected your personal or professional aspirations beyond your learning and motivation in the course.

7. In general, how do you characterize this relational turning point?

4a. Positive Negative Neither positive or negative

4b. Good Bad Neither good or bad

4c. Satisfying Unsatisfying Neither satisfying or
unsatisfying

4d. Pleasant Unpleasant Neither pleasant or
unpleasant

4e. Liked it Disliked it Neither liked or disliked it

4f. Harmless Harmful Neither harmless or harmful

8. Where did this event occur?

In the classroom
If in classroom, was it

- During lecture
- During an activity
- During break
- Before class
- After class
- Other. Explain:

Teacher's office
If in teacher's office, were others present? Yes No

Other
If other, please explain:

9. When this event occurred, how old were you? _____

10. When this event occurred, what year in college were you?

Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior Other:

11. Approximately how many students were enrolled in the class in which the turning point between you and your college teacher occurred, regardless if it occurred during class time? Please place your response in the space provided.

12. How would you best characterize the class in which the turning point occurred, regardless if it occurred during class time?

small lecture/discussion

large lecture (generally little or no in-class interaction between instructor and student)

seminar discussion (generally includes a minimal amount of formal lecturing by the instructor)

problem-solving (generally offers clear explanations, dealing with student difficulties and quality of problems)

skill oriented ("hands on" experiences related to future occupational demands)

quiz sections (usually taught by graduate teaching assistants, in conjunction with a lecture section taught by a regular faculty member; instructor often interacts with students and provide clear and useful explanations)

lab sections (generally taught in conjunction with classes in the physical sciences)

distance learning (correspondence) course

other. Please explain:

13. Was the teacher with whom this event occurred male or female? Circle one:

Male Female

14. Estimate the teacher's approximate age:

20-29 30-39 40-49
 50-59 60-69 70-79
 Other. Please explain:

15. If you had to guess, what was this teacher's race/ethnicity?

African American or Black American Indian or Alaska Native
 Asian Hispanic or Latino
 Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander White, not of Hispanic origin
 Mixed race. Please explain: Other. Please explain:

16. Do you think your teacher perceived a change in your relationship when this event occurred? Circle one:

Yes No

17. What kind of college were you attending where this event occurred? **DO NOT** list the college where it occurred. Check one:

University
 Community College
 Other
 If other, please explain:

18. Please indicate the following about yourself:

Sex: Male Female

Current year in college:

Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior
 Other:

Current age: _____

Race/ethnicity:

_____ African American or Black

_____ American Indian or Alaska Native

_____ Asian

_____ Hispanic or Latino

_____ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander _____ Other. Please explain:

_____ White, not of Hispanic origin

_____ Mixed race. Please specify:

19. Using the following scales, evaluate the class in which the turning point you described occurred. Circle one number on each set of bipolar scales to indicate your judgment or evaluation of the concept/idea about that particular class. Note that in some cases the most positive number is a "1" while in other it is a "7."

Behaviors recommended in the course BEFORE the turning point occurred:

Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Valuable
Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfair
Positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Negative

Content/subject matter of the course BEFORE the turning point occurred:

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthless
Unfair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fair
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Positive

Course instructor BEFORE the turning point occurred:

Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Valuable
Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfair
Positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Negative

In a "real life" situation, your likelihood of actually attempting to engage in behaviors recommended in the course BEFORE the turning point occurred:

Likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unlikely
Impossible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Possible
Probable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Improbable
Would Not	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Would

Your likelihood of actually enrolling in another course of related content if your schedule so permitted BEFORE the turning point occurred:

Unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likely
Possible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Impossible
Improbable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Probable
Would	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Would Not

Behaviors recommended in the course AFTER the turning point occurred:

Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Valuable
Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfair
Positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Negative

Content/subject matter of the course AFTER the turning point occurred:

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthless
Unfair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fair
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Positive

Course instructor AFTER the turning point occurred:

Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Valuable
Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfair
Positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Negative

In a "real life" situation, your likelihood of actually attempting to engage in behaviors recommended in the course AFTER the turning point occurred:

Likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unlikely
Impossible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Possible
Probable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Improbable
Would Not	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Would

Your likelihood of actually enrolling in another course of related content if your schedule so permitted AFTER the turning point occurred:

Unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Likely
Possible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Impossible
Improbable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Probable
Would	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Would Not

20. Please answer the following questions. Please place your response in the space provided.

_____ On a scale of 0-9, how much did you learn in this class BEFORE the turning point occurred, with 0 meaning you learned nothing and 9 meaning you learned more than in any other class you've had.

_____ How much do you think you could have learned in this class BEFORE the turning point occurred had you had the ideal instructor? (Use the same 0-9 scale).

_____ On a scale of 0-9, how much did you learn in this class AFTER the turning point occurred, with 0 meaning you learned nothing and 9 meaning you learned more than in any other class you've had.

_____ How much do you think you could have learned in this class AFTER the turning point occurred had you had the ideal instructor? (Use the same 0-9 scale).

21. Please circle the number toward either word which best represents your feelings about the *course* for which you were enrolled BEFORE the turning point occurred between you and your teacher.

Motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unmotivated
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninterested
Involved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninvolved
Not Stimulated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Stimulated
Wanted to study	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Didn't want to study
Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninspired
Unchallenged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Challenged
Uninvigorated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Invigorated
Unenthused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enthused
Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not excited
Aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Aroused
Not fascinated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinated

Please circle the number toward either word which best represents your feelings about the *course* for which you were enrolled AFTER the turning point occurred between you and your teacher.

Motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unmotivated
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninterested
Involved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninvolved
Not Stimulated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Stimulated
Wanted to study	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Didn't want to study
Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninspired
Unchallenged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Challenged
Uninvigorated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Invigorated
Unenthused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enthused
Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not excited
Aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Aroused
Not fascinated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinated

Appendix B
Codebook

CODEBOOK – PHASE 1

Introduction

- Your goal: read participant response and accurately code into one of the 14 categories.
- You are looking at **events**. Participants were asked:
 - “Please describe the physical location, time of day, and other information about where the event occurred in as much detail as possible (please note that the next question asks you to discuss the event itself).”
 - “Please describe the event itself in as much detail as possible. Specifically, what happened?”

