THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT-PERCEIVED INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS

ON DOCTORAL STUDENTS' INFORMATION SEEKING BEHAVIORS

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In their studies on student motivation in th4e 1990s, Gorham & Christophel and Christophel & Gorham found that students perceived their own demotivation to be caused by instructor behaviors. While there are studies that explore the topic of student demotivation and other studies that illustrate the great influence instructors have on student information seeking behaviors, research focusing on the connection between these two concepts is almost nonexistent. Using Gorham & Christophel's concept of instructor-owned student demotivation, this mixed-methods study sought to identify which instructor behaviors doctoral computer science and information science students found demotivating and to what extent their perceptions of these demotivating instructor behaviors influenced their information seeking behaviors in a face-to-face classroom. Demographic and student-perceived demotivating instructor behavior surveys along with semi-structured interviews and follow-up questions were used to collect data. The surveys will be analyzed using descriptive statistics in Excel, and the semi-structured interviews and follow up questions were analyzed using content analysis and Colaizzi's method of phenomenological enquiry in NVivo. The findings showed that instructor demotivating behaviors not only influence student information seeking behaviors in the classroom, but they also can lead to lasting effects on the student. In addition, the participants have expectations of instructor behaviors, which come from their own experiences. These expectations also influence the level of demotivation they feel in a face-to-face classroom.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1   Introduction

Imagine it is the beginning of a new semester. A student walks into her first class feeling

excited about what she will learn in the coming semester. She has heard so many great things

about this class from her advisor and her peers, so she is happy that she was able to enroll in the

course before enrollment had reached its limit. To ensure that she does well in the class, she

decides to sit in the front row to better see the white board and hear the instructor. All her

supplies are in order, and she is ready to learn. Then the instructor walks in, and without

acknowledging the students or introducing himself, states that he had been given this course two

days prior and doesn't know that much about the subject. He expresses his anger at the

department for giving him this course for ten minutes then proceeds to tell the students that he is

not very happy to be teaching the course and as long as the students show up, they will earn an

A. At this point, this class isn't going to be what the student expected, and she realizes that based

on the instructor's initial behavior, she has to make a choice: she could stay in the course and

deal with the instructor's apathy towards the class and anger towards the department, or she

could drop the course and try to find another class before the end of the drop date. For some

students, there is no choice because they need to take the course to graduate. At that point, they

have to accept the instructor's behaviors just enough to meet their goal. What remains to be seen

is whether their perceptions of the instructor's demotivating behaviors will influence their

willingness to ask questions.

The question of this study is not whether doctoral students feel motivated by instructor

behaviors, but whether they are affected by what they perceive to be negative instructor

behaviors and how these perceptions affect how a student seeks information or to what extent the student seeks that information in a classroom environment.

1.2   Background of the Study

The relationship between instructors and students is an important aspect of successful instruction. DeVito (1986) discussed how this interpersonal relationship can affect instructional success. He argued that teaching should not only be viewed "as an interpersonal process, but also to explore how teaching follows the life cycle of a personal relationship" (p. 53). Teaching involves the process of relational development, which was defined as "the processes involved in creating an interpersonal relationship, from first contact to intimacy and possibly to dissolution" (DeVito, 1986, p. 51). The stages of relational development include contact (the first meeting where first impressions are made), involvement (sharing of superficial information about one another), intimacy (more personal information is shared; commitments are made and social bonding becomes more serious), deterioration (less self-disclosure occurs and awkwardness occurs), repair (to save the relationship, modifications occur to prevent the ending of the relationship) and dissolution (the relationship is over, and there might be conflicts and resentment) (DeVito, 1998, pp. 218-225). In relation to teaching, DeVito (1986) made the following assumptions: (1) teaching can be described as a relational process from initial contact, intimacy or closeness, 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 (pp. 51-59). Regardless of how engaging instructors might

find themselves to be, if the relations between the student and the instructor do not exist, or barely exists, the student-instructor relationship can have a grave effect on how students perceive their instructors. These perceptions then can affect how students view themselves and their efforts in the class, and more specifically, their information behaviors.

Most of the research that has been conducted on the effects of the relationship between instructors and students have been done in public education. Midgley, Feldaufer, and Eccles (1989) discovered that how students viewed instructor support was a strong predictor of the subjective nature of the student-instructor relationship. The authors "predict[ed] that for students who receive little change in teacher supportiveness before and after the transition [from elementary school to junior high], there will be relatively little change in the intrinsic value of math (math value) over the 2 years" (p. 982). On the other hand, the authors did predict that students who move from instructors who they perceived as supportive to instructors they perceived as not supportive will value math less. Students who move from instructors they perceive to be not supportive to instructors they perceived to be more supportive will show a greater appreciation for math. In her study of sixth graders, Wentzel (1998) reported that instructor support as perceived by the student had a surprisingly positive effect on how the participants felt about their goals and their social responsibility, and their willingness to follow rules and social norms. Murdoch, Anderman, and Hodge (2000) reported that "positive student-teacher relationships are characterized not only by interpersonal warmth but also by the clear communication that students' academic learning and success are valued. Student-teacher relationships may be key to understanding the process of alienation from schooling" (p. 329). In the realm of student enrollment, Murdoch (1999) reported that students who drop out of school oftentimes saw their instructors as "disinterested, disrespectful, and unfair" (p. 63). On the other

hand, students in middle school are motivated to perform well in school when they view their instructors as "challenging them with complex tasks, supporting them in their success, and providing opportunities for them to act autonomously" (Murdoch, 1999, p. 63). Wentzel (1997) conducted a longitudinal study following students from 6th grade to 8th grade. The author found that instructors who were described by the participants as "demonstrating democratic interaction styles, developing expectations for student behavior in light of individual differences, modeling a 'caring' attitude toward their own work, and providing constructive feedback" (Wentzel, 1997, pp. 411-412) were perceived to be caring instructors by the students. This level of caring made the participants in this study feel valued. In their longitudinal study that followed students from kindergarten to eighth grade, Hamre and Pianta (2001) discovered a link between students' perceptions of instructor closeness and dependency in the kindergarten classroom and behavior later in life. In the study, "boys [who were] viewed as dependent in kindergarten received fewer positive work-habit marks from teachers in lower elementary school and continued to have behavioral difficulties in upper elementary and middle school, as evidenced by higher rates of discipline problems" (Hamre & Pianta, 2001, 630). How teachers rated girls' dependency in kindergarten share no significant relation to their behavior later on in life, but girls who had a close relationship with their kindergarten instructors "tended to have more positive work habits in lower elementary school, as well as fewer disciplinary problems in upper elementary school" (Hamre & Pianta, 2001, p. 631). There was no relation between how the kindergarten instructors viewed closeness in their relationships with the boys of the class and the boys' behavioral modifications afterward.

The point of all this is to show that instructor behavior does influence student behavior beginning in students' formative years and continuing through their college experiences.

Unfortunately, there are no established studies which link instructor behavior with student information seeking behavior. As a result, Kuhlthau's (1991) Information Search Process (ISP) model was used as one of three conceptual frameworks to help explain the information seeking behaviors of students. According to the ISP model, students undergo several stages when searching for information. These stages include initiation, selection, exploration, formulation, collection, and presentation. At these stages, Kuhlthau (1991) identified specific affective, cognitive, and physical states of the searcher. The ISP model and how its importance to this study can be found in Chapter 2. Using the ISP model as one of the conceptual frameworks, this study will attempt to fill this gap by examining how student perceptions of instructor demotivating behaviors influence their information seeking behaviors.

1.3   Statement of the Problem

As a research topic, student-perceived demotivating instructor behaviors has been overshadowed by studies of student motivation and general information behavior. Several researchers have delved into the subject of student motivation in an attempt to help educators incorporate motivation techniques into their curriculum. This research topic extends into the study of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. While studies in demotivation have been conducted, most have focused on English-language learners. Information behavior studies have focused on improving student information literacy skills, student information retrieval preferences in the library, student information seeking on the Web, students' perceptions of librarians' intentions in the context of information seeking, and student group information seeking behaviors.

1.4   Purpose of the Study

This study had two foci. The first focus was to explore doctoral students' perspectives on instructor demotivating behaviors, specifically those instructor behaviors they identified as demotivating. Participants were asked to focus on the demotivating instructor behaviors they experienced during their undergraduate and graduate academic years. The second focus of this study was to determine if demotivating instructor behavior, as defined by the participants, had an effect on their information behaviors in the classroom.

1.5   Significance of the Study

This study contributes to information science through the exploration of how instructor demotivating behaviors affect student information behaviors. It has been found in other studies that information behaviors are often affected by cognitive processes, socio-economic status, race, etc. The study sought to determine if the demotivating behaviors of an authority figure (the instructor) keep students from seeking information of changing information behaviors. These findings are valuable to the research of information behaviors because it brings into the discussion the role students' interpretations of the instructor behaviors play in how they interact with information in a classroom setting.

1.6   Definition of Terms

- Amotivation: Amotivation is "a lack of motivation caused by the realisation [sic] that 'there is no point' or 'it's beyond me'" (Dornyei, 2001, p. 143).

- Communication apprehension: Communication apprehension is defined as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey, 1977, p. 78).

- Demotivation: Demotivation is "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action" (Dornyei, 2001, p. 143).

- Immediacy: Immediacy is "communication behaviors that enhance closeness to and nonverbal interaction with another" (Mehrabian, 1969, p. 203).

- Information: Information is "a term generally assumed to cover all instances where people interact with their environment in any such way that leaves some impression on them— that is, adds or changes their knowledge store" (Bates, 2010, p. 2381).

- Information needs: Information needs are "a recognition that [an individual's] knowledge is inadequate to satisfy a goal [the individual has]" (Case, 2012, p. 5).

- Information behaviors: Information behavior can be defined as

  the totality of human behavior in relation to sources and channels of information, including both active and passive information seeking, and information use. Thus, it includes face to-face communication with others, as well as the passive reception of information as in, for example, watching TV advertisements, without any intention to act on the information given. (Wilson, 2000a, p. 49)

- Information seeking behaviors: Information seeking behaviors occur when

  the individual is actively involved in finding meaning which is not necessarily the same answer for all, but sense-making within a personal frame of reference. Information from various sources is assimilated into what is already known through a series of choices. (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 361)

- Instructor aggressive communication: Instructor aggressive communication is "interpersonal communication [that] may be considered aggressive if it applies force physically and/or symbolically in order, minimally, to dominate and perhaps damage, or maximally, to defeat and perhaps destroy the locus of attack" (Infante, 1987, p. 158).

7

- Motivation: Motivation is defined as "the process of initiating, sustaining, and directing activity" (Wittrock, 1986, p. 304).

- Non-verbal immediacy: Non-verbal immediacy is defined as "non-linguistic actions which send four simultaneous and complementary messages" (Andersen & Andersen, 1982, p. 100).

- Receiver apprehension: Receiver apprehension is "the fear of misinterpreting, inadequately processing, and/or not being able to adjust psychologically to messages sent by others" (Wheeless, 1975, p. 263).

- Self-disclosure: Self-disclosure is "any information about [a person] which Person A communicates verbally with Person B . . . . [It is] both a personality construct and a process which occurs during interaction[s] with others" (Cozby, 1973, p. 73).

- Verbal immediacy behaviors: Verbal immediacy behaviors include an instructor's use of humor, praise of student work and behaviors, instigation of conversations with students before, during, and after class, disclosure of personal information, and invitation to students to share their thoughts and feelings about classroom contents (due dates, assignments, etc.) (Gorham, 1988).

1.7   Research Questions

The study examined the process that doctoral students go through when they have questions in a certain course. A phenomenological qualitative and quantitative approach to answer the following questions:

1. What behaviors do doctoral students expect from their instructors?
   a. Where do these expectations come from?

       b. How do doctoral students feel when their expectations of instructor behaviors are not met?

2. What instructor classroom behaviors do doctoral students perceive to be demotivating?

3. To what extent do instructor demotivating behaviors affect doctoral students' willingness to seek information from their instructors?

4. How does Kuhlthau's information search process (ISP) model help to explain the relationship between student-perceived instructor demotivating behaviors and student information seeking behaviors in a classroom setting?

1.8   Limitations

The limitations of this study included difficulty with generalizability due to sample size, and an unexpected low response rate due to scheduling conflicts. With qualitative research, generalizability can be difficult to obtain because it is usually associated with quantitative approach. While quantitative methods were used in this study, most of the data needed to answer the research questions came from the qualitative data collection tool (the semi-structured interviews). Based on the data collected from this study, it cannot be stated that all doctoral students, or doctoral students in the field of library and information sciences and computer science found certain instructor behaviors demotivating because the sample size was small. Another limitation was that the response rate was difficult to obtain. Even though a minimum of 10 participants was needed for this study, it required the participants to sit down with the researcher for an extended period of time for an interview and complete a follow up survey through email. One important aspect was because these participants are doctoral students, they often did have the time to participate. As a doctoral student, responsibilities relating to school, work, and publication, are important priorities. It was difficult to entice these students to give up whatever free time they had to be in the study. A third limitation was the concentration on the

face-to-face classroom instructor demotivating behaviors as opposed to the online classroom instructor demotivating behaviors. This was a limitation because of the prominent use of online courses in higher education. A fourth limitation was the inclusion of library and information sciences and computer science doctoral students only for this study. For the purpose of this study, to be able to test the demotivation theory on this small population, only the perspectives of the doctoral students was examined.

1.9   Delimitations

Several delimitations were used to narrow down the scope of the study. This was done to gain a better understanding of the perspectives of a target population.

The first delimitation was to limit the target population to the doctoral students. The reason behind this decision was because of the need to interview the population face-to-face; it was imperative to have immediate access to the population as well as the demographic and contact information provided by the department. It was easier and more convenient to obtain information concerning demographic makeup and contact information through in-person interaction than by asking each department for this confidential information through an email or over the phone. Face-to-face interaction with the department chairs and administrative assistants proved more helpful towards the feat of gaining trust than randomly sending a faceless email asking for confidential information. Another reason members of the doctoral population at this north Texas university were included was because there are a limited number of studies that have studied this population. While it is important for a researcher to branch out from his/her respective university, especially during the dissertation process, it is also important examine the needs and perspectives of the people closest to them. One could argue that this might lead to

bias, but 1) there is always a chance of bias regardless of proximity to the population; 2) proximity to a population does not necessarily guarantee bias, especially if the researcher is aware of the potential bias.

The second delimitation was the targeted doctoral population. Due to the established relation between information science as a discipline and computer science, doctoral students from these departments were invited to participate in this study. This inclusion does not mean that the perspectives of doctoral students in other departments, such as chemistry, English, pre-law, etc., were not important. A limit needed to be put in place as to which departments would be included in this study, and based on the works of Bates (1999) and Saracevic (1992; 1999), computer science was chosen based on their shared history and characteristics with the discipline of information science.

The third delimitation was the exclusion of the instructor perspective. Again, this exclusion does not mean to imply that their perspectives were not important. This study is focused on the perspective of doctoral students, and it is not a comparative study between these two populations.

1.10   Assumptions

The following assumptions were included in this study:

1.   All participants will answer the questions honestly and completely to the best of their memories. Anonymity and confidentiality will be established and communicated with each participant to encourage honesty in their answers and follow-up and clarification questions will be asked to help the participant remember their experiences.

2. Based on the concept of demotivation presented by Gorham and Christophel (1992) and Christophel and Gorham (1995), student demotivation is greatly influenced by instructor behavior.

3. Students are enrolled in a doctoral program in either computer science or information science.

4. The data instruments in this study will be useful and reliable in obtaining the information they were designed to obtain.

1.11   Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to inform the reader of the basics of this study: its purpose, why it is important to library and information sciences, important terms and definitions used, theoretical framework, research questions, the limitations and delimitations of the study, and assumptions. Chapter Two provides an introduction and analysis of the conceptual frameworks used in this study.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1   Introduction

The relationship between instructors and students can be tricky to understand due to the multitude of individual personalities, expectations, and experiences involved. Based on past studies, the communication between instructors and students is that instructor behavior influences student behavior.

The findings from Gorham and Christophel (1992) demonstrated that students credit their lack of motivation to instructor behavior, and they credit their motivation to themselves. In other words, motivation is a student-owned state, while demotivation is an instructor-owned problem. In 1995, Christophel and Gorham continued their work on student perceived instructor motivating and demotivating behavior by using Wlodkowski's (1978) definition to define motivation "as a process in which a student is able to act (student energy) makes a choice (volition) that includes a certain purpose (direction) followed by continuation (involvement)" (Christophel & Gorham, 1995, p. 293).

Because this study focuses on student perception of instructor behavior as opposed to student perception of their own behavior, the concept of instructor-owned demotivation was used because it concentrates on how instructor behavior directly affects student demotivation. Thid chapter discusses the procedures and findings of Gorham and Christophel (1992) and Christophel and Gorham (1995) in their studies of instructor-owned demotivation, and Kuhlthau's (1992) Information Search Process (ISP) model as a means to explain information seeking procedures. In addition, the research impact of these two studies and one model development is discussed and their purposes in the current study.

2.2   Gorham and Christophel (1992)

2.2.1   Procedure

Gorham and Christophel (1992) surveyed 308 undergraduate students "to elicit inductively students' perceptions of factors they perceive[d] as motivating them to do their best in college classes" (p. 241). They wanted the participants to report their perspectives without being prompted or restricted by any suggestion that the study was focused on instructor behaviors that affect student motivation. As a result, their following research questions were broad: "What factors do students perceive as motivators in college classes? [and] What factors do students perceive as demotivators in college classes?" (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 241). In their first research question, the authors attempted to determine whether an absence of motivation is related in any way to the lack of motivational factors or if distinct demotivating influences add to students' decreasing motivation to perform well in a college class. This inclusion came from the establishment of motivation as a dependent variable and the "presence or absence of something presumed to contribute to motivation as an independent variable" (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 241). In the second research question, while the authors did not want to prompt the participants to discuss motivating/demotivating instructor behaviors, they did wish to identify instructor behaviors that contributed to non-compliance and low immediacy. To accomplish this, Gorham and Christophel (1992):

> provided a set of prompts, midway through the questionnaire and after students had responded to open questions regarding motivators and demotivators, ask[ed] them first to consider specifically what the teacher of the class being referenced did that affected the student's level of motivation, and again asking about motivators and demotivators in general after exposure to the teacher immediacy scale used in Christophel's [(1990)] study. (p. 241)

The scale consisted of 34 descriptions of instructor behaviors, and the participants were asked to indicate how often their instructor used each behavior. They were then asked if they could think

of anything else that would influence their motivation in the classroom. This procedure allowed

the authors to separate those instructor behaviors that were found to directly influence student

motivation or demotivation from those responses that were collected by prompting the

participants to pay attention to instructor behaviors. The third and fourth research questions

focused on the degree to which instructor behaviors affected student motivation: "What teacher

behaviors do students identify as motivators and/or demotivators in college classes? [and] What

teacher behaviors do students identify as primary influences on motivation and/or demotivation

in college classes?" (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 242).

      After the questionnaires were coded, three categories were established: 1) teacher

behaviors; 2) class format; 3) class enrollment influences. The first category was perceived as

under the instructor's control (being nice to students, engaging students in lectures, establishing

office hours, or class attendance). For the second category, the participants perceived the

instructors as having some level of control (the organization of the materials, the textbook,

criteria for grades and assignments), and the participants perceived this category "as antecedent

to the teacher's influence", such as personal motivation, necessity of good grades, or feeling

towards the subject (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 243).

2.2.2   Findings

      Under the first research question, the authors found that the participants reported the

following motivators:

> interest in and perceived relevance of the material; the teacher's effectiveness and
> enthusiasm in lecturing; grade or credit motivation; the teacher's use of student-centered
> behaviors; positive responses to the organization of the course and material; opportunity
> to participate and feedback from the instructor; personal achievement motivation; and
> teacher competence/knowledge. (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 245)

Other behaviors included the instructor's sense of humor, instructor's friendliness, overall

contentment with evaluations and scores, an aspiration to please others, and the instructor's

disclosure of personal stories. Over 35% of the motivators were linked to the context category,

18% were linked to the structure/format category, and 44% of the motivators linked to the

teacher behavior category (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 246).

For the second research question, the authors found the participants reported the

following demotivators:

> the teacher's boring or confusing students; dissatisfaction with grading and assignment; negative responses to the organization of the course and material; the teacher's attitude toward students; dislike and perceived lack of relevance of the subject area; time of day, length of class, and personal factors; and the teacher's physical appearance. (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 246)

Regarding the established categories, 21% of demotivators were linked to the context category,

36% were linked to the structure/format category, and 43% were linked to the teacher behavior

category (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 246). Comparatively, factors related to context were

more important to motivation, while factors related to structure/format were more important to

demotivation. Teacher behavior contributed equally to student motivation and demotivation.

In their search for the contribution of instructor behaviors to student motivation and

demotivation, the authors found that the participants' responses changed somewhat after being

given the teacher behavior prompt. Before the participants were given the prompt, 743

motivators were identified: 470 motivators were context factors, 131 were structure/format

factors, and 142 were teacher behavior factors. After the participants were given the prompt, of

the 645 teacher behaviors that were identified as motivators, 503 teacher behaviors were reported

after participants were given the teacher behavior prompt (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 248).

On the other hand, before the participants were given the prompt, 583 demotivators were

identified: 168 demotivators were context factors, 216 were structure/format factors, and 199

were teacher behavior factors. After the participants were given the prompt, of the 399 teacher

behaviors that were identified as demotivators, 199 teacher behaviors were listed before the

prompt, and 200 teacher behaviors were listed after the participants were given the prompt

(Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 248). Based on this finding, the authors hypothesized that

instructor behavior was likely to be more closely related to student demotivation than to student

motivation. According to the authors:

> five of the ten teacher behavior demotivators (lack of knowledge/competence, no sense of
> humor/bad temper, boring or confusing students, behaviors indicating negative attitude
> towards students, and irresponsibility) appear more often before than after the prompt
> while all of the teacher behavior motivators appeared more often after the prompt.
> (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p. 248)

In addition, the teacher immediacy scale that appeared half way through the teacher behavior

prompt section was found to not influence the participants to identify specific teacher behaviors.

The overall finding reported in this study was that students perceive teacher behavior as a

small factor in "contributing to their overall motivation to do their best in college courses, and

the negative teacher behaviors are perceived as more central to students' demotivation than

positive behaviors are perceived as central to their motivation" (Gorham & Christophel, 1992, p.

249). In other words, if students feel motivated to do well in a course, they attribute this

motivation to themselves (their interest in the subject, their desire to achieve, their goal of

earning good grades, etc.). On the other hand, if they feel demotivated to do well in a course,

students attribute their demotivation to instructor behaviors.

2.3   Christophel and Gorham (1995)

2.3.1   Procedure

Two years later, Christophel and Gorham (1995) set out to retest their 1992 findings. They wished to determine if the pattern of student perceived motivation and demotivation would be the same in another population and "to focus attention specifically on relationships between and changes in, immediacy and motivation within teacher-student relationships across the term in which a course meets" (Christophel & Gorham, 1995, p. 295). The research questions of this study are guided by these relationships as they would occur throughout a semester in a college course: 1) the identification of the participants' perceptions of principal causes of motivation and demotivation; 2) the possibility of change in the participants' perceptions of principal cause of motivation and demotivation in their classes; 3) the modification of state motivation; 4) the modification of instructor immediacy; 5) the identification of a consistent relationship between student state motivation and instructor immediacy behaviors; 6) the identification of a steady relationship between student state motivation and their perceptions of principal causes of motivation and demotivation; 7) the identification of a constant relationship between instructor immediacy behaviors and the participants' perceptions of principal causes of motivation and demotivation.

There were 319 undergraduate participants in this study. The data was collected twice during a sixteen-week semester. The first part of the data collection happened during the third of fourth week of the semester, while the second part of the data collection happened at the 12th and 13th week of the semester. The data collection tool was a two-part questionnaire that asked the participants to think of the course they took immediately before the course where the data was collected. They were also instructed to answer the questions in the order they were presented.

The first part of the questionnaire requested the participants' and the courses' demographic information. Two open-ended questions concerning the factors that motivated the participants to perform well in the class and factors that demotivated them from performing well in the class followed. After the open-ended questions, the participants were asked to report their state motivation levels and their perceptions of instructor immediacy behaviors. State motivation, defined as "an attitude toward a specific class" (Christophel & Gorham, 1995, p. 293), was measured using antonym adjectives (i.e., motivated/unmotivated, enthusiastic/unenthusiastic, engaged/not engaged) to determine the participants' feelings toward a class. Teacher immediacy behaviors were measured by asking the participants to respond to a list of verbal (20) and non-verbal (14) instructor behaviors. In addition, the participants were asked to rank how often the instructor used these behaviors from a scale of 0 (*never used*) to 4 (*used very often*).

2.3.2   Findings

After the open-ended responses were transcribed, the categories from Gorham and Christophel (1992) were used: context factors, structure/format, and instructor behaviors. To determine the participant-perceived sources of motivation and demotivation, in the first data collection the authors found that the participants gave 607 motivator descriptions (387 context factors, 82 structure/format factors, and 138 instructor behavior factors) and 489 demotivator descriptions (189 context factors, 120 structure/format factors, and 180 instructor behavior factors). In the second data collection, the participants gave 551 motivator descriptions (333 context factors, 76 structure/format factors, and 142 instructor behavior factors) and 483 demotivator descriptions (175 context factors, 134 structure/format factors, and 174 instructor behavior factors) (Christophel & Gorham, 1995, p. 298).

While the chi-square tests did not find a significant difference between the motivators and demotivators taken at the data collection periods, a significant difference in the distribution of the structure/format and instructor behavior motivators in both data collection periods reported fewer structure/format factors and more instructor behavior factors than found in Gorham and Christophel (1992). There were significant differences in the distribution of context and structure/format motivators in both data collection periods in that this study reported more context demotivators and less structure/format demotivators.

The authors suggested that context factors could be referred to "student-owned sources of motivation/demotivation" and structure/format with instructor behavior factors may be referred to as "teacher-owned sources of motivation/demotivation" (Christophel & Gorham, 1995, p. 298). Based on these assumptions, there were no significant differences between the distribution of student-owned and instructor-owned motivation sources, but there was a significant difference in the student-owned versus teacher-owned demotivation sources in this and Gorham and Christophel's (1992) findings. The finding that motivation was student-owned and demotivation was instructor owned as reported in Gorham and Christophel (1992) was also found in this study. As stated in Christophel and Gorham (1995):

> Nearly two-thirds of student perceived sources of motivation (64% [from the first data collection], 60% [from the second data collection], 63% [from Gorham & Christophel (1992)]) were student-owned, while approximately two-thirds of reported sources of demotivation (61% [from the first data collection]; 64% [from the second data collection]; 71% [from Gorham & Christophel (1992)] were teacher-owned. (p. 298)

In addition, the participants' state motivation levels were found to be changed by instructor behaviors during the semester. There were no significant changes in instructors' verbal immediacy behaviors between the two data collection periods, but there was a significant increase of instructor non-verbal immediacy behaviors between the data collection periods. This

could be because "verbal immediacy relationships were fairly quickly established (with a fairly immediate influence on state motivation), while nonverbal immediacy relationships were somewhat slower in developing and thus somewhat slower to achieve their full influence on state motivation (Christophel & Gorham, 1995, p. 302).

The relationship between instructor immediacy and state motivation was found to be significant at both data collection periods, and the relationship between student state motivation and student-perceived sources of motivation and demotivation demonstrated a negative relationship at both data collection periods. This may be because the participants with higher state motivation reported fewer demotivating instructor behaviors. In the first data collection period, a negatively significant relationship between structure/format and instructor behavior motivating factors and state motivation. Participants with higher state motivation reported more structure/format and instructor behaviors as sources of motivation. The difference between the findings of the first and second data collection periods in relation to state motivation and the factors were not significant. A negatively significant relationship was found between instructor behaviors perceived as demotivating and instructor verbal immediacy at both data collection periods.

In addition, there was a significantly positive relationship between structure motivating factors and verbal instructor immediacy behaviors at both data collection periods. The participants who perceived their instructors to be more verbally immediate reported more structure/format factors as their sources of motivation and a significantly lesser number of instructor behaviors as demotivation sources. In the first data collection period, there was a significantly negative relationship between context motivators and instructor immediacy behaviors. The participants who perceived their instructors as more verbally immediate reported

few context factor demotivators. At the second data collection period, there was a significantly negative relationship between demotivating instructor behaviors and instructor nonverbal immediacy behaviors. The students who perceived their instructors as nonverbally immediate reporter fewer demotivating instructor behaviors.

2.3.3   Uses in Established Studies

While the finding that student demotivation is instructor-owned has not been tested in established literature, Gorham and Christophel (1992) and Christophel and Gorham (1995) have been cited in other demotivation studies. Falout and Falout (2005) used these studies to discuss the concept of context demotivators in an English language learning environment. Zhang, Zhang, and Castelluccio (2011) included the concept of instructor-owned demotivation in their study comparing the opposition levels of American and Chinese college students. In their study of demotivation among engineering and human science students in Iran, Ghadirzadeh, Hashtroudi, and Shokri (2012) cited the instructor-owned demotivation concept in discussion of instructor attitude, instructional style and competency, and English language proficiency. Kikuchi (2013) included Gorham and Christophel's work to discuss college-level English language proficiency demotivation literature in Japan, China, the United States, and Germany.

2.3.4   Importance in Current Study

Again, the concept of instructor-owned student demotivation has not been tested in other studies as much as it has been referenced in studies of demotivation, specifically studies including English-language learning proficiency. This study employed the findings of Gorham and Christophel (1992) and Christophel and Gorham (1995) to determine if instructor-owned

demotivation has an effect on doctoral students' information seeking behaviors. Given that the original concept was tested on undergraduates and this study used doctoral students as participants, there was a chance that this concept would not apply to this population in that the participants in this study would not feel that instructor behaviors are solely to blame for their lack of motivation. While this chance did exist, it still was important to identify possible instructor demotivating behaviors as perceived by doctoral students and whether these behaviors hinder or obstruct their information-seeking behaviors in a face-to-face classroom setting.

2.4   Kuhlthau (1991) Information Search Process (ISP) Model

Kuhlthau's (1991) information search process (ISP) model focuses on an individual's perceptions during information seeking. Like Raber's (2003) cognitive metaphor of information (CMI) model, which is discussed later in this chapter, the ISP model is concerned with the peoples' feelings and cognitive processes. Unlike the CMI model, the ISP model also considers the literal actions of individuals as they search for information. As stated by Kuhlthau (1991), the "personal meaning that the user seeks from the information becomes as critical a consideration for system design and mediation as the context represented in texts" (p. 361). In a search for personal meaning to information, according to Kuhlthau (1991), the individual goes through several stages: initiation, selection, exploration, formulation, collection, and presentation.

In the initiation stage, the individual recognizes that she has an information need. This information need can be recognized because noise, in the form of the instructor's behaviors got in the way of their understanding of the instructor's intended message. For example, if a student is having difficulty following a review for the mid-term exam because the instructor is mumbling his lecture, the student may realize at this time that she has an information need because the

instructor's behavior is preventing her from knowing what materials will be on the exam. The emotions associated with this stage include uncertainty and anxiety. At the same time, the cognitive processes include "[t]houghts center[ing] on contemplating the problem, comprehending the task, and relating the problem to prior experience and knowledge" (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 366). The physical actions include engaging in a discourse of related topics and approaches to fill the information need. In the next step, selection, the individual must identify and chose a general topic to be explored. The feelings of uncertainty that were present in the initiation stage give way to feelings of hope and an enthusiasm to pursue this new knowledge. This could mean that the student asks the instructor to repeat certain parts of the review or waits to ask a fellow student. The thoughts of the individual at this stage include comparing the potential topics against his own interest in the topic, the requirements of the assignment, information that is available to the individual, and how much time the individual has to engage with this information. Furthermore, at this stage the individual makes a prediction as to outcome of pursuing each potential topic and each topic is evaluated on its success rate in filling the information need. The physical actions of the selection stage include discussing the topic with others, and "[s]ome may make a preliminary search of information available, and skim and scan for an overview of alternative topics" (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 366). In the event that the selection stage is hindered in any way, the feelings of anxiety will return and increase until the individual has made a selection. Once the selection is made, the individual can move on to the stage of exploration. In this particular stage, the individual is tasked to further explore an "information on a general topic in order to extend personal understanding" (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 366). The importance lies in the individual's ability to make sense of her understanding of the information. Prior to this, thoughts centered on general interest, assignment requirements, information

availability, and the success rate of the information to fill the information need, Now, the

thoughts associated with the exploration stage include "becoming oriented and sufficiently

informed about the topic to form a focus or a personal point of view" (p. 366). Because the

individual is unsure about what information is needed to complete the task, communication

between the individual and the information system can become tedious and frustrating on both

sides. The actions associated with this stage include finding the information about the topic,

reading to find out more about the topic, and assimilating the new information with established

knowledge. Due to the massive amount of concentration and attention to his own understanding,

the individual may experience discouragement and frustration with the information system,

which may lead some individuals to completely leave the search for information. Those who

continue with the information search will experience the next stage of formulation. In this stage,

the individual experiences feelings of increased confidence and certainty. At this point, the

individual has gathered enough information from the system to create a focus point of the topic.

In relation to the topic, the individual begins "identifying and selecting ideas in the information

from which to form a focused perspective of a topic. . . . The topic becomes more personalized at

this stage if construction is taking place" (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 366). While it is possible that the

focus of the topic may develop from "in a sudden moment of insight, it is more likely to emerge

gradually as constructs become clearer" (p. 366). As the focus of the topic comes together, the

individual feels confidence and lucid about the topic. In the next stage, communication between

the individual and the information system work at an effective level of efficiency. The individual

focuses on collecting information related to the topic with the individual's "[t]houghts

center[ing] on defining, extending, and supporting the focus" of the topic (p. 366). In this stage

more control is exhibited by the individual who chose information that shows relevance to the

topic and take notes on information that the individual judges as relevant only to the focused

topic. As a result, the individual can better communicate her specific needs for information to the

information system and other people, which leads to a more inclusive search. The individual's

confidence at the stage has increased and uncertainty has decreased. In addition, the individual's

interest in the information seeking process has become more pronounced. In the final stage,

presentation, the individual feels a sense of relief and a level of accomplishment if the search

was successful. If it was not perceived as successful, then the individual will feel dissatisfaction

and disappointment. The individual works towards completing the search and sharing the

findings with others, or presenting the findings in another capacity. Thoughts move from finding

support of the topic to developing a personal summary of the topic. The actions in the

presentation stage include "a summary search in which decreasing relevance and increasing

redundancy are noted in the information encountered" (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 366). Organizing

notes, preparing an outline, or other forms of organizing the research for presentation also occur

in this step.

2.4.1   Importance in Current Study

Kuhlthau's ISP model is important to this research because it provides an inside view into

how students approach an information need. In this case, the instructor could serve as the

information system in the sense that some information gaps must be filled by the instructor.

These information gaps may include questions regarding a specific concept presented in a

lecture, a statement in the syllabus, assignment instructions, etc. In the ISP model, the individual

(student) works through the process of finding, evaluating, and then presenting information.

These three steps occur on a continuous basis in the classroom. Acknowledging and

understanding the various stages is useful to explain how fragile a student information seeking

behavior is if he perceives the main information system, the instructor, to behave in a

demotivating manner.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1   Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between student information

behaviors and instructor demotivating behaviors. The purposes of this review is to show 1) the

influence of instructors on student information seeking behaviors; 2) the body of research on

demotivating instructor behaviors; 3) how student perceive instructor behaviors; 4) how student

demographics affect student evaluations; 5) how instructor demographics affect student

evaluations; 6) other factors that affect student evaluations.

3.2   Information, Information Needs, Factors Influencing Information Transmission, and
        Information Seeking Behavior Definitions

3.2.1   Information

Given the interdisciplinary nature of information science, the term information has been

defined in many ways. The inability to settle on one definition of the term has led to many

debates on its true meaning. Since this study also deals with the communicative relationship

between instructors and students and its effect on student information behaviors, it is important

to consider how information is defined in the realm of communication as it can be applied to the

information transfer process from instructors to students.

Bates (2010) defined information as "a term generally assumed to cover all instances

where people interact with their environment in any such way that leaves some impression on

them—that is, adds or changes their knowledge store" (p. 2381). These instances can include

emotional transformations after reading a text or finding out sad information, and the

assimilation of new knowledge with existing knowledge to create a new understanding of a given

28

situation or topic. Because Bates (2010) definition considers the environment as an influence of modifying people's points of view, it will be used as the definition of information in this study.

In the context of a classroom environment, students interact with the information provided by their instructors which influences or modifies their established knowledge. For example, an instructor lectures on lab safety in an organic chemistry course. The students in the class have taken several chemistry classes and feel they know all about lab safety. Knowing this, the instructor decides to show the students his right arm. When he was a PhD student, he received 2nd degree burns on his right arm because he forgot to check if the Bunsen burner was turned off before he mixed two chemicals. Again because the students had previous experience, they knew to double check the Bunsen burners during a chemical experience, but because the instructor has shared his experience (information) with lab safety, this information (the showing of his scarred right arm) leaves an impression on the students.

3.2.2   Information Needs

Because humans are in various environments where their knowledge is modified, they constantly need information. Information needs are "a recognition that [an individual's] knowledge is inadequate to satisfy a goal" (Case, 2012, p. 5). This inadequacy of knowledge can be associated with various information, such as the name of the sixth president, the weather forecast, or the location of Yellowstone National Park.

A person's recognition of a missing knowledge can lead to feelings of frustration and anxiety. Wilson (2000b) addressed the confusion that occurs when the terms information and need are brought together. For this, Wilson (2000b) examined the common human needs: 1) Physiological needs, or the need for human necessities to survive (i.e., food, water, shelter, etc.);

2) Emotional needs, or the need for acceptance, accomplishment, happiness, etc.; 3) Cognitive

needs, or the need to engage in critical thinking, plans, skill development, etc. From these three

basic human needs, Wilson (2000b) found a connection in that each need may trigger another

need. (See Figure 3.1).
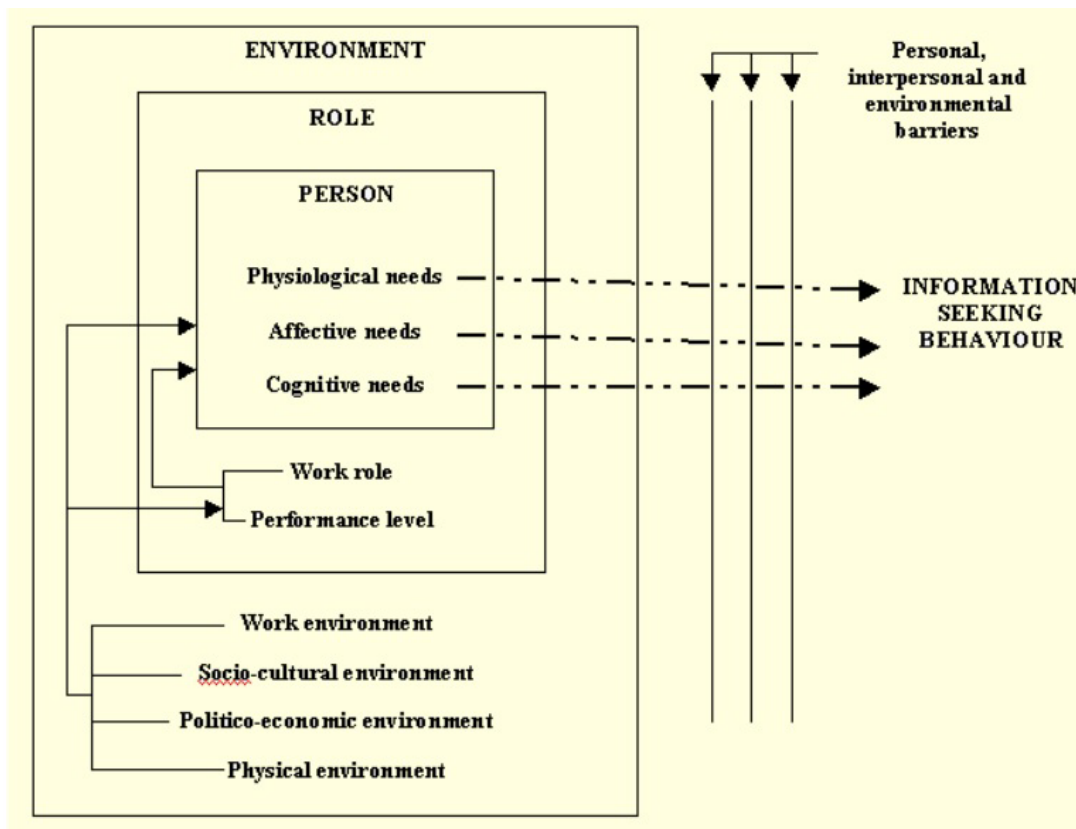
Figure 3.1. Wilson's connection between human needs and information seeking behavior (2000b).

Wilson (2000b) wrote:

> physiological needs may trigger affective and/or cognitive needs, affective needs may give rise to cognitive needs, and problems relating to the satisfaction of cognitive needs (such as a failure to satisfy needs, or fear of disclosing needs) may result in affective needs (e.g., for reassurance). (p. 5)

In an attempt to satisfy these needs, an individual will engage in information seeking behaviors.

Wilson (2000b) advised that the term information needs be replaced with "information-seeking

towards the satisfaction of the needs" (p. 6) because the satisfaction of the need is what drives an

individual to seek information. This does not mean that an individual will immediately respond by seeking information when she has an emotional or cognitive need because other factors also influence information seeking behavior. Humans are complex creatures. The decision to seek information based on a need may occur immediately, it may occur later, or it may never occur because the individual does not recognize the need or know what action to take to satisfy said need.

3.2.3 Factors Influencing Information Transmission

Shannon and Weaver's (1963) *The Mathematical Theory of Communication* is a seminal work used in numerous disciplines to describe the communication process between a sender and a receiver in the context of data transmission. It is an important theory used in information science because it details on a physical level the transmission of communication through a channel, which was revolutionary in its attention to information and communication systems.

Shannon and Weaver's (1963) mathematical theory of communication (MTC) took a scientific approach to communication by placing emphasis on the sender's freedom in message selection and the channels involved in the communication process. A major weakness of the MTC is its lack of consideration for meaning; in fact, its main purpose is to discuss the technical process of message transmission in absolute terms. Its concentration on the sender and its negligence on the knowledge component of communication makes this theory seem incomplete in the discussion of the information behaviors. On the other hand, what makes this theory necessary to include is its foundational and technical point of view of communication. In other words, while this theory doesn't take meaning into account, it makes message selection, sender freedom, and noise obstructions important aspects. For this study, these parts of the MTC were

adapted to explain one side of the communication process between instructors and students: the instructor's point of view.

Because some of the mathematics is beyond the scope of this dissertation, only the basics of the theory will be included. In this theory, Shannon and Weaver (1963) discussed the technical aspects of information transfer from one party to another, specifically the possible obstructions in the transmission of a message between the two entities. Because this study aims to understand how instructors, the MTC was adapted to consider the roles instructors and students play in the communication process and how noise, in the form of instructor behaviors, can influence student perceptions of instructor messages. This theory is valuable to this study because it provides an explanation of what might happen when an instructor attempts to transmit a message to a student. Since the focus of this dissertation is the perception of doctoral students concerning their instructors' behaviors, the instructor served as the information source and the student served as the receiver.

In the communication system detailed in the MTC, there are five entities: the information source, the transmitter, the channel, the receiver, and the destination. The information source develops a single message or a group of messages that is meant to be communicated with the receiving terminal. The transmitter works as a mediating agent between the information source and the receiver by adapting the message into a signal which will then be transmitted from the transmitter through the communication channel to the receiver. The channel is the entity used to communicate the signal from transmitter to receiver. The receiver acts as the opposite of the transmitter in that it changes the transmitted signal back into a message which will go on to the destination. The destination is the person the information source intended the message to go to. See Figure 3.2.
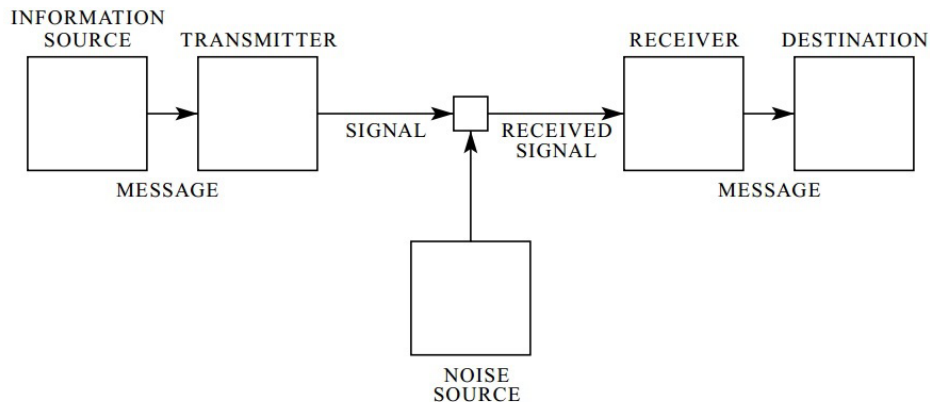
Figure 3.2. Schematic diagram of a general communication system (Shannon & Weaver, 1963).

In the context of a classroom, the instructor's brain is the information source, the verbal or non-verbal communication used by the instructor in the form of vocal chords, body language, etc. is the transmitter, the student's ear canal acts as the receiver, and the student's brain is the destination. Again, a weakness of this theory is that the transmission of knowledge is not considered, so this process is a physical description of what happens when the instructor makes the decision to share what he deems as helpful or relevant data. According to Floridi (2010), "data + meaning" equals information. Without the assignment of meaning to data, it does not become information. The entity, or in this case, the person responsible for assigning meaning to the data is the student.

Of course not every system is perfect, and there may be some issues in the transmission between the information source and the destination. Unintended additions to the signal can cause the transmission of the information source's message to become distorted. These distortions are known as noise. When a noise source(s) is introduced to the signal, "then the received message contains certain distortions, certain errors, certain extraneous material, that would certainly lead one to say that the received message exhibits, because of the effects of the noise, an increased uncertainty" (Shannon & Weaver, 1963, p. 19).

The freedom of choice lies in the ways the instructor decides to convey data. The choices come from their mode of instruction, examples used, types of assignments, etc. Uncertainty that is born from various types or errors or the presents of noise is considered to be undesirable uncertainty. Uncertainty that stems from the sender's freedom to choose the message is considered to be desirable uncertainty. For example, if an instructor chose to leave out an important step in a mathematical lecture because said instructor wants the students to question why the step is missing, then this would be desired uncertainty because the freedom of choice in the message belongs to the instructor. On the other hand, if the instructor leaves out an important step in mathematical lecture because she simply forgot to explain it, then this is an example of undesirable uncertainty. Because of the complexity that noise adds to the communication system, undesirable uncertainty, according to Shannon and Weaver (1963), must be eliminated for the intended message to be received by the destination. Unfortunately, this is not always possible because humanity is fallible.

Instructor demotivating behaviors, for example, can be considered as noise because they can obstruct the instructor's meaning in the communication channel. In a classroom, if a student perceives the instructor to talk too quickly, the students' perception of the instructor's speech pattern could be considered noise in that it prevents the student from assigning meaning to the instructor's intended message. When noise is present in the communication channel between the instructor and student, this could lead to the student 1) feeling demotivated and 2) recognize an information need; 3) begin an information seeking process. Unfortunately, Shannon and Weaver (1963) didn't consider the effects of the destination in the form of the students' brain in discussing the transmission of information through the channel.

3.2.4   Information Seeking Behaviors

In simple terms, information seeking behaviors can be defined as behaviors one participates in to find information. Of course, this is a very simplistic view because it doesn't consider the assignment of meaning in the information seeking process. A definition offered by Kuhlthau (1991) includes the concept of cognition in terms of assigning meaning to information. Because this definition includes this concept, it will be used to guide this study.

Kuhlthau (1991) discussed information seeking behaviors in terms of individual meaning. She believed the information seeking process happened when people are "actively involved in finding meaning which is not necessarily the same answer for all, but sense-making within a personal frame of reference (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 361). People engage in information seeking behaviors constantly in order to understand the world around them. In the classroom environment, students are perpetually seeking information in order to satisfy their learning goals. However, the act of seeking information doesn't guarantee the true understanding of it. This is why an individual's assignment of meaning to the information is important. For example, a student asks his instructor about an assignment due date. The instructor, not on purpose, states the dates quickly and moves on to the lecture. Because the student wasn't able to understand the information provided by the instructor, as per Shannon and Weaver's (1963) concept of noise, he was unable to assign meaning to it; thus, the process of information seeking did not provide him with the information he needed. The ability to assign meaning to the information is an important aspect in the information seeking process.

3.3   Information Science Theories and Models

There are several theories and models which take various approaches to the communication of information. These approaches include message transmission, meaning, and cognitive processes. For this study, it is important to point out that the transmission of information from the instructor to the student involves the point of views of both the instructor and the student. Unfortunately, theories and models that explain the complete process of information transmission from instructor to student and the students' information seeking behaviors are extremely hard to find. This is why the following theories and models have been adopted and adapted to explain the communication and information searching process between instructors and students. Using Raber's (2003) cognitive metaphor of information (CMI) in an attempt to explain the aftermath of failed communication transmissions, due to noise, between the instructor and the student from the point of view of the student.

3.4   Raber's (2003) Cognitive Metaphor of Information

Raber's (2003) cognitive metaphor of information (CMI) examines the relationship between information and the destination's (using Shannon and Weaver's (1963) terms) interpretation of that information. As a result, the CMI acts as a further explanation of the full process of information transfer from the information source to the destination.

A major assumption of the CMI is that information is a situational theoretical object. This means that information, in the form of symbols, signs, text, etc., must receive its meaning from an outside source which interprets the information. In the transmission of information, "a sign [symbol, text, etc.], whether naturally or intentionally communicative, must be 'read', interpreted, and translated into meaning before it can be interpreted as information, which is

accomplished by engaging the influence of a 'reader's' situation" (Raber, 2003, p. 95). For this study, the student is the outside interpreter of the information shared by the instructor, or the sender.

Many factors can influence a reader's interpretation and construction of the information's meaning. These include the nature of the information, the situation where and when the reader has come across the information, the reader's thoughts, feelings, and social standing at the moment she comes across the information (Raber, 2003, p. 95). These factors contribute to the situational status of the CMI. For example, in the classroom, a student listens to his instructor lecture on immigration law in his political science course. The student's interpretation of the information shared by the instructor is influenced by the fact that his mother just became a United States citizen two years prior. As a result of this experience with his mother, the student encounters the information with interest and associates the information the instructor is sharing with his and his mother experiences with immigration law. This situation is a best-case scenario, but noise, in the form of the instructor's tone, body language, or overall behavior towards the subject of immigration, may have a negative influence on the student's interpretation of the instructor's message. If the instructor, for example, provides what the student interprets as racist or bigoted sentiments in the discussion of immigration, the student dismisses the instructor's information or become angry. This of course, a worst-case scenario, but it does illustrate the point that the student's established cognitive experiences can influence the interpretation of the instructor's information.

Of course, not every person will interpret the same situation in the same way; as a result, people have different interpretations of the same information. This is where the CMI becomes theoretical. The same information given to one person may be interpreted differently by another

person because a different meaning will be assigned by the second interpreter. As a result, this information becomes a "theoretical object, [which] cannot be understood solely in the language of physical things", as they are presented in Shannon and Weaver (1963). Going back to the previous example, there is another student who is listening to the instructor's lecture on immigration. She doesn't have any immediate experience with or previously-established opinions about the subject of immigration, but this doesn't mean that she cannot assign meaning to the information. It does mean that she doesn't assign the same meaning to the information as the student who had personal experience with immigration. Her assignment of meaning to the information will be different from the other student's interpretation because they have different experience with the information. In addition, her interpretation of the noise in the message may also be different. Because of her non-existent experience with immigration, she might not find the instructor's inclusion of personal opinions as racist or bigoted as the other student did. Her definition of noise may be the instructor's overuse of his hands while talking because it distracts her from his intended message, which keeps her from understanding the concept of immigration.

The CMI helps to explain the importance of student's feelings, thoughts, and previous experiences on their interpretation of a message given by an instructor. Unfortunately, it doesn't explain the student's process of filling in her knowledge gap when information is not understood. Kuhlthau's (1991) information search process (ISP) model examines the students' search for information when an information gap is realized.

3.5   The Influence of Instructors on Student Information Seeking Behaviors

While research has been conducted on the information seeking behaviors of graduate students, most of the research findings have been related to how graduate students search for

information in the library setting. Given that this study aims to find a link between doctoral students' information seeking behaviors and student-perceived instructor demotivating behavior in a classroom setting, the following section will focus on the influence instructors have on students' information seeking behaviors.

Thomas (1993) found that doctoral students reported that they preferred more input from administrators and faculty, whom they also considered to be the most credible sources" (p. 127). In their study of the information seeking behaviors of undergraduate and graduate students in various disciplines, Gabridge, Gaskell, and Stout (2008) reported that the participants became aware of resources through the recommendations of their instructors and fellow students. The participants "relied on the opinions of others when choosing tools and information to use" (Gabridge et al., 2008, p. 520). In her study of the information behaviors of graduate educator students, Catalano (2010) found that 92% of the participants "felt equally comfortable finding information from a search engine and their professor" (p. 25). Later, Catalano made the assertion that "[g]raduate students, especially doctoral students, are more likely to consult their professors, the experts, first. However, the culture of the department may interfere with the student feeling comfortable enough to initiate a consultation" (p. 264). Earp (2008) examined which information sources were preferred by education graduate students at Kent State. The author reported that 62.5% of 32 doctoral students and 37.5% of 22 master's students stated they sought help from their instructors (p. 82).The doctoral students in Vezzosi's (2009) information behavior study commented on the importance of having personal communication with their instructors throughout their research process.

George, Bright, Hurlbert, Linke, and St. Clair (2006) reported that the information seeking behaviors of graduate students relied heavily on the advice of instructors and advisors

because some students have yet to develop networks outside of their respective university. Out of 100 graduate students (36 master's students and 64 doctoral students) from various disciplines, over 95% of the participants stated that their professors, advisors, committee members, etc. were influential in their research and information seeking processes. This finding was consistent through all the disciplines used in this study. According to George et al. (2006):

> Providing direction and guidance, academic staff answer questions, offer recommendations and provide resources. They help students to build the foundation for the work that follows. One or two key papers, a classic book, or a relevant journal can lead to a whole host of resources. (p. 5)

The researchers also found that the participants reported receiving recommendations on sources from their instructors and advisors since they have more familiarity with the available professional literature. The participants find these recommendations helpful because the resource recommendations point the participants toward a new and unexplored direction in their research. In addition, instructors and advisors serve an important role in getting student resources using their own professional networks or resources only available to the faculty. In an attempt to help their students with their research, instructors and advisors "pass on journal articles, books, research papers, spreadsheets, data sets and their own papers or those of noted authors" (George et al., 2006, p. 6). The instructors and advisors also provide students with information through email, casual conversations, formal face-to-face meetings, student mailboxes, etc.

Kerns, Madden, and Fulton (2004) reported that both law and engineering students who participated in their study preferred to seek the information from instructors or subject experts. The engineering students "favored personal direction, either from an available lecturer or an expert. Similarly, law students appeared to be strongly influenced by their lecturers, who tend[ed] to shape student impressions of how information seeking and legal research should be approached" (Kerns et al., 2004, para. 22). The law students in this study reported feeling a

distance between themselves and their instructors, which at times did not support an environment of trust. While the law students felt encouraged by their instructors to seek out their own knowledge, the law students still wanted more guidance from their instructors. With this group, the law students often used their instructors as a last resort information source when they were experiencing an information seeking obstacle because the students viewed the instructors as standoffish. The engineering students reported feeling comfortable approaching their instructors and were "encouraged by their lecturers to consult engineers and specialists in the field" (Kerns et al., 2004, para. 26).

Barrett (2005) reported that while the graduate humanities students at the University of West Ontario were working on research projects by themselves, they stated that personal contact with their project supervisors was an important aspect of research support, guidance, and feedback. From the students' perspectives, "[s]upervisors were described as providing valuable advice, encouragement, suggestions concerning resources and research topics, and introductions to other contacts" (Barrett, 2005, p. 326).

3.6   Student Motivation and Demotivation

This section examines the literature concerning student motivation and demotivation. Definitions of motivation, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, amotivation, and demotivation, and studies examining these concepts, are included in this section.

3.6.1   Motivation

Wittrock (1986) defined motivation as "the process of initiating, sustaining, and directing activity" (p. 304). From this definition, it can be implied that everyone is motivated, but not all

students are motivated to learn (McGregor, 1999). Brophy (1983, 1987) argued that learning and performance were two completely different concepts. He stated that learning was "the information-processing, sense-making, and comprehension or mastery advances that occur during the acquisition of knowledge or skill" (Brophy, 1987, p. 41), and performance was simply a demonstration of that mastery of the content. Brophy (1983, 1987) made the distinction between these two terms in order to explain motivation to learn.

According to Brophy (1987), motivation to learn indicates "the motivation that drives later performance . . . [and] the motivation underlying the cover processes that occur during learning" (p. 41). In other words, strategies to motivate students to learn must involve both recognitions of performance on assessments and information-processing skills, such as critical thinking and assimilation of content, which makes motivation to learn different from extrinsic motivation to perform. Brophy (1983) believed that motivation to learn can be divided into a trait and a state. He defined trait motivation to learn as " an enduring disposition to value learning for its own sake—to enjoy the process and take pride in the outcomes of experiences involving knowledge acquisition or skill development" (Brophy, 1983, p. 200). State motivation to learn is based on a situation and occurs when students involve themselves in class activities by making attempts to become proficient in a particular concept or skill. Students who have trait motivation to learn are not always the students who will believe every assignment or task is enjoyable, but they will complete the tasks in a serious manner, find some meaning or purpose in them, and attempt to gain some benefits from completing these tasks. Eden (1975) theorized that people will be motivated to complete tasks if the tasks are relevant to them. If the reward for completing a task appeals to people, then they will feel an increase in motivation to complete the task; on the other hand, if the incentive for completing a task does not interest people, then there will be a

decrease in motivation to complete the task. Harter (1975) found that motivation increased when students were able to successfully complete what they perceived to be a task that required a sensible amount of effort from them. The students judged a task based on how much time it took for them to finish it. As stated by Harter, the students "were extremely sensitive to the time dimension and verbally expressed dissatisfaction over their performance if they felt the solution time was too lengthy" (p. 46).

Brophy (1983) believed that everyone is born with the possibility of having the motivation to learn, but learning experiences and conditioning determine a person's trait motivation and state motivation to learn. As people gain values in their learning environment, they discover their strengths and weaknesses, likes and dislikes, etc. As their learning environment becomes more complicated, their general motivation, in particular state motivation to learn, can be explained by the Expectancy X Value theory. In relation to Eden (1975) and Harter (1975), this theory postulates that "the degree of effort that individuals will put forth in attempting to reach a particular goal will be the function of the value they place on reaching the goal and their expectancy of being able to reach it if they do not make the effort" (Brophy, 1983, p. 200). Both factors must be present for effort to be placed forward. From this, Expectancy X Value theory of motivation indicates that in order to motivate students to learn, instructors must show them that academic activities are valuable and ensure that the students are successful when engaging in these activities if they put forth a reasonable amount of effort (Brophy, 1987).

3.6.2   Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation develops from tangible outside sources. They are "behaviours that are performed not because of inherent interest in the activity, but in order to arrive at some

instrumental end, such as the source of regulation is external to the activity per se" (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999, p. 83). Originally, extrinsic motivation meant that the individual lacked determination in completing tasks, but Deci and Ryan (1985) have established that there are several types of extrinsic motivation. Under the self-determination category, there are three types of extrinsic motivation regulations: external, introjection, and identification regulations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). External regulation refers to behavior that is determined by external forces, such as positive rewards or negative consequences (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, & Vallieres, 1992). For example, students may be motivated to study for a test because they are afraid that their parents will not be happy with a failing grade. In introjection regulation, individuals develop an ability to "internalize the reasons for his or her actions" (Vallerand et al., 1992, p. 1006). While introjection regulation relies on the feelings of the individual, it is not self-determination because it is developed because of past experience or established concepts. For example, students may be motivated to study for a test because they feel that is what is expected of them if they want to be considered as good students. Identification occurs when students assign value and priority to their behaviors. For example, students may be motivated to study for a test because it is important to them.

3.6.3   Intrinsic Motivation

Deci and Ryan (1991) believed intrinsic motivation "is based in the innate, organismic needs for competence and self-determination" (p. 32). In other words, it comes from an instinctive need to be competent and self-determined. Noels et al. (1999) defined intrinsic motivation as the "motivation to perform an activity simply for the pleasure and satisfaction that accompany the action" (p. 24). Intrinsic motivation develops within an individual through

intangible concepts, such as self-determination and skill mastery (Lowman, 1990). It can also come from the absence of extrinsic rewards, overall interest in the task or activity, the optimal challenge of the task or activity, and basic psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 1991). If students are intrinsically motivated, they will complete tasks because "they have chosen to do so voluntarily and because the activity represents a challenge to their existing competencies and requires them to use their creative capabilities" (Noels et al., 1999, p. 83). Students complete the activity because they find personal enjoyment in doing so. Like extrinsic motivation, there are three forms of intrinsic motivation: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish things, and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (Vallerand et al., 1992). Intrinsic motivation to know is defined as "the fact of performing an activity for the pleasure and the satisfaction that one experiences while learning, exploring, or trying to understand something new" (Vallerand et al., 1992, p. 1005). For example, students who are intrinsically motivated to know will read a book for the enjoyment of learning new information. Intrinsic motivation to accomplish things is defined as "the fact of engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction experienced when one attempts to accomplish or create something" (Vallerand et al., 1992, p. 1005). When students go beyond the requirements of an assignment to feel the enjoyment of surpassing their abilities, they are intrinsically motivated to accomplish. Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation occurs when individuals take part in an activity in which they can experience exciting sensations. Students who enjoy going to class to have the experience of a lively class discussion are intrinsically motivated to experience stimulation.

3.6.4   Amotivation

Another type of motivation is amotivation, which occurs when individuals "do not see a relation between [their] actions and their consequences, but rather sees the consequences as arising from factors beyond [their] control" (Noels et al., 1999, p. 25). Dornyei (2001) defined amotivation as "a lack of motivation caused by the realisation [sic] that 'there is no point' or 'it's beyond me'" (p. 143). In other words, amotivated individuals do not connect their actions with possible consequences, so they are incapable of being intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. When amotivated individuals find they are unable to complete tasks, they expect something out of their control will happen. They believe their behaviors are caused by uncontrollable forces. In addition, they feel disappointed by the turn of events and question why they are trying to complete the tasks in the first place. They may ultimately decide to abandon the task altogether. According to Vallerand (1997), people can become amotivated through capacity-ability beliefs, strategy beliefs, capacity-effort beliefs, and helplessness beliefs. Capacity-ability beliefs occur when people think they don't have the ability to complete a tasks, strategy beliefs occur when they don't believe the strategies they are using are effective enough in completing the tasks, capacity-effort beliefs occur when the effort to complete the task is too much, and helplessness beliefs occur when they believe their efforts have no consequences (Vallerand, 1997).

In the English language learning classroom, amotivation was associated with "greater anxiety . . . lower motivational intensity . . . less intention to continue studying the language" (Noels et al., 1999, p. 83). It was also found that amotivated students perceived their instructors to be more controlling, while extrinsic identified regulation motivation and intrinsic motivation were related to lower student perceptions of being controlled by their instructors. Students who perceived their instructors as controlling assessed their own English language learning

competencies as low. The authors came to the conclusion that if students learn a language because of external forces, such as rewards or pressure from others, they will be less likely to learn the language than those students who are intrinsically motivated to learn the language (Noels et al., 1999).

3.6.5   Demotivation

Dornyei (2001) defined demotivation as "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action" (p. 143). Falout, Elwood, and Hood (2009) defined demotivation as "a decrease or drop in level of motivation" (p. 404). Demotivation does not happen because students get distracted by a more attractive task, lose interest in the tasks over a period of time, or because of internal factors (Dornyei, 2001). Instead, demotivation begins from an external factor that causes demotivation before it becomes internalized by the individual. In order for demotivation to occur, motivation must exist. In other words, demotivation and amotivation are different in that in order for students to be demotivated, they needed to be motivated as some point before something or someone decreased their motivation. Amotivation, on the other hand, implies that students never had motivation in the first place because they can't negotiate between feeling helpless and their actions. According to Dornyei (2001), amotivation "is related to general outcome expectations that are unrealistic for some reason, whereas 'demotivation' is related to specific external causes" (p. 143).

In her study of demotivation, Meyer (1981) developed six stages that describe the feelings and actions of employees who started out as motivated, but then became demotivated by their employers' inactions to a specific problem. In the first stage, Confusion, the employees' productiveness drops a little, and they begin stressing out about their employers' behaviors and

blame themselves for the situation. In the second stage, Anger, productivity rises in an effort to gain the employers' attention with the hopes that they will no longer be inactive. All of the anger that the employees feel is directed solely at the employers. In the third stage, Subconscious Hope, the employees no longer blame themselves but instead turn all of the blame on the employers. Because they are still angry, they withhold information from the employers to prove they can accomplish tasks without the help of the employers. Employees' productivity returns to normal, but they avoid the employers at all costs. In the fourth stage, Disillusionment, the employees' productivity lowers to a minimal effort, which is another attempt to gain the employer's attention. At this point, self-motivation is lost. In the fifth stage, Unco-operative, the employees establish their boundaries as to what they will do and not do in yet another attempt to get the attention of their employers. Productivity becomes non-existent, and the employees attempt to create dissatisfaction and anger throughout the employees. In the sixth stage, Final, the employees has to make the decision to either quit the job or simply view the job as a way to earn a living. If employers have remained inactive through these stages, then it is likely that this point of view has become a group consensus among the other employees. It is almost impossible for the employers to motivate their employees. While Meyer (1981) established these stages for the work environment, variants of these stages can be adapted into the classroom.

Most of the findings concerning academic motivation come from English language learning studies. Studies have found that demotivation is influenced more by external factors than internal conditions of the learner. External factors include instructors' behaviors and internal conditions include the students' perceptions of external environment because students process these environments internally, where other psychological factors can influence the demotivation process (Falout et al., 2009). Falout and Falout (2005) stated that "the behavior of a[n instructor]

has, more than any other element in the classroom, the greatest potential to counteract the motivation of students" (p. 282).

In his study of 50 secondary school students in Budapest, Dornyei (1998) found that reduced self-confidence was a demotivation feature if it comes from experiencing failure though external factors, such as strict assignment grades (as cited in Dornyei, 2001). In Falout and Falout (2005), the lower proficiency English language students began with higher self-confidence than the higher proficiency English language students, but by the end the course, the lower proficiency students had lower self-confidence than the higher proficiency students. The authors reasoned that the lower proficiency students set themselves up for failure by creating unrealistic goals, and they lost their self-confidence because they were unable to meet those goals (Falout & Falout, 2005).

Falout and Maruyama (2004) compared the lower proficiency and higher proficiency English language learners. They found that lower proficiency English language learners stated that they experienced demotivation earlier in their school careers than higher proficiency English learners. As a result, these lower proficiency English language learners held onto this negativity longer. In their study of 100 Vietnamese university English language learners, Trang and Baldauf, Jr. (2007) examined four groups of students who had experienced varying levels of past demotivation. Eighty-eight of the students stated that they had been demotivated before on several occasions. In their cases, demotivation happened sporadically over a period of time for 21 of the 88 students who reported experiencing demotivation. In their study of the longevity of demotivation, Falout and Maruyama (2004) asked the college students in Japan if they had been demotivated in the past and if they enjoyed studying English. Both lower and higher proficiency students reported that they had been demotivated in the past, but the lower proficiency students

reported disliking English twice as much as the higher proficiency students. The students who stated that they hated English were then asked to identify the time they began to hate it. Fifty-three percent of the lower proficiency students who hated English stated their hatred began in junior high, while only 30% of higher proficiency students who reported not liking English stated they disliked English at that time. Falout and Falout (2005) found that lower proficiency learner demotivation happened at an earlier grade level than the demotivation of high proficiency students, that it lasts longer, which explains why lower proficiency students feel demotivated.