General Tips/Reminders

- If you have any concerns or questions, do not hesitate to contact me.
- Take your time; please do not rush.
- Watch out for “coder fatigue.” If you get tired, take a break. Do not overtax yourself.

Specific Tips

1. While reading response, circle key content areas. Then check codebook for best possible category.
2. Use process of elimination.
3. Use appropriate code number and code when putting data into the Excel sheet.

Summary of Categories of Turning Point Events

I. Personal – turning point event was based largely on the *sharing of private, personal information*, or there was a specific, *approach/affinity seeking behavior* or statement intended for one person (e.g., compliment, invitation, name used).

- 1 = Discussion of coursework and personal information
- 2 = Discussion of common interest
- 3 = Compliment
- 4 = Invitation
- 5 = Name used

6 = **II. Ridicule/discipline** – teacher *ridiculed* (used language or behavior [intended] to mock or humiliate) or *disciplined* (brought to a state of order and obedience; punished) student.

III. Instrumental – turning point event was based largely on *one helping or assisting another with class or college-related issues/concerns*; event did not include discussion of highly personal matters.

- 7 = Discussion of grade
- 8 = Discussion of course assignment, course content, course more generally
- 9 = Discussion of college, major, independent study, and/or internships
- 10 = Discussion of course policy/rule

11 = **IV. Locational** – turning point event was largely based on *being in a different location or environment* with student/teacher than normal; saw teacher/student outside of usual environment; location was primary factor that changed perception of other and/or relationship with other.

V. Rhetorical – turning point event was largely based on a teacher-directed behavior or statement directed *toward the class*.

- 12 = Lecture topic or claim
- 13 = Teaching style

14 = VI. Other – turning point occurred because of own classroom participation or a third party (e.g., distracted student during lecture, third party comes into classroom to review/critique teacher, another student requests class notes via teacher’s recommendation).

Descriptions of Turning Point Events

I. Personal – turning point event was based largely on the sharing of private, personal information, or there was a specific, approach/affinity seeking behavior or statement intended for one person (e.g., compliment, invitation, name used).

1 = Discussion of coursework and personal information – turning point event occurred when the teacher and student discussed *coursework* (e.g., paper, grade, participation, late work, course/topic/subject) or were in the context of the class (e.g., during class activity, after class), *AND discussed personal information* (e.g., includes discussion of events that happened in life, life experiences, recent tragedies/sickness, family, background, personal life, weekends).

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates discussing coursework/progress *AND* personal information (e.g., “We discussed a class assignment, and then we started talking about our families and interests,” “I introduced and talked about myself, as did she, and we talked about how I was doing in the course”).

-Response indicates working on a course assignment/project *AND* discussing personal information (e.g., “I was working on my paper during class, and then started to tell the teacher about myself more personally, which helped with the assignment”).

-Response indicates and “get to know you chats,” or getting to know the teacher more personally.

-Response indicates that student was participating in course assignment when the teacher is present (e.g., activity, speech, discussion) and disclosing personal information.

-Response indicates teacher pulling student aside to check up on his/her progress in the course because of a previous personal event experienced by the student (e.g., "A few weeks after I told my teacher about my dad's death, she approached me to see how I was, and how I was doing in the course").

-Response indicates disclosing personal information and discussing coursework/progress/deadlines (e.g., "I emailed my professor, letting him know about the death in my family, and he let me know that I didn't need to worry about schoolwork"). Personal information for these types of responses includes discussions of being sick, needing medical attention, a sick family member or friend, a death of a family member or friend; may include asking for an extended deadline or telling teacher about possible absences; **MUST** include personal information, though.

-Response indicates teacher/student providing the other with an artifact in some way related to the course (e.g., personalized letter, pain reliever).

-Note: discussion may have started with either personal information or coursework; personal information can be disclosed by student, teacher, or both.

2 = Discussion of common interest – turning point occurred when teacher and student discussed a common interest or experiences, either course related (e.g., chemistry research) or not course related (e.g., favorite car).

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates discussion of common interest/experience (e.g., "We talked about both being from a Russian family," "The teacher told us about her disease, and then we talked one-one-on after about how the same disease affected me").

-Response can be course related (e.g., "We talked about our common interest in the subject after the lecture," "After lecture, we had a conversation about the subject for a while"), researched-related (e.g., "We spoke about our similar research interests"), department-related (e.g., "We talked about teachers in the department we both knew in common").

-Response includes discussion of common interest between teacher and student during lecture (e.g., "The teacher and I started talking about sports for 10-minutes during lecture").

-Response indicates student asking teacher why he/she wanted to be a teacher.

-Note: Although student may have approached teacher to discuss the course/assignment, turning point occurred because of discussion of common interest (e.g., majority of content discussed was about common interest).

-Note: There is a discussion between teacher and student; not simply a statement/claim made by a teacher. If teacher only makes a claim/statement that the student identified with during lecture, categorize in "rhetorical category – lecture claim".

3 = Compliment/praise – turning point occurred when teacher or student provided the other with an expression of praise, commendation, or admiration.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates teacher thanked or disclosed appreciation for student's participation in class (e.g., "My teacher contacted me and thanked me for my participation," "She let me know how much she appreciated my class participation").

-Response indicates teacher complimented student on their behavior in the classroom (e.g., "My teacher told me that she appreciate my animated face during his lectures").

-Response indicates teacher offered verbal or written praise on work returned to student (e.g., "The teacher gave me back my paper, which had positive comments on it," "My teacher told me that my paper was well written and that he wanted to use it as an example in future courses," "My teacher told me I got the best grade in the class and gave me a hug," "She said she was quite pleased with and proud of my work").

-Response indicates teacher offered verbal or written praise about student in general (e.g., "My professor talked highly of me") or student's capacities (e.g., "He told me that I am skilled, and that I might consider a career in this field," "I professor saw me worrying and then told me that I am a smart person and that I will do well," "She told me that I am a great writer," "My teacher offered me praise on my work, but also challenged me to push myself").