Likewise, Miyata, Shikano, Ishida, Okabe, and Uchida (2004, as cited in Falout & Falout, 2005) compared higher proficiency English language learner and lower proficiency English language learners in Japan. They found that the higher proficiency students were more critical and dissatisfied with their instructors than the lower proficiency students because lower proficiency students were more likely to internalize the demotivating behaviors of their instructors. Falout and Falout (2005) believed this could be explained because lower proficiency students may automatically blame themselves for their academic failures, or they may not be aware of the influence their instructors' demotivating behaviors have on their academic performances. Ushioda (2001) stated that "[o]nce students start blaming themselves for the loss of interest and negative affect they are experiencing, they run the risk of believing that they are simply no longer motivated or able to motivate themselves" (p. 121). Trang and Baldalf, Jr. (2007) found that students may be very aware of the presence of demotivation, but they have accepted the inevitability of demotivation in their academic careers. While they seemed to accept it, they were not particularly happy with this realization.

In their study of 900 university English as a Second Language learners in Japan, Falout et al. (2009) found that higher proficient English language learners were more likely to build self-

confidence while they studied English, while lower proficiency English language learners were overly critical when they did not feel they were successful. This could be attributed to their internalization of failure. Less proficient learners who have less experience with second language learning were found to be more likely to experience demotivation. This is because they were unable to regulate their emotions when they had demotivating experiences.

Falout et al. (2009) also found that students who had higher levels of self-regulation were more likely to be highly proficient learners, while students who sought help on a frequent basis were more likely to be lower proficiency learners. If they become demotivated, higher proficiency students were less likely to ask for help from others, but they were more likely to "regulate their learning by involving themselves in intrinsically motivating activities related to learning" (Falout et al., 2009, p. 411). This finding supports the claim that demotivation can be prevented or reversed by regulating emotional states (Falout & Falout, 2005; Ushioda, 2001). But it does depend on when the demotivating behavior was established. Falout and Falout (2005) found that "students who are subjected to demotives early in their learning are not able to control their affective states and students not subjected to demotives early in their learning are able to control their affective states" (p. 287). Trang and Baldalf, Jr. (2007) also found that within the category of external demotivating factors, elements related to the instructor, such as "ineffective and improper teaching methods" served as the main cause of demotivation among students (p. 93). In a study comparing the self-regulating strategies of successful and unsuccessful students, Arai (2005; as cited in Falout et al., 2009) reported that less successful students utilized inappropriate self-regulation strategies, such as sleeping in class, not listening to the instructor, and not studying. Falout and Falout (2005) argued that these inappropriate self-regulation strategies keep students from learning and keep them in a demotivated state.

Brophy (1983) argued that the best way to get rid of demotivation is to establish positive

motivation by developing students' motivation to learn. He suggested that instructors should

involve students in the process of learning and in the classroom environment. The more students

are involved in their own learning and classroom procedures, the more likely they will be

motivated to learn. Ushioda (1998, 2001) found that demotivated learners have the ability to

remotivate themselves in two ways. First, they can dissociate themselves from past demotivating

experiences by blaming external forces in an attempt to rebuild their own self-image. Second,

they could develop and practice appropriate self-regulating strategies, such as using their

personal resources and initiative to deal with demotivating experiences, setting and maintaining

learning goals, and engaging in second language learning activities that remind them why they

enjoyed learning the language.

Trang and Baldalf, Jr. (2007) found that students overcame demotivating experiences by

using internal factors instead of external factors. These internal factors included "an awareness of

the importance of English . . . personal reasons . . . self-improvement . . . self-determination . . .

and positive attitudes towards English" (p. 97). Students' understanding of the importance of

learning English was the most influential internal factor in helping students overcome

demotivation. They viewed learning English as a benefit to helping them find a good job. Trang

and Baldalf, Jr. (2007) also found that students who have more motives than demotives were

more likely to be able to overcome demotivation. They also grouped student perceived

demotivating factors into internal and external categories. Similar to intrinsic motivation, the

demotivating internal category included the students' personal feelings and beliefs about such

topics as studying English, failure, occurrences which affected their self-esteem. The

demotivating external category, like extrinsic motivation, was related to the instructor, the

learning environment, and other outside sources of demotivation. Of the two categories, demotivating external category was reported more frequently.

3.7   Instructor Immediacy Behaviors

According to immediacy principle, "[p]eople are drawn toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; and they avoid or move away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer" (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 1). People are able to demonstrate how they feel about other people, events, or things, based on proximity and overall body language. Mehrabian (1969) defined immediacy as "communication behaviors that enhance closeness to and nonverbal interaction with another" (p. 203).   Immediacy can be communicated in several ways. It could be communicated through eye contact, gestures and body language, vocal pitch and tonal variety, spatial awareness (Andersen, 1979), facial expressions, removal of physical obstructions, and spending time with another person (Andersen, 1979; Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998; Cooper & Simonds, 1999).

Instructor immediacy behaviors have been found to have an effect on student communication apprehension and motivation. According to McCroskey (1977), communication apprehension can be defined as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (p. 78). Frymier (1993b) reported that when students have a highly immediate instructor, their motivation to study was high regardless of their level of communication apprehension. Those students with high levels of communication apprehension reported feeling low levels of motivation when they had a low immediacy instructor.

While communication apprehension concerns the anxiety associated of having to communicate with another person, receiver apprehension is "the fear of misinterpreting, inadequately processing, and/or not being able to adjust psychologically to messages sent by others" (Wheeless, 1975, p. 263). Chesebro and McCroskey (1998) reported that instructor immediacy behaviors can aid in the receiver apprehension and with instructor clarity, can relieve receiver apprehension even more. The authors found that instructor "[i]mmediacy can help gain students' attention, focus it on the material, foster good teacher-student relationships, and in doing so, create a classroom environment which is more likely to evoke comfort and engagement than frustration and anxiety" (Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998, p. 453).

Instructors who enjoy being around their students are more likely to exhibit immediate behaviors, and as a consequence, their students will enjoy the instructor's company in return (Plax, Kearney, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1986). In a study of elementary students' reactions to instructor immediacy behaviors, Chaikin, Gillen, Derlega, Heinen, and Wilson (1978) found that instructors who displayed immediacy behaviors were perceived to be more interesting, friendlier, more understanding, and they were also perceived as liking their students.

Plax et al. (1986) found that students perceived their immediate instructors to use prosocial behavior modification strategies, while they perceived their non-immediate instructors to use more antisocial behavior modification strategies. Non-immediacy behaviors can "communicate avoidance, dislike, coldness, and interpersonal distance" (Kearney, Plax, Smith, & Sorenson, 1988, p. 55). Immediate teachers may be more likely to verbally express their expectations for student cooperation through prosocial communication, such as giving rewards to those students who remain on-tasks. Because they may non-verbally express their negative feelings towards their students, non-immediate instructors are more likely to use negative

consequences on those students who do not comply with their expected on-tasks behaviors in order to gain control of the classroom (Plax et al., 1986, p. 56). Students are more likely to comply with the on-tasks expectations of an immediate instructor who uses prosocial techniques while students are more likely to resist a non-immediate instructor who uses antisocial techniques.

Like Plax et al. (1986), Kearney et al. (1988) argued that students will be less likely resist the expectations of immediate teachers than non-immediate teachers. Immediate instructors will experience student compliance when they use prosocial techniques, and non-immediate instructors will experience student resistance when they use antisocial techniques. The effectiveness of prosocial and antisocial strategies may depend on the instructors' non-verbal immediacy behaviors. Students' resistance was more likely to occur when the strategies did not match with instructor immediacy behaviors. Students were less likely to resist an immediate instructor who employed prosocial strategies, and they were more likely to resist immediate instructor who used antisocial strategies. Also, students were more likely to resist a non-immediate instructor who used prosocial techniques than they were likely to resist a non-immediate instructor who used antisocial techniques.

3.7.1   Non-Verbal Instructor Immediacy Behaviors

Andersen and Andersen (1982) defined non-verbal immediacy as "non-linguistic actions which send four simultaneous and complementary messages" (p. 100). These four messages consist of designated approach behaviors, signals of communication availability, increased levels of sensory stimulation, and interpersonal closeness and warmth (Andersen & Andersen, 1982; Cooper & Simmonds, 1999). Kearney et al. (1988) defined non-verbal immediacy behaviors as

"physical or psychological closeness" (p. 55), which allow people to judge the approach tactics and overall friendliness of another person. Nafpakitis, Mayer, and Butterworth (1985) found that teachers' disapproving verbal immediate behaviors were related to student disruptive and off-task behaviors. They also came to the conclusion that instructors' approving verbal immediacy behaviors, such as calling on students when they raise their hands as instructed, encouraged students to remain on-task. Instructor immediacy lets students know that they are expected to work on the tasks assigned and that their efforts are valued by the instructor.

Non-verbal immediacy can be communicated through affirming head nods, smiling, eye contact, vocal variety, gestures and body movements, relaxed demeanor, close proximity), and facial expressions (Andersen, 1979; Andersen, Andersen & Jenson, 1979; Burgoon, Buller, Hale, & deTurck, 1984). These behaviors can influence how a person perceives the familiarity and friendliness of another person. In their study on the relationship between student-faculty communication and instructor immediacy behaviors, Jaasma and Koper (1999) found that nonverbal immediacy was positively related to the number of times students contact their instructors on informal terms, the length of time a student will meet with an instructor in his/her office, student satisfaction, and socialization during informal meetings.

3.7.2   Verbal Instructor Immediacy Behaviors

Gorham (1988) defined verbal immediacy behaviors as including an instructor's use of humor, praise of student work and behaviors, instigation of conversations with students before, during, and after class, disclosure of personal information, and invitation to students to share their thoughts and feelings about classroom contents (due dates, assignments, etc.).

Menzel and Carrell (1999) found a positive relationship between instructors' verbal immediacy behavior and students' willingness to speak in the classroom and between instructors' verbal immediacy behaviors and how students perceived their own learning. The researchers found that "verbal immediacy accounted for more variance in willingness to talk as a classroom outcome than did nonverbal immediacy" (Menzel & Carrell, 1999, p. 38). While nonverbal behaviors provide signals to students that an instructor wants the students to express their opinions, Menzel and Carell (1999) believed that it is the instructor's verbal immediacy behaviors that encourage more student involvement. As a result, verbal immediacy behaviors may influence student cooperation in the classroom (Woolfolk and Brooks, 1985). Jaasma and Koper (1999) also found that verbal immediacy positively correlated with the times in which a student visits an instructor in her office, the length of the office visit, student satisfaction, and how many times students converse with the instructor informally. Discussion of course content during informal meetings was negatively related to verbal immediacy behaviors. Moore, Mastersen, Christophel, and Shea (1996) found that "verbal immediacy was the strongest predictor . . . for ratings on the factor which measured the extent to which a professor seemed concerned about students' progress and both were helpful and challenging to students" (p. 35).

3.7.3 Student Perceptions of Instructor Immediacy Behaviors

3.7.3.1 Influence of Class Size

In their comparison study of instructor immediacy behaviors and student instruction evaluations, Moore et al. (1996) found that instructors of very small courses (between 1 to 20 undergraduate students) were evaluated by the students as having higher immediacy behavior than instructors of medium (21 to 40), large (41-99), and very large (100 and over) classes.

Students evaluated instructors of medium classes as having higher immediacy behavior than instructors of large classes.

Gorham and Zakahi (1990) also reported a possible difference in class size in relation to student perceptions of instructor immediacy behaviors. While they did find that instructor immediacy behavior and student learning were positively correlated, Gorham and Zakahi (1990) also related that the classes involved in their study were small. They argued that the "physical closeness of teachers to students and the relative ease of initiation and inclusiveness diminished differences in the use of" instructor immediacy behaviors (p. 364). Student who expected to earn an A in the course gave instructors a high immediacy rating compared to students who expected to earn a C in the course. In terms of disciplines, students in business and liberal arts departments rated instructors as highly immediate so more than students in the physical science departments.

3.7.3.2   Perceptions of Different Disciplines

Kearney, Plax, and Wendt-Wasco (1985) believed that students in people-oriented courses, such as communication, psychology, sociology, etc., were more likely to be sensitive to instructor immediacy behaviors than students in task-oriented courses, such as accounting, engineering, computer science, math, etc. Students in task-oriented courses may be influenced by instructor immediacy behaviors, but not on a conscious level, so they may not notice these behaviors. In this case, task-oriented students would be more likely to view an instructor's characteristics as they relate to the course content as more important than instructor immediacy behaviors. Moore et al. (1996) reiterated the point that students in science courses, or task-oriented courses, were more likely to not be concerned with instructor immediacy behaviors,

which could account for their lower immediacy evaluations of instructors when compared to instructor immediacy ratings of students in liberal arts courses, or people-oriented courses. The authors hypothesized that this finding could be explained by the differences in material, which might have had an effect on teaching styles.

3.7.3.3   Instructor Credibility

How an instructor behaves can have an effect on students' perceptions of instructor credibility, which in turn can have an effect on students' perceptions of instructor immediacy behaviors. Teven and Hanson (2004) reported that students perceive their instructors as credible if the instructors are nonverbally immediate in the classroom. Thweatt and McCroskey (1998) found that instructors perceived as highly immediate and without misbehaviors were perceived to be the most credible by students. Instructor immediacy behaviors and instructor credibility are related in terms of affect. Thweatt and McCroskey (1998) found instructors who were perceived to be more credible by students have the opportunity to "produce more positive affect toward themselves and/or the content of the class and increase the likelihood a student will take another class in the same content area and/or with that [instructor]" (p. 349). Immediacy behaviors such as "using personal examples, encouraging students to talk, addressing the individual student by name, conversing with students before or after class, being addressed by first name by students, looking at the class, smiling at the class, and not standing behind a podium/desk were significantly related to affect . . ." (Gorham & Zakahi, 1990, p. 361).

3.7.3.4   Student Learning

How students perceive instructor immediacy behaviors and learning outcomes were

"accurate reflections of [instructor] behavior and learning outcomes" (Gorham & Zakahi, 1990,

p. 365). In their study of teacher and student perceptions of immediacy behaviors, Gorham and

Zakahi (1990) established that instructor immediacy behavior was related to student learning.

Immediacy behaviors, such as

> addressing student by name, initiating a conversation with the individual student,
> inclusive references, providing feedback, asking students how they feel about
> assignments, using praise, using gestures, using vocal variety, smiling at individual
> students, and a relaxed body position . . .

were closely associated with student and instructor perceptions of cognitive and affective

learning. (p. 361). Affective learning concerns "attitudes, beliefs, likes/dislikes, and values"

(Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998, p. 348).

3.7.3.5   Motivation

In a two-part study, Christophel (1990) explored the relationship between teacher

immediacy behaviors and student motivation. The study reported that there was a positive

correlation between how students perceived instructor immediacy behaviors and their state

motivation levels. Students who perceived their instructors as both verbally and non-verbally

immediate proclaimed to have higher levels of class motivation. Students who were highly

motivated stated that they noted more instructor immediacy behaviors. Christophel (1990) also

reported that students' perceptions of instructors' immediacy behaviors were positively related to

student learning. In order for instructor immediacy behaviors to have an impact on student

learning, these behaviors "must first modify students' state motivation prior to immediacy . . ."

(Christophel, 1990, p. 335).

Frymier (1993a) reported that all students, regardless of their motivation level, benefited from having highly immediate instructors. Even though students' motivation levels as they enter the class are a large predictor of their motivation throughout the semester, instructor immediacy behaviors did have an influence on students' motivation to study for a course. The students who began the semester with high state motivation reported having high motivation at the middle of the semester and the end of the semester when they reported their instructor as having high or low immediacy behaviors. On the other hand, students who began the semester with low or moderate motivation had higher levels of motivation at the middle of the semester and the end of the semester in situations where they had an immediate instructor instead of a non-immediate instructor. Students who began the semester with moderate levels of motivation and were taught by an immediate instructor stated that their motivation levels were comparable to those students who began the semester with high motivation.

3.8   Students' Perceptions of Instructors' Behaviors

3.8.1   Instructor Self-Disclosure

Cozby (1973) defined self-disclosure as "any information about [a person] which Person A communicates verbally with Person B . . . [it is] both a personality construct and a process which occurs during interaction[s] with others" (p. 73). Self-disclosure occurs when a person shares personal information about him with another person that the other person may not already know (Pearce & Sharp, 1973). Because self-disclosure requires voluntary actions, it does not include any behavior in which personal information is taken through force, threats, or drugs and any communication behaviors which reveal information about a person through Freudian slips or other revealing non-verbal gestures (Pearce & Sharp, 1973). Sorensen (1989) defined instructor

disclosure as "teacher statements in the classroom about self that may or may not be related to subject content, but reveal information about the teacher that students are unlikely to learn from other source" (p. 260). In her study concerning student perceptions of instructor disclosure statements, Sorensen (1989) found that students have the ability to distinguish the verbal characteristics of a good and bad teacher. Statements that show concern for others and statements with positive implications were attributed to good teachers. The students perceived poor instructors as those who make statements which reflect intolerance, superiority, and egoism.

3.8.2   Instructor Aggressive Communication

According to Infante (1987), "interpersonal communication may be considered aggressive if it applies force physically and/or symbolically in order, minimally, to dominate and perhaps damage, or maximally, to defeat and perhaps destroy the locus of attack" (p. 158). In this case, the locus of attack could be another person's body, property, self-image, views on communication, or behavior (Infante, 1987).

Two types of aggressive communication are argumentativeness and verbal aggressiveness. Trait argumentativeness is defined as a trait that "predisposes the individual in communication situations to advocate positions on controversial issues and to attack verbally the positions which other people take on these issues" (Infante & Rancer, 1982, p. 72). Argumentative people perceive these communications as competitive and stimulating mental challenges. Myers (1998) found that instructors who communicate assertively and responsively are perceived by students as being more argumentative than instructors who do not use these communication strategies. Assertive instructors may encourage class discussion, critical thinking, instructor-student interaction, and arguments between the students and the instructor.

Johnson and Johnson (1979) found that argumentativeness was associated with increased student curiosity, problem-solving skills, creativity, and understanding of their opponent.

Verbal aggressiveness is defined as "an exchange of messages between two people where at least one person in the dyad attacks the self-concept of the other person in order to hurt the person psychologically" (Infante & Wigley, 1986, p. 67). Verbally aggressive messages may be attacks on an individual's character, competency, background, and physical appearance, and may include the use of insults, cursing, teasing, ridicule, profanity, threats, and nonverbal symbols (Infante, 1987; Infante, Sabourin, Rudd, & Shannon, 1990; Infante, Riddle, Horvath, & Tumlin, 1992). People who have high verbal aggressive rates are more likely to use these messages than people with low or moderate verbal aggressive rates (Infante & Rancer, 1993). They are also more likely to believe that the verbal aggressive messages are justified (Martin, Andersen, & Horvath, 1996) despite the fact that many interpersonal relationships cannot withstand this form of verbal abuse (Infante, 1987).

Myers & Rocca (2001) found that instructor verbal aggressiveness is related to how students perceive the dynamic of the classroom. Instructor verbal aggressiveness is associated with low ratings of student perceptions of instructor immediacy (Rocca & McCroskey, 1999) and credibility (Myers, 1998). In addition, instructors who use verbal aggressive messages are viewed not as competent and appropriate as instructors who do not use verbally aggressive messages (Martin, Weber, & Burant, 1997, as cited in Myers & Rocca, 2001). Schodt's (2003) found that perceived instructor verbal aggressiveness was inversely related to students' perceptions of understanding, students' evaluations of the instructors, and students' perceptions of credibility. He defined credibility as the students' overall attitudes towards their instructors. In fact, Schrodt (2003) discovered that the students' perceptions of instructors' verbal

aggressiveness were a better predictor of students' perception of instructor credibility than instructor argumentativeness. Second, Schrodt (2003) found that perceived instructor argumentativeness have a positive relationship with their perceptions of instructor credibility and evaluations of instructors. Third, students' perceptions of understanding were positively related to their perceptions of instructor credibility (Schrodt, 2003). Perceived understanding is defined as "the communicator's assessment of his/her success or failure when attempting to communicate with another person" (Cahn and Schulman, 1984, p. 122). Cahn (1984a, 1984b) found that perceived understanding was associated with the evaluation ratings student give their instructors, their perceptions of the instructors' behavior in class, their utilization of fairness in the classroom, and their listening skills.

3.8.3   Instructor Credibility

McCroskey and Wheeless (1976) defined affinity as any positive thoughts or feelings one person has for another person. Bell and Daly (1984) defined affinity-seeking as "the process by which individuals attempt to get other people to like and to feel positive toward them" (p. 111). In addition, Bell and Daly (1984) developed 25 affinity seeking techniques that people may use to gain favor from other people. These techniques include "altruism . . . dynamism . . . listening . . . optimism . . . personal autonomy . . . physical attractiveness . . . sensitivity . . . trustworthiness . . . [etc.]" (Bell & Daly, 1984, pp. 96-97). In their examination of these techniques, Bell and Daly (1984) found that people who use several of the affinity-seeking strategies were liked by other people, were successful in social situations, and were happy with their lives.

In relation to Schrodt's (2003) study of students' perceptions of instructor credibility, Frymier and Thompson (2002) examined the relationship between instructor use of affinity seeking behaviors and students perception of instructor credibility. They found that instructor use of affinity-seeking strategies was positively related to students' perceptions of the instructor credibility, which were their perceptions of instructor competence and character. Instructor competence alludes to "perceived knowledge and expertise in an area" (Frymier & Thompson, 2002, p. 389), and character is "the perceived trustworthiness, goodness of a person, ability to be sympathetic, and willingness to act in the best interest of others" (Frymier & Thompson, 1992, p. 389). It was found that instructor character had a stronger relationship to instructor use of affinity-seeking strategies than did competence. This could be explained by the fact that character is concerned with how much a person is liked by other people, and these perceptions would have an influence on the affinity-seeking behaviors of the person who wants to be liked. As Frymier and Thompson (1992) argued, it is possible for students to perceive an instructor as having character, but it is possible for that instructor to not be perceived as competent by the students, which would result in a low perception of instructor credibility.

3.8.4   Classroom Justice

To add to the literature on instructor credibility, Chory (2007) studied the relationship between student perceptions of instructor credibility and their perceptions of justice in the classroom. Overall, classroom justice refers how students view fairness in relation to learning outcomes and class procedures in the classroom (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b). The perceptions of justice include distributive, procedural, and interactional justice.

According to Deutsch (1985), distributive justice refers to "the fairness of the distribution of the conditions and goods that affect individual well-being" (p. 1). When using this justice, students evaluate and compare their received outcome with the standard outcome or the outcome received by a referent, in the form of a past experience, expectations, perceived amount of effort, etc. (Chory-Assad & Paulsen, 2004b). Procedural justice refers to students' perceptions of the fairness of classroom processes, such as behavior polices, grading methods, and the instructor's teaching style, used to achieve learning outcomes. (Chory & Paulsen, 2004b; Chory, 2007). Students use procedural justice when they evaluate the fairness of how classroom processes and resources are utilized. Interactional justice "concerns occur when students evaluate their perceptions of how the instructor communicates with students when policies and procedures are executed (Bies & Moag, 1986). Students use this justice when they evaluate the level of respectfulness, politeness, and openness in student-instructor communication (Chory-Assad & Paulsen, 2004a).

Chory (2007) found that the grades students expected to earn, as opposed to instructor credibility, primarily predicted distributive justice. Both instructor credibility and the grades students expected to earn were related to procedural justice. As in Frymier and Thompson (1992), Chory (2007) also found that in the realm of instructor credibility, character was considered to be more important than competence because they predicted all the justices. Chory (2007) reported, "Students who perceived their instructors as trustworthy, honest, honorable, and ethical also perceived these instructors as assigning fair grades, using fair classroom procedures, and treating students fairly in interpersonal interactions" (p. 100).

3.8.5   Effective/Ineffective Communication

According to Davidson and Phelan (1999), positive interpersonal relationships between students and instructors can give students a sense of belonging. Instructors can begin to form these positive interpersonal relationships by "support[ing] student input, giv[ing] personal attention to students, and convey[ing] respect for students of varied social backgrounds" (Davidson & Phelan, 1999, p. 267). In their study of students' perceptions of effective and ineffective college instructor communication, Kramer and Pier (1999) compared college students' perceptions of small-class and large-class instructors. As in Gorham and Zakahi (1990) and Moore et al. (1996), Kramer and Pier (1999) discovered students perceive effective small-class instructors as instructors who invite student participation during class discussion, present lectures which follow the protocol described in the syllabus, connect content materials to the reading and exams. Student perceived ineffective small-class instructors as instructors who had negative attitudes because of low self-esteem, gave horrible lectures in that they seemed unaware of their students' learning needs, expected students to have a higher degree of knowledge then they were capable of having, refused to meet with students to discuss course materials, and presented no variety in course materials. Students perceived effective large-class instructors as those instructors who seemed to care about student learning, gave interesting lecturers, applied course content to their students' lives, and helped students find an appreciation for the subject. Ineffective large-class instructors were perceived by students to see students in a negative light, have unrealistic expectations of students, lacked interest in communicating with their students, and did not connect the subject with their students' lives. The authors did not report what the participants specifically perceived as unrealistic instructor expectations other than instructors

giving them tests that were "too hard or too long" (Kramer & Pier, 1999, p. 21). Again, these

subjective terms were not elaborated on or quantified in the study.

Anderson, Norton, and Nussbaum (1981) examined the relationship between instructor

communication behavior and student perceptions of effective instruction. Key terms in this study

included solidarity and communicator style. Solidarity is "the degree of psychological, social

and perhaps even physical closeness between people" (Wheeless, 1978, p. 145). Communicator

style is "the way one verbally and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be

taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood" (Norton, 1977, p. 527). Norton (1977, 1978) identified

the following subcategories of communicator style: dominant, dramatic, animated, open,

contentious, relaxed, friendly, attentive, impression-leaving, precise, and communicative image.

Norton (1977) also reported a strong relationship between perceived teacher effectiveness and

perceived communicator style. Anderson, Norton, and Nussbaum (1981) found that students

perceive instructors as effective if those instructors displayed higher levels of interpersonal

solidarity and had dramatic, open, relaxed, impression-leaving, and friendly communicator

styles. Students also perceived instructors as dramatic when they told jokes and stories,

expressed themselves using various vocal intonations and physical movements, and overstated

their points for emphasis. Students perceived instructors as open, relaxed, and impression-

leaving when the instructors expressed their feelings, participated in self-disclosure, lacked

nervousness in their speech and behavior, and left an impression on their students using their

communication style. Students perceived instructors as friendly when the instructor spoke

positively about other people, verbally recognized other people's efforts, and encouraged others

to participate. As in Teven & McCroskey (1996) and Davidson and Phelan (1999), Anderson,

Norton, and Nussbaum (1981) found that how students perceive instructor communication has an

effect on how students perceive teaching effectiveness and their general attitudes toward the instructor and the course/subject.

3.8.6   Instructor Misbehavior

Kearney, Plax, Hayes, and Ivey (1991) defined instructor misbehaviors as behaviors "that interfere with instruction and thus, learning" (p. 310). According to Plax and Kearney (1990), instructor misbehaviors include dismissing students before class is over, refusing to meet with students outside of class, taking a long time to return graded assignments, creating assignments that are either too difficult or too simple, providing vague feedback on assignments, and delivering boring and monotone lectures. In addition, Kearney et al. (1999) grouped students' perceptions of instructors' misbehaviors into three categories: incompetence, offensiveness, and indolence. Incompetence involved instructors' inabilities to teach a course, offensiveness involved instructors' overall negative and unfair attitudes towards students, and indolence involves the instructors' roles as forgetful and preoccupied. Instructors who were perceived as incompetent assigned too much work, seemed to not care about the course or students, appeared bored by the material, presented vague and confusing lectures, etc. Students perceived instructors as offensive if the instructors used profanity, attempted to humiliate students, tried to intimidate students using anger, acted condescendingly, expressed chauvinistic or sexist remarks to students, favored certain students and openly showed contempt for other students, etc. Instructors were perceived as indolent by students if the instructor didn't attend class, showed up to class late, forget about due dates, took too long to return graded assignments to student, failed to keep up with the established schedule, made the course too easy, etc.

3.8.7   Instructor Caring

Students' perceptions of instructor caring have been found to have a large influence on student evaluations of instructors and student learning. An instructor's interpersonal skills, affective traits, and attitudes influence how student evaluate instructional effectiveness (Johnson & Prom-Jackson, 1986). Noddings (1984) defined good instructors as those instructors who show their students they care, and Tate (2006) believed good instructors should feel that they are somewhat academically, morally, socially, and personally responsible for their students. McCroskey (1998) defined instructor caring as the degree to which instructors express their concern for student welfare. Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986) believed that caring instructors make time for their students and are willing to help them when the students have difficulty understanding the material, have an enthusiastic attitude, and use humor, which allows students to enjoy learning. In addition to being caring and supportive to their students, instructors also need to hold students accountable for their responsibilities as students (Stipek, 2006) by being caring, but firm (Protheroe, 2005).

Teven and Gorham (1998) found that students have a keen ability to identify instructor behaviors which they deem as caring and uncaring. They were also able to distinguish between an instructor's inability to communicate caring, and an instructor purposely communicating that they do not care. Based on student responses, Teven and Gorham (1998) discovered that both caring and non-caring instructor behaviors can be divided into instructor behaviors that show concern, or a lack of concern for (1) student academic performance and/or grades; (2) their own teaching abilities; (3) student participation; (4) developing interpersonal relationships with students; and (5) using nonverbal immediacy behaviors. The first, second, and third categories represent tasks behaviors. Using these behaviors, instructors show students they care by helping

the students be academically successful. Instructors show students they do not care by failing to help students be academically successful or by purposely providing negative comments and feedback to students. The fourth and fifth categories represent how instructors relate to their students in the classroom, such as having one-on-one conversations with students, addressing students by their first names, showing their students respect and empathizing with them, and verbally expressing that they care about their students' success.

Instructors show students that they do not care by abstaining from developing mutually respectful, comfortable, and supportive personal relationships with students or by engaging in rude and demeaning behaviors towards the students. Teven and Gorham (1998) found that students mentioned tasks behaviors more than relational behaviors when they reported instructors' communication of caring. They found that while students' perceptions of friendliness make for a peaceful classroom and effect student learning, not all students view friendliness and caring synonymously. In addition, Teven and Gorham (1998) also noted that instructor non-caring behaviors should be studied with instructor misbehaviors, not teacher immediacy.

In his study of the relationship between students' perceptions of instructor caring, and student satisfaction, Turanli (2009) found that students who expressed higher satisfaction rates were taught by instructors who the students perceived to be caring. These student-perceived caring instructors' behaviors demonstrated to students that the instructors cared whether they paid attention to lectures, were more willing to help students who were having difficulty understanding the materials, tried hard to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, encouraged students to participate in the classroom environment, showed concern for student needs and feedback, and supported their students emotionally and on an interpersonal level. Students who are the least satisfied in the classroom are taught by instructors

who do not appear to enjoy teaching, monitor student work closely, and did not provide emotional or interpersonal support to their students

McCroskey (1998) argued that empathy, understanding, and responsiveness are three factors which could possibility influence students' perceptions of instructor caring. Empathy was defined as "the capacity to see a situation from the point of view of another person and feel how they feel about it" (Teven & McCroskey, 1996, p. 2). If instructors are able to show students that they are able to relate to their points of view, these instructors are more likely to be perceived as credible and caring (Teven & McCroskey, 1996). Understanding is defined as "the ability to comprehend another person's ideas, feelings, and needs" (Teven & McCroskey, 1996, p. 2). Some instructors are better at understanding their students' needs, personally or academic, when compared to other instructors. Nevertheless, students associate instructor understanding with instructor caring. Responsiveness occurs when instructors react quickly and are attentive to students' needs and/or problems, and listen to their students to determine these needs and problems (McCroskey, 1998). Students perceive instructors as responsive when the instructors interact and react to student behavior, and they perceive instructors as non-responsive when the instructors seem oblivious to student behavior. Instructor responsiveness has been found to correlate with instructor clarity more than instructor assertiveness (Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997). Like empathy and understanding, students who perceive their instructors as responsive were more likely to perceive the instructors as caring.

In their study of the relationship between student evaluation and perceived instructor caring, Teven and McCroskey (1996) found that undergraduates who perceive their instructors as more caring evaluated the instructors and the course content more positively. They also reported that they learned more in the course. The authors argued that students will be more willing and

likely to attend classes and listen to the instructors if they perceive those instructors to care about the interests of their students (Teven & McCroskey, 1996). If students perceive their instructor as caring, students will be more willing to make an effort to learn from the instructors. Students are willing to make this effort because the instructors have established that they care about their students through past actions and behaviors (Davidson, 1999). In fact, Davidson (1999) found that "students are willing to accept a broad range of behaviors from [instructors], as long as students are convinced that, in fact, the educator does sincerely care about them and will sincerely make efforts to help them succeed" (p. 365). As Davidson and Phelan (1992) found, students are more likely to study harder for caring instructors than they are for non-caring instructors.

3.9   Student-Perceived Instructor Personality Characteristics

3.9.1   Agreeableness

        In their study of the effects of teacher personality traits on student perceptions, Kneipp, Kelly, Biscoe, and Richard (2010) examined university instructors over a two-year period. The authors found that "[t]he personality characteristic of 'Agreeableness' appears to be more predicative of student's perception of instructional quality than the other four personality factors" on the Big Five Personality test, which included Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Neuroticism. Several of these factors match those found in Tanabe and Mori (2013). Agreeableness "as a personality characteristic is described as being positive and accepting of others. It denotes the traits of trustworthiness, helpfulness, and caring" (Kneipp et al., 2010, p. 903). Instructors who are perceived to have an agreeable personality by their students may have the ability to establish meaningful connections with their students and provide their students with

73

a classroom environment that enhances the learning experience. This may also demonstrate that the traits that students seek in their instructors are the same characteristics most people seek in relationships. These traits include accepting and positive attitudes. When students perceive their instructors as having these traits, they are able to form a better connection with their instructors. In addition, students give positive ratings to instructional quality when they feel the classroom environment is positive, which includes elements of trust, friendliness, and cooperation. As found by the authors, ". . . Agreeableness is a personality factor that impacts positive behavior, which leads to better ratings from students. If a positive relationship is not fostered with the students, the impact instructors have on students' learning may not be as beneficial" (Kneipp et al., 2010, p. 904).