-Response indicates teacher made a compliment about a student to a third party (e.g., advisor), and then the third party told the student.

-Response indicates that teacher made a verbal and/or nonverbal gesture of praise for a student's actions (e.g., "My professor grabbed my shoulder in a gentle manner and told me how nice I was").

-Note: Any responses that include a compliment/praise for the student should be categorized in this category (even if the teacher and student discuss personal info first, uses student's name, etc.), unless provided a with invitation (see category on "invitation").

4 = Invitation – turning point occurred when teacher or student requested the other's presence or participation; a request to participate or be present or take part in something.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates teacher/student inviting the other to a meeting (e.g., "My teacher invited a few of us to a company meeting"), event (e.g., "The teacher invited me to a competition," "I asked my teacher if he'd like to attend the organization's dinner")

-Response indicates teacher *inviting* student out to eat, for a walk (e.g., "He invited me to go for a walk"); response focuses on invitation.

-Response indicates teacher inviting student to teach the class (e.g., "My teacher invited me to teach the class, although I don't know if he was serious"), or to use their skills (e.g., "My teacher asked if I wanted to use my skills at an event").

-Response indicates teacher inviting student to be part of a group (e.g., "My teacher asked if I'd like to be part of a special group").

-Note: response may indicate approaching teacher for instrumental reasons (e.g., getting help on an assignment), but if the teacher or student offers an invitation, code in this category.

5 = Name used – turning point occurred largely because teacher used or did not use student's name.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response/statement indicates teacher used student's name in one-on-one or lecture setting (e.g., "She called on me by name in the class, and it felt pretty neat"); turning point event was primarily based on the use of the name.

-Response/statement indicates a discussion of student's name, and/or teacher's use of student's name (e.g., "I told the teacher my name, he said thanks, and then began to use it," "The teacher showed that he actually knew my name and remembered me").

-Note: If the response indicates teacher used student's name, it should be categorized in this category.

6 = II. Ridicule/discipline/threat – teacher ridiculed (used language or behavior [intended] to mock or humiliate), disciplined (brought to a state of order and obedience; punished), or threatened/confronted student.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates teacher ridiculed student(s) during class (e.g., "My teacher would not accept my doctor's note and ridiculed me in front of class," "During class, my teacher saw me whispering to my friend and began attacking us with harsh words,"

"The teacher would stop lecturing when someone would come in late and basically taunt them").

-Response indicates teacher disciplined student (e.g., "My teacher told me to change seats in front of the whole class").

-Response indicates teacher used sarcasm (e.g., "I professor used a sarcastic tone to get me to do the work") or nonverbal behavior (e.g., "My professor was deliberately staring at me when I woke up") to bring student to state of order

-Response indicates teacher punished student (e.g., "I came to class late, and my teacher told me to leave because I was late"), or teacher requiring student to meet with him/her for discipline-related reasons.

-Response indicates teacher responded to student with disapproval of student's knowledge (e.g., "My teacher said, 'you should have understood that' and moved on"), or telling student to drop major because of lack of knowledge.

-Response indicates teacher yelled at student (e.g., "The teacher got all anger and said 'Turn in the test now!'") or calling student names (e.g., "The teacher called me dumb").

-Response indicates teacher used an example of a student's work (e.g., paper) as incorrect in front of class (e.g., "My teacher used my paper as an example of how not to write a paper").

-Response indicates teacher questioned about or accusation of student cheating (e.g., "The professor then accused us of cheating," "She accused me of being a cheater, but later found out that I didn't," "The teacher was staring at me and later asked if I cheated").

-Response indicates teacher threatened student that he/she will fail unless he/she drops the class (e.g., "I went to talk about a grade, and then my teacher told me she'd fail me if I stayed in the class"). Does not include teacher telling student to drop without a threat (if teacher tells student to drop, such a response should be categorized into "discussion of assignment, course").

III. Instrumental – turning point event was based largely on *one helping or assisting another with class or college-related issues/concerns*; event did not include discussion of highly personal matters.

7 = Discussion of grade – turning point event occurred when student and teacher discussed a student's grade on an exam or assignment, or a final course grade; also included a teacher grading a student's work in their presence and discussing it, discussion of consequences of a grade, how to make up a bad grade, and turning points largely influenced by grades.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates student and teacher discussed grade on any course assignment or test (e.g., "I got a terrible grade, so I went in to discuss it," "We discussed my grade on the test").

-Response indicates student appealed a grade (e.g. "I went to my teacher to appeal a grade I got") or trying to receive extra points ("I went to the teacher to see if I could get some extra points on my exam," "I went in to try to get some points back").

-Response indicates student approached teacher to discuss a final course grade (e.g., "I went to see my teacher to discuss my final grade in the class—a 2.3—and she was unsympathetic").

-Response repeatedly mentions grades received on an exam or assignment (e.g., "I went to my professor after the first test, for which I got a 3.2, and after the second test, for which I got a 3.8, and it seemed he liked me more").

-Response indicates being frustrated with a grade and discussing the grade and/or exam/assignment with the teacher (e.g., "I was upset and frustrated with my exam grade, and went to my TA for explanations, and it was helpful," "I did bad on a test and went to get help and the teacher just kept interrupting me about it").

-Response indicates teacher graded a student's work in their presence and discussing (e.g., "I took the exam and turned it in, and then my teacher graded it in front of me").

-Response indicates discussing grade on an assignment with teacher, and agreeing to complete another assignment instead of having the original grade recorded.

The following types of responses **should not** be included in this category:

-Responses that indicate approaching teacher to discuss grade and teacher then threatens student will fail the class unless he/she drops. A response such as this should be coded in the category "ridicule/discipline/threat."

-Responses that indicate going over an exam/test/midterm/assignment for the sake of better understanding the material (e.g., "I got a bad grade on the exam, so I went to see the instructor to ask questions about how I could do better in the future and better understand the material"). Such responses should be categorized into the "discussion of course, assignment" category.