In a study of the undergraduate students in the School of Management and the School of Information Technology in Malaysia, Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, and Yin-Fah (2012) found that students found their instructors behaviors to be amenable if the instructor were punctual, well prepared for the class session, organized the class session effectively, spoke in a clear manner, clarified assessment requirements, and made themselves available to provide students with extra help.

3.9.2   Instructor Self-Confidence, Vigor, and Control

In Costin and Grush (1973), it was found that students' perceptions of classroom behavior related mostly to student perceptions of instructor personality traits. Students perceived teacher skill to be highly correlated with instructor self-confidence. Students' perceptions of instructors' vigor correlated positively with teacher skill, student involvement, and teacher support. Teacher skill was found to have a higher correlation with student perceptions of

instructor vigor than the other dimensions of classroom behavior. Teacher control was highly

correlated with students' perceptions of instructor vigor, and when both student perceptions of

instructor behavior and instructor self-described behavior, it was the only instructor personality

trait that demonstrated any important relationship to classroom behavior. It could be implied that

"the possession of a high degree of energy coupled with the ability to work rapidly and

accomplish a great deal would appear to be an especially important teacher personality correlate

of classroom behavior" (Costin & Grush, 1973, p. 41).

3.9.3   Clarity and Interest

Mintzes (1979) found that clarity, which was defined as "the ability to explain concepts

in a clear, straightforward way" (p. 148), correlated strongly when instructors explained concrete

concepts using abstract examples, provided various examples and a lesson agenda before each

class, and spoke in an exciting manner. Instructors who earned high scores on the dimensions of

clarity and interest, which was defined as the talent for making the subject content interesting

and significant to the students, were likely to provide students with concrete illustrations to

explain abstract concepts. They were also more likely to provide several examples for each

concept and to stress important concepts through the use of verbal and nonverbal communication

techniques (pausing, slowing down, and providing verbal warning).

3.9.4   Teacher Effectiveness

Isaacson, McKeachie, and Milholland (1963) found that students had a tendency to view

instructors as effective if the instructors "possess[ed] high cultural attainment" (p. 115). This

finding was supported by studies conducted by Cosgrove (1959) and Beardslee and O'Dowd

(1962). Cosgrove (1959) found that if instructors appeared to be knowledgeable about their content and the content of other subjects, students would perceive those instructors as effective. Beardslee and O'Dowd (1962) reported:

> A dominant feature of the image [perceived by students] is the great stress on intellectual competence accompanied by sensitivity to artistic and aesthetic experience. The professor is seen as an individualist with colorful, interesting, and exciting qualities coupled with a degree of rashness, changeability, emotional difficulties, and lack of adaptability. It is quite likely that he is interesting because of his emotional, unpredictable nature. . . . Students rate the professor as very valuable, and they see his role as a source of great personal satisfaction. (p. 615)

Instructors who had these traits were perceived to be closer to the ideal instructor than those instructors who did not have these traits. Isaacson et al. (1963) also found that the factors of agreeableness, emotional stability, and enthusiasm correlated well with student evaluations. If instructors had these traits in addition to having a high cultural attainment, then these instructors will receive high scores on student evaluations. Shannon (1998) found that students focused more on the level of their instructor's enthusiasm and subject interest.

In his analysis of literature involving student perceptions of teaching effectiveness, Feldman (1976) divided the types of studies into non-structured response and structured response. Nonstructured responses described studies which allow students to list characteristics freely; however, structured responses described studies where students were asked by the researcher to rank an established list of instructor characteristics. In the nonstructured responses set, the following characteristics were rated highly: "the instructor's concern or respect for students, . . . the instructor's knowledge of students' interest, . . . the instructor's availability and helpfulness, . . . the instructor's encouragement of questions and discussions, . . . [and] the instructor's ability to explain clearly" (Feldman, 1976, p. 254). The following characteristics were ranked lower: "the instructor's enthusiasm for the subject or for teaching . . . the

76

instructor's impartiality . . . the instructor's preparation for the course . . . [and] the instructor's eloquentionary skills" (Feldman, 1976, p. 254). In the structured response set, the following characteristics were highly rated: the instructor's knowledge of the subject matter … the instructor's stimulation of students' interest . . . clarity of explanation, enthusiasm, and preparation-organization" (Feldman, 1976, p. 254). The lower ranked dimensions in the structured responses were: "the instructor's concern and respect for students[,] … the instructor's availability (helpfulness) [,and] … the instructor's encouragement of class questions and discussion" (Feldman, 1976, p. 254).

In her study of undergraduates and graduate perceptions of teacher effectiveness, Douglass (1992; pp. 119-137) found that students believed an effective instructor had the ability to:

employ several teaching methods	Use proper instructional resources	accept and keep appointments with students
communicate difficult concepts to enhance student understanding	Apply knowledge of the subject to solve everyday problems	utilize several forms of data to track and report student progress
demonstrate a well-rounded intelligence	give lectures that allow students to take notes easily	show enthusiasm for teaching;
establish knowledge of the subject taught	review exam content	use humor
present content in a meaningful manner	return graded assignments in a timely manner	utilize examples in lecture for clarification
preserve a classroom environment that encourages learning	provide students with enough time to finish assignments	are well prepared to teach
oversee and encourage classroom discussion	stress important lecture points	show an interested in their students learning needs
include visual teaching aids in lessons	be fair when assigning grades	

Students perceptions of instructor effectiveness correlated positively with the following behavioral dimensions: "rapport, interest, organization, interaction, pacing, speed clarity,

expressiveness, [and] emphasis" (Erdle & Murray, 1986, p. 124). Knapp (1962) reported that the following favorable instructor traits were created by the general public image of the college professor: "idealness, love of knowledge, humanness, unselfishness, breadth, dispassion, practicality, competence, and charm" (pp. 299-300). Several later additions to the previous list included: "handsomeness, eloquence, brilliance, and gayety" (Knapp, 1962, p. 300). The negative instructor traits as perceived by the general public included: "dullness, social inadequacy, unmanliness, impracticality, unwholesomeness, etc." (Knapp, 1962, p. 300). It is important to note that Knapp (1962) may only refer to male instructors since there may have been few female college instructors represented in universities and overall research studies at the time.

Tolor (1973) observed high school administrators, instructors, students, and parents at a four-year preparatory school to determine how students perceived teacher effectiveness. Five categories of teacher effectiveness were found: 1) teacher's cognitive skills; 2) teaching methods and abilities; 3) teacher's relationship with students; 4) teacher's personality; 5) teacher's effect on students' personality. At all of the class levels, students perceived effective teaching to be a major criterion in the identification of a good teacher. They defined a poor teacher as someone who "is lacking in relationship ability . . . and personality . . . almost as often as being deficient in teaching methods" (Tolor, 1973, p. 101). Yet, not many students believed that a poor instructor was ineffective because the lack of subject knowledge. This finding may infer that students perceive a poor instructor to be ineffective due to noncognitive elements.

Abrami, Perry, and Leventhal (1982) found that students judge instructor effectiveness without considering their own personality characteristics, but they do judge the teaching effectiveness of an instructor by the instructor's personality characteristics. Students who

perceived their instructor as a high achiever was the highest predictor of the set of perception

characteristics, which were comprised of deference, affiliation, and achievement. Because

Abrami et al. (1982) faced challenges in interpreting percept and ratings relationship, they

suggested that students may use their perceptions of their instructors' personality traits to rate

their teaching effectiveness. An instructor's rank may improve if he can find a way to modify his

students' impression of his personality without having an effect on the students' performance in

the class.

Miller and Miller (1997) identified three competencies that define college instructor

effectiveness. Subject Matter Competency was defined as the instructor's "knowledge of the

subject matter to be taught and the skills involved in its application" (Miller & Miller, 1997, p.

3). Experience also played an important role in this competency as experience brought more

credibility to knowledge. While it is important for instructors to know the subject matter, it is

more effective that they had experience to demonstrate their comprehensive understanding and

skill in the subject. Professional competency was defined as teaching concepts concerned with

pedagogical matters, including instructional planning, instructional delivery, and instructional

evaluation. Miller and Miller (1997) believed that an "instructor's effectiveness related to these

three major areas of professional responsibility will be determined in large measure by his/her

knowledge and understanding or the theory and practice of the teaching/learning process" (p. 5).

Personal competency comprised personal characteristics, which include attitudes, intellectual

abilities, creativity, interpersonal skills, and behaviors, such as the ability to be considerate,

cooperative, complimentary, friendly, involved, and professional.

In his study of undergraduates, Chireshe (2011) reported that students found instructors

who were punctual and well organized to be effective instructors. In fact, punctuality in

instructors was identified as an important characteristic of effective instructors. In addition, instructors who established a good rapport with their students were viewed as effective instructors. The rapport instructors established with their students had an effect on the atmosphere of the class which could have an influence on student motivation and cognitive learning. According to Barnes and Lock (2010), student "perceived Rapport as useful in reducing fear [of making mistakes], making students feel valued, promoting learning, and making students feel understood" by their instructors (p. 143). Effective instructors also delivered clear lectures and explanations and employed helpful handouts and teaching aids, such as extra reading materials. Students wanted to be involved in the lectures and were more inclined to be when the instructor actively engaged them into the lesson. In terms of grading and assessments, students labeled instructors who they perceived to be fair as effective instructors, and instructors who gave grades without meaningful feedback concerning the strengths and weakness of the student's work were ineffective instructors. The students also viewed instructors who practiced favoritism as ineffective instructors. An instructor's knowledge of the subject matter was also an important aspect of an effective instructor. The students identified instructors as effective if they demonstrated competency in the subject they taught. Ineffective instructors were identified as those instructors who used their subject knowledge to be condescending to students or to point out how much the students did not know.

3.9.5   Teaching Abilities

In terms of student evaluations of courses and instructors, Deshpande, Webb, and Marks (1970) found how students perceived the teaching abilities of their instructors correlated highly with the factors of Motivation, Structure, Content Mastery, and Instruction Skill. However, the

Instructional Skill factor was not prevalent in student evaluations of courses as it was in student evaluations of instructor teaching skill. The Encouragement, Evaluation Function, and Use of Teaching Aids factors were also moderately and positively correlated with student evaluations of instructor teaching skill, while the Text-Adherence factor was highly negatively correlated with student evaluations concerning the course value and instructor teaching skill. The Clarity factor had no relationship with the course value or instructor teaching skill. Overall, these results would imply that in terms of course value and instructor teaching ability, students did not prefer student-centered learning or teacher-centered behavior. Also, the Rapport factor did not share a significant correlation between student evaluations and instructor teaching skill or course value. This may imply that the students included in this study knew the difference between an outgoing instructor and an effective instructor. Concerning instructor teaching skill, the Stimulation Factor shared a high correlation, while Cognitive Merit shared a moderate relationship with instructor teaching skill. The Affective Merit Factor did not share any significant correlations. The Stress factor shared a negative correlation with course focus. This may suggest that stress caused by inappropriate evaluations, lack of clarity, and overload were related to courses which focused on theory instead of application.

3.9.6   Rapport

In Komarraju (2013), students who were identified as self-confident in their academic abilities were found to be less concerned with whether their instructors displayed caring behaviors because they understood that it was their hard work that would bring them academic success. Komarraju (2013) reported that "instructors who can acknowledge their students' challenges, provide them with information and feedback about how to do the task, and check to

see how they are doing, are more likely to create a sense of connection with unsure students who value these behaviors" (p. 108). When students were asked about professionalism as an ideal instructor trait, the extrinsically motivated students ranked this quality higher when compared to academically self-effective students. Extrinsically motivated students tended to view a college degree as a way to get a high salary rather than an institution which could provide them with opportunities to learn. Again, these students depended on instructor behavior (lecture delivery style, preparedness, confidence level, influence, intelligence, and punctuality, etc.).

Mintzes (1979) reported that instructors who had a good rapport, which was defined as an interpersonal connection between the instructor and students, were more likely to address students by their name, demonstrate their concern for students' academic progress, display a strong passion for the subject they teach, provide students with a lecture overview at the beginning of the class, and give students encouragement when students shared good ideas.

Walsh and Maffei (1994) found that instructor behaviors such as "treating [students] equally regardless of their race or sex, learning their names quickly, being patience in explaining point, treating them as equals" helped to establish instructor-student rapport (p. 40). The authors also identified behaviors that students felt damaged instructor-student rapport. These included instructors refusing to keep office hours or provide sufficient feedback or explanation concerning grades.

3.9.7   Instructor Immediacy Behaviors

In the realm of instructor immediacy behaviors, instructor immediacy was defined as "the physical and psychological closeness between people" (Shannon, 1998, p. 168). The focus of instructor immediacy behaviors was on instructor verbal and non-verbal that influence rapport

between instructors and students. There was a relationship between instructor immediacy behaviors and student perceptions of their own learning. In addition, student motivation can be considered an important consequence of instructor immediacy behaviors. Smith, Medendorp, Ranck, Morrison, and Kopfman (1994) found that instructor communication behaviors were very important to students. Smith et al. (1994) reported, "Of twenty-four categories . . . of the 'ideal' professor identified by the subjects, four of the top one-third were communication behaviors— 'good speaker', 'encourages interaction,' 'moves about the classroom,' and 'uses expressive voice'" (as cited in Shannon, 1998, p. 168). Crump (1996) found that an instructor's use of humor, dramatic lecture delivery, vocal variety, and the use of personal stories to explain examples of concepts were rated as important instructor attributes by students. In their study of instructor nonverbal immediacy behaviors and student evaluation in different cultures, McCroskey, Fayer, Richmond, Sallinen, and Barraclough (1996) reported that increased instructor nonverbal immediacy behaviors shared a meaningful relationship with positive student evaluations in terms of the students' enjoyment of the class content. Increased instructor immediacy nonverbal behaviors were also positively related to the students' amplified inclination to continue taking more classes within that subject. Nonverbal instructor behaviors, including vocal variation, eye contact, and smiling highly correlated with positive student evaluations.

3.9.7.1   Lecturer Performance

        In their evaluation of lecturer performance, non-Malaysian students gave higher instructor ratings when compared to Malaysian native students. Lecturer performance was defined as items concerning "the overall opinion about the effectiveness and performance of the

lecturer" (Sok-Foon et al., 2012, p. 240). Not only did the non-Malaysian students give higher instructor ratings when compared to Malaysian native students, but there was a significant difference concerning the evaluation of lecturer performance and student year of study (Sok-Foon et al., 2012). For example, students who were in their second year of study gave lower scores than students who were in their third year, but there was no significant difference between students who were in their 1st year and 2nd year or their first year and 3rd year. In their study of business university students, Mukherji and Rustagi (2008) found that students gave instructors higher evaluation scores when they viewed the instructor as effective and when they felt they had learned something from the course. Similarly, Üstünlüoğlu and Güngör-Culha (2012) found that students gave higher ratings on student evaluations if they felt they had learned something from the instructor.

In their study of community college students, Magno and Sembrano (2008) identified four personality characteristics that positively correlated with student evaluations of instructor performance. These personality characteristics included personal potency, pragmatism, amicability, and intellectual competency. High personality potency instructors were characterized as attractive, outgoing, dynamic, relaxed, and excellent communicators. Instructors who were described as pragmatic were viewed as down to earth, instructors who were described as amicable were viewed as friendly towards others, and instructors who were viewed as intellectually competent were considered to be knowledgeable about the subject they taught. In turn, these personality characteristics influenced student perceptions of instructor teaching performance, effective teaching characteristics, and efficacy. Instructors who had higher personality characteristics tended to be rated higher in the dimension of teaching performance. In

agreement, Cranton and Hillsgartner (1981) reported that the following instructor behaviors influenced students to give higher scores on student evaluations:

> (1) When instructors spent time structuring classes and explaining relationships, students gave higher ratings on logical organization items. (2) When professors praised student behavior, asked questions and clarified or elaborated on student responses, ratings on the effectiveness of discussion leading were higher. (3) When instructor time was spent in discussions, praising student behavior, and silence (waiting for answers), students tended to rate the classroom atmosphere as being one which encourages learning. (p. 73)

3.9.7.2   Negative Affect

Tanabe and Mori (2013) found that one specific personality trait, Negative Affect, had a large effect on how students evaluated the course. In this study, instructors who earned a high Negative Affect score were perceived by students to be "aggressive, dominant, anxious, authoritarian, and neurotic" (Tanabe & Mori, 2013, p. 60). This could be interpreted as showing that how students perceive their instructors' personalities does have an effect on how they evaluate their instructors on student evaluations. They may in turn show that student evaluations are not free from bias. However, because student interest in the class and the instructors' use of class management had a positive correlation with the student overall ratings, the analysis of these evaluations "at least warranted the validity of student evaluations" (Tanabe & Mori, 2013, p. 62). Costin and Grush (1973) reported that student perceived teacher skill correlated negatively with negative affect.

3.10   Student Demographics that Affect Student Evaluations

3.10.1 Academic Effectiveness and Motivation

Komarraju (2013) examined undergraduates at Midwestern University to study student perceptions of ideal instructor behaviors in relation to student academic effectiveness and

motivation. The author found that differences in individual students' academic self-perception of academic effectiveness and motivation influenced how they defined an ideal instructor. When the students were asked to rank the qualities and behaviors of their ideal instructor, students provided various answers depending on their own individual preferences. When asked to rate the significance of an ideal instructor's ability to care, students who were extrinsically motivated and students who strove to prove their intelligence to others were more likely to rank the trait of instructor caring highly. On the other hand, students who were academically self-efficient placed the trait of instructor caring on a lower rank. From this, it could be implied that students who go to college for extrinsic motivations (earning a bigger salary or proving their own intelligence) were more likely to need their instructors to be caring and encouraging. Because these types of students viewed getting a college education as a stepping stone to a successful future, they were more likely to perceive their instructors as important resources to achieve their academic goals. As a result, instructors who built an appropriate connection with their students were more likely to help extrinsically-motivated students to earn good grades and be successful in the future.

3.10.2 Student Mood

Munz and Munz (1997) studied undergraduate students enrolled in psychology courses to determine whether student positive or negative moods would relate to evaluation ratings in a positive or negative manner. Two identified mood traits were negative affectivity and positive affectivity. People who had a high negative affect "tend to be distressed and upset and have a negative view of self, whereas those low on the dimension are relatively content and secure and satisfied with themselves" (Watson & Clark, 1984, p. 465). Negative affectivity was associated with feelings of anger, guilt, self-hatred, anxiety, tension, frustration, rejection, loneliness,

irritability, worthlessness, hostility, discomfort, and sadness, but it does not necessarily denote

unhappiness (Watson & Clark, 1984; Clark & Watson, 1991). These feelings were not simply

caused by situations, but instead appeared to be a constant state of emotions.

Positive affectivity was defined as an individual's natural characteristic to be happy

regardless of environment or time period, feel comfortable with him/herself, and have the

capability to experience positive moods (Watson, Pennebaker, & Folger, 1987). Positive affect

also "reflects a state of pleasurable arousal, activation, and engagement—it represents the degree

to which one feels excited and enthusiastic" (Munz & Munz, 1997, p. 150). Along with its

positive central factor, positive affectivity also has five other dimensions: Energy, Affiliation,

Ascendance, Venturesomeness, and Ambition (Watson & Clark, 1991). Energy, which was

defined as "feelings of active mental alertness and of wholehearted interest", is closely related to

positivity (Clark & Watson, 1991, p. 235). Affiliation and Ascendance were found to be more

closely related to "the differences in sociability, interpersonal warmth, social dominance, and

exhibitionism" (Clark & Watson, 1991, p. 235). Venturesomeness signified a person's

inclinations towards living a life of excitement, and Ambition concerned various ways people go

about mastering a skill or situation.

When students felt depressed, anxious, or hostile to either themselves or others at the end

of the semester, they were more likely to complete negative student evaluations (Small,

Hollenbeck, & Haley, 1982). In essence, people who were depressed may view their

environment as negative and gloomy, so it is understandable to assume that their depression may

lead them to view everything in negative terms, which would then lead them to fill out a negative

student evaluation. Munz and Munz (1997) reported that positive affectivity correlated with

course ratings, but did not act as a predictor of teaching evaluations. In other words, "the positive

mood state variance overlapping with rater evaluation variance had antecedents other than the mood trait of the students" (Munz & Munz, 1997, p. 240). The authors also found that mood state and mood trait when assessed two weeks before the student evaluation demonstrated the same relationship patterns as the student evaluation ranks. When student positive state moods were measured before and at the time of student evaluations, they formed a significant correlation. This may be explained by the possibility that positive student sentiments in the classroom environment may change and become stable over a period of time, which may mean that these sentiments became the student's default reaction to the course and instructor. While the grades students expected to earn and the amount students perceived they learned in the course related significantly to student evaluations rankings, expected grades did not share a correlation with student positive mood states.

3.11   Instructor Demographics that Affect Student Evaluations

3.11.1 Spoken Language

In their analysis of first and second year law students in Oskana, Japan, Tanabe and Mori (2013) found that students perceived their English-speaking instructors differently then they perceived their Japanese instructors. The students found their Japanese instructors to seek more "definiteness, be more orderly, and more compulsive" than their English-speaking counterparts (Tanabe & Mori, 2013). Students perceived their Japanese instructors to be better instructors than the English-speaking in terms of instructional rating scores. One possible explanation of the results that students felt more comfortable being taught important concepts in their first language. Other possibilities could be found in Polio and Duff's (1994) study of the use of foreign languages in university classrooms. The researchers found that instructors were not

aware of when, how, and to what extent they used the target language in the classroom. This lack of awareness of their own use of the target language in the classroom led to some confusion among the students because the instructors were asking the students to speak in a language that they themselves were not using in the classroom. This led to communication breakdowns and misunderstandings, which would take up a large amount to class time to sort out. Moreover, Polio and Duff (1994) reported that when instructors were not completely familiar with the target language, then the manner in which they spoke it changed. For example, the authors reported observing two language instructors. One of the language instructors was Chinese and the other was Japanese. When they spoke English, they spoke quietly and quickly. The authors interpreted this as the instructors felt that they were doing something wrong or unnatural by speaking English instead of their native language, and in some cases, the instructors were discouraged from speaking English through departmental policy.

3.11.2 Gender

Johnson, Narayanan, and Sawaya (2013) found that in terms of gender and class level, there was a negative correlation at the lower course level for female instructors, but there were no significant differences between the student evaluations of teaching (SET) scores received by male and female instructors in upper-level courses. Courses taught by females had a higher positive correlation between course grades and SET scores than courses taught by males. Üstünlüoğlu and Güngör-Culha (2012) found that females gave their instructors high evaluation ratings even if they felt that their instructors did not reward or compliment their efforts as students.

3.11.3 Teaching Experience

Johnson et al. (2013) reported that instructor teaching experience had a positive

correlation with SET scores at the freshman level, but it did not always signify negative

correlation with the upper-level courses. Teaching experience and SET scores shared a negative

correlation, especially for assistant professors. Aggregated teaching experience correlated

positively with SET scores for non-tenure-track faculty, but it correlated negatively for tenured

associate professors. No correlation existed between teaching experience and SET scores for full

professors. Concerning the relationship between course size and teaching experience, there was a

negative correlation for all course sizes, but it was found that there was no statistically significant

correlation between SET scores and teaching experience.

3.12   Miscellaneous Factors that Affect Student Evaluations

3.12.1 Class Workload

Students at a business school accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate

Schools of Business International (AACSB) agreed that they gave higher evaluation scores to

instructors who provided a challenging learning environment and "require[ed] an above average

amount of work" (Mukherji & Rushtagi, 2008, p. 45). A similar finding was reported in Marsh

and Roche (1997) who reported that in the Workload/Difficulty dimension, student evaluations

were "higher—not lower—in more difficult classes; [but they] were lower in 'Mickey Mouse'

courses" (p. 1191).

3.12.2 Class Size, Student Level, and Instructor Rank

Üstünlüoğlu and Güngör-Culha (2012) reported that students in smaller classes give

higher evaluation ratings. Likewise, Johnson et al. (2013) found that higher SET scores occurred at the senior and small-size class levels. In terms of class level and instructor rank, assistant professors received lower SET scores in freshman-level courses, but the SET scores increased as the course level increased. Full professors received above average SET scores in freshman-level courses and lower SET scores in the other course levels. This result may infer that full professors should teach freshman courses to give students a better learning experience. Freshman students found instructor fairness or impartiality and instructor rapport with students to be of greater importance when compared to senior students (Feldman, 1976). Furthermore, students in upper-level college courses (juniors and seniors) viewed subject matter organization and the instructor's enthusiasm for teaching to be more important when compared to students in lower-level college courses (freshman and sophomore).

3.12.3 Academic Fields

Solomon (1966) found that instructors of basic courses (defined as courses that deal directly with academic disciplines, such as mathematics, philosophy, chemistry, etc.) were more likely to be more nervous, judgmental, employ lectures, and be more obscure and difficult. Instructors who taught applied courses (defined as courses that involve ways of applying the practicality of the disciplines (education, engineering, etc.)), were more likely to be clear to students, relaxed, display tolerance, and promote student participation. Üstünlüoğlu and Güngör-Culha (2012) recounted that instructors who taught in the humanities and arts were more likely to receive higher evaluation scores from students. In terms of the student-instructor rapport, students in Fine Arts and Education and Allied Professions departments ranked instructor behavior as an integral component to the student-instructor relationship. Students who were in

the Business department and those who had not yet declared a major did not seem to consider instructor behavior to be an important aspect of the student-instructor relationship (Walsh & Maffei, 1994). Students in the Fine Arts department wanted their instructors to display behaviors that would lead to the establishment of close and friendly relationships with their instructors. Education majors wanted their instructors to be prepared and organized for class and provide students with individual attention when they had difficulty understanding important concepts in the lessons (Walsh & Maffei, 1994). Students who majored or had an interest in natural sciences, physical sciences, and mathematics placed more importance on an instructor's ability to express him/herself clearly.

3.13   Summary

This chapter provided a review of the established literature as it relates to this study. There were several purposes to this review. The purposes of this review were to show 1) the influence of instructors on student information seeking behaviors; 2) the body of research on demotivating instructor behaviors; 3) how student perceive instructor behaviors; 4) how student demographics affect student evaluations; 5) how instructor demographics affect student evaluations; 6) other factors that affect student evaluations.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

The goal of this study is to examine how doctoral computer science students define

demotivating instructor behaviors and how their perceptions of those behaviors affect their

information seeking behaviors in the classroom environment. This study utilized a mixed

methods approach. The qualitative approach used semi-structured interviews and follow-up

questions, and the quantitative method used student demographic and student-perceived

instructor demotivating behavior surveys. The semi-structured interviews were analyzed using

phenomenology and content analysis. The surveys were configured using Excel.

4.2   Research Questions

The study examined the process that doctoral students go through when they have

questions in a certain course. A phenomenological qualitative and quantitative approach to

answer the following questions:

1. What behaviors do doctoral students expect from their instructors?

    a. Where do these expectations come from?

    b. How do doctoral students feel when their expectations of instructor behaviors
        are not met?

2. What instructor classroom behaviors do doctoral students perceive to be
    demotivating?

3. To what extent do instructor demotivating behaviors affect doctoral students'
    willingness to seek information from their instructors?

4. How does Kuhlthau's information search process (ISP) model help to explain the
    relationship between student-perceived instructor demotivating behaviors and student
    information seeking behaviors in a classroom setting?

4.3   Selection of Participants

4.3.1   Location and Discipline of the Participants

This study targeted doctoral computer science and information science students at a north Texas university. This population was chosen for this study because of the lack of information behaviors studies that included both computer science and information science students as participants. Most established studies revolved around the concept of information behaviors as they effect information literacy and library use in undergraduate, graduate, and post graduate students, undergraduate and graduate music students, undergraduate and graduate library and information science students, nursing undergraduates, social sciences and humanities masters and doctoral students, biochemistry undergraduates, biology doctoral students, undergraduate engineering, masters and doctoral theology students, and graduate education students.

While the Mokhtari, Davarpanah, Dayyani, and Ahanchian (2013) study included "technical and engineering" participants (p. 545), it doesn't exclusively state that computer science students were included in the study, the number of doctoral students from this department was not made clear, and the results were not divided into disciplines. Another information behavior study that included computer science students as participants (Onuoha & Awoniyi, 2011), but it does not state the students' academic levels. A third study included the resource choices of computer engineering students (Majid & Tan, 2002), but only undergraduates were included in this study.

Another reason this population was chosen was simply easy access to the participants. The computer science and information science departments are located in the same building.

4.3.2 Past Degrees of the Participants

Because the purpose of this study is to learn how the participants define instructor demotivation and what effects it can have on their information seeking behaviors, it is important that the participants have experienced various types of instructor behaviors. As a result, doctoral students enrolled in computer science or information science programs were included in the study regardless of their previous degrees.

4.3.3 Enrollment of the Participants

The participants for this study needed to have active enrollment. The number of hours of enrollment did not matter as long as they were actively enrolled. Because the researcher needed to interview the participants for data, students who were actively enrolled would be easier to find and also easier to communicate with in terms of setting up appointments.

4.3.4 Recruitment of the Participants

The participants were recruited through listservs used by each department. A recruitment flyer was given to the administrative assistance in the departments to be shared with the doctoral students.

4.3.5 Ethical Considerations

To follow the use of human subjects in research protocol, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) application was submitted and approved by the university's IRB office. Because this study did not bring risk to the participants, or include prisoners, pregnant women/fetuses, or mentally disabled people, an Expedited Review IRB application was used.

There were no foreseeable risks to those who agree to participate in this study. This study may benefit the participants by giving them a platform to share their frustrations with demotivating instructor behaviors they have experienced in the past. While there may not be a guaranteed benefit to the participants, this goal of this study was to gain a better understanding of how students perceive instructor demotivating behaviors and to what degree those behaviors affect the students' willingness to seek information from their instructors. This may benefit departments who seek to gain understanding of their student populations.

4.3.6   Confidentiality

To ensure confidentiality, all of the participants were given a randomly generated identification number which were used in place of identifying information. These randomly generated identification numbers were generated using the RANDBETWEEN (bottom number, top number) formula and saved in an EXCEL file. This file, along with any other possible files that contain identifying information, is password protected. The password is provided only to those who are listed on the IRB application.

Identifying information provided by the participants in the interview portion of this study, including, but not limited to instructor's name, subject, semester, year, location, instructor's identifying features, etc. were typed in all caps in the transcripts. For example, when a participant identified a specific class, to protect their identities, the name of the class was labeled as CLASS. Table 4.1 displays the coordinating identifying information and the labels used in the transcripts.

Table 4.1

Identifying Information and Labels for Transcripts

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION	TRANSCRIPT LABEL
Participant identified a specific class	COURSE
Participant said the instructor's name	PROFESSOR
Participant identified the semester	SEMESTER
Participant named a subject-specific assignment	ASSIGNMENT
Participant identified the name of a country	COUNTRY
Participant provided a name of an author specific to a discipline	AUTHOR

4.4   Sampling

4.4.1   Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling was used in this study. Johnson and Christensen (2004) state that purposive sampling occurs when "the researcher specifies the characteristics of a population of interest and then tries to locate individuals who have those characteristics" (p. 215).

4.4.2   Sample Size

According to the works of Creswell (1998; 2002), Morse and Chung (2003), Groenewald (2004), Johnson and Christensen (2004), Sepulveda, Garza, and Morrison (2011), and Ginsberg and Sinacore (2013), the sample size of this study had a minimum of ten participants. The ultimate goal was to reach data saturation. As reported by Francis, Johnston, Robertson, Glidewell, Entwistle, Eccles, and Grimshaw (2010), "[i]n studies that use semi-structured interviews that are analyzed using content analysis, sample size is often justified on the basis of interviewing participants until 'data saturation' is reached" (p. 1229). Glaser and Strauss (1967) introduced the concept of data saturation through grounded theory as theoretical saturation. The concept of data saturation is also referred to as saturation, thematic saturation, theoretical saturation, and conceptual saturation. Kerr, Nixon, and Wild (2010) explained that a "simple

definition of saturation is 'data adequacy'—the point when no new information is obtained from additional qualitative data" (p. 271). Having a minimum and maximum goal as far as qualitative sample size helped guide this study into achieve its goals.

4.5   Research Approaches

4.5.1   Mixed Methods

A mixed methods approach was employed to identify how computer science and information science doctoral students perceive demotivating instructor behavior based on their experiences as undergraduate and graduate students, and if those behaviors had an effect on their willingness to seek information from their instructors in a classroom environment. The quantitative approach was used to gather the participants' demographic data and compare their identification of demotivating instructor behaviors to those found in the established literature. The quantitative data analysis tools included a demographic survey and a demotivating instructor behavior survey.

4.5.2   Phenomenology

A qualitative phenomenological research approach provided a better understanding of how these participants perceive instructor demotivating behaviors and help to discover if those behaviors have any influence on the information behaviors of the students. What makes the qualitative phenomenological research approach different from the other approach is that it guides the researcher to understand "the logic or meaning of an experience, for any subject, rather than to discover causal connections or patterns of correlation" (Dukes, 1984, p. 197).

Bogdan and Taylor (1975) defined phenomenology as the study of "understanding human behavior from the actor's [participants'] own frame of reference" (p. 2). The point is to allow the researcher to view the phenomenon as the participants see it. The phenomenological qualitative approach does not attempt to solve problems. Rather, it attempts to "unveil the lived experience of the individual under study" (Salmon, 2012, p. 4). Creswell (1998) defined phenomenological research as "a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher identifies the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon as described by the participants" (p. 13). Its purpose is to understand the lived experiences of the participants regarding a particular phenomenon through extended meetings to create patterns and relationships of meanings. Because the experiences of the participants are important, it is imperative that the researcher withhold her own thoughts, opinions, etc., about the phenomenon. The researcher's dissociation of her own thoughts, opinions, etc., is known as the process of bracketing. Bracketing must occur in order for researchers to be aware of their own biases of a phenomenon and to recognize and manage any biases prior to interviewing the participants (Tuohy, Cooney, Dowling, Murphy, & Sixsmith, 2013).