8 = Discussion of course assignment, course content, or course more generally – turning point event occurred when student and teacher discussed an assignment (e.g., paper, upcoming or previous exam), course concept/topic, student's progress/standing in course, or course more generally.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates student sought and/or teacher offered help/direction on particular skill, assignment, or exam (e.g., "My teacher offered me study tips for the next exam," "During class, my teacher showed me the correct dance move").

-Response indicates discussing an assignment (e.g., "we had a conference to discuss how I could improve my paper") or course material (e.g., "I went in to talk about a math problem and the teacher was not helpful").

-Response indicates discussing progress in course (e.g., "We met to talk about how I was feeling in my first college class, and told me he'd like me to participate more in class," "We discussed my performance

in the course, because I didn't know how I was doing, so my professor let me know").

-Response indicates student coming to teacher's office to discuss a previous or upcoming exam (e.g., "We discussed the answers to the test, although his answers were curt," "I asked the teacher if the exam questions will be difficult and he didn't really respond well")

-Response indicates teacher and student discussing course material (e.g., "We talked about some examples used in class, and I gave my teacher an example from a book I brought in").

-Response indicates teacher offering an individual student or the class help or feedback (e.g., "My teacher told me she'd be there to help me," "During class, our teacher told us he'd be willing to help us at any time"), or meeting with student so he/she could complete assignment (e.g., "My teacher went out of her way to help and meet with me to make up an assignment").

-Response indicates teacher reminding student that coursework is due (e.g., "My teacher asked me to turn in my homework"), or the teacher reminds the student about the importance of attending class.

-Response indicates teacher suggests to the student to drop the course (e.g., "I went to go talk to him about a test, but he ended up telling me to drop the class and take it another quarter").

-Response indicates student's realization about teacher's feedback (e.g., "I realized that the comments my teacher made were invalid"), or that teacher's feedback was a turning point (e.g., "I got an email from my teacher responding a request I had about my paper topic, and the teacher agreed").

-Response indicates discussion of when/what time a test will be given (e.g., "I asked my teacher when the test will be").

-Response indicates discussion of how to participate in class (e.g., "I told the teacher about my participation in class, and wanted feedback on it, but didn't get it.").

-Note: these events generally occurred in one-on-one or small group settings

-Note: these events can be student or teacher initiated, but are often student-initiated

-Note: discussion between teacher and student about course assignment, course content, or course more generally may have also included a discussion on non-personal information (e.g., current events, food, popular culture).

The following types of responses should **NOT** be included in this category:

-Responses that focus on the grade received and/or wanting a change in grade; responses that focus on grading issues should be categorized into “discussion of grade” category. However, responses that discuss approaching teacher to discuss a grade, and subsequently discussing answers to test questions, course material, and future study techniques should be categorized in this section (discussion of course, etc.).

9 = Discussion of college, major, independent study, letter of recommendation, and/or internships – turning point occurred when teacher and student’s discussion focused on college, a specific major or majors, what classes to take, independent study, job opportunities, job offers, future goals, studying abroad, and/or internship possibilities; includes requests for letter of recommendation. Student may have approached teacher seeking help on assignment, but also mentioned one of the above topics in more depth than the assignment.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates teacher and student discussing college, a specific major or majors, independent study, job opportunities, job offers and advice, future goals, studying abroad, and/or internship possibilities.

-Response indicates discussing course material **AND** college major, college goals, future plans, jobs, etc. (e.g., “During office hours, we discussed class material and possible majors”).

-Response indicates discussions of where to attend school (e.g., “We talked about where I should go for school”)

-Response indicates discussion of whether to attend law/graduate school and/or advice on application procedures (e.g. "He gave me advice on grad school applications")

-Response indicates discussion of internship, study abroad, or independent study options and/or requesting teacher to be internship/independent study adviser (e.g., "We discussed two possible internships I was thinking about," "I asked my teacher if she'd be my internship advisor and we talked about ideas").

-Response indicates teacher interviewing student for internship position.

-Response indicates student asking teacher for letter of recommendation or professional reference (e.g., "I asked my teacher to write me a letter of rec. and then she interviewed me a bit").

-Note: if student requests teacher to write a letter of recommendation, regardless of other topics discussed or behaviors explained, the response should be categorized in this category (e.g., "I asked my teacher for a letter of recommendation, which led to a discussion of why I wanted it and my family").

10 = Discussion of course policy/rule/absence – turning point event occurred when student and teacher discussed a course policy or rule (e.g., turning in an assignment late, extending a deadline, time to complete a test); teacher allowing students to have extra time on assignment/test, meeting to make up an assignment, and students adhering to deadlines.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates student requesting to take an exam at a later date (e.g., "I talked to my professor, explained the situation, and asked if I could take the exam another day, and she said yes,")

-Response indicates teacher and student discussing turning in late coursework or assignments (e.g., "I explained that I had a problem saving the files, and my teacher let me turning the work later"); DOES NOT include discussion of personal information

(e.g., health, family, death, and late work – see category for “discussion of coursework and personal information”).

-Response indicates student and teacher discussing missing upcoming class periods (e.g., “We talked about me being absent for the next week or so,” “I told my teacher that I’d miss class due to my sports schedule and we tried to work something out”).

-Response indicates teacher allowing students to have extra time on an exam (e.g., “Our teacher unexpectedly gave some people extra time on the quiz, which was unfair”)

-Response indicates student adhering to course deadlines (e.g., “I realized that I had to do an assignment at the last minute, so I prepared it, and all was well”).

The following types of responses **SHOULD NOT** be included in this category:

-Responses indicating a personal disclosure from the student (e.g., being sick, friend or family being sick, friend or family death) and discussion of missing class and/or assignments/exams. Such responses should be categorized as “discussion of coursework and personal information”).

11 = IV. Locational – turning point event was largely based on being in a different location or environment with student/teacher than normal; saw teacher/student outside of usual environment; location or positioning of teacher was primary factor that changed perception of other and/or relationship with other.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates seeing teacher in location/environment that is different than normal (e.g., “I was at the bus stop and I saw my teacher. We then talked,” “We played a pickup game of football”).

-Response indicates being on a fieldtrip or study abroad trip (e.g., “Our class went on a fieldtrip and we saw our professor in action”), or holding class in a restaurant.

-Response discusses location of turning point primarily (i.e., the majority of the response is about the location); may occur on or off campus.

-Response indicates randomly seeing teacher outside of classroom and office hours, and then adapting behavior (e.g., "We were both at the coffee stand randomly and chatted and walked to class together").

-Response indicates location of teacher was primary cause of turning points (e.g., "Our teacher stood with us in the rain and cold").

The following types of responses **should not** be included in this category:

-Responses that indicate meeting in a café or coffee shop for office hours or a meeting, but the location of the turning point is of little relevance (e.g., majority of response focuses on a discussion of common interests). The following example would not be coded here: "Our teacher met with a group of students in the Cafe. She asked questions about who we are and we could ask her too. She asked us questions about our interests, where we were from, etc. We also talked about the course." This response would be coded in the category labeled "discussion of coursework and personal information."

V. Rhetorical – turning point event was largely based on a teacher-directed behavior or statement directed toward the class.

12 = Lecture topic or claim – turning point occurred when a teacher discussed a topic, made a claim, provided an example, or discussed experiences related to topic/claim/course/college DURING LECTURE; includes teacher responses to student statements made during lecture.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates a particular topic or claim put forth by teacher (e.g., "The teacher discussed and critiqued humanism," "We began to discuss issues of race and immigration").

-Responses/statements regarding the teacher using examples or self-disclosing something to the class related to the course in some way (e.g., "When talking about the concept, the teacher linked her own life experiences with her family to the idea").

-Response indicates teacher discussing topics related to course (e.g., "The teacher then talked with us about famous English authors when we were discussing cultural differences").

-Response indicates that event occurred in lecture (hall) AND teacher changed student's perspective on a topic/issue.

-Response indicates teacher responses to student statements about irrelevance of course material.

-Responses/statements regarding the teacher making claims about the course (e.g., "Many of you will fail the class") or how the course will proceed (e.g., "Since many of you are familiar with this topic, we'll cover minimal basic material"), or about college (e.g., "Then the teacher gave the advice to be concerned about our future and to care").

-Note: If ridicule or discipline are involved, response should be categorized into earlier category labeled, "ridicule/discipline."

13 = Teaching style – turning point occurred because of the way the teacher was teaching (e.g., informal, held everyone's attention, interacted in funny manner; used humor), or the manner by which the teacher lead discussion; teacher's discussion of teaching style, and teacher apologies about course materials or teaching style; activity used in class.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates style by which teaching occurred (e.g., informal, held everyone's attention, interacted in funny manner; used humor) (e.g., "The teacher simply read from the book," "He held everyone's attention," "the teacher cracked jokes and interacted with the class in a funny way").

-Response indicates manner by which the teacher lead discussion

-Response indicates teacher's discussion of his/her teaching style (e.g., "She discussed her teaching style," "The teacher said he would not trick us, and that we should ask questions," "teacher remarked that she would not shy away from touchy topics"),

-Response indicates teacher apology about course materials or teaching style (e.g., "My teacher apologized to the class about his irresponsibility").

-Response indicates a specific activity used in class (e.g., "The class had to do a project where we applied everything we learned").

14 = VI. Other – turning point occurred because of own classroom participation or a third party (e.g., distracted student during lecture, third party comes into classroom to review/critique teacher, another student requests class notes via teacher's recommendation).

CODEBOOK – PHASE 2

Introduction

- Your goal: For each participant find **presence** (= 1) or **absence** (= 2) of all 12 different categories.
- You are looking at **changes**
 - May be stated explicitly in response (e.g., “My level of trust in the teacher changed”).
 - May not be explicitly stated in response as question asks about change (e.g., “Level of trust”).

General Tips/Reminders

- If you have any **concerns or questions**, do not hesitate to contact me.
- Take your time; please do not rush. You might find yourself moving rather quickly, and you may miss something.
- Watch out for “coder fatigue.” If you get tired, take a break. Do not overtax yourself.

Specific Coding Procedure

- 1. Read response once, circle key terms/phrases (e.g., “I had less respect for my teacher”)
- 2. Using code-sheet summary page, decide on presence (1), or absence (2) of each of the 12 categories.
- 3. After deciding on each category (e.g., credibility – 1-presence), accurately record in Excel.

PHASE 2 – CODESHEET SUMMARY PAGE

Categories to be coded as (1) present OR (2) absent for each participant's responses:

Excel Label	Description
B	Change in respect for teacher
C	Change in trust, or perceptions of credibility/competence of teacher
D	Change in perceptions of the relationship with teacher
E	Change in own willingness to approach teacher or seek help
F	Change in own willingness to approach other teachers or authority figures; change in how to approach other teachers or authority figures
G	Change in perceptions of other teachers
H	Change or contemplated/ing a change in decisions about major or minor, aspirations in field of interest, or attending graduate/law school
I	Change in desire/ability to ask teacher for a letter of recommendation or professional reference, or would consider asking for one
J	Change in own confidence in course, subject, academics in general, abilities, or self
K	Change in student's humanization of teacher

L	Taking another course <i>with instructor</i> or considered doing so
M	Change in perceptions of/appreciation for the college or college department and/or its opportunities

B. Change in respect for teacher – response includes a statement about “respect” for the teacher. Response indicates esteem for or a sense of the worth or excellence of a teacher, a personal quality or ability of the teacher, or something considered as a manifestation of a personal quality or ability of the teacher.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

- Response indicates more or less respect for the teacher (e.g., “I started to respect the teacher,” “I lost respect for the teacher”)
- Response indicates “mutual respect” between teacher and student (e.g., “We began to respect one another”).
- Response indicates respect for teacher in the general sense (e.g., “I respected the teacher more”), or respect for something more specifically (e.g., “I respected the teacher’s teaching style”).
- Response indicates perceptions of the class’s respect for the teacher (e.g., “The students began to respect him more”).