To follow this approach, only one assumption was made: the participants volunteered to be in this study because they had experienced demotivation. There were no other assumptions made about the participants' experiences. Before interviewing the participants, the interviewer reviewed her own experiences with instructor demotivating behaviors and wrote a bullet list of these experiences and noted how they may or may not act as obstacles to viewing the phenomenon through the perceptions of the participants. By physically writing down and analyzing these experiences and understanding the unique circumstances of these experiences, the interviewer was able withhold any biases she might have held. When participants responded

to questions regarding their own experiences with demotivation, the interviewer withheld judgement in the form of body language, vocal tone, and facial expressions. Instead, the interviewer acted more as a caring friend who listened and concentrated on the responses provided to her without providing solutions or advice. This allowed the participants to speak freely at length about their personal experiences with this phenomenon without interruption or judgement. After completing each interview, the interviewer felt an understanding of the participants' experiences with instructor demotivating behavior that was based on the information shared and the emotions expressed by the participants and not by her own experiences or judgments.

4.6   Data Collection

4.6.1   Demographic Survey

The quantitative approach provided descriptive statistics of the participants in the form of a demographic survey and a student-perceived demotivating instructor behavior survey developed from the established literature on instructor demotivating behavior (See Appendix A). This demographic survey consisted of questions consisted of the following: 1) the participant's age, 2) year in the program, 3) most recent degree obtained, and 4) university of their most recent degree. The purpose of having a demographic survey is to obtain demographic information about the participant while simultaneously attempting to establish a rapport with the participant before the semi-structured interview. Instead of simply handing the participant the survey, the researcher asked the participant the questions and recorded the answers by hand. Again, this interview survey attempted to provide both the researcher and participant with the opportunity to get to know one another better and hopefully, work towards establishing the participant's trust.

4.6.2   Instructor Demotivating Instructor Survey

Because demotivation is not a phrase that is heard or used very often in the common vernacular, a list of student-perceived demotivating instructor behaviors was extracted from the literature review (See Table 2). The creation of this survey was inspired by the methods used in Ellis (2000) as inspired by Sieburg (1975).

In her study, Ellis (2000) adopted Sieburg's (1975) Perceived Confirmation Inventory, which used a Likert scale. Because Sieburg's scale was not "behaviorally based", it was considered "low in potential pedagogical value" (Ellis, 2000, p. 268). For example, while Sieburg's Perceived Confirmation Inventory scale found a link between teacher confirmation behavior and student outcomes, it was able to exhibit which behaviors were helpful towards positive student outcomes, but it couldn't exhibit "how a teacher exhibits these qualities" (Ellis, 2000, p. 268). As a result of the deficiencies in the Perceived Confirmation Inventory Scale, Ellis developed the Teacher Confirmation Scale (TCS). For the TCS's item development, Ellis asked a focus group of 10-12 undergraduate students and telephoned 20 randomly chosen students and asked them to identify specific instructor behaviors they perceived as confirming and disconfirming. Through content analysis, Ellis was able to extract and identify student-perceived confirming and disconfirming instructor behaviors. The Student-Perceived Instructor Behavior Survey followed the same idea of the TCS, except that instead of conducting focus groups and phone interviews asking students which instructor behaviors they find demotivating, the vast amount of literature on student demotivation, instructor immediacy, and student evaluations were mined to determine if these perceptions apply to this specific population. For example, one of the demotivating instructor behaviors, instructor verbal aggressiveness (Myers, 1998; Rocca & McCroskey, 1999), may or may not be seen as a demotivating behavior by computer science

101

students because their perceptions of verbal aggressiveness may be different based on their own experiences. Again, since one of the foci of this study is student perceptions of demotivating instructor behaviors, it was logical to determine how these perceptions compare to those student perceptions studied in the literature.

Because the literature, including these two studies, about student-perceived instructor demotivation was plentiful, the literature review in Chapter 2 was used to develop the Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey. The literature was analyzed and table of student-perceived instructor demotivating behaviors was created. When a source stated a finding of a particular student-perceived instructor demotivating behavior, the source's information, which consisted of the author(s) name(s) and the year of publication) was added to the side of the table labeled Literature Source. After completing the literature review analysis, the following table was completed and the behaviors were included in the Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey. Immediately after the demographic survey, the participant was given this survey and asked to mark the behaviors they would find to be demotivating. At this time, any question the participant has regarding the list was answered. The survey in its entirety can be found in Appendix B.

Table 4.2

Demotivating Instructor Behavior Literature Review Analysis

Demotivating Instructor Behavior	Literature Source
Acted unfriendly	Miller & Miller (1997); Kramer & Pier (1999); Magno & Sembrano (2008); Chireshe (2011)
Appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence	Mango & Sembrano (2008); Komarraju (2013); Tanabe & Mori (2013)
Appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors	Feldman (1976); Douglass (1992); Teven & McCroskey (1996); Miller & Miller (1997); McCroskey (1998); Kramer & Pier (1999); Turanli (2009);
Applied unfair grading policies	Feldman (1976); Douglass (1992); Chory & Paulsen (2004b); Chory (2007); Barnes & Lock (2010)
Attempted to humiliate students	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1991)

(table continues)

Table 4.2 *(cont.)*.

Demotivating Instructor Behavior	Literature Source
Avoided answering questions	Feldman (1976); Kramer & Pier (1999)
Became impatient when students asked questions	Walsh & Maffei (1994)
Created assignments that were too difficult or too simple	Plax & Kearney (1990); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Delivered boring or monotone lectures	Feldman (1976); Mintzes (1979); Plax & Kearney (1990); Smith, Medendorp, Ranck, Morrison, & Kopfman (1994); McCroskey, Fayer, Richmond, Sallinen, & Barraclough (1996); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Komarraju (2013)
Delivered rambling lectures	Magno & Sembrano (2008); Komarraju (2013)
Delivered vague and confusing lectures	Feldman (1976); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Barnes & Lock (2010); Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, & Yin-Fah (2012); Komarraju (2013)
Demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods	Tolor (1973); Gorham & Zakahi (1990); Moore et al. (1996); Douglass (1992); Kramer & Pier (1999); Chory & Paulsen (2004b); Chory (2007); Trang & Baldalf, Jr. (2007);
Displayed emotional instability	Isaacson, McKeachie, & Milholland (1963); Tanabe & Mori (2013)
Disrespected students	Feldman (1976); Teven & Gorham (1998)
Didn't actively engage students in the lesson	Barnes & Lock (2010)
Didn't care if students pay attention to lectures	Turanli (2009)
Didn't check for student understanding	Komarraju (2013)
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams	Gorham & Zakahi (1990); Moore et al. (1990); Douglass (1992); Kramer & Pier (1999)
Didn't connect material to student's lives	Feldman (1976); Kramer & Pier (1999); Magno & Sembrano (2008)
Didn't display empathy	Teven & McCroskey (1996); Miller & Miller (1997); McCroskey (1998); Teven & Gorham (1998)
Didn't encourage class discussion/questions	Feldman (1976); Gorham & Zakahi (1990); Moore et al. (1990); Douglass (1992); Smith, Medendorp, Ranck, Morrison, & Kopfman (1994); Kramer & Pier (1999); Magno & Sembrano (2008); Turanli (2009)
Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion	Mintzes (1979)

(table continues)

Table 4.2 *(cont.)*.

Demotivating Instructor Behavior	Literature Source
Didn't have a sense of humor	Csikszenmihalyi & McCormack (1986); Douglass (1992); Smith, Medendorp, Ranck, Morrison, & Kopfman (1994)
Didn't organize the class session effectively	Chireshe (2011); Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, & Yin-Fah (2012);
Didn't praise student behavior	Magno & Sembrano (2008)
Didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class	Mintzes (1979)
Didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students	Tolor (1973); Feldman (1976); Miller & Miller (1997); Turanli (2009)
Didn't provide learning examples	Feldman (1976); Mintzes (1979); Douglass (1992)
Didn't provide students with behavior boundaries	McCroskey (1998); Chory-Assad & Paulsel (2004b)
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams	Douglass (1992)
Didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials)	Barnes & Lock (2010)
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment	Komarraju (2013)
Didn't review material for exams	Douglass (1992)
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching	Isaacson, McKeachie, & Milholland (1963); Douglass (1992); Kramer & Pier (1999); Turanli (2009);
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	Feldman (1976); Teven & Gorham (1998); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Turanli (2009)
Didn't show up to class	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Didn't smile	McCroskey, Fayer, Richmond, Sallinen, & Barraclough (1996)
Didn't stress important concepts during lectures	Mintzes (1979); Douglass (1992)
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning	Douglass (1992); Turanli (2009); Tanabe & Mori (2013)
Didn't try to make the course interesting for students	Feldman (1976); Douglass (1992)
Didn't use eye contact	McCroskey, Fayer, Richmond, Sallinen, & Barraclough (1996)
Didn't use visual aids	Douglass (1992)
Failed to keep up with the established schedule	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)

(table continues)

Table 4.2 *(cont.)*.

Demotivating Instructor Behavior	Literature Source
Favored certain students	Feldman (1976); Walsh & Maffei (1994); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Barnes & Lock (2010)
Forgot due dates on a consistent basis	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Forgot students' names on a consistent basis or doesn't bother to learn student names	Mintzes (1979); Walsh & Maffei (1994); Tevin & Gorham (1998);
Give lectures that allow students to take notes easily	Douglass (1992)
Had an overall negative personality	Tolor (1973); Miller & Miller (1997)
Had an unenthusiastic attitude	Isaacson, McKeachie, & Milholland (1963); Feldman (1976); Csikszenmihalyi & McCormack (1986); Douglass (1992); Miller & Miller (1997)
Had unrealistic expectations of students	Kramer & Pier (1999)
Lacked creativity	Miller & Miller (1997)
Lacked passion for the subject taught	Mintzes (1979)
Made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level	Tolor (1973); Smith, Medendorp, Ranck, Morrison, & Kopfman (1994); Miller & Miller (1997); Teven & Gorham (1998); Kramer & Pier (1999); Turanli (2009); Chireshe (2011); Tanabe & Mori (2013)
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks	Teven & Gorham (1998)
Made the course too easy	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Monitored student work too closely	Turanli (2009)
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material	Feldman (1976); Csikszenmihalyi & McCormack (1986); Kramer & Pier (1999); Turanli (2009); Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, Yin-Fah (2012)
Often late to class	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Chireshe (2011); Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, & Yin-Fah (2012); Kommarraju (2013)
Overly critical of student questions/discussions	Feldman (1976); Gorham & Zakahi (1990); Douglass (1992); Moore, Masterson, Christophel, & Shea (1996); Kramer & Pier (1999)
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	Feldman (1976); Deutsch (1985); Bies & Moag (1986); Chory & Paulsen (2004b); Chory (2007); Barnes & Lock (2010);
Presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus	Gorham & Zakahi (1990); Moore et al. (1990); Kramer & Pier (1999)
Presented unclear directions/expectations	Feldman (1976)

(table continues)

Table 4.2 *(cont.)*.

Demotivating Instructor Behavior	Literature Source
Provided negative feedback	Tevin & Gorham (1998)
Provided no feedback	Walsh & Maffei (1994); Barnes & Lock (2010)
Provided vague feedback	Plax & Kearney (1990); Walsh & Maffei (1994); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Barnes & Lock (2010)
Refused to answer student questions	Feldman (1976); Kramer & Pier (1999); Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, & Yin-Fah (2012)
Refused to meet with students outside of class	Feldman (1976); Plax & Kearney (1990); Douglass (1992); Walsh & Maffei (1994); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Kramer & Pier (1999); Teven & Gorham (1998)
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades	Walsh & Maffei (1994)
Seemed intellectually incompetent	Douglass (1992); Miller & Miller (1997); Komarraju (2013)
Showed no concern for student achievement or progress	Feldman (1976); Mintzes (1979); Teven & Gorham (1998); Turanli (2009)
Showed no concern for student participation	Feldman (1976); Teven & Gorham (1998); Turanli (2009)
Showed open contempt for students	Feldman (1976); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999); Kramer & Pier (1999)
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions	Smith, Medendorp, Ranck, Morrison, & Kopfman (1994)
Took a long time to return graded assignments	Plax & Kearney (1990); Douglass (1992); Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Tried to intimidate students using anger	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Used profanity	Kearney, Plax, Hayes, & Ivey (1999)
Used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know	Barnes & Lock (2010)
Was overcritical of students	Teven & Gorham (1998)
Was unprepared for the class session	Feldman (1976); Douglass (1992); Magno & Sembrano (2008); Sok-Foon, Sze-Yin, Yin-Fah (2012); Komarraju (2013)
Was verbally aggressive	Rocca & McCroskey (1999); Myers (1998); Myers & Rocca (2001); Schodt (2003)
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	Tolor (1973); Feldman (1976); Douglass (1992); Miller & Miller (1997); Magno & Sembrano (2008); Barnes & Lock (2010)
Verbally expressed contempt for students	Feldman (1976); Teven & Gorham (1998)

4.6.3   Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews and follow-up questions were used to collect qualitative data. An interview is a type of discussion which helps researchers collect data that address the purpose, goals, and research questions of a study (Savenye & Robinson, 1996). One of the advantages in using the interview technique is that the interviewer has control over the process of the interview. The interview format gives the interviewer the opportunity to use proficient interpersonal skills to make the interviewee more comfortable during the interview (Appleton, 1995). Interviews are a viable option in the study of "context-dependent [behaviors], such as information seeking and uses….The interview method allows in-depth discussion with the users and provides informative and rich data that often reveal thoughts and reasons underlying behavior" (Wang, 1999, p. 67).

Semi-structured interviews are based on a question guide that the interviewer developed before meeting with each participant. These pre-formatted questions serve as an agenda for the interview. In discussing the advantages of semi-structured interviews, Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte (1999) stated:

> [s]emistructured interviews combine the flexibility of the unstructured, open-ended
> interview with the directionality and agenda of the survey instrument to produce focused,
> qualitative, textual data at the factor level. The questions on a semistructured interview
> guide are preformulated, but the answers to those questions are open-ended, they can be
> fully expanded at the discretion of the interviewer and the interviewee and can be
> enhanced by probes. (p. 149)

The semi-structured interview questions were open-ended, which allowed the interviewer to be open to any answer provided by the participants. Because there is no one correct answer in semi-structured interviews, interviewers had the freedom and flexibility to explore topics that developed from the interview as they came up.

107

4.6.4   Semi-Structured Interview Question Creation

The questions in the semi-structured interview consisted of four parts: 1) participants'

expectations of instructor behaviors; 2) students' identification of demotivating instructor

behaviors; and 3) how those perceptions effect their information seeking behaviors in terms of

Kuhlthau's ISP model, particularly their cognitive, affective, and physical reactions in the

initiation, selection, and exploration stages; and 4) the influence of an instructor's demotivating

behaviors on their information seeking behaviors.

Table 4.3

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Section 1: Participants' Expectations of Instructor Behavior
1.   How do you expect your instructors to behave in a classroom setting?
2.   How do you feel about the instructor and/or the class when your expectations are not met?
Section 2: Participants' Identification of Demotivating Instructor Behaviors
1.   You have marked which instructor behaviors you find demotivating on the previous survey. Are there any other instructor behaviors that you would like to add to the list?
2.   From the Instructor Demotivating Behavior survey, please identify the instructor behavior that you find the most demotivating. Please elaborate on why you find this instructor behavior to be the most demotivating.
3.   Please tell me about a specific time you felt demotivated in a course.
Section 3: Participants Information Seeking Behavior
1.   When you don't understand something in class, how would you describe your thought process? For example, are you unsure of where to start to find information? Do you immediately know what information you are looking for? Do you formulate specific questions to ask? Do you relate your existing knowledge of the subject to relieve your own confusion?
2.   How do you feel when you realize that you don't understand something in class? For example, do you feel uncertain? Confused? Overwhelmed? Optimistic? Frustrated? Ashamed?
3.   What do you normally do when you don't understand something in class? For example, do you ask the instructor a question in class, do you wait until class is over to ask the instructor a question, do you ask a fellow classmate, do you ask the teaching assistant? Do you just look it up on the Internet? Why?
Section 4: The Effects of Demotivating Instructor Behaviors on the Participants' Information Seeking Behavior
1.   Does an instructor's demotivating behavior influence your decision to seek clarification in the classroom? Why/Why not?

The questions of whether an instructor's demotivating behaviors had an effect on the participants' willingness to seek information was placed last in order to give the participants time to reflect on their own expectations of their instructors, their experiences with instructor demotivating behaviors, and their unique information seeking behaviors. By going through this strategic process of questions, building up to this final and encompassing question, the idea was to give the participants the opportunity for recollection and to establish their reasoning and elaborations on this subject. The questions are shown in Table 4.3.

4.6.4.1   Section 1: Participants' Expectations of Instructor Behaviors

In the development stage of this study, this section did not exist. Instead the semi-structured interview began with the demotivation section of questions. After reviewing the literature on student perceptions of their instructors, particularly the studies which focused on undergraduate students, it became apparent that there could be a discrepancy between the behaviors an undergraduate would expect from their instructors and the behaviors a doctoral student would expect from their instructors purely based on experience. Since the literature concerning doctoral students' expectations of instructor behaviors was scarce, this section was added as a way to establish not only the behaviors these participants expect from their instructors but also their reactions and/or feelings when their expectations were not met.

4.6.4.2   Section 2: Participants' Identification of Demotivating Instructor Behaviors

To gain a better understanding of the participants' experience with demotivating instructor behaviors, the participants were asked to choose the behavior they found to be the most demotivating from the Instructor Demotivating Behavior survey. The reasoning behind this

was to give the participants time to reflect and elaborate on the behaviors they marked on the survey. Another reason the participants were asked to refer to the survey was to prepare them for the next question in which they were asked to recount a particular experience with instructor demotivating behaviors. By recounting which instructor behaviors, they found to be the most demotivating, the hope was that the participants would more easily remember, if they needed to, and relate their experience with this phenomenon in specific terms.

4.6.4.3   Section 3: Participants Information Seeking Behavior

Taking from Kuhlthau's ISP model, the questions concerning the participants' information seeking behaviors were developed to explore how the participants think, feel, and act when they encounter information uncertainty in a classroom. For this study, the first three stages of Kuhlthau's ISP model were used. Participants were asked to recount their thought processes, their feelings, and their actions when they encountered a gap in their understanding in the classroom setting, which is known as the initiation stage in the ISP model. The goal was to have the participants think about their own process in finding information in the terms used in the ISP model to determine if and how Kuhlthau's identification and explanation of the initiation stage in the ISP model could help explain if and how instructor demotivating behaviors influence the participants' information seeking behaviors in the classroom.

4.6.4.4   Section 4: The Effects of Demotivating Instructor Behaviors on the Participants' Information Seeking Behavior

The participants were finally asked if instructors' behaviors, specifically demotivating behaviors as defined by the individual participant, would affect their willingness to ask questions in class. This question was placed last to give the participants the opportunity to reflect upon

how they defined demotivation, their experiences with instructor demotivation, and their own information seeking behaviors when they experienced a gap in their knowledge. This question was important to include because it answered the questions of the influence of instructor demotivating behaviors on student information seeking behaviors.

4.6.5   Recording

All interviews were audio recorded. An iPad, an Ipad Mini 2, and two iPhones (an iPhone 5c and an iPhone 6s) were used to record the interviews. This equipment was used because of accessibility and multiple devices were used in case one device failed to record the audio. After each interview, the recording was uploaded to an external hard drive, where it was saved to a password-protected participant file. These recordings will be destroyed after three years, as per the IRB agreement.

4.6.6   Follow-Up Questions

The follow up questions were emailed to participants after the original interviews were transcribed and analyzed for potential patterns. Each participant was emailed a copy of their interview in a WORD document and was asked to read and review the document to ensure that their responses were recorded correctly. If they felt their responses were incorrectly transcribed or simply wanted to add any clarification to their original answers, the participants were invited to edit the WORD document and send the revisions back to the researcher via email. This use of member checking allowed the participants to confirm their responses and in some instances, further elaborate on the established transcript.

The follow up questions addressed three patterns found in the original transcripts: the instructor's spoken language and the source of the participants' instructor expectations. From these patterns, three major questions were developed. Questions one and two addressed instructor spoken language, and included two minor questions; These minor questions had two following questions depending on the participant's response to each major question. Question three addressed the source of the participants' instructor expectations and was followed by an explanation of their source. See Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Follow-Up Questions

QUESTION 1
Does an instructor's spoken language in the classroom lead you to become demotivated in a classroom? Why or why not?
IF IT HAS, please describe an experience wherein an instructor's spoken language has led to your demotivation in a classroom.
QUESTION 2
Does an instructor's spoken language in the classroom have an effect on your willingness to seek clarification in the classroom? Why or why not?
IF IT DOES, please describe an experience wherein a professor's spoken language has had an effect on your willingness to seek clarification in the classroom?
QUESTION 3
Where do your expectations of instructor behavior come from? Why?

4.7   Data Analysis

4.7.1   Student-Perceived Demotivating Instructor Behavior Survey

The analysis of the Student-Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors Survey was completed using Excel. All eighty instructor demotivating behaviors on the survey were placed in Excel and assigned a number (1-80). Then the participant identification numbers were placed in the sheet. When a participant marked a behavior as demotivating, a 1 was assigned to the behavior. See Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Demotivating Instructor Behavior Survey Participant Analysis Example

	DEMOTIVATING INSTRUCTOR BEHAVIOR	P931	P460	P302	P789	P124	P289	P546	P138	P517	P998	Totals	%
1	Acted unfriendly	1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1	8	80

After searching and recording the demotivating behaviors each of the participants, the total marks for the individual demotivating behaviors were configured using the Excel formula =SUM(Cell 1:Cell 2). The percentage was calculated by dividing the total number by 10. The demotivating behaviors were then grouped together by percentage.

4.7.2   Analysis of Demographic Survey and Student-Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors Survey

To gain a better understanding of the participants, an analysis of information from both surveys was completed. To begin, the data collected from the participants in the demographic survey was entered into an Excel spreadsheet. The participants' study identification number, gender, age, PhD level, origin country, and highest degree earned was placed recorded. The information recorded on this spreadsheet was then used to group the participants by the following subgroups as represented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Subgroups

SUBGROUPS
Gender
Age Groups
PhD Level
American vs. International
Doctoral Candidates vs. Doctoral Students

For each subgroup, the participants' choices from the eighty demotivating instructor behaviors were split by the respective subgroup. The same totaling and percentage system detailed in the original analysis was used for all of subgroups calculations. In order to calculate the highest, lowest, and common scores of each subgroup, the total number of each demotivating instructor behavior was analyzed. For example, to determine which demotivating instructor behaviors were considered to be the highest among the female participants, the number of female participants (n=6) was compared to the total number of points for each demotivating instructor behavior. Those demotivating instructor behaviors that scored close to the total number of participants in the subgroup were highlighted and recorded. This same technique was used to determine which demotivating behaviors each subgroup found the least demotivating and which demotivating behaviors each subgroup had in common.

4.7.3   Semi-Structured Interviews

According to Creswell (1994), data analysis procedures may not have as much structure when compared to those used in the other approaches, and as a result, it is "more open to alternative procedures" (p. 157). The data from the semi-structured interviews was analyzed using a mixture of content analysis (Neurendorf, 2002; Krippendorff, 2013) and Colaizzi's Method of Phenomenological Inquiry after a transcription of the interview has been created. Based on these steps, the Colaizzi's (1978ab) method shares similarities with content analysis. These similarities include reviewing the transcripts holistically and individually, discovering and noting patterns in the transcripts, and analyzing those patterns in the search for meaning. Since both of these methods are similar, the semi-structured interviews were analyzed using a mixture of Colaizzi's (1978ab) method and content analysis.

4.7.4   Content Analysis

There are several definitions of content analysis, each one adding more depth to the

overall definition. Content analysis has been defined as the method for analyzing verbal and non-

verbal messages (Cole, 1988), and it is appropriate for the study of human communication. It has

also been defined as the "study of recorded human communications, such as books, Web sites,

paintings, and laws" (Babbie, 2004, p. 314). It is useful in analyzing documents, such as

transcripts, because it allows for probing theories in order to explain the data. It also gives the

researcher the opportunity to identify the patterns of the participants' experiences (Patton, 2002).

The act of content analysis involves coding the answers given by the participants in the

interviews into categories in the hopes of finding similar categories of information (Cavanagh,

1997). Coding is defined as the process of transforming raw data into a standardized format to be

analyzed (Babbie, 2004). Savenye and Robinson (1996) stated that codes allow the raw data to

be regulated "by labelling, storing, and retrieving it according to the codes . . . [which] depend on

the study, setting, participants, and research questions" (p. 1060). In the coding process, the

researcher begins to find meaning in the data. The purpose of the coding in content analysis is to

achieve a concise and general description of the phenomenon presented in the study.

4.7.5   Krippendorff (2013)

Krippendorff (2013) defined content analysis as "a research technique for making

replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their

use" (p. 24). It is characterized by providing new perspectives, increasing the researcher's

understanding of the studied phenomena, or calling an action to be made. Replicability is an

important aspect of content analysis because of its focus on reliability. This means that

researchers who are using the same research techniques but working at different times and situations should be able to come to the same end results of a study.

According to Krippendorff (2013), the following steps need to be followed after transcripts have been made and the analytical constructs have been put into place. An analytical construct is defined as "a function, a collection of 'if-then' statements, or a computer program that defines at least one path from available text to the answers sought" (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 170). These include 1) summarizing the inferences from the text so that they are easily understood, interpreted, or related to intended decisions; 2) discovering patterns and relationships within findings that an unaided observer would otherwise easily overlook, to test hypotheses concerning various relationships; 3) comparing the findings with data obtained by other means or from other situations to support conclusions drawn from other research (multiple operationalism), to gain confidence in the validity of the content analysis at hand, to add another dimension to the intended inferences, or to provide missing information (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 188).

4.7.6   Neurendorf (2002)

Neurendorf (2002) defined content analysis as

a summarizing, quantitative analysis of messages that rely on the scientific method (including attention to objectivity-intersubjectivity, a priori design, reliability, validity, generalizability, replicability, and hypothesis testing) and is not limited as to the types of variables that may be measured or the context in which the messages are created or presented. (p. 10)

Because the goal of scientific investigation is to give a description or provide an explanation of the phenomenon being studied in a non-biased way, objectivity is necessary in content analysis. In addition, because humans don't simply believe something in true, but instead

116

ask if there is a consensus about what is true, the process of intersubjectivity is also necessary

(Neurendorf, 2002, p. 11). A priori design is important to the scientific method because all the

decisions on the variables, data collection tools, and coding rules need to be determined before

the study has started. Reliability is important because without it, the results of a study are not

considered to be valid, and validity is important because the data collection instruments need to

measure what they were designed to measure. Generalizability is important because "the

generalizability of findings is the extent to which they may be applied to other cases . . ."

(Neurendorf, 2002, p. 12). For this study, generalizability was limited because only a small

section of the computer science and information science doctoral population was included in the

study. Replicability and hypothesis testing are important to scientific method goal of content

analysis because a study's methods must be replicable to be reliable, and hypothesis and research

questions provide a study with a purpose to test.

Neurendorf (2002, pp. 50-51) developed more specific steps in the content analysis

process:

1. Theory and rationale: The identification of the theory or hypothesis that the study will test.

2. Conceptualization: Which variables will be included in the study and how will they be defined?

3. Operationalism: How will the data be measured?

4. Coding schemes:

    a. Human coding: Codebook and a coding form need to be developed

    b. Computer coding: A codebook with explicit definition of codes and explanation of application methods needs to be developed.

5. Sampling: How will the sampling of the population be decided?

6. Training and pilot reliability: In this stage, coders will work together to determine if they agree on the variables in the codebook and then test the reliability of every

variable. At this time, the codebook can be revised based on this re-evaluation of the codes.

7. Coding:

    a. Human coding: For this step, two coders are recommended to institute intercoder reliability. Coding can be done by the coders separately, but there needs to be at least 10% agreement on the reliability test conducted after the independent coding.

    b. Computer coding: Use the established dictionaries to sample transcript to per-unit frequencies for each group of codes. Check for validation.

8. Final reliability: Calculate the reliability of each variable using the appropriate measure (Pearson's r, Spearman's rho, percent frequencies, etc.)

9. Tabulation and reporting: At this stage, figures and statistics will be reported. They could be reported using various methods. The suggestion is to look at previous reporting content analysis examples.

4.7.7   Colaizzi's (1978ab) Method of Phenomenological Enquiry

In phenomenological qualitative research, there is a data analysis method known as the Colaizzi's (1978ab) method of phenomenological enquiry. According to this method, the data analysis steps are followed:

1. Transcribe the interviews

2. Extract significant statements from the transcripts

3. Formulate meanings from the transcripts

4. Categorize meanings into themes

5. Create an exhaustive description of the participants' experiences

6. Describe the fundamental structure of the phenomenon.

7. Validate the findings with the research participants to ensure that the descriptive results match their experiences (Edward & Welch, 2011, p. 165).

4.7.8   Coding

In order to save time, coding of the interview transcripts was completed using NVivo, a computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) program (QSR International, 2014b) used to help qualitative researchers conduct various forms of analyses to clarify any emerging theories and relationships from the data. It is important to remember that the researcher is the ultimate data analyzer, but the use of qualitative data analysis (QDA) saves the researcher time and money in the data analysis process (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2011). NVivo has several convenient benefits as well. It employs visual coding methods, known as coding stripes to help the researcher visualize the categories developed in the coding process, and it has a coding bar which lets the researcher know how much coding had been done from a specific source (QSR International, 2014a).

4.7.9   Demographic and Demotivating Instructor Behavior Surveys

The data collected from the demographic interview survey and the demotivating instructor behavior survey were analyzed using descriptive statistics for nominal categorical data. This type of data includes "[n]ames appl[ied] to persons or things with common characteristics that [can be placed] into the same category" (Krathwohl, 2009, p. 371). The common characteristics can include language (Biswas & Mandal, 2010), hair color (Antony & Raghavendra, 2011), and gender (Salkind, 2010). The relative answers to the questions on both surveys were placed into categories to prepare for analysis. For example, in the demographic interview survey, the participants' demographic information was placed in categorical nominal variables, such as age, grade level, previously obtained degrees, and previously attended university. Within each category, there were subcategories to represent a certain grouping. For

example, the nominal variables of age were divided into the following subcategories: 25-29; 30-39; 40-49; 50+, as shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Participant Age Groupings

Age Groupings
25-29
30-39
40-49
50+

4.8 Reliability and Validity

4.8.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the description of "how far a particular test, procedure or tool, such as questionnaire, will produce similar results in different circumstances, assuming nothing else has changed" (Roberts, Priest, & Traynor, 2006, p. 41). While reliability is more straightforward in quantitative approaches, it can be difficult to accomplish in qualitative approaches because qualitative data is more subjective (Zohrabi, 2013). One way to ensure reliability when using a qualitative approach is to include an audit trail. As defined by Zohrabi (2013), in order to complete an audit trail, the researcher "should describe in detail how the data are collected, how they are analyzed, how different themes are derived and how the results are obtained. Therefore, this detailed information can help replicate the research and contribute to its reality" (p. 260).

4.8.2 Validity

Validity is concerned with the believability of research and whether the data collection tools measure what they are supposed to measure. All interviews were followed up with an email in which the participant was asked to review the transcripts and interpretations to determine if

her experience were accurately recorded. This process is also known as member-checking, which is a method of securing validity. Member checking, sometimes known as member validation or respondent validation, is defined as "a process whereby a researcher provides the people on whom he or she has conducted research with an account of his or her findings" (Bryman, 2001, p. 274). The goal of member checking is to ensure that the findings and the experiences of the participants agree with one another. After the interview had been transcribed, the participants were sent the completed transcript draft via email and asked review the transcripts to ensure that their experiences were accurately recorded and any interpretations were valid. In addition, the participants could decide to add more detail to their answers. In this study, member checking was completed in the follow-up questions, when the participants were emailed these questions and instructions to read the transcript of their interview. Participants were asked to correct any mistakes or misinterpretations and add elaboration if they wanted to do so.

4.8.3   Possible Limitations and Potential Threats to Validity and Reliability

Possible limitations of this study were the lack of generalizability in the findings because a qualitative research approach was used. This was due to the fact that qualitative approach places more emphasis on information-rich research than on theories using statistical analysis. This is a major difference between qualitative and quantitative research methods. According to Patton (2002), "[q]ualitative inquiry typically focuses in depth on relatively small samples . . . selected purposely. Quantitative methods typically depend on larger samples selected randomly" (p. 230). The value of qualitative approach comes from the identification and analysis of specific themes from a particular population. According to Greene and Caracelli (1997), meticulousness in sample selection is more important than generalizability.

121

In the tradition sense, the generalizability of the findings were limited because a purposeful sample, as opposed to a statistically significant sample, was used in this study. This helped to obtain "information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry" (Patton, 2002, p. 230). Since the purpose of this study was to determine which instructor behaviors computer science doctoral students find demotivating and whether these behaviors have an effect on their information behaviors in a course, it was important to learn specific details about the students' perceptions of their instructors (past and present) and their detailed accounts of their own information seeking behaviors. In qualitative research, specifically purposeful sampling, there is no set number to work towards in a sample size.

Generalizability in the traditional quantitative terms would still be difficult to accomplish given the research approach to be used. That is why it was important to view generalizability, not in quantitative terms, but in qualitative terms. Creswell (2014) defined qualitative generalization as "a term that is used in a limited way in qualitative research, since the intent of this form of inquiry is not to generalize findings to individuals, sites, or places outside of those under study" (p. 246). This type of generalization calls for using audibility. Morse (1999) argued that qualitative inquiry can be generalizable, but it can also do so on its own terms. In qualitative inquiry terms:

> each participant in the relatively small sample has been selected purposely for the contribution he or she can make toward the emerging theory. It is this selecting that ensures that the theory is comprehensive, complete, saturated and accounts for negative cases. The knowledge gained from the theory should fit all scenarios that may be identified in the larger population. (p. 5)

The point is that the knowledge obtained from the sample can be applied to any setting in which the problem of instructor demotivation occurs. Morse (1999) used an example of an ethnographic

study conducted by Applegate and Morse (1994) in which they attempted to examine privacy in an all-male nursing home. They found that "the type of interpersonal relations provided the context in which privacy norms were respected or violated" (Morse, 1999, p. 5). The argument used is that the finding concerning privacy norms can be transferred to any other setting where privacy violations exist. This could be generalized to another nursing home, a mental institution, etc., as long as the concern for privacy violation exists in that environment.

From Morse's (1999) explanation of generalizability in the qualitative research approach, the findings can be allocated to another situation. For example, if the acceptance of academic cheating is considered by the participants to be a demotivating instructor behavior, based on Morse's (1999) logic, it is possible to generalize the findings in another setting where the acceptance of academic cheating may be considered a demotivating instructor behavior. This setting could be an undergraduate Chemistry class, a C++ certification course, a high school PE class, or any other course.

The reliability and validity of a study depends greatly on the researchers' methodology expertise, compassion for the participants, and their ethical beliefs (Patton, 2002). The potential threats to reliability also lie within the qualitative research approach due to its focus on smaller samples and difficulty with generalizability (Carr, 1994; Babbie, 2004). The quantitative approach does better with reliability because it gets rid of any unneeded variables in the study. The qualitative research approach, on the other hand, lacks strict standardization and depends on the perceptions and competency of the observers (Duffy, 1985). Reliability is concerned with the "consistency, dependability, and replicability" of the study results (Zohrabi, 2013, p. 259). More specifically, these concerns lie within the data collection instrument. The focus is to ensure that the data collection process produces reliable and consistent findings. One way to ensure

reliability in qualitative research is through an audit trial. Guba and Lincoln (1981) stated that a qualitative study may be considered auditable if the reader of the research, (i.e., another researcher) can follow the decision trail made by the researcher. A decision trail is a detailed explanation of every decision made in the research process from its inception to the final stage. A decision trail can be created by keeping detailed notes about every decision made throughout the research process (Roberts, Priest, & Traynor, 2006).

Unlike reliability, validity is easier to accomplish using the qualitative approach (Carr, 1994) because participants are observed in their natural setting and are not controlled by as many variables (Sandelowski, 1986). According to Carr (1994), "the researchers can also become so immersed in the context and subjective states of the research subjects that they are to give the assurance that the data are representative of the subject being studied" (p. 719). The problem with this is that if the researcher becomes too immersed in the world of the participants, bias can occur because there is a possibility that immersion can bring about subjectivity and possibly lose the ability to make objective observations of the experiences in a meaningful manner. To counter this possibility, member checks can be used to confirm the perceptions of the interviewer. Member checks occur when the results and interpretation (in this study, they were the transcriptions of the interviews) are given to the participant "to confirm the content of what [the participant had] stated during the interview encounter" (Zohrabi, 2013, p. 258). Guba and Lincoln (1981) agreed that it is easier to determine credibility through member checking because it gives the participants the opportunity to confirm the plausibility of the results. In addition, any bias on the part of the researcher is reduced by the validation of the participant's review of the findings.

4.9   Summary

This chapter provided a detailed account of the methodological decisions made for this study. Decisions concerning population selection and recruitment, sample size, and research approaches have been included in this chapter. A mixed methods approach was used for this study. Semi-structured interviews were used as qualitative data collection tools, and student demographic and student-perceived instructor demotivating behavior surveys were used as quantitative data collection tools. The semi-structured interviews were transcribed and the follow-up questions were organized and analyzed using content analysis and phenomenology, and the surveys will be analyzed using Excel.

CHAPTER 5

DATA RESULTS

5.1   Introduction

The intent of this study was to explore doctoral students' perspectives on instructor

demotivating behaviors, specifically which instructor behaviors they would identify as

demotivating, and to determine if demotivating instructor behavior, as defined by the

participants, has an effect on their information behaviors in the classroom.

To explore and determine these factors, participants were asked to share their

expectations of instructor behavior, their perceptions of and their reactions to instructor

demotivating behavior, and their own information seeking behaviors in the classroom through

semi-structured, open-ended interviews. These interviews were conducted face to face and

through email. In addition, participants were asked to identify which instructor behaviors they

found demotivating from a list of instructor behaviors collected from the literature review.

This chapter provides the results of the quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative

data analysis focuses on the participants' demographics and their identification of demotivating

instructor behaviors found in the literature review. The qualitative data analysis focuses on the

results pulled from the semi-structured interviews as it related to the research questions of this

study. In addition, identification of supporting data that emerged from the data collection, but

was not covered by the scope of the research questions is provided.

5.2   Demographic Survey Results

The Demographic Survey was used to gather information concerning the participants'

gender, age, level in their respective doctoral program, their national vs. international

classification, highest degree earned, country of highest degree earned (national vs.

international), and current doctoral program. The demographic data of the participants is

presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

*Demographic Data (*n = *10)*

		Number of Participants	% of Participants
Gender	Male	4	40%
	Female	6	60%
Age	25-29	5	50%
	30-39	1	10%
	40-49	3	30%
	50+	1	10%
PhD Level	>1st year	1	10%
	1st year	1	10%
	2nd year	3	30%
	3rd year		
	4th year	1	10%
	ABD	4	40%
Country of Origin	United States	4	40%
	Iran	1	10%
	Africa	1	10%
	Canada	1	10%
	India	1	10%
	Bangladesh	1	10%
	Thailand	1	10%
Highest Degree Earned	Master of Science-Computer Science	2	20%
	Master of Arts-Journalism	2	20%
	Master of Science-Engineering	1	10%
	Bachelor of Science-Computer Science	1	10%
	Master of Science-Library Science	2	20%
	Double Masters of Science-Information Management and Information Systems	1	10%
	Master of Science-Applied Physics	1	10%
Country of Highest Degree Earned	United States	6	60%
	Iran	1	10%
	Canada	1	10%
	Bangladesh	1	10%
	Thailand	1	10%
Current PhD Program	Computer Science	6	60%
	Information Science	4	40%

The analysis of the demographic data showed that four of the participants were male and six were female. Of the 10 participants, five were between the ages of 25-29, one was between the ages of 30-34, three were between the ages of 40 and 44, and one was 50 years old and older.

Concerning their PhD level, one of the participants had been in a doctoral program for less than a year, one had been in for at least one year, three had been enrolled for two years, one was on their fourth year, and four were classified as doctoral candidates, or "all but dissertation" (ABD) level. Of the 10 participants, four were American citizens, one was from Iran, one was from Cameroon, one was from Canada, one was from India, one was from Bangladesh, and one was from Thailand. Two of the participants had earned a master of science in computer science, two had earned a master of arts in journalism, one had earned a master of science in engineering, one had earned a bachelor of science in computer science, two had earned a master of library science, one had earned a double masters in science in information systems and information management, and one of participants earned a master of science in applied physics. Concerning the country where they earned their last degree, six of the participants earned their degree from the United States, one earned it from Iran, one earned it from Canada, one earned it from Bangladesh, and one earned if from Thailand. Six of the participants were working towards obtaining a doctoral degree in computer science and four were obtaining a degree in interdisciplinary information science.

5.3   Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey Results

The Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey was developed from the literature on instructor demotivating behaviors as stated in Chapter 4. This data was analyzed using Excel and the results are shown in Tables 5.2 to 5.10.

All of the participants ($N = 10$) found the following instructor behaviors to be demotivating: disrespected students, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.2

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-All Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Disrespected students	
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	10
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

Table 5.3 shows that nine of the participants found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: applied unfair grading policies, attempted to humiliate students, avoided answering questions, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't show up to class, favored certain students , not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, presented unclear directions/expectations, provided no feedback, refused to answer student questions, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, tried to intimidate students using anger, and was verbally aggressive.

Table 5.3

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Nine Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Applied unfair grading policies	
Attempted to humiliate students	
Avoided answering questions	
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams	
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment	
Didn't show up to class	

Favored certain students	
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material	
Presented unclear directions/expectations	9
Provided no feedback	
Refused to answer student questions	
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades	
Tried to intimidate students using anger	
Was verbally aggressive	

Table 5.4 shows that eight of the participants found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: acted unfriendly, delivered vague and confusing lectures, didn't organize the class session effectively, didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, had an overall negative personality, had unrealistic expectations of students, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, overly critical of student questions/discussions, provided vague feedback, seemed intellectually incompetent, used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks, and was unprepared for the class session.

Table 5.4

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Eight Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Acted unfriendly	
Delivered vague and confusing lectures	
Didn't organize the class session effectively	
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams	
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching	
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning	
Had an overall negative personality	8
Had unrealistic expectations of students	
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks	
Overly critical of student questions/discussions	
Provided vague feedback	
Seemed intellectually incompetent	
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks	
Was unprepared for the class session	

Seven of the participants found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: impatient when students asked questions, created assignments that were too difficult or too simple, demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods, displayed emotional instability, didn't encourage class discussion/questions, didn't provide learning examples, didn't provide students with behavior boundaries, forgot due dates on a consistent basis, gave lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily, refused to meet with students outside of class, showed no concern for student achievement or progress, showed no concern for student participation, and used profanity/curse words. See Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Seven Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Became impatient when students asked questions	
Created assignments that were too difficult or too simple	
Demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods	
Displayed emotional instability	
Didn't encourage class discussion/questions	
Didn't provide learning examples	
Didn't provide students with behavior boundaries	7
Forgot due dates on a consistent basis	
Give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily	
Refused to meet with students outside of class	
Showed no concern for student achievement or progress	
Showed no concern for student participation	
Used profanity/curse words	

Table 5.6 shows that six of the participants found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors, didn't actively engage students in the lesson, didn't check for student understanding, didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion, didn't stress important concepts during lectures, failed to keep up with the established schedule, had an unenthusiastic attitude,

lacked passion for the subject taught, used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know, and was overcritical of students.

Table 5.6

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Six Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors	
Didn't actively engage students in the lesson	
Didn't check for student understanding	
Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion	
Didn't stress important concepts during lectures	
Failed to keep up with the established schedule	6
Had an unenthusiastic attitude	
Lacked passion for the subject taught	
Used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know	
Was overcritical of students	

Table 5.7 shows that five of the participants found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: didn't care if students pay attention to lectures, didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students didn't smile, didn't try to make the course interesting for students, lacked creativity, made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level, and presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus.

Table 5.7

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Five Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Didn't care if students pay attention to lectures	
Didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students	
Didn't smile	
Didn't try to make the course interesting for students	
Lacked creativity	5
Made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level	
Presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus	

Table 5.8 shows four of the participants found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: didn't display empathy or sympathy, didn't praise student behavior, didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials), didn't review material for exams, didn't use eye contact, didn't use visual aids, often late to class, and took a long time to return graded assignments.

Table 5.8

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Four Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Didn't display empathy or sympathy	
Didn't praise student behavior	
Didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials)	4
Didn't review material for exams	
Didn't use eye contact	
Didn't use visual aids	
Often late to class	
Took a long time to return graded assignments	

Table 5.9 demonstrates that three of the participants found these instructor behaviors to be demotivating: appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence, didn't connect material to student's lives didn't have a sense of humor, didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class, forgot students' names on a consistent basis or doesn't bother to learn student names, and made the course too easy.

Table 5.9

Instructor Demotivating Behaviors-Three Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence	
Didn't connect material to student's lives	
Didn't have a sense of humor	3
Didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class	
Forgot students' names on a consistent basis or doesn't bother to learn student names	
Made the course too easy	

Two of the participants found these instructor behaviors to be demotivating: provided

negative feedback. See Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

Instructor Demotivating Instructor Behaviors-Two Participants

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Provided negative feedback	2

Table 5.11 shows that one participant found these instructor behaviors to be

demotivating: monitored student work too closely, and stood in one place during lecture/class

discussions.

Table 5.11

Instructor Demotivating Instructor Behaviors-One Participant

INSTRUCTOR DEMOTIVATING BEHAVIORS	N=10
Monitored student work too closely	1
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions	

5.4   Participant Demographic Survey and Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey Parallel
       Results

The Participant Demographic Survey and the Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey

were cross analyzed in order to further understand how the participants define instructor

demotivating behavior as a whole and in subgroups.

Table 5.12

Subgroups from the Demographic and Instructor Demotivating Behavior Surveys

SUBGROUPS
Females vs. Males
American vs. International
Computer Science vs. Information Science
Age Groups
Doctoral Candidates vs. Doctoral Students

The subgroups identification came from the Demographic Survey, and each group's results from the Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey were grouped, calculated, and compared to the other groups. Each subgroup was further analyzed calculating the demotivating behaviors that received the most votes, the demotivating behaviors that received the least votes, and the demotivating behaviors that both subgroups chose on the survey. See Chapter 4 for more information on the development of the analysis.

Table 5.13 shows the instructor behaviors that the females participants (n=6) found to be the most demotivating and the instructor behaviors the male participants (n=4) found to be demotivating. The female participants felt demotivated if an instructor avoided answering questions, displayed emotional instability, disrespected students, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, favored certain students, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, often late to class, provided no feedback, refused to answer student questions, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, tried to intimidate students using anger, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught. The male participants found the following instructor behaviors to be demotivating: applied unfair grading policies, attempted to humiliate students, delivered vague and confusing lectures, disrespected students, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't organize the class session effectively, didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams, didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't show up to class, failed to keep up with the established schedule, forgot due dates on a consistent basis, had unrealistic expectations of students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, presented

unclear directions/expectations, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, was unprepared for the class session, and was verbally aggressive.

Table 5.13

Females vs. Males-Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

FEMALES	N=6	MALES	N=4
Avoided answering questions		Applied unfair grading policies	
Displayed emotional instability		Attempted to humiliate students	
Disrespected students		Delivered vague and confusing lectures	
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students		Disrespected students	
Favored certain students		Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams	
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks		Didn't organize the class session effectively	
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material		Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams	
Often late to class		Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment	
Provided no feedback		Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	
Refused to answer student questions		Didn't show up to class	
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades		Failed to keep up with the established schedule	
Seemed intellectually incompetent		Forgot due dates on a consistent basis	
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students		Had unrealistic expectations of students	
Tried to intimidate students using anger		Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught		Presented unclear directions/expectations	
		Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	
		Was unprepared for the class session	
		Was verbally aggressive	
		Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

Table 5.14 shows the instructor behaviors that the female participants (n=6) found the least demotivating and the male participants (n=4) found the least demotivating. The female participants did not find it demotivating if the instructor stood in one place during lecture/class discussion, and the male participants didn't mind if instructors didn't display empathy or sympathy or they monitored student work too closely.

Table 5.14

Females vs. Males-Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

FEMALES	N=6	MALES	N=4
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions		Didn't display empathy or sympathy	
		Monitored student work too closely	

In Table 5.15, the instructor behaviors that both groups found to be the most demotivating are presented. Both groups found the instructor behavior demotivating if the instructor disrespected students; didn't seem to care about the course or the students, was often late to class, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.15

Females vs. Males-Commonly Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

FEMALES AND MALES	N=10
Disrespected students	
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	
Often late to class	
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

The second subgroup that was examined was the international students (n=6) and American students (n=4). In Table 5.16, the two groups are divided by which instructor behavior they found to be the most demotivating. International students reported the following instructor behavior to be the most demotivating: acted unfriendly, applied unfair grading policies, avoided answering questions, became impatient when students asked questions, delivered vague and confusing lectures, disrespected students, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't encourage class discussion/questions, didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't seem to care about the course or the students,…

Table 5.16

International vs. American Students-Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

INTERNATIONAL N=6	AMERICAN N=4
Acted unfriendly	Attempted to humiliate students
Applied unfair grading policies	Disrespected students
Avoided answering questions	Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Became impatient when students asked questions	Didn't show up to class
Delivered vague and confusing lectures	Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning
Disrespected students	Favored certain students
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams	Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Didn't encourage class discussion/questions	Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment	Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	Was verbally aggressive
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks	Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material	
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	
Presented unclear directions/expectations	
Provided no feedback	
Provided vague feedback	
Refused to answer student questions	
Seemed intellectually incompetent	
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	
Tried to intimidate students using anger	
Was unprepared for the class session	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

…made sarcastic/snarky remarks, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding

the material, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, presented unclear

directions/expectations, provided no feedback, provided vague feedback, refused to answer

student questions, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, tried to intimidate students using anger, was unprepared for the class session, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught. The American participants found the following instructor behaviors to be the most demotivating: attempted to humiliate students, disrespected students, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't show up to class, didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, favored certain students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically)

The instructor behaviors that each group found to be the least demotivating was also analyzed. See Table 5.17. International participants found one of the eighty behaviors to be the least demotivating: stood in one place during lecture/class discussion. The American participants didn't consider the following behaviors to be demotivating: didn't connect material to student's lives, didn't praise student behavior, didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials), monitored student work too closely, and provided negative feedback.

Table 5.17

International vs. American Participants: Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

INTERNATIONAL N=6	AMERICAN N=4
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions	Didn't connect material to student's lives
	Didn't praise student behavior
	Didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials)
	Monitored student work too closely
	Provided negative feedback

As show in Table 5.18, both groups found instructors who disrespected students, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.18

International vs. American Participants: Common Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

INTERNATIONAL AND AMERICAN PARTICIPANTS	N=10
Disrespected students	
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

Another group who was analyzed was computer science vs information science participants. See Table 5.19. The instructor behaviors that computer science participants found to be the most demotivating were attempted to humiliate students, avoided answering questions, disrespected students, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't show up to class, had an overall negative personality, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, overly critical of student questions/discussions, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, provided no feedback, refused to answer student questions, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, tried to intimidate students using anger, used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks, was verbally aggressive, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught. The information science participants found the following instructor behaviors to be demotivating: applied unfair grading policies, delivered vague and confusing lectures, disrespected students,…

Table 5.19

Computer Science vs. Information Science- Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

COMPUTER SCIENCE N=6	INFORMATION SCIENCE N=4
Attempted to humiliate students	Applied unfair grading policies
Avoided answering questions	Delivered vague and confusing lectures
Disrespected students	Disrespected students
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching	Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment
Didn't show up to class	Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Had an overall negative personality	Favored certain students
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks	Forgot due dates on a consistent basis
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material	Had unrealistic expectations of students
Overly critical of student questions/discussions	Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	Presented unclear directions/expectations
Provided no feedback	Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades
Refused to answer student questions	Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Seemed intellectually incompetent	Was unprepared for the class session
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught
Tried to intimidate students using anger	
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks	
Was verbally aggressive	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

…didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, favored certain students, forgot due dates on a consistent basis, had unrealistic expectations of students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, presented unclear

directions/expectations, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, was unprepared for the class session, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

The instructor behaviors that each group found the least demotivating were also analyzed. The computer science participants responded that the option of monitored student work too closely and stood in one place during lecture/class were the least demotivating behaviors. Also reported in Table 5.20, the information science participants didn't perceive the instructor behavior of forgot students' names on a consistent basis or didn't bother to learn students' names to be the least demotivating.

Both groups, as shown in Table 5.21, found instructors who disrespected students, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.20

Computer Science vs. Information Science-Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

COMPUTER SCIENCE N=6	INFORMATION SCIENCE N=4
Monitored student work too closely	Forgot students' names on a consistent basis or didn't bother to learn students' names
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions	

Table 5.21

Computer Science vs. Information Science: Commonly Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

COMPUTER SCIENCE AND INFORMATION SCIENCE PARTICIPANTS
Disrespected students
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught

The next group that was compared was the age groups, which were divided in the following categories: 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, and 50+. All eighty instructor demotivating behaviors were listed in alphabetical order and if a participant from an age group chose the behavior as demotivating, the number one was placed by the appropriate instructor demotivating behavior. As each participant in the individual age group response was calculated, the ones in each of the behaviors were added up. For example, the first demotivating behavior on the survey was Acted Unfriendly. Four participants in this age group found this behavior to be demotivating. Since there were five participants in this age group, only the instructor demotivating behaviors that received five votes were considered to be the highest demotivating behaviors for that age group. The behaviors that the participants of the age group did not vote for at all would be considered the least demotivating behaviors. The first comparison between the age groups were the instructor demotivating behaviors that scored highest between the age groups and which behaviors scored the lowest among the groups. A comparison between the groups was not performed.

Table 5.22 shows the instructor behaviors that the participants who were between the ages 20-29 (n=5) found demotivating. The participants in this age group found the following 15 instructor behaviors demotivating: applied unfair grading policies, attempted to humiliate students, delivered vague and confusing lecture, disrespected students, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, had unrealistic expectations of students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students,

143

was unprepared for the class session, was verbally aggressive, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.22

Age Group 20-29: Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Applied unfair grading policies
Attempted to humiliate students.
Delivered vague and confusing lectures
Disrespected students
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning
Had unrealistic expectations of students
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Was unprepared for the class session
Was verbally aggressive
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught

Table 5.23 details the 65 instructor behaviors the participants in the 30-39 age group (n=1) found demotivating. These instructor behaviors include: acted unfriendly, appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence, applied unfair grading policies, avoided answering questions, became impatient when students asked questions, created assignments that were too difficult or too simple, delivered vague and confusing lectures, demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods, displayed emotional instability, disrespected students, didn't actively engage students in the lesson, didn't care if students pay attention to lectures, didn't check for student

understanding, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't connect material to student's lives, didn't display empathy or sympathy, didn't encourage class discussion/questions, didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion, didn't organize the class session effectively, didn't praise student behavior, didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class, didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students, didn't provide learning examples, didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams, didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials), didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't review material for exams, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't stress important concepts during lecture, didn't try to make the course interesting for students, failed to keep up with the established schedule, favored certain students, forgot due dates on a consistent basis, give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily, had an overall negative personality, had an unenthusiastic attitude, had unrealistic expectations of students, lacked creativity, lacked passion for the subject taught, made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, monitored student work too closely, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, overly critical of student questions/discussions, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus, presented unclear directions/expectations, provided negative feedback, provided no feedback, provided vague feedback, refused to answer student questions, refused to meet with students outside of class, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed no concern for student achievement or progress, showed no concern for student participation, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards

145

students, took a long time to return graded assignments, tried to intimidate students using anger, used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks, was overcritical of students, was unprepared for the class session, was verbally aggressive, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.23

Age Group 30-39: Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 30-39 (n=1)
Acted unfriendly
Appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence
Applied unfair grading policies
Avoided answering questions
Became impatient when students asked questions
Created assignments that were too difficult or too simple
Delivered vague and confusing lectures
Demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods
Displayed emotional instability
Disrespected students
Didn't actively engage students in the lesson
Didn't care if students pay attention to lectures
Didn't check for student understanding
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams
Didn't connect material to student's lives
Didn't display empathy or sympathy
Didn't encourage class discussion/questions
Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion
Didn't organize the class session effectively
Didn't praise student behavior
Didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class
Didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students
Didn't provide learning examples
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams
Didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials)
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment
Didn't review material for exams
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Didn't stress important concepts during lectures
Didn't try to make the course interesting for students
Failed to keep up with the established schedule
Favored certain students

Forgot due dates on a consistent basis
Give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily
Had an overall negative personality
Had an unenthusiastic attitude
Had unrealistic expectations of students
Lacked creativity
Lacked passion for the subject taught
Made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks
Monitored student work too closely
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material
Overly critical of student questions/discussions
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus
Presented unclear directions/expectations
Provided negative feedback
Provided no feedback
Provided vague feedback
Refused to answer student questions
Refused to meet with students outside of class
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades
Seemed intellectually incompetent
Showed no concern for student achievement or progress
Showed no concern for student participation
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Took a long time to return graded assignments
Tried to intimidate students using anger
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks
Was overcritical of students
Was unprepared for the class session
Was verbally aggressive
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught

Table 5.24 shows which instructor behaviors participants ages 40-44 found demotivating.

Of the 80 demotivating behaviors listed, the participants in this age group (n=3) found 35

instructor behaviors to be demotivating. These behaviors include: appeared to be oblivious to

student needs or behaviors, attempted to humiliate students, avoided answering questions,

became impatient when students asked questions, created assignments that were too difficult or

too simple, demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods, disrespected students, didn't

147

connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion, didn't organize the class session effectively, didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams, didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion, didn't organize the class session effectively, didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't show up to class, favored certain students, gave lectures that did not allow students to take notes easily, had an overall negative personality, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, overly critical of student questions/discussions, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, presented unclear directions/expectations, provided no feedback, provided vague feedback, refused to answer student questions, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks, used profanity/curse words, used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know, was verbally aggressive, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.24

Age Group 40-49: Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 40-49 (n=3)
Appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors
Attempted to humiliate students
Avoided answering questions
Became impatient when students asked questions
Created assignments that were too difficult or too simple
Demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods
Disrespected students
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams
Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion
Didn't organize the class session effectively
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams

Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion
Didn't organize the class session effectively
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Didn't show up to class
Favored certain students
Give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily
Had an overall negative personality
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material
Overly critical of student questions/discussions
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Presented unclear directions/expectations
Provided no feedback
Provided vague feedback
Refused to answer student questions
Seemed intellectually incompetent
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks
Used profanity/curse words
Used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know
Was verbally aggressive
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught

Participants who were 50 years and older found 30 out of the 80 instructor behaviors highly demotivating. These behaviors are shown in Table 5.25 and included: acted unfriendly, applied unfair grading policies, attempted to humiliate students, avoided answering questions, demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods, disrespected students, didn't display empathy or sympathy, didn't provide students with behavior boundaries, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't show up to class, didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, failed to keep up with the established schedule, favored certain students, had an overall negative personality, lacked passion for the subject taught, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, overly critical of student questions/discussions,

practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, provided no feedback, refused to

answer student questions, refused to meet with students outside of class Refused to provide

sufficient explanation of grades, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed open contempt

(either verbally or physically) towards students, took a long time to return graded assignments,

used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks, was verbally aggressive. and wasn't

knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.25

Age Group 50+: Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 50 and Older (n=1)
Acted unfriendly
Applied unfair grading policies
Attempted to humiliate students
Avoided answering questions
Demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods
Disrespected students
Didn't display empathy or sympathy
Didn't provide students with behavior boundaries
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Didn't show up to class
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning
Failed to keep up with the established schedule
Favored certain students
Had an overall negative personality
Lacked passion for the subject taught
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material
Overly critical of student questions/discussions
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Provided no feedback
Refused to answer student questions
Refused to meet with students outside of class
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades
Seemed intellectually incompetent
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Took a long time to return graded assignments
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks

| Was verbally aggressive |
| Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught |

Participants between the ages of 20 to 29 (n=5) found the following behaviors to be the least demotivating: Didn't display empathy or sympathy and monitored student work too closely. See Table 5.26.

Table 5.26

Ages 20-29: Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 20 to 29 (n=5)
Didn't display empathy or sympathy
Monitored student work too closely

Participants between the ages of 30 to 39 (n=1) found the following instructor behaviors to be the least demotivating: appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors, attempted to humiliate students, didn't have a sense of humor, didn't provide students with behavior boundaries, didn't smile, didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, didn't use eye contact, didn't use visual aids, forgot students' names on a consistent basis or Didn't bother to learn student names, made the course too easy, often late to class, stood in one place during lecture/class discussions, used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks, used profanity/curse words, used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know, and was verbally aggressive. See Table 5.27.

Table 5.27

Ages 30-39: Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 30-39 (n=1)
Appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors
Attempted to humiliate students
Didn't have a sense of humor
Didn't provide students with behavior boundaries
Didn't smile
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning

Didn't use eye contact
Didn't use visual aids
Forgot students' names on a consistent basis or didn't bother to learn student names
Made the course too easy
Often late to class
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks
Used profanity/curse words
Used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know
Was verbally aggressive

As found in Table 5.28, participants between the ages of 40 and 49 found an instructor who monitored students work too closely, provided negative feedback, stood in one place during lecture/class discussions, and took a long time to return graded assignments.

Table 5.28

Ages 40-49: Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 40-49 (n=3)
Monitored students work too closely
Provided negative feedback'
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions
Took a long time to return graded assignments

Table 5.29 shows that participants who were 50 and older perceived instructors as demotivating if they appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence, appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors, became impatient when students asked questions, created assignments that were too difficult or too simple, delivered vague and confusing lectures, didn't actively engage students in the lesson, didn't care if students pay attention to lectures, didn't check for student understanding, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't connect material to student's lives, didn't encourage class discussion/questions, didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion, didn't have a sense of humor, didn't organize the class session effectively, didn't praise student behavior,

didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class, didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students, didn't provide learning examples, didn't provide students with behavior boundaries, didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams, didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials), didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't review material for exams, didn't smile, didn't stress important concepts during lectures, didn't try to make the course interesting for students, didn't use eye contact, didn't use visual aids, failed to keep up with the established schedule, forgot due dates on a consistent basis, forgot students' names on a consistent basis or Didn't bother to learn student names, give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily, had an unenthusiastic attitude, had unrealistic expectations of students, lacked creativity, made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level, made the course too easy, monitored student work too closely, often late to class, presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus, presented unclear directions/expectations, provided negative feedback, provided vague feedback, showed no concern for student achievement or progress, showed no concern for student participation, stood in one place during lecture/class discussions, used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know, was overcritical of students, and was unprepared for the class session.

Table 5.29

Ages 50+: Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

Participants Ages 50+ (n=1)
Appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence
Appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors
Became impatient when students asked questions
Created assignments that were too difficult or too simple
Delivered vague and confusing lectures

Didn't actively engage students in the lesson
Didn't care if students pay attention to lectures
Didn't check for student understanding
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams
Didn't connect material to student's lives
Didn't encourage class discussion/questions
Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion
Didn't have a sense of humor
Didn't organize the class session effectively
Didn't praise student behavior
Didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class
Didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students
Didn't provide learning examples
Didn't provide students with behavior boundaries
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams
Didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials)
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment
Didn't review material for exams
Didn't smile
Didn't stress important concepts during lectures
Didn't try to make the course interesting for students
Didn't use eye contact
Didn't use visual aids
Failed to keep up with the established schedule
Forgot due dates on a consistent basis
Forgot students' names on a consistent basis or didn't bother to learn student names
Give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily
Had an unenthusiastic attitude
Had unrealistic expectations of students
Lacked creativity
Made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level
Made the course too easy
Monitored student work too closely
Often late to class
Presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus
Presented unclear directions/expectations
Provided negative feedback
Provided vague feedback
Showed no concern for student achievement or progress
Showed no concern for student participation
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions
Used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know
Was overcritical of students
Was unprepared for the class session

A comparison the instructor behaviors that doctoral candidates (n=6) and doctoral students (n=4) find highly demotivating was also compared, and the results are shown in Table 5.30. Doctoral candidates found 18 of the 80 instructor behaviors, and they were: applied unfair grading policies, attempted to humiliate students, delivered vague and confusing lectures, disrespected students, didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams, didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, didn't show up to class, didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning, favored certain students, forgot due dates on a consistent basis, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, presented unclear directions/expectations, refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades, showed open contempt either verbally or physically) towards students, was unprepared for the class session, was verbally aggressive, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught. Doctoral students found 15 out of the 80 instructor behaviors demotivating. They are shown in Table 36. They include: avoided answering questions, disrespected students, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, had an overall negative personality, made sarcastic/snarky remarks, not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material, overly critical of student questions/discussions, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, provided no feedback, refused to answer student questions, seemed intellectually incompetent, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, tried to intimidate students using anger, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.30

Doctoral Candidates vs. Doctoral Students: Highest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

DOCTORAL CANDIDATES N=4	DOCTORAL STUDENT N=6
Applied unfair grading policies	Avoided answering questions
Attempted to humiliate students	Disrespected students
Delivered vague and confusing lectures	Didn't seem to enjoy teaching
Disrespected students	Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams	Had an overall negative personality
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment	Made sarcastic/snarky remarks
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material
Didn't show up to class	Overly critical of student questions/discussions
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning	Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Favored certain students	Provided no feedback
Forgot due dates on a consistent basis	Refused to answer student questions
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	Seemed intellectually incompetent
Presented unclear directions/expectations	Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades	Tried to intimidate students using anger
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught
Was unprepared for the class session	
Was verbally aggressive	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

Doctoral candidates found two instructor behaviors to be the least demotivating. They were monitored student work too closely and provided negative feedback. Doctoral students found one of the 80 instructor behaviors demotivating: stood in one place during lecture/class discussions. See Table 5.31.

Table 5.31

Doctoral Candidates vs. Doctoral Students: Lowest Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

DOCTORAL CANDIDATES N=4	DOCTORAL STUDENTS N=6
Monitored student work too closely	Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions
Provided negative feedback	

As shown in Table 5.32, both doctoral candidates and doctoral students found the following instructor behaviors demotivating: disrespected students, didn't seem to care about the course or the students, practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes, showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students, and wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Table 5.32

Doctoral Candidates vs. Doctoral Students: Commonly Perceived Instructor Demotivating Behaviors

DOCTORAL CANDIDATES AND STUDENTS N=10
Disrespected students
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught

5.5   Semi-Structure Interviews Results

In this section, the participants' responses are presented in the structure of the interview question.

5.5.1   Section 1: Interview Question 1

How do you expect your instructors to behave in a classroom setting?

For this question, 32 nodes were identified in the first-round coding process. In the second-round coding process, two main themes were developed: instructor's teaching style and instructor's personality. Under the first main theme, there are five subcategories: Answering Questions, Lecture/Discussion, Involvement in Student Preparation, and Content Knowledge. For the Instructor Personality main theme, there were also five subcategories: Demonstrates Humility, Attempts to Relate to Students, Warm Temperament, Professionalism, and Instructor Expectations. The themes are identified below and supported with excerpts from the participant self-structure interviews.

5.5.1.1 Student Expectation 1: Instructor's Teaching Style

Findings from the semi-structure interviews that addressed in some way an instructor's ability to teach and/or pass information along to students was placed in this category. The following subcategories were listed and are explained next.

5.5.1.1.1 Answering Questions

One subcategory to emerge from the interviews was the expectation that instructors answer student questions clearly to guide students to a deeper understanding of the course material.

Participant 998 explained that she expected instructors to:

> ... explain things clearly because particularly when I study here, it's difficult for foreign students to understand the language and the culture of the language. So I expect the instructor to explain more in detail in a very clear way to students. So as an international student, I will be able to understand what they're saying.