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

- Responses about respect for “teachers” (e.g., “I found a new respect for the work that they do,” “I now respect my professors because I realized that they are smart”). These types of statements should be coded in a latter category titled, “Change in perceptions of other teachers.”
- Responses about the teacher being disrespectful (e.g., “He was disrespectful,” “I felt like the teacher wouldn’t respect me”). Such responses should not be coded into any category.
- Responses indicating only that the teacher respected the student more. Such responses should not be coded into any category.

C. Change in trust, or perceptions of credibility/competence of teacher –

response includes statement about “trust” or “distrust,” or statements about placing or not placing confidence in teacher; and/or response includes statement about “credibility” of teacher, or capability of being believed; competence.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

- Response indicates having *trust* (e.g., “I could trust the teacher now”) or *distrust* (e.g., “There was no way for me to trust the teacher”) for the teacher.
- Response indicates placing or not placing confidence in teacher (e.g., “I believed in the teacher more,” “I had faith in the teacher”).
- Response includes statement about credibility of teacher (e.g., “The teacher lost credibility”).
- Response includes statement about capability of being believed (e.g., “I began to question the validity of the teacher’s statements”) or teacher’s competence (e.g., “I realized how smart the teacher was”).

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

- Statements about a teacher “trusting” a student’s work, or a student “trusting” in their own work/skills. Such responses should not be coded into any category.

D. Change in perceptions of the relationship – response includes statement(s) about a change in perceptions (i.e., beliefs, realizations) about the **relationship** with the same teacher for which the turning point occurred.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

- Response indicates a change in relationship label (e.g., “I saw her as more of a friend,” “We became friends on facebook,” “I saw the teacher as another young adult,” “it became more than a teacher-student relationship, more like a mentor relationship,”).
- Response indicates a change in type of relationship (e.g., “personalized relationship” “real relationship”) or includes adjectives (e.g., “personal,” “friendly”) regarding the relationship (e.g., “it was much more personal”).

-Response indicates that the relationship simply changed (e.g., “My relationship with my teacher changed,” “He wasn’t just a teacher,” “The event changed our relationship,” “We broke the barrier of the teacher-student relationship”)

-Response indicates a change in relationship equality/balance/status (e.g., “I felt like we were more like equals”).

-Response indicates a change in the perception of closeness, connectedness, or attachment (e.g., “We were closer,” “I felt more attached,” “my teacher cared more about us”).

Note: the response/statement must be about the same teacher for which the turning point occurred, and not teachers in general.

E. Change in own willingness to approach teacher or seek help – response indicates approaching teacher or seeking help from teacher, or not approaching teacher or not seeking help from teacher; or being more or less willing to approach or seek help from the same teacher for which the turning point occurred.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates actually approaching teacher more (e.g., “I went to office hours more”) or less (e.g., “I tried to avoid her,” “I tried not to have contact with the teacher,” “I dropped the class,” “I never went back to the teacher because of this and instead went to the study center”)

-Response indicates being more willing (e.g., “I felt like I could approach her,” “although I haven’t contacted my teacher, I know I could,” “I wasn’t as nervous going in to talk to my teacher”) or less willing (e.g., “I would never want to approach the teacher,” “made sure that I did not sign up for her classes in the future”) to approach teacher.

-Response indicates feeling comfortable or uncomfortable (e.g., “I didn’t feel comfortable around him or approaching him”) in approaching teacher.

-Response may be specific (e.g., “I went to office hours more”), or general (e.g., “I approached the teacher more” “the teacher became more approachable” “We talked about course material a little more”)

-Note: may have occurred during the same quarter/semester as the turning point, or after the course was completed

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

-Response indicating behavior that remained the same (e.g., “We remained detached”) should not be included here.

-Response/statement about behaviors enacted with other teachers, or the lack thereof (e.g., “I am not so much afraid or intimidated by teachers now. If I have a problem I will turn to them to seek their help”). Such responses should be coded into the latter category titled, “Change in own willingness to approach other teachers or authority figures.”

F. Change in own willingness to approach other teachers or authority figures; change in how to approach other teachers or authority figures – response includes statement about being more or less willing to approach **teachers** or other authority figures, or how to approach them.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates being more/less willing to approach other teachers for help (“I learned that I should go get help when I need it”), or being more/less willing to approach other teachers to get to know them or for personal matters (e.g., “This event taught me to establish personal relations with my teachers”).

-Response indicates feeling more comfortable approaching other teachers (e.g., “I felt more comfortable asking other teachers for help”) or less comfortable approaching other teachers (e.g., “I feel like it may be harder for me to communicate with professors now”)

-Response indicates wanting to get to know other teachers (e.g., “It made me want to get to know my other teachers) or not wanting to get to know other teachers

-Response indicates being more/less willing to ask for help (e.g., “I learned that if I have a question, the best thing to do is to ask”) or that there are benefits of getting to know teachers

-Includes first person accounts (e.g., “I know put myself out there and try to get to know my teachers”) and second person accounts (e.g., “You have to put yourself out there to get to know teachers.”)

-Note: The survey asked participants to report on a turning point the quarter in which they took the survey. Therefore, responses such as “I have learned to get help as soon as I need it” should be included in this category.

G. Change in perceptions of other teachers – response indicates perceptions (i.e., beliefs, judgments, realizations) of other teachers.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response contains generalization(s) about teachers, how they act, and/or their qualities (e.g., “I realized that teachers enjoy getting to know students,” “I now know that teachers can be selfish,” “If a teacher doesn’t like you or your work, you cannot do anything”).

-Response indicates perceptions of importance of educators (e.g., “I have come to understand how important teachers are”) and respecting teachers (e.g., “I respect my teachers now”)

-Response indicates statements about *teachers* being “human” or “regular people.”

-Note: Response may indicate professors, instructors, teachers, educators, TAs, and/or particular types of teachers (e.g., foreign instructors).

H. Change or contemplated/ing a change in decisions about major or minor, aspirations in field of interest, or attending graduate/law school – response indicates a change or contemplation changing a major or minor, aspirations in a particular field of interest, or attending post-undergraduate school.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Responses may be general (e.g., “I wanted to change my major” “It changed how I approach my college career”) or specific (e.g., “I was now thinking about becoming a Spanish minor,” “I briefly thought about becoming a geography major”).

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

- Statements about only/simply learning about a profession (e.g., "I learned about the profession of engineering").
- Statements about simply/only being more interested in a course topic; statements must follow the guidelines as indicated above to be coded in this category.
- Statements about wanting to be as passionate, enthusiastic, or inspirational as the teacher (e.g., "I want to be as enthusiastic about my future job as my teacher was about his job.")

I. Change in desire/ability to ask teacher for a letter of recommendation or professional reference, or would consider asking for one – response indicates student requesting/having teacher write a letter of recommendation, or requesting/having teacher act as a professional reference (e.g., "I asked my teacher for a letter of recommendation," "She was my reference for a study abroad program."); response indicates having considered asking a teacher for a letter of recommendation or professional reference (e.g., "I know that she would write me a letter if I needed one," "I'm considering asking for a letter of rec.").

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

- Responses that only mention friends getting letters of recommendation from teacher.

J. Change in own confidence in course, subject, academics in general, abilities, or self – response indicates that student believes in self and/or his/her abilities; response indicates change in "confidence" or being more or less "confident."

The following types of responses are included in this category:

- Response indicates having gained or lost confidence (e.g., "This event gave me a lot of confidence in my ability as a student," "I did not feel confident in myself as a result").
- Response indicates that student believes in self/abilities more/less (e.g., "It has taught me that I am an intelligent, tough, and determined person").

K. Change in student's humanization of teacher – response indicates a change in the perception of the teacher as being more human (e.g., “I began to see my teacher as more human,” “I realized that she was a human being”), or being more of a real person (e.g., “I saw my teacher as person instead of just a teacher”).

Note: The response/statement must be about the same teacher for which the turning point occurred, and not teachers in general.

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

-Responses seeing “**teachers**” (e.g., “I began to see my teachers as human”). These types of statements should be coded in a latter category titled, “Change in perceptions of other teachers.”

L. Taking another course with instructor or considered doing so - response indicates having taken, currently taking, or considered/ing taking another course **with the same teacher** in which the turning point occurred; contacting instructor to see what courses he/she will be teaching; or showing interest in enrolling in another course taught by the teacher.

The following types of responses are included in this category:

-Response indicates having taken, currently taking, or considered/ing taking another course with the same teacher in which the turning point occurred (e.g., “I took another course with this teacher,” “I had this teacher before, and am taking him again for a class,” “I’m considering taking another of her classes”).

-Response indicates contacting instructor to see what courses he/she will be teaching (“I emailed the teacher to see what classes he’d teach in the fall”).

-Response indicates interest in enrolling in another course taught by the teacher (e.g., “I’d enjoy taking another course with her”).

-Response indicates a desire to be in the teacher’s class again (e.g., “I’d like to be in her class again”).

The following should **not** be coded in this category:

-Response indicates having the same teacher randomly (e.g., "I decided to take a series of literature class and he was my TA again"). However, if it the student took another class with the TA and does not mention anything related to randomness, include it in this category (e.g., I took another course with the TA).

-Response indicates not wanting to take teacher for another course.

M. Change in perceptions of/appreciation for the college or college department and/or its opportunities – response indicates change in perceptions of or appreciation for the college or college department and/or its opportunities (e.g., "I started to appreciate the school's opportunities," "I have little respect for the department now").

CURRICULUM VITAE

EDUCATION

Ph.D., University of Washington, March 2008.

Major: Communication. Concentration in Social Interaction.

Dissertation: "Relational turning point events and their outcomes in college teacher-student relationships from students' perspectives."

M.A., University of New Mexico, May 2004.

Major: Communication. Concentrations in Interpersonal Communication and Rhetoric.

B.A., California State University, Northridge, May 2002.

Major: Communication Studies, Cum Laude.

A.A., Los Angeles Valley College, December 2000.

Major in Administration of Justice, Cum Laude.

ACADEMIC INTERESTS

Interpersonal Communication

communication and relational change; relational turning points; dark side of communication; infidelity; deception

Instructional Communication

teacher-student relational development; turning points in college teacher-student relationships; instructional objectives; student motivation; public speaking pedagogy

SCHOLARLY PUBLICATIONS

Docan-Morgan, T. (in press). Review of *Infidelity: A Practitioner's Guide to Working with Couples in Crisis* edited by Paul R. Peluso. *Journal of Loss and Trauma*.

Docan-Morgan, T., & Docan, C. A. (2007). Infidelity on the Internet: Double standards and the differing views of women and men. *Communication Quarterly*, 55, 317-342.

- Docan-Morgan, T. (2007). Training law enforcement officers to detect deception: A critique of previous research and framework for the future. *Applied Psychology in Criminal Justice*, 3, 143-171.
- Docan-Morgan, T. (2007). Writing and communicating instructional objectives. In B. Hugenberg, L. Hugenberg, S. Morreale, D. Worley, & D. Worley (Eds.), *Basic communication course best practices: A training manual for instructors* (pp. 25-41). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.
- Docan-Morgan, T., & Docan-Morgan, S. (2007). A transparency is worth a thousand words: The picture speech assignment. In B. Hugenberg & L. Hugenberg (Eds.), *Teaching ideas for the basic communication course 11* (pp. 31-37). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.
- Docan, T. (2006). Positive and negative incentives in the classroom: An analysis of grading systems and student motivation. *The Journal of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 6, 21-40.
- Docan, T. (2006). Using Jenga® to teach system theory. *Communication Teacher*, 20, 11-13.
- Docan, T. (2004). A tale of two ideologies: Winona LaDuke's Vice Presidential nomination acceptance speech. In S. Foss (Ed.), *Rhetorical criticism: Exploration and practice* (3rd ed.) (pp. 280-293). Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

University of Washington, Teaching Associate. 2004-2008. Taught/co-taught:

- Introduction to Communication II (COM 202)
- Interpersonal Communication (COM 270)
- Advanced Public Speaking (COM 320)
- Nonverbal Communication (COM 376)
- Research Methods in Communication (COM 382)

Los Angeles Pierce College, Adjunct Instructor. Summer 2005-2007.