The concept of language is discussed throughout these findings and in more detail in the Language section of this chapter.

Participant 798 stated it's important that the instructor be able to answer questions beyond the course text because in graduate school, we [graduate students] expect more than text learning.

Participant 138 stated:

> . . . more importantly, when I ask questions, he has to answer the question clearly. And the thing is my question may be sometimes be wrong so it's like what I'm asking is I'm thinking deeply when I'm asking but he has to let me know that I have to think from a different point of view so that then I can think that way. So his answer has to show me the way. Not exactly just answer me. He has to show me how I should work on this issue.

5.5.1.1.2 Effective Lecture/Discussion Skills

Another subcategory to emerge is Effective Lecture/Discussion Skills. The participants stated that they expected the instructor to present the course information effectively by having an agenda, create memorable and fun lectures, check for student understanding by asking students questions, create a comfortable learning environment, and intellectually challenge students.

5.5.1.1.3 Pedagogical Organization

Participant 517 wanted their instructors to have an agenda in order to help with student time management. The participant stated:

> Have a game plan. There's always these . . . sometimes they have a syllabus; sometimes they don't. Let's have a game plan and let us know in a sense their expectations. If there's going to be a paper. I would like to know that at the first of the semester to be able to budget time because time management for me is the one I kinda struggle with.

5.5.1.1.4 Content Knowledge

In relation to having a teaching agenda, the participants also expected their instructors to have a strong background in the subject they were teaching.

Participant 460 stated:

I expect they have a regular plan of what they're teaching and they know what they're teaching. For example, I've had some classes that the professors…it was their major, but they didn't know the concept of the course so it was so discouraging for me. I was thinking that I was wasting my time sitting in the class.

Participant 931 stated:

Having some kind of . . . not reading your slides. Not only having slides and only reading your slides. So putting the entire text on there and read off of everything because that's kind of boring. I expect there to be some sort of additional value that the professor provides for going to the lecture. So it's not enough to show up and go to the lecture cause I can just read a book if I wanted to do to that, but there has to be something the professor provides in addition to what I can just learn from the Internet or from textbooks, which goes along with them being prepared or preparing properly for it.

Participant 998 stated the expectation that instructors should be …knowledgeable about

what they are going to speak or teach in class. Participant 517 added: I want them [the

instructors] to know more than me, so that I learn something from them.

When asked if knowledge content was an important expectation, Participant 302 stated

It is a very big thing because if the instructor did not know the content, they should not be teaching that course, so I would not respect them. So yes, that's a huge factor. That plays a big role….I think most of them are really smart. Most of them know the subject matter. They just might not have the social skills or the interpersonal skills they need to relate to students.

Included in their knowledge of the content, their ability to show their confidence also was

a participant expectation. In other words, it is not enough for the instructor to know more than

the student, the instructor is also expected to demonstrate confidence in his/her own ability.

Participant 931:

I expect them to… it makes sense to have that professorial air. That air of authority. "I'm the expert. I know what I'm talking about." Have that commanding presence. Something like that. So that the . . . it makes me more confident in what they're describing if it seems that they know what they're talking about.

5.5.1.1.5   Involvement in Student Preparation

Another expectation is that instructors involve themselves in the student preparation for exams and real world application of the content taught.

Participant 124 stated the expectation that instructors should be able to "…officially express the course information and material for the average of the class to be able to obtain information and to be properly prepared to pass tests but in the long run to be able to be equipped efficiently enough to be ready to review the same material in the real world."

Participant 998 expressed that instructors should "relate … the concept that they teach with the real situation."

Participant 789 stated that instructors should take their knowledge and teach students "how it can be applied."

5.5.1.1.6   Creating a Safe Learning Environment

Participant 998:

> you know that some professors like to create the more serious atmosphere in the class and try to point students out and make them answer questions. In that way, for me, it's very aggressive. Yes, and that might… I think that it may be . . . not fully confident in my language. So if I'm not sure, I don't want to answer the question and I don't want to be a person he or she points out to answer.

5.5.1.1.7   Intellectually Challenging

Participant 546:

> Intellectually challenge the student. I think the purpose of the class is accomplished. Anything less than that is just a waste of time on the instructor and the students' part. So the behavior should be conducive to … for some take home for the student and it is just not the knowledge content of the class but most of it is influenced by the way the instructor conducts a particular section. So you have these instructors where you have the whole lecture but there's very little you can take home with you. And there are instructors

that you take home quite a lot of. Your take home is tremendous from a particular session. And it enriches you not only intellectually but also you sort of absorb the sense of what is being discussed. What is being taught in the class.

When asked if an instructor's personality, in terms of friendliness was an influence, Participant 546 responded:

> I don't think friendly has anything to do with it. It's just a way you know an instructor would teach. It's the teaching skills that are important. So all the behaviors that lead to good teaching is essential in a classroom…. You see in today's age where everyone has hand-held devices, and information is not an issue, but the role of an instructor is to intellectually challenge a student to bring out that kind of information. So obviously content yeah, but the way it is done the way the instructor brings out the best in a student. That isn't just going to come from a hand device. And that's where the whole face to face mode of instruction plays an important role . . . I do believe the instructor's behavior…the skills set involves getting the student to come out.

5.5.1.1.8 Checks for Student Understanding

Participant 931:

> I expect them to ask a certain number of questions to make sure that students are following along. It's always bad when you have somebody that just sweeps through everything and doesn't check because I feel a lot of time people. . . they have questions but they don't ask them because they don't… for whatever reason . . . they don't want to look stupid or they don't want to ask something that's already been asked. And I've done that myself so checking for student understanding in some way. Even if it's as simple as saying, "Look, are you getting it?"

5.5.1.1.9 Realistic Expectations of Students' Skills

Participant 138:

> Their expectation level has to be to the level I am. If he expects more from me that may demotivate me because I may think that I'm doing less than what he thinks so I may not be good enough for this topic or so.

5.5.1.2 Student Expectation 2: Instructor Personality

Findings from the interviews that involved the instructor's personality or characteristics were placed in this category. The following subcategories are listed and explained in the following.

5.5.1.2.1 Demonstrates Humility

Participants noted that they find instructors more endearing when they show they learn from their own students and admit when they don't know the answer.

Participant 789:

> … I would say that if a question is asked and the professor doesn't know the answer, you clearly know that he is not humble enough to admit that he doesn't know. So that is another thing. He tried to yell at you back that you don't ask the proper question or you don't know that. So that is one kind of behavior I have noticed. If the professor doesn't know the answer he tried to cover it up by putting you down…. I like the professors who acknowledge learning from the students themselves. Like if he asked and the professor did not know, he came to know something new because of our question.

Participant 138:

> …. the thing is he might not know the answer, I can accept that. I'm saying he again. He might not know the answer, but he may say "I don't know the answer, you can find it here." Or "I can get back to you tomorrow…."

5.5.1.2.2 Engaging

Participant 289 said:

> I like them to be engaging. Not just like teaching and talking to students. I want it to be more conversational more two way. They want students to be more involved in the learning setting. Ask questions and get answers from students. More than feedback or what they think. For that conversation to develop more than they are discussing.

Participant 931:

> I also expect a certain amount of . . I guess enthusiasm….For the class. Even if it's that

they are not the most experienced person in the class cause I know some professors swap off. I know some of the professors in the [department] for one of the classes they've . . . they keep changing who the professor is. But I still kind of expect there is to a certain level of . . . even if it's not their favorite topic. Like I expect there to be a certain level of enthusiasm. Like "yeah, I want to present this to you. I want you to learn." So even if it's . . . I don't really care about [topic], I want you to learn about this topic so that you have a better understanding of it."

Participant 289: I like fun lectures. I like for them to have a sense of humor…. Yes, it needs to be

connected to the content.

Participant 998:

And more humorous….So being funny, but not that much. And relate their concept that they teach with the real situation. And explain in really clearly way. And that's what I mean by friendly and not . . . you know that some professors like to create the more serious atmosphere in the class and try to point students out and make them answer questions. In that way, for me, it's very aggressive.

When asked what an instructor could do to be more engaging, Participant 302 stated:

I think the most important thing for a professor to do is know who the students are in that course. And it's easy at the graduate level because they are smaller classes. And you need to understand your students' background. I'm not asking you to know if they are married or not, but you need to understand where they come from because it's going to play a huge role in how they behave. For example, where I come from, the professor knows it all and students tend to sit quiet so the professor can impart knowledge on them. In the US, on the other hand, I've observed that it's more of a discussion kind of situation that happens in most classes, especially in the CLASS. But not every professors seems to understand that, so you go into certain classrooms and a few bold students speak up. And you have some who can't say anything or are afraid to say something and the professor doesn't even notice them. So I think they need to know who those students are.

5.5.1.2.3 Friendly and Welcoming

Participant 302:

… I would say you would have to be cordial. You would have to be treat students with respect. Don't belittle them. Don't scold them. Things like that…Yeah be nice. You don't have to be sweet, but be nice.

Participant 138 said, "He has to be friendly."

Participant 998: "I expect the instructor or professor to be friendly…. What I mean by friendly…it's like they don't use inappropriate language to point out students who answer their question. And more humorous."

Participant 517: "I want them to be welcoming."

5.5.1.2.4   Professional Dress

Participant 931: "Maybe it's really picky. I kind of expect them to dress the part too. So showing up in like ratty jeans and a ratty t-shirt is not super the best…. I know that everybody dresses differently, and some people wear bowties, and some people wear no ties, and some people wear other things. But if you walk up there and you look like you're just . . . and you don't look like you actually fit the part, it kinda takes away from that presence."

As a follow-up question, Participant 931 was asked if subject matter had an influence on how an instructor dressed. The response is as follows:

> That's a good question. Okay, I would say for the social sciences, I might feel a little . . . I don't know because I have this very hard mental image of what I think a philosophy professor should wear, like the jacket with the leather pads on their elbows and stuff. I think it kinda goes towards . . . it doesn't really matter who you are. Like it's not like if you're a chemistry professor, I expect you to show up in a lab coat all the time, but I kinda at least expect a certain level of . . . at least a dress shirt and long pants. I mean it doesn't need to be khakis. It can be like dark jeans, but there still has to be some overt attempt to look professional that I expect. At least in this culture. So if we were in another culture, I don't know. . . like I don't know what teachers in like India or England or Australia wear. But at least for the US, this is kinda what I anticipate.

5.5.2   Section 1: Interview Question 2

How do you feel about the instructor and/or the class when your expectations are not met?

The participants expressed many feelings when they were asked this question. These feelings ranged from general feelings, such as disappointment, frustration, indifference as long as the behavior did not affect their grades, etc. to feelings of disliking the course and not wanting to attend the course and judgement against the class and the instructor.

5.5.2.1   General Feelings

5.5.2.1.1   Disappointment

Participant 546:

Disappointed. If I were in COUNTRY, I would not even answer this question because in COUNTRY, we are taught to absorb knowledge based on whatever the instructor tells you. So, if an instructor follows the textbook, we would blindly follow the textbook because that's what's being taught. That's the culture there. In the United States, it's a different form of education philosophy. Here students are encouraged to be critical all the information they come across. Question everything. And probably now that I've been a student in this environment for a considerable time. In order to even to survive a PhD program, you need to quickly adapt to what is expected of a PhD student. You do get disappointed when you think that particular session was a big waste of your time. Particularly if you are driving 40 miles for a session. And then you think, what did I learn? What new did I learn here? So nowadays, students really think in terms of it's always a tradeoff. I'm driving X miles one way to attend a session. Is it because it is required…part of the curriculum to attend the session or do I really take something from this session? And when people put in a lot of resources to come to a face to face session, they have really high expectations from a particular session so if that's not met, you really feel demotivated. Again, it is always calculated into what they have put into it. It's always the cost you're paying and the value you are getting back. Everybody does that. Students do that…. Yeah. So I spend my gas, I spend my time, fees . . . and if I'm not getting what I really should be getting out of this, disappointment is very acute. But there are certain professors who don't disappoint you. No matter what session. No matter where. No matter when. No matter what time they call you. You just want to attend each and every possible session done by them. They bring a wealth of experience a wealth to their entire life to any topic they take in the class. For example, if I'm doing something with Dr. X, he brings us X years of experience each and every session that he teaches. I've never been disappointed in his class. There's a list of undergrad professors that I did in COUNTRY.

5.5.2.1.2   Frustration

Participant 517:

I'll jump back to my . . . undergraduate . . . my first two years was with a community

166

college. It was pretty much all online. And at this point, it was fairly early on, I don't remember a whole lot at this point. But I don't remember any problems with it. My final three years to finish my bachelors was a private university and I don't remember any problems there. I think one time I questioned, I know it just was to myself why I was one of a handful of students that met the criteria and met the deadlines and all of that. And wound up with a lesser grade than students that that professor allowed to finish the project late. And didn't feel that was fair, but you know, it went on. My master's program, which was [AT A UNIVERSITY] . . . the very first semester I had a class . . . It was [class name]. I still feel to this day that that class should have had a prerequisite, and it should have been enforced. And did wound up with the only instance… the only B I ever got in that whole program. And the professor wouldn't return emails. There was no way . . . he wasn't there during his office hours. Had clear favorites in the classroom. I mean, bottom line every single time I had to do a presentation in that class I felt like I was walking the green mile. Was very disconcerting.

Participant 931:

I mean it kinda depends on which expectation is not met. If it's . . . cause I've had professors in the past . . . ah man, I had a professor in undergraduate who I got all of my grades back or I got the majority of my grades back the last week of class. I was like, "your totally useless. That's really super frustrating." So for the most part, she really did a good job teaching. She was very enthusiastic. She clearly knew everything about [the subject]. She was clearly an expert, but that was really frustrating and I really didn't want to take another class from them because I couldn't get any feedback….Right because I had no idea how I was doing in the class until the very end. And I ended up not getting the grade I really wanted. Which is partly my own fault . . . I guess it would be all my own fault because it was my own grade. But it was really obnoxious not being able to know how I was doing in the class. And it's one of those where I don't know . . . I don't know people's lives, but it kinda felt disorganized in that kind of respect. But cause we did really interesting things in the class. We did [interesting thing]. Like she had some presentations. She had some other things. It was that one thing was really obnoxious.

When asked if he felt like he would put 100% into his work if his expectations were not

met, Participant 931 stated:

Oh no. And my grade clearly showed some of that. Plus, it wasn't a topic I had any super great interest. It wasn't really . . . it was kinda on my degree plan because I had to have the [blank] requirement but it wasn't like when I took [CLASS] which was like way out. And I did really well because I really enjoyed it because the professor was really enthusiastic. It was a really good class. So . . . I'm trying to think of professors that I've had that didn't meet expectations…. Right. Yeah. If it doesn't meet expectations, and if I have high expectations and they're not met, then there's kind of a . . . you know . . . Oh well, I mean, I feel bad for the kids having to take [name of course] this semester. Cause the class is a joke. They don't do anything. And I would be really frustrated if I had to pay money and then have to sit through this class and not learn anything. It would just be

167

an annoyance to have to do any of the assignments then I would be just doing the least amount possible to get it done and get out. Cause it's stupid at that point.

Participant 998:

How do I feel? I feel frustrated. And I try to I just try to imagine when I was in the class. It was frustrating and I try to catch up on a concept that they taught. And later after that, find information related to that concept so I can learn by myself. Maybe talk to my friend or something like that.

5.5.2.1.3 Doesn't Bother Student Unless Grades Are Affected

One participant in particular stated that since stress can be extremely difficult for some

instructors, he didn't really mind if his expectations were not met, unless it interfered with his

grade. Participant 124:

> I usually use the analogy and say that I'm a machine, but I know I'm not a machine. I know people are human and make mistakes and have flaws. And as I've mentioned a little while earlier that in many cases people have bad days, bad weeks, and even bad semesters. So I think a very happy go-lucky type of guy. He just had a bad semester. Cause I think usually there are some signs showing that life experiences are going on, worries of the whim you hear things that are going on in life so I kinda take it for what it is. It's like you have some semesters where teachers will give five tests. Some semesters they may give two tests or give one. That happens. Sometimes there are busy semesters when they have many publications that they have to put out and I mean publications means they will be going about during the semester. So I guess the older I got the more relaxed I also got about the situation. And now it isn't as…Now it doesn't bother me. In the worst case scenario, if it gives me a failing grade which means I have to retake to that course again, that would affect me dramatically right cause if you've ever watched the movie "Watchmen" DC. I'm kind of Rorschach. It's white or black. Either you're good or you're bad usually… So essentially in a negative way I fail. It's like, "man you're not a good professor". But if it like pulls down my grade maybe from an A to a B and I still pass the course, I tend not to think about it too much. Like meh. It'll be okay. Life goes on. Maybe it was life experience. Maybe you learn some real life experience through all the encounters. It's like, "oh you know. He only graded you once." Like sometimes it's out of your control.

5.5.2.1.4 Attendance/Enrollment

Participant 138 didn't want to attend class:

Okay, if that happens I don't feel like attending the class because if I get the question

correctly, I may enroll in a course and most of the things I already know. The course doesn't offer me anything else. In that case, I feel I don't need to attend this class. But that's not a good thing to not attend the class, but this happens. Maybe. That's it. I don't feel like attending the class anymore…. But the first thing for me to attend the class is that it has to offer me new things. For expectations, guidance is the main thing.

Participant 289 said "Well, I think it would be boring and it would lose my interest in learning even attending the class, I guess." When asked about her performance in the class would change as far as grades were concerned, Participant 289 stated: "I have to…You need to get a good grade so yeah. I think I'll still work on it but it will be harder cause you are not motivated. It won't be the priority, I guess."

After her expectations were not met because she felt her instructor had favorites, Participant 517 wanted to transfer to another school. She stated:

> I was already looking to transfer elsewhere….Yeah. It was . . . there was just no one to get . . . and I am pretty good at getting common ground with people. Having been a [occupation], you know for years, I was able to . . . I just couldn't understand that lack of communication. And I vented that frustration several times to our then graduate advisor and she apparently spoke to [the professor] and his response was, "Well, why doesn't she come talk to me?" I wasn't able to do that, so I don't . . . you know… And also a washout at . . . I mean being an older student, coming back to academics you face some of that anyway from younger people. I didn't . . . I couldn't ever figure out how to fix it. I ended up getting a B in that class, and one of his pets was like "Well, you're not satisfied with that?" And I'm like, "no I'm not satisfied with that because . . ." but the main thing with that class is it should have had a prerequisite. You should have had a COURSE and COURSE before you took it.

Participant 789 indicated she wished she was in another class:

> Sometimes when the course is offered in two sections and we know the other section had a better professor I wish I was in the other section. I would have learned more. And the second thing is that if the professor did not mean the expectations. . . in my undergrad, there had been a few courses, I would say certain fields I did not want to pursue in that had to do with my graduate career with the undergrad professors. How they motivated us in a certain field. So if I had chosen graduate school in some courses went to a certain PhD path it is because of how I was motivated in my courses, how they made it interesting for me during the undergrad.

5.5.2.1.5   Judgement

Participant 302 believed instructor doesn't know how to teach: **"**I feel like they don't

know how to teach. I feel like the professor probably needs to go take some courses on how to

teach classes properly."

Participant 998 didn't like the class or instructor:

> I just feel like I don't like that class and don't like the professor. And for me, if students
> don't like professor or the way they taught, it is very affect student because students may
> hate that subject or hate that course and don't want to learn about that course. That
> concept in that course or that class. But it may affect students differently….If I face
> professor who made me feel like that when I study in the undergrad level, I might feel
> differently because when I was an undergrad student, I'm not a good student. Always
> talking to my friend. Chatting in class. Don't worry what the professor said. But when we
> are in graduate level, it's different because we try to understand a concept and we think
> about what we learn very carefully. And try to catch up and if the professor cannot
> deliver that concept, it affects student and for me, it means that I have to work very hard
> to catch up. If you cannot teach in appropriate way.

Participant 302 said, "I would probably just stay quiet during the semester and not say

anything about it. I would not participate in the course unless I had to. And I would probably

leave a critical review at the end of the semester, but I wouldn't approach the professor. When

asked if she would ask questions, Participant 302 quickly said *no*.

Participant 460 said, "I am disappointed very soon. I am getting careless. I submit my

homework but with no motivation.

5.5.3   Section 2: Interview Question 2

You have marked which instructor behaviors you find demotivating on the previous

survey. Are there any other instructor behaviors that you would like to add to the list?

When asked this question, none of the participants had a new instructor demotivating

behavior to add to the list. In most cases, the participants found the three-page list to be inclusive

of any possible instructor demotivating behavior.

Participant 124:

It was very comprehensive. I think an average person might check off a lot more than I would have because like I said, I'm very tightly correlated with my grading. In a specifically affects my grade performance that's like I'll check it [the survey]. But if it's something that's "okay maybe they're having a bad day, a couple of bad days." Now keep in mind, I also checked things that affect how they present the material during class because that can affect me. In every course, I have a book. And some courses may be kind of like, again this term, ad hoc where it's kind of like, 'We're teaching. We have to go take it seriously. We gonna have a test on those, you know… So I checked those, but other than that, it's all good.

Participant 302:

That was an exhaustive list. Let me think about it. Two things that come to mind and you had that in the survey, professors who do not engage students in class participation and I'm very specific about that because many students are shy and might not speak up unless you kind of approach them and ask them to contribute to the discussion. And also there are professors who would not even allow students to ask questions. But those are the two things that really bother me the most.

Participant 998:

I think you probably covered all of the demotivation. Anything that I could add?...Yeah I think… I can't think about it right now because I think this cover…

Participant 546:

I can only share… these are all assumptions. If a professor behaves in this way, would it be demotivating a student? So I have only looked at most of the factors out of here from the perspective of it's my perception that if somebody does this, then yes, then definitely it would be demotivating. Is it my experience? At the undergraduate level, yes. But I can summarize my undergraduate career in one sentence: They didn't teach me anything. I learned everything from my own at home. So that should just tell you because it was mandatory for us to and sit and attend. Even when we attended, we didn't understand the lectures. Everything you said over here, not connecting material to the exam, not connecting this to that, it was all true. It was all true. This is what happened in COUNTRY. This is not what happened in the United States. What happened in COUNTRY in the DECADE, YEAR, it did not happen recently. So I don't even have any memory, or a day to day memory of what I was learning in the SUBJECT school.

But one thing: I didn't learn anything in the SUBJECT school. I learned everything on my own. Demotivating…no one wants to be an SUBJECT student in COUNTRY.

Participant 789:

I read somewhere [on the survey] that the instructor was emotionally attached or did not show sympathy. I don't know if there is that like there the instructor shows unnecessary sympathy or empathy to certain students." Favoritism was one of the behaviors listed in the survey.

5.5.4 Section 2: Question 3

From the Instructor Demotivating Behavior survey, please identify the instructor behavior that you find the most demotivating. Please elaborate on why you find this instructor behavior to be the most demotivating.

Again, the participants' answers were far ranging. The responses were divided into three sections: instructor demotivating behavior based on academic concerns, and instructor demotivating behavior based on instructor actions and characteristics.

5.5.4.1 Instructor Demotivating Behavior Based on Academic Concern**s**

5.5.4.1.1 Delivered Vague and Confusing Lecture

Participant 460:

Delivered vague and confusing lecture…. It was the SEMESTER. I started in the SEMESTER, and I had two bad experience. One of them was the BLANK class. I didn't understand anything because she couldn't manage the class well. She was teaching many things in just one session but she mentioned very short things about the name or the concept and then skipped to the next content and another course I had it was BLANK class. The instructor wasn't that bad but the homework was so hard. I couldn't finish the homework. I had good experience in content but the deadline for the homework was very short.

When asked if she received help from the instructor, Participant 460 said, no.

5.5.4.1.2 Doesn't Connect Lectures to Assignments and Exams

Participant 546:

Doesn't connect lectures to assignments and exams. Evaluation is an important part of a student's grade. The whole career of a student depends on what grades he gets and the courses that he's taking. Specifically, in COUNTRY, it's not A, B, C, D. It's percent. What you made. Did you get 80%? Did you get 90%? Did you get 89%. So it's counted to the last . . . because of the competition, the fierce competition for each and every position out in the market. One mark counts. A student loses on seat by one mark, not even by one percent, there are hundreds who get 89.3 percent, who is going to get the seat. And what happens in India is, there is a central university and there are 200 colleges affiliated to that university. So the mode of evaluation is very, very strange. So the university comes up with exam papers. Not necessarily each and every college teaches what has been sent to the exam. And your career depends on your grades. Make the connection. So I'm studied in X. I was affiliated to the University of X. So all my exam papers were sent by the board of the University of X and what was taught in the college never ever matched with what the exam we had consisting of. It never matched….you just depend on yourself. You cannot depend on what's being taught in the class because that's not what's being ask in the exam.

When asked if attendance was mandatory and if he felt he had to study double the

material, **Participant 546** replied:

Yeah. Demotivating. But it's not like that here in the United States. The university. University of X, I attend a class, I get an exam, it's exactly what I have been hearing in the class, studying on my own. All my assignments, all my course work is based on what they will be evaluating me on. It's a very different environment here in the United States. It's a very different environment. So basically education and the effect on education on a student in terms of motivation and demotivation is broadly divide in my case in an experience where I was educated in COUNTRY and I was educated in the United States. Both. So I have a rich longitude study.

5.5.4.1.3 Practiced Unfair Procedures-Processes

Participant 124:

I already know. Unfair grading policies. Straightforward, it gives you a sense of hope. You know, blind hope is the worst thing to have. Most of the other expectations is expressed like you can tell the professor is doing something bad, but unfair grading policies I think show up very soon. At the first sign, it's like "you said its evaluated blah blah blah, and now it's evaluated over this metric. It's like okay, now I'm doing bad. I think you will see that the soonest. Or in other cases, you can see it at the end where you

think your grade might be some percentages on a test but at the end you find something different and you get hurt…. Yeah. But remember your survey you said that I should be focused because usually I'm always for the team. I'm a team player. For the team. The team is most important so it affects everyone positively. I tend to be okay go with that. If I get hurt a little bit, again I'm not going to care. If it put me down from an A to a B, then life is good. Don't worry. But you said particularly I focus on me. If it's just me…

Participant 931:

I would have to say cause I experienced this and I was really . . . and I'm still hacked off about it the "Practiced unfair procedures/processes"…. I was in a class and a good chunk of the students got caught cheating and the professor . . . he basically gave them all half off. And then halfway through the semester, he gave the class the opportunity to do bonus points . . . receive bonus points equal to the points they lost specifically because they lost those points. And I'm like, "why the hell does it even matter if I cheat because I'll just get bonus points. This is ridiculous." I mean I have a particularly strong feeling about cheating in class. And so I would say that one is the most unfair because there's no penalty. There's no reason. So why should I bust my ass to do any of the work if I could just go get the answers offline off the Internet somewhere and it doesn't even matter if I get caught. So I would say that is probably the most demotivating.

5.5.4.2 Instructor Demotivating Behavior Based on Instructor Actions and Characteristics

5.5.4.2.1 Making Sarcastic and Snarky Remarks

Participant 289 found making sarcastic and snarky remarks to be the most demotivating behavior from the survey. She stated: "On what students say, I guess. Not general. When they are having conversations. . . . Teachers should encourage to participate but if teachers says sarcastic comments on whatever students say…some students it is hard for them to participate talking in front of other students. And if they were they received comment like that…"

In an attempt to seek clarification, I asked Participant 289 if the student is shy and doesn't talk a lot and the instructor criticizes the student, he/she may not want to talk again. She replied: "Yeah. Also if they witness that, they won't bother to participate because they do not want that one them. [They don't want to be] criticized and humiliated in front of their friends or their classmates."

5.5.4.2.2   Overly Critical of Student Questions and Discussions

Participant 138 stated:

Because when [the instructor] asks a question, I am thinking about that. I am thinking about that issue….He might not know the answer, I can accept that. I'm saying he again. He might not know the answer, but he may say I don't know the answer, you can find it here. Or I can back to you tomorrow. But if he says, why don't you know this thing, you should have known this thing. Then I understand that he does not know the answer clearly. He may be rude or something. And that's the demotivating part because I understand that he doesn't know the answer and he's not showing me the way.

5.5.4.2.3   Providing No Feedback

Participant 302:

….They had one on not giving feedback….I'm not sure if it said positive feedback, but I just wanted to say that I didn't want to qualify it as negative or positive. Just not giving feedback to me is a big no-no. I think you should be able to guide students and tell them where they went wrong or tell them what they did right and how to improve their work. Students work really hard on their assignments, and if you can't provide them with comments to improve the work, you just wasted your time and their time.

When asked why this was the most demotivating, Participant 302 stated:

Why it's the most… I think it's the most for me because what you as a student is produce work for the most part. You do research, you write papers, and you submit it. And when you write your dissertation, you want comments to include in your work. That's the biggest. You spend the most amount of time in graduate school writing and producing work. And for a professor not to acknowledge that you did it, and just give you a letter grade, I think does not respect your work as a student. And it doesn't seem that they're doing their job effectively. So they just could have flipped through and said this person submitted this assignment, so I'm just going to give them an A or B because they met the class requirements.

Participant 517 also agreed that lack of instructor feedback was the most demotivating

instructor behavior from the survey. She stated:

For me personally, it would be not being able to have some kind of one-on-one… you know, I see you, you see me. Not because I'm asking for a favor, but it's just nice to know when you are a student in the class they recognize that you are a student in the class. It's just that they've . . . I've done a lot of online classes and in class or whether I'm in class, online class, or a blended class, I want to have feedback on anything any question. That would be my number 1 expectation.

5.5.4.2.4 Refused to Answer Student Questions

Participant 998:

… "Refused to answer student question". . . . Because when I have a question in class, I expect that professor can answer my question. Or if he or she can't answer at that time, they can say that, "Let me see what I answer you next time" or "I can help you". You may give other suggestions for students. Not just not answer that question and let student find out by themselves. For me, this very . . . the most important factor. And I have an experience when I was an undergraduate.

Again, the expectation is not that instructors always know the answer to questions, but

that they admit they don't know and help the student find the answer.

5.5.4.2.5 Use of Profanity

Participant 789:

I think the use of profanity. I think from here the student completely loses the confidence to ask anything in the class….Because if the instructors even if he doesn't like your question or he finds it stupid, but to publicly disgrace you or use curse words, especially in undergrad, you find it really demotivating and first of all having the courage to ask a question in front of a class of 60 and then being put down in such a way probably you'll destroy the confidence of the person forever….I have experienced it but it didn't really stop me….I would probably stop asking questions in that professor's class but it wouldn't stop me from asking questions in other professor's classes. But I know if…I keep telling my friends that one instructor should not affect their behavior with all of them. Some students can, some don't. 50% of the class hesitates to ask the question and if they do I think it's the end if you just put them down there.

When asked if this experienced has affected her in her graduate career, Participant 789 stated:

No because I think I have been fortunate enough to have good professors as I've moved on to the grad school and they constantly acknowledge even if we trash you for a question, it's not personal and they make it clear that maybe it's a mood or something so don't take it personally. We would be happy to answer you later and we can resolve any dispute. So that has been most of the graduate professors I have been with.

5.5.5 Section 2: Interview Question 5

Please tell me about a specific time you felt demotivated in a course.

One of the assumptions made in this study is that the people who volunteered to be a part of it had at some point in their careers in higher education had experienced some form of instructor demotivating behaviors. The degrees of the different behaviors and the themes that resulted are discussed in this section.

5.5.5.1 Teaching Ineffectiveness

Many participants question the teaching effectiveness of the instructor if they demonstrated the following behaviors:

5.5.5.1.1 Provided No Feedback

Participant 289 found when instructors ignore student emails to be demotivating. She stated:

> Oh when I didn't receive reply email when asking questions about assignment or the things I didn't understand in class and didn't receive any reply…. Well at first I thought maybe he was busy. Yeah it sounds like he received a lot of emails from a lot of people, not only students. But if that keeps happening, it was only one time, it makes me feel like he doesn't care especially about… I'm not talking about stuff from the lecture. The subject or context. My question was related to the assignment that was due that week. The things I learned in the lecture that was taken and a few hours ago or the night before. I didn't receive any reply…. During my undergrad years, to be honest I don't think I cared about learning as much as I do now. My focus was more on passing all the courses and getting the degree. So thinking back now, different type of teacher behavior, such as favoritism, might have demotivated me more than not getting feedback…. He doesn't care….Yeah. I think PhD students expect a different level of engagement from teachers. To be fair, though, the professor was good at giving feedback and answering questions if I approached him during a break or after the class. I guess what bothered me the most was the fact he ignored my emails. He could simply reply and tell me to ask in or after the class, instead, if he preferred explaining in person. I still asked him questions in person, but he had become less approachable for me mentally (so I asked less), because I judged him as a teacher who ignored emails from a student.

Participant 517 shared a similar experience:

There was another one which was a [name of class]. I think those would be the primary one because all those [name of classes] I had were just wonderful. It was such a contrast between the two departments. And here they've all been. . . You know, I try to have a lot of self-motivation, so I don't necessarily look for the professor to give it to me. . .[Name of class]. That one was a struggle. Every week it was a struggle because I had no feedback. And even when I would try to make a connection the next time after class or getting there a little bit early, I just couldn't . . . I don't know what it was. And actually since then, I've reach out to try to repair that bridge because I have all respect for this man and what he has achieved in his life. The work he does with other students, and we're like okay now. Still he offers this one class which wouldn't apply to any program I'm in, but if the opportunity arose, and I had the time and the money, I would probably go take that class….It was extreme stress….Because in that class I didn't not understand the material and there was no way . . . to give an example, you had to like prepare a proposal from one week to the next. Okay you're going to do a study; You're going to do a qualitative research project. Pick some [objects] and tell us your project. I didn't even know at the time what qualitative research was. So because I had no feedback on my first several assignments that I sent it, I mean, can you help me? Am I doing this right? Or whatever. We got zero grades the entire semester. I'm having to not only look at the assignment and try to figure out the assignment. I'm having to try to teach myself something that maybe applies that will maybe allow me to do the work. And then I would hear comments from other students that "she doesn't know what she's talking about." It was a vicious circle of his lack of feedback combined with the other students. And there was an older woman in the class who dropped out and I have a suspicion that it was along similar lines because we just we had no idea what we were doing, and we couldn't get the feedback. We couldn't even get the courtesy to say, "You know, this class is just not what you all need right now. You should just drop it.