- Oral Communication I (SPEECH 101)

University of New Mexico, Instructor of Record. 2002-2004. Taught:

- Public Speaking (C&J 130)
- Interpersonal Communication Analysis (C&J 321) (substitute)

California State University, Northridge, Teaching Intern. 2001.

- Taught public speaking skills at the Communication for Youth Institute to junior high and high school students through a community service-learning program. Created and facilitated public speaking lectures and activities.

California State University, Northridge, Facilitation Leader. 2001-2002

- Facilitated class and small group discussions with Grant High School students through a community service-learning program named Communicating Common Ground. Topics of discussion included cultural awareness, ethnic and intercultural relations, stereotyping, conflict management, and empowerment.

ADVISING/MENTORING EXPERIENCE

Advisor/Mentor, University of Washington, 2004-08; University of New Mexico, 2002-04.

- Informally advised students about the Communication major and relevant career paths.

Internship and General Studies Advisor, University of Washington, 2004-2008.

- By request, sponsored and advised students for COM 350: Internship, and General Studies 350: Independent Fieldwork. Developed credit-earning projects with students who performed independent fieldwork in community agencies, apprenticeships, and internships.

Independent Studies Advisor, University of Washington, 2004-2008.

- Sponsored and advised students for Communication 498: Independent Research. Directed advanced students to develop instructional tools for COM 270: Interpersonal Communication instructors.

Research Mentor Center Volunteer, University of Washington, 2004-2005.

- Aided students with various assignments in Communication classes (e.g., deciding on a paper or speech topic, organizing a paper or speech, finding credible sources, improving writing).

Mentor, California State University, Northridge, 2001-2002.

- Assisted elementary school children with reading comprehension and served as a mentor at Napa Elementary School.

SELECTED AWARDS

Research

- **Top Three Competitive Paper in Communication and Instruction Division.** Docan-Morgan, T. (2008, February). *Relational turning point events in college teacher-student relationships*. Paper presented at the Western States Communication Association conference. Denver, Colorado.
- **Top Four Paper in Communication and Instruction Division.** Docan, T. (2004, February). *Communicating grades in the classroom: An examination of grading systems, student motivation, and teacher-student interaction*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Western States Communication Association. Albuquerque, New Mexico.
- **Top Four Paper in Organization for Research on Women and Communication Division.** Docan, T. (2004, February). *Feminism as the key to overcoming the masculine mystique: A narrative criticism of Susan Faludi's "Betrayal of the American Man" speech*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Western States Communication Association. Albuquerque, New Mexico.
- **Communication & Journalism Master's Research Scholar**, 2003, University of New Mexico. "The C&J Graduate Scholar Award recognizes the scholarly activities of graduate students in the Department of Communication and Journalism at the University of New Mexico. These individuals exemplify the standards of scholarly excellence pursued with the C&J Department of Communication at UNM."

Teaching

- **Dean's Recognition of Exceptionally High Student Evaluations.** August, 2007, University of Washington. Recognition of "fine

pedagogical contributions” and “exceptionally high student evaluations, both in overall evaluations and in ‘amount learned.’”

- **Department Congratulatory Letter** for Exceptional Teaching Evaluations. University of Washington. Autumn 2004, Winter 2005, Spring 2005, Autumn 2005, Winter 2006, Spring, 2006, Autumn 2006, Winter, 2007, Spring 2007.
- **Jean Civikly-Powell Outstanding New Teaching Assistant**, 2003, University of New Mexico. “This award honors first time graduate teaching assistants for excellence in the classroom.”
- **Outstanding Mentor Award**, 2001, California State University, Northridge.

Grants

- **Graduate and Professional Student Association Travel Grant**, 2007, National Communication Association conference.
- **Graduate School Fund for Excellence and Innovation Travel Award**, 2005 (NCA conference), 2007 (NCA conference), 2007 (WSCA conference).
- **Top Scholar Fellowship Award**, 2004, University of Washington
- **Richard B. Aronstam Outstanding Senior in Communication Studies Scholarship**, 2002, California State University, Northridge

GRADUATE COURSEWORK

Interpersonal Communication

- Interpersonal Communication (McDermott)
- Relational Communication (Manusov)
- Conflict Communication (Oetzel)
- Technology and Interpersonal Communication (Independent Research)
- Internet Infidelity (Independent Research)
- Discourse and Sexuality (Thurlow)
- Nonverbal Communication Theory and Research (Manusov)

Teaching, Learning, and Instructional Communication

- Communication Pedagogy (Ceccarelli)
- Teaching a Basic Course (Deese-Roberts)
- Student Motivation (Independent Research)
- Human Learning & Educational Practice (Crawford)
- Ethics in Teaching and Research (Coutu)
- Training and Development (Wulff)
- The Community College (Contreras)
- Graduate School & Career Choices (Coutu)

Theory

- Fundamentals of Communication Theory (McDermott)
- Communication Theory Development (Moy/Warnick)
- Environmental Theory and Practice (Norwood)

Research Methods

- Foundations of Communication Research (Schuetz)
- Methods of Inquiry (Manusov/Howard)
- Quantitative Data Analysis (Werder)
- Statistical Methods in Communication (Peters)
- Field Research Methods (Philipsen)
- Ethics in Teaching and Research (Coutu)
- Writing for Academic Publication (Coutu)

Rhetoric/Public Communication

- Rhetorical Criticism (K. Foss)
- Feminist Rhetorical Theories (K. Foss)
- Speeches of Female World Leaders (Independent Research)
- Communication Scholarship & Public Life (Philipsen)