5.5.5.1.2   Taught Too Many Concepts at Once

Participant 460:

It was the SEMESTER. I started in the SEMESTER, and I had two bad experience. One of them was the BLANK class. I didn't understand anything because she couldn't manage the class well. She was teaching many things in just one session but she mentioned very short things about the name or the concept and then skipped to the next content.

5.5.5.1.3   Inflexibility

Participant 124 noted "He wasn't nonchalant about his grading policy. He was non-flexing. He didn't fluctuate. He did not flex. If you were a student who made a 59, you were

getting that F."

5.5.5.1.4   Instituted Harsh Assignment Deadlines

Participant 460 said, "…another course I had it was BLANK class. The instructor wasn't

that bad but the homework was so hard. I couldn't finish the homework. I had good experience

in content but the deadline for the homework was very short."

5.5.5.1.5   Graded Harshly

Participant 546:

When I would give my 500% to a paper and I still would not get the expected A. It
happens very rarely. Specifically, in courses like PROFESSOR …the COURSE?....That
is one demotivating course because they cut your grades for each and every punctuation,
every silly thing. Okay, they are not even looking at content. They are looking at
mistakes like there's no comma. There is no exclamation. And they question you on the
basis of the validity of your ideas. That's demotivating. You can't read a particular
paragraph and say, "Huh. It could also be this. What you have said is incorrect." No, how
can you say that?....You write something and they cut your grades because . . . you write
a draft, you submit it, and you get this entire document with comments everywhere. But
PROFESSOR puts in, "This is not . . ." Maybe arguably it is correct from her viewpoint.
And that was very demotivating. When you put a lot of efforts. Okay so think of it, a
student puts in a lot of efforts and he gets penalized on the basis of what the instructor
feels is correct and not correct….And the instructor cuts the grades because it's not. .
..It's subjective, right? It's not about the content. It's not about the rightness or the
wrongness of a subject. The opinion can be . . . two different people can have two
different opinions. And you don't cut grades because you don't agree with that opinion.
That's demotivating.

5.5.5.1.6   Allowed Cheating

When asked this question, Participant 931 confirmed that the cheating incident he

experienced was his most demotivating. Participant 931:

And I'm like, "why the hell does it even matter if I cheat because I'll just get bonus
points. This is ridiculous." I mean I have a particularly strong feeling about cheating in

class. And so I would say that one is the most unfair because there's no penalty. There's no reason. So why should I bust my ass to do any of the work if I could just go get the answers offline off the Internet somewhere and it doesn't even matter if I get caught. So I would say that is probably the most demotivating.

5.5.5.2 Instructor Personality

5.5.5.2.1 Unapproachable

Participant 789:

So we used to have this CLASS in the undergrad so we used to CONTENT and stuff and normally no one would get it right in the first place. So it was a really tough time. So we had one professor. I think he worked in MILITARY BRANCH before and he was strict off the rules, I understand, coming from a military background, you have certain rules and decorum in your class. I am sure he was aware of the fact that none of the students could get it right in the first place. So even me, I didn't have the courage to ask him to COMPLETE A TASK for us, so we would go spend extra hours. We would take help of each other. Ask a different instructor's CLASS. You know students to help us out. But nobody dared to go talk to the instructor….Because of the way… he was unapproachable. I mean he did not say it but from the way he conducted himself in class and we saw a few students being turned away. So all those factors combined we never went to…He used to yell. If you don't get it right, and so I think yelling scares most of the female students away…The way he conducted it. He was unapproachable. You knew from his personality that he was unapproachable for anything…he was sarcastic.

5.5.5.2.2 Favored certain students

Participant 302:

Oh my very first semester in the doctoral program. It was an interesting class. I made some good friends in there, but I don't think the professor noticed the shy students in the course. He seemed to pay attention to two students who seemed to know everything. But for most of us who were getting into DEPARTMENT at the time, we had no idea what those concepts meant. And even if we did, some of us were shy. We didn't know the people around us. And the professor did not make any effort to involve us in the conversations. He just seemed to call out the students he knew better. And that to me was a bad sign, especially in the beginning of my career here in this department. It just felt like he didn't care enough.

When asked how she got through the course, Participant 302 stated:

I felt demotivated, but then I had friends in the course that I could talk to. And when I realized I wasn't the only one feeling this way, I guess it encouraged me to become better

in the course. But also at the end of the day, irrespectable of the professor's behavior, I always strive to make an A grade, and so that pushed me to succeed. And I feel like when I succeed, I kind of slap them in the face in a certain way. I make them feel bad. Like hey you didn't think I was good enough. So now I've succeeded, what about that?...Like you as a professor, but I'm trying to show you I'm smart. I guess it's my way of punishing the professor. Some kind of revenge. Like hey, you didn't think I was smart enough. Look at me now, I succeeded. That to me is my best form of revenge.

Participant 302 reported another incident of instructor demotivation behavior:

I remember taking a course in the master's level. A SUBJECT, which I hated because I'm not very good at SUBJECT. And I asked the professor a question, "could you please explain this assignment that you've given us" and he said "if you were paying attention in class, you would have understood." And that was probably the last time I asked a question in class. So I don't go to them.

5.5.5.2.3   Encouraged Student to Quit PHD Program

Participant 546 reported an instructor behavior that left him traumatized. He stated:

So at the end of my first semester, I had a crash course in PhD. Coming from COUNTRY, I didn't have a BLANK degree from the US at that time. I didn't know the education system over here. So I think professors should appreciate us students. I was given a feedback that I would never do good in a PhD program. I would never be able to independently work. And that I should consider leaving the program because I would never succeed. And contrary to what everyone else was telling me, I left the program. I quit the program and I went back home. And this was an interview of half an hour after the course work was submitted. IN the first semester. I'm getting all As here. I couldn't make… They first gave me a C then they turned it into B. Was I not capable of doing it? I really don't know. Because Dr. 1 told me not to quit, Dr. 2 told me not to quit. Dr. 3 told me not to quit. Dr. 4 told me not to quit. But I was so traumatized by the feedback that was given to me that I just thought if continue this, it will be a terrible, terrible waste of my years. And I would never come up with a degree. I would never complete it. I left and went. I was told I couldn't work independently. I may be able to complete the course work, but I would never be able to work on dissertation on my own. And I'm one of the top leaders here in the College of XX. I already have X publications lined up in my first year. Technically…..I otherwise really respected PROFESSOR in the College of X and I have absolutely complete respect for the professor. And she's very friendly also. She was not malicious. I don't think so. She was not being malicious. She really wanted to help me. But her feedback literally destroyed me. And then I went back and I was writing stuff on my own because I was interested in research so I kept on doing whatever as a non-student and I was working as a BLANK with BLANK COMPANY. And I was in touch with Dr. X throughout and he said, "Apply. Not to the College of X, but to the College of XX. And I came here, and I think I'm doing alright. So I got a good academic standing in

the department…..BLANK PhD program. And that's an extreme case. You wouldn't find a student who left a program a PhD program because of an instructor's behavior…..So after I got the feedback from PROFESSOR, I went and took a second masters here in the United States, just to bridge the gap that I thought I had between my education system in COUNTRY and the United States. But I felt it was a waste of time. I really felt that second BLANK DEGREE was a waste of time. By then, I was already doing what was expected of a doctoral student so I didn't need to take a second BLANK DEGREE, but I just thought let me see. I'll go ahead and take that BLANK DEGREE program….Reactivating everything I had learned in my previous undergraduate and graduate programs. So there was nothing new that I learned in the second BLANK DEGREE, but I have two BLANK DEGREE.

Due to the severity of the incident in the eyes of Participant 546, he still has unresolved feelings about it. Participant 546: "I'm still questioning PROFESSOR's feedback. What made her give me that feedback? Did she really think I was not going to succeed or she didn't give me enough time?" When asked if he would consider contacting the instructor to receive closure, Participant 546 said: "No, she traumatized me too much. I don't want to see that woman again…. I don't want anything to do with her."

5.5.5.2.4   Overly Critical of Student Questions and Discussions

Participant 138:

At this moment, I'm thinking about in my fourth year, there was a lab course for --- systems so I during the course in the classroom, I asked the professor, "I'm trying to solve the problem this way and it's not working". I asked him to show me if he knows how to do this. And he was a bit mad and his reaction was "Why can't you do this thing? It is very obvious." Later I talked to my other classmates and they were also facing that same issue. And the main thing is that the professor he did not give me an answer and also that he doesn't know the answer correctly. But you could have told me that "I would get back to you on this later". He was a bit rude, and I still remember that too.. He made me feel bad for not knowing the answer, that's the main issue. He didn't know the answer; he may not have clearly remembered that. That's not the big issue for me. But that he was rude to me. That was a big thing.

Participant 998:

Demotivated? Umm. Yeah. That is when I tried to ask a question and actually this is back a long time ago when I was an undergrad student in a SUBJECT class and I really hate

SUBJECT. And the professor said… it's right after lecture…and the professor said, "if you have any question, you can ask me right now before I leave." And I raise my hand and I asked him a question. But they said, "I already covered that topic in the lecture. Why don't you go ahead and review your lecture?" And I . . . and everybody look at me. And it made me feel like I'm stupid. Or . . . in front of other …it's not . . . I mean it make me feel nervous and stupid in front of others. [More than 100] other people, I mean students in the class. After that, I don't want to ask any question in class.

When asked if this one experience had traumatized her to the point of not asking questions in class, Participant 998 said:

Yes. Yes…. And in CULTURE, in COUNTRY, we are not usually asked a question in class, I mean student because the teacher behavior. And I think some teachers and some professors think students ask some question in class it means they challenge you. If you talk with other students from COUNTRY, I think they feel in the same way.

5.5.6   Section 3: Interview Question 6

When you don't understand something in class, how would you describe your thought process? For example, are you unsure of where to start to find information? Do you immediately know what information you are looking for? Do you formulate specific questions to ask? Do you relate your existing knowledge of the subject to relieve your own confusion?

In order to answer this question, one of the main factors is determining the information seeking behaviors of the participants in terms of Kuhlthau's (1992) ISP model. The participants were asked the following questions to determine their personal characteristics as they maneuvered through the three information seeking tasks: cognitive, affective, and physical.

Interestingly enough, the participants had difficulty distinguishing between their thoughts and actions when it came to finding information. Most of the participants answered the question in terms of what they would do and not in terms of what they were thinking at the time.

5.5.6.1   Relate to Prior Knowledge

Participant 998 said, "At first, I am confused. And after that, for me, I try to relate the

professor taught in class with my experience or my knowledge."

5.5.6.2   Know where to look

Participant 789 said "….I think the way maybe research helps you or you know where to

look for the source, where to start from."

Participant 289:

Well coming from DEPARTMENT, I kinda know where to go to look for information
and what kind of materials I need. But I have to get on that to start formulating my search
strategy. I kinda have a vague idea. I just need to get searching to get the thoughts clear.

Participant 931:

The first thing I would do is, I would try to raise my hand and try to get immediate
clarification of whatever it was. If I could figure out what I didn't understand, I would try
and do that. If I couldn't figure out why it wasn't making sense, I might delay and maybe
I would ask after class. If I'm still not understanding, then I would try to email the
professor or email the TA or the grader who is providing [tutoring]. Cause I've done that
before when I had to go to [tutoring]. . . So for the most part it works really well. And
it's supposed to be the case that all of the graders and TAs can answer . . . they're
supposed to make a good faith effort to answer questions. So it can sometimes be a little
frustrating when you can't quite line things up, and you end up with someone who may
not know the answer to your question. But otherwise that's the path I would take…..Yeah
and honestly I would prefer to actually talk to someone face to face. I feel like I can
better ask my questions and get the nuances taken care of when I can actually talk to
someone as opposed. . . I'd prefer that to email and I'd much prefer that to like googling
whatever it is online and looking for videos. So and part of that is that I anticipate the
professor and the TA having specific knowledge of the area . . . of whatever it is because
they just described it in class. So I kind of anticipate them being able to answer my
question much more directly than trying to wade through the YouTube and everything
else that's currently out there.

Participant 124:

Usually I am not completely lost. Right. I might be oblivious to what's going on. It does
happen sometime where okay usually I know there's some foundational issues I'm
missing that's causing me to be confused with a certain lecture. I'll look in a textbook.

Usually I'll google something because we live in an age where information's abundant… I usually know I can go back far enough to find out where I'm lost at. Now do I have the motivation to go that far back? But sometimes people have fundamental…usually when people get to calculus and they do really bad, there's something really really tiny missing in their fundamentals. There may be a few things missing, and sometimes having to go way back there takes a lot of time and effort and a lot of studying. So usually I don't get mad at the professor because it's not his fault there was something that I missed and maybe I put that towards having bad schooling growing up. You know, it's not so great schooling location, not so great school in undergraduate. Okay not so great school for undergraduate. Sorry high school. So I tend to redefine it, and it's a powerful thing…..Yeah…I can kinda go back far enough.

Participant 302:

My first move is not to ask the professor or my friends. I don't like coming across as stupid and I feel that if I ask someone a question, they will say "oh that's such a basic question. She should know that". And so my first line of action is to go back to the course material and try to answer my questions. And if I don't have a good enough answer, I go to the library. The online library and find an article or book that could help answer my question.

When asked what kind of course materials, Participant 302 clarified: "The articles the professor

provided. The textbook."

Participant 138:

When I don't understand something, I usually go back to the root of the things. Maybe for example, at this moment, I am working on CLASS, and I didn't have the course before. What I am currently doing is inquiring back to the books that are taught in the undergrad level. I am studying them. I am building from the bottom…it takes time. It does take time. In the end, I understand the thing….I usually I do know where to go because so I was studying for like seven years so now I understand where to look if I need to look for something, now I know where to look.

While Participant 517 stated that her first thought is to ask the instructor if she realizes

she doesn't understand something, when asked if she knew the information she was immediately

looking for in that type of situation, she replied:

Oh where I don't even know how to?...I consider myself kinda the queen of Google….I have a plan. I'm either going to get with the student next to me. Like I said, I love my cohort now. Just incredible people and I'll ask them. I might do, depending on the class, I might do a quick google unless that professor has indicated they don't want that kind of stuff….I have a game plan….I write notes. I'm a serious note taker in class. And I flag

185

stuff. I star stuff. I put question marks by . . . and feel very comfortable going after information.

Participant 546:

Absolutely. Yeah. That's what PhDs are supposed to be doing, right? Not asking anybody because by now you are supposed to be creators of knowledge. We are not really asking anybody anything. We are just do our own research on a particular… But what I found is … one thing I found that was difficult was in PROFESSOR X class was the BLANK ASSIGNMENT. I could not do any research on that! And he gave me a C on that paper, and no wonder why because today that . . . I have been traumatized by that topic as well. Even today, and probably . . . I wouldn't waste another minute of my day trying to figure out what that was. It also depends upon your interests, right? Interest in the topic or not. And if you interested in the topic, you go beyond your beyond what is being taught in the course and you educate yourself. And that's what I've been doing because all the research methodology courses that I'm taking… the stats. I don't have a statistics background. And I don't… even today I still don't know what commonality is all about. So okay, so I know what I don't know, and I follow the models that we learned in our BLANK course. And follow all those models. We don't know THEORY so we know what we don't know and we try to figure out how to go about it…I've been using that model quite a lot in real life…..The bottom line is you need to know what you don't know. If you know what you don't know, it's very easy to know it then.

5.5.6.3   Immediately Think to Ask the Instructor

Participant 789:

….if I did not understand, I would probably email the professor for extra source where to go to look back or follow the Internet….I even know that if I can't find anything in the source, I can go back to the professor himself.

Participant 517:

I feel comfortable now in raising my hand and asking the question….I need an answer. And if it's something that I assess that I just don't know but everybody else seems to have gotten it, depending on like how the class is doing, I say "okay. I'm going to write that down and snap the professor afterwards". That way I don't disrupt the flow of the class.

Participant 460:

At the first, I would try to ask the question, but if the instructor refused to answer my question, okay I'm thinking I can find it on Internet or reference books. But it is a bit disappointing.

5.5.7   Section 3: Interview Question 7

How do you feel when you realize that you don't understand something in class? For

example, do you feel uncertain? Confused? Overwhelmed? Optimistic? Frustrated? Ashamed?

5.5.7.1   General Feelings

5.5.7.1.1   Demotivated

Participant 546:

Demotivated….It's about… because.. you know … one of the most demotivating things
of this program is what is in front of me is they give you readings and sometimes it is so
difficult to understand what's being written in the books. And sometimes you feel that it
would just make your life easier if you have some easy understandable learning
material…..So you have this COURSE, and it's very, very, very important for all us
researcher PhD students to take it because there's all the CONTENT. . . The
recommended text is AUTHOR and AUTHOR. And it's a very important textbook, but if
you try to read any one of his chapters, you would not make a sense of it. So then, do I
need to read one chapter 20 times before I understand it? So would I just be reading
AUTHOR and AUTHOR for the rest of my life before I can understand what is actually
being said. That is very, very demotivating….I haven't been able to figure it out. I have
given up. But I know that I still need to go and learn TOPIC. And I realize that when I
was doing the project on TOPIC, and there were so many questions that I . . . okay, what
is this? What does this mean? What does that mean? What does . . . let's for example say,
TOPIC, that was TOPIC. It's explained perfectly well in AUTHOR and AUTHOR.
Okay, but when I try to read that whole chapter, it still puts me to sleep. Not able to read
it. Even though I know I need to be able to read this and understand what's being said,
not an easy thing to do. And that is what I realize with all the textbooks that have been
sort of recommended for various courses like for example. . . Everything I read in the
first year PhD program, at the DEPARTMENT PhD program. Have you read
BLANK?...You kind of learn to appreciate it after some time, but I'm actually doing the
reading for the first time. It's actually just . . . and as an international student, this isn't
our first language. It is very difficult to understand or make sense of what people are
actually trying to say in this difficult reading textbooks. If something. . . instructors
could make life easy for the students by recommending those readings because there is no
. . . you have to read it. But at the same time also understanding that language barrier can
cause less knowledge absorption by the students and have something which makes them
understand. So just not make them read everything on their own but also teach them
something in the classrooms. In the face to face sessions. That doesn't happen….Very
demotivating. Actually specifically when you know you need to understand certain basic
concepts and you are not able because it's just too difficult for you to read that and
understand that.

When asked if he thought if he would have an easier time if the texts were available in his original language, Participant 546 said:

> No. I'm not saying that there's any alternate to avoiding this difficult content material that students need to read. But in addition to that, if there's any way that an instructor can actually teach and then make the students read….So you have this very difficult chapter on TOPIC and if you read it, and don't understand, then have a 5-page simple language note ready so that students understands the basic concept and when you understand the basic concepts, you can actually go into the textbooks and when you come across something which is difficult to explain in a different language, it starts making sense because you know what is being taught. Which is basically the teaching philosophy here is so different. Nobody teaches you anything here. Maybe… do they do not in the undergraduate and graduate levels? I don't know. I've never done an undergraduate and a graduate level here, so I don't know how they do it at that level. But in the doctorate level, did anybody teach you anything?

5.5.7.1.2   Nonchalant

Participant 124:

> Progression of life, right? Before I was young, I didn't understand…I guess…I guess when you're young and you don't understand something, you feel why am I not as smart as these other kids? I have colleagues that are very talented, very informed about what's going on. You know great abilities to pass the test, that's great. And I think when you're younger, you're kinda like, why am I not like them? But as you get older, you realize, man YOLO….Well when I was younger, I used to…I guess we could start off in undergrad. I guess my first year at college, I wondered why people signed up for higher math. I started out from really lower math courses. Really leveling courses. But as I got older, I stopped caring. You gotta learn one way or another.

5.5.7.1.3   Optimistic

Participant 517:

> I feel okay about it. I don't berate myself. I don't sit there and think, "I'm stupid. I don't belong here." I did. That first semester of my master's program which is, "I have a brain." And that class almost took that away from me. Because up until then, I had . . . I know I have a brain. And that class almost made me feel stupid and I'm not a stupid person. It's like now, if I don't know it, it's like "okay. I don't know that. It's something I need to know. I'm going to get it."….Yeah. I will get the answer.

5.5.7.1.4   Self-Critical

Participant 124:

Yeah, I tend to … as I got older, I realize that a lot of information is in the book. Right? You know relatively . . . usually if you take a course on BLANK. Even if you didn't go to the class, just read through the whole book just the information, you might not need to professor. There's not new material. But in graduate course, you are talking about current research in a certain area. You're just talking about stuff in the book that's been published. I often blamed myself because I could have done more to read more. I could have looked in the book more. I could have did more. It's always . . .Rarely is it ever the professor's fault to me….Usually, like I said earlier. It's hard to dissect the team player from the whole classroom. As long as I pass the class, it's not a big deal. Even if it drops me down to an A to a B, I'm like, it's all good. I know it's better than everyone else. Cause a lot of time the entire class is doing bad, and it's like, hey we can turn the test from a 40 to a 35 and the homework from a 10 to a 15%. It might pull me down if I did pretty good on the test, but I can kind of say "meh. It's all good". In many cases, the teacher might let you keep the same rubric if they are okay with it.

5.5.7.1.5   Curious---Immediately Think to Ask a Question

Participant 289:

No, I immediately think to ask. That's why I think getting feedback and replies is very important.

5.5.7.1.6   Stressed and Overwhelmed

Participant 302:

How do I describe it? I stress. That's my initial reaction to stress about it. And then if I can't find the thing, if I can't find the answers I need, I keep searching or I give up. Initially yes, but I don't let things weigh me down for too long so it stresses me out for a quick minute and then I decide either I keep worrying about it or I move on and find the answer.

5.5.7.2   Exceptions Depending on the Situation

5.5.7.2.1   Depends on Expected Prior Knowledge

Participant 931 stated:

I have to give the unfortunate answer of "it depends." So if it's something . . . if it's a topic that I feel I already know a fair amount about, and then there's something that I'm confused about, I'm probably going to be a little frustrated and ashamed. I'm just like, "I feel like I should know the answer to this!" Or it's especially something that I've already learned at one point but forgotten. I'm not all fired up about having a challenge to go seek this out. It's more like, "Oh I need an answer to this because I don't understand this and I would like that answer as soon as possible." So that I can move on to bigger things. To know how to COMPLETE THE ASSIGNMENT or whatever it is. So that's all I was going to say.

Participant 998:

I always feel that, and ask myself a question, "is this only me that not understand that point or not understand what the professor said?"

5.5.7.2.2 Depends on Peer Understanding of Concepts

Participant 789:

I think it has a lot to do with how my peers understand the content. If my peers have understood the content well, then I feel a little left out. But if I feel that everybody is on the same page, then you think it's probably nothing to do with me. It's probably how he's delivering the lecture. And so you have to go out of your way to learn the content.

5.5.8 Section 3: Interview Question 8

What do you normally do when you don't understand something in class? For example, do you ask the instructor a question in class? Do you wait until class is over to ask the instructor a question? Do you ask a fellow classmate? Do you ask the teaching assistant? Or do you just look it up on the Internet? Why?

Because many of the participants in this study were proficient in searching for information, they had several different sources they used to find information. For the purposes of this study, this section will focus on the first source they use to find information.

190

5.5.8.1   Social

5.5.8.1.1   Ask a Class Mate

Participant 124:

I can probably find the answer quicker and more effective, I would ask the guy next to me.

Participant 998:

Yes, but before… for example, if the professor gives a task in class or assignment, I will try to figure it out myself to finish that task or assignment first. But if I cannot find any way to complete that assignment, I will turn to a classmate.

When asked why she would ask a classmate, Participant 998 stated:

Because I don't want the professor to know that I don't understand what they said or what they taught in class. And it feels more comfortable when you ask a classmate to explain.

5.5.8.1.2   Ask instructor

Participant 138:

I usually ask questions to the professors and most of the times the professors are very helpful.

When asked if he immediately asked a question in class or waited until break or the end of class,

Participant 138 responded: "Usually immediately. If I ask a question, then I ask immediately."

When asked why he immediately asked the instructor, **Participant 138** said,

To make sure he's talking about something and he will the next thing he says will be related to this. So I want to make sure that I understand the next thing by clarifying this current topic. So the next topic he talks about I will understand it. If I don't understand this topic, the next topic I will not understand either, right.

Participant 517:

My first one, if I can handle it in person in some way then in there, that's what I'm going to do. I like that. If it winds up where I'm out of that one-on-one. . . if that one-on-one or that in person.

When asked why she would first ask the instructor, Participant 517 relayed:

> Because the saying is, "you are going straight to the horse's mouth" I want that. If there's some ambiguity about a due date. It happened [blank] semester in the [season]. It turned out that I asked a question because of a discussion of the professor and I was thinking, "oooh. I must have something real major wrong here." And I looked at my cohort and thought I am the only person that has misunderstood this, but I gotta ask and I just went ahead and asked it. Because it was going to mean the difference between two major assignments if I screwed them up. So I asked the question and as it turned out, I had misunderstood the assignment, but I wasn't the only one. Because some from my cohort came afterward and said, "Oh we thought the same as you." But the professors were . . . they explained it and I was like "okay. I'm going to adjust what I need to do and get this caught back up….I'm progressing in my skills, I think.

Participant 931 preferred to use social means to find the information he searched for in

his studies. As a result, he abhorred the Internet. When asked why he stated:

> I feel like its… so when you use the Internet, right, the information you find on the Internet is only so good as the question you ask. And it's sometimes very difficult to find just the right question to get just the right answer. I feel like that's much easier when you're dealing with a person because now you're not just dealing with . . . my intuition of what it should be and here Internet hopefully that I ask the right question. You're dealing with two people because the professor is going to have some expectation of what your question is or what the problem might be. So it's... it would almost be . . .if the Internet had . . . I don't know. . . I know they already do this, but if they had a better heuristic of "okay, we anticipate that this is what the problem might be. So here's. . . so we're going to give you a better selection of answers that might be the right one." Because you kind of get that from people because they already have an idea of what the problem is. Whether it's right or wrong. And I feel that kind of . . . it makes it faster to get at the root of whatever my uncertainty is…. Right. It's really it's a speed and efficiency thing. Where I feel I can more efficiently get the answer I want from a person who is supposed to be an expert than the Internet.

Participant 289 answered that she considers the instructor her first information source.

When asked why, she stated:

> When I said I want confirmation…if I can learn without guidance or feedback… or to teach myself (find information, read it, and be satisfied with the knowledge I gained), then I don't have to pay tuition and take courses. I select and take certain courses (other than core courses, of course) because either my existing knowledge on particular subjects or areas is not sufficient enough to teach myself or I want to expand my knowledge on certain subjects often, you need expert guidance to do so….In a sense courses are part of the information sources, such as databases. After all, we, PhD students, are constantly

seeking information in order to gain knowledge so that we can complete and defend our dissertations.

Like Participant 931, Participant 289 expressed a distrust of information on the Internet:

Yeah, the online sources, first of all, they are not very reliable. I don't know if they are saying the right thing. And then start reading different things and start realizing that people are saying different things or they are saying the same thing in different ways. So I just need to confirm if that's right.

Participant 789 also stated that she would first go to the instructor if she had a question if the instructor's demeanor was inviting. She stated:

I think all of the above. It just depends. If the professor is really friendly, willing to accept questions in class and some professors allow 10 minutes at the end of the lecture to ask all the questions they don't want to take in the lecture. So I like the way the way everybody can come up with their questions in one slot.

When asked why she would want to ask the instructor first, Participant 789 said:

Because if I have sufficient time for the professors to explain me, I trust him the most. Because he's my instructor and everything I am learning from him. So my complete faith is in the instructor first. And rather reading the content by myself, I would prefer it be explained by my instructor than the TA.

5.5.8.2   Rely on Self

5.5.8.2.1   Review Readings and Notes

Participant 546:

I remember one theory I was doing. I don't remember that theory right now. But it was a very complex SUBJECT theory in the SUBJECT. I need to go back to COURSE to remember that theory. And that reminds me. I need to start preparing for my qualifying exams. So I can't forget what I've learned in those classes, but yes I had to actually go and read it 15 times for me to understand it and I just wouldn't go ahead. I just wouldn't proceed ahead because I fear it was a very important fundamental building block which I really need to understand. It was not taught in the class. It was in one of the papers that was assigned for readings so spent considerable time reading and understanding it. Reading it again and understanding it. I actually absorbed the knowledge from it. That's one experience that I remember. So yes, if you don't understand something, everybody has some mechanisms trying to understand what they think they should learn. Right?

5.5.8.2.2 Rely on Self and Technology: Look at Online Library

Participant 302:

> Looking it up on the online library is my first course of action. It's quick. I know how to use it. I know how to use the online library. It's not really Google. It's the UNVERSITY library, so I feel like I get creditable sources and I know how to do it really quickly.

When asked why the university online library would be her first choice, Participant 302 stated, "I don't have to wait. I can do it at my convenience. I know how to do it. And I don't have to ask anybody for help."

5.5.9 Section 4 Interview Question 1

Does an instructor's demotivating behavior influence your decision to seek clarification in the classroom? Why/Why not?

This question was posed to the participants in yes/no terms in order to give them the freedom to explain themselves without feeling coerced. One of the main proponents of a good doctoral program is the expectation that thoughts/opinions/beliefs need to be followed by explanation, and a good researcher/scholar must be prepared to explain themselves without question. Because the participants were comprised of doctoral students, it was not out of the realm of possibility to expect them to have and provide a reason for their answers.

5.5.9.1 "Yes" Participants

Seven of the ten participants stated that an instructor's demotivating behaviors does influence their decision to seek clarification in the classroom. Their reasons are reported below:

Participant 931:

> Oh yeah. If there. . . if they won't A) ask questions or B) won't answer questions, or C) they answer questions or they're super rude about it, yeah I really don't want to talk. I

mean, you just don't want to deal with that. Maybe I'll make notes and say, "I need to go look this up later or ask somebody about this later." But no, if the professor is going to be a jerk, I really don't want to deal with them. So, I'll try to do the best I can at muddling through, but yeah, but I really wouldn't ask anything…

Participant 138:

It did. It does, actually….If you are asking me a question and if he, or she, demotivates me, then I will not ask questions to him again, so. For that class, it was a bit obstacle. If it doesn't clarify the obstacle and does not come back to me on this later, the class is a little hard for me to get into next time….Maybe I'm a bit of an introvert. . . Once I don't get back to him again. Like I keep it to myself and I try to do it for my own. And that doesn't always work out because if I'm asking a question, that means that I'm not finding the proper solution by myself. If he guides me to the proper path, that would have been better. And if I try to do it on my own again, I may not find the correct path. And it also takes more time.

Participant 302:

Absolutely…Well if the professor doesn't respect their students or doesn't seem to care about the students in the class their teaching, I don't see why I have to go to them to provide me with answers to my questions because I know they don't care for me anyways. So yeah. I wouldn't go to that person and I wouldn't take another class with them….Like I said, I don't care if a professor wants to know about my personal life, but just the fact that I'm in your class, I expect you to care that I'm in there and I have needs. I need to understand the information you're giving and just because I'm quiet doesn't mean I get it. I would like a professor to ask questions to invite students. To invite them gently into the conversation. And maybe someday if you keep inviting me into the conversation, I think I will get more comfortable speaking to you in class. But if you just ignore me completely, there is no way I am going to come to you for help….They have to make the first move.[They need to create t]hat student-teacher relationship.

Participant 460:

Yes. For example, if they are asking for a very hard homework or project that I can't do this at the middle of the project that I can't finish in the deadline in the middle of the project I'm trying to cut some part of the project and just wrap up everything to just present something because they don't understand they are not accepting any excuses for example, this is not enough time for this, but they say no. It's just time you should deliver this. I can't do…maybe it's because I'm perfectionist, but usually I'm thinking the deadline and the project is not very good for the students, that it's not only my problem. So I wonder students they have the same issue….Because I talk to them before and I found it's useless so I stopped talking….Yes. And I found it useless to ask the instructor to extend the deadline or just make the project easier but when they are refusing I'm thinking I shouldn't ask anymore because they may think that I'm the only one with this project and the other students they are not saying anything so I stopped asking.

Participant 546:

Yes….I am one of those persons who always has his hands up when the professor teaches and have hundreds of questions. Other students don't do that a lot. But I have learned very early that if you don't ask questions, you will not learn. So no matter how demotivating, I mean, first of all, you don't understand the content of what has been taught. Would you take that as demotivating behavior on the part of an instructor. Maybe the instructor has taught. You didn't understand. But the fact that you didn't understand, would that be perceived as a demotivating factor? That's a question to really think about. Now the instructor did his or her job, but the student didn't learn. Is the student demotivated or does the student ask a question? …Now if the instructor does not answer the questions, that would be considered as a demotivating behavior. SO the student keeps asking questions. Very rarely does it happen in the United States that you ask a question and the instructor has refused to answer. Or has not given you a voice to ask your questions because that has not happened….No it . . . you see what happens if you follow a subject when you follow something, you have questions. When you don't follow anything….If you don't understand anything that is going on in the class, what are you going to ask. You only ask questions because you've understood most of it, and there's something that you don't understand and then you will ask and then you will seek information on that. But when it is everything and nothing has been taught, it's going really, really above your head, what would you even ask? I don't know how we survived that program…..Honestly in my PhD semesters that I've taken over here, it has never happen. Because every time that has been discussed in the class to some sort of presentation or something, if I do not understand or if I have questions on that I instantly ask the professor and I get an instant answer for it.

Participant 789:

Definitely….Well I can give you the example that if a professor's personality is off…he puts up a personality that says don't approach me no matter what. Students understand the way you conduct yourself in class and probably they would probably try to refrain from you. First and primary reason is that they don't want to annoy you because they are worried about their grades. We don't want to do anything to…you can say basically annoy the professor because we feel that it will reflex eventually on our grades. So if the professor is unapproachable, we try to find other means of going through the class. Maybe not a full 100% dedication. You just want to pass the course or something like that.

Participant 998:

Because if they have demotivating behavior I think they are likely that I will feel that . . . how can I say it. . . it makes me fear. I fear to ask any question after that…They might make me feel bad or they might judge me because my stupid question or something like that.

5.5.9.2   "No" Participants

Three of the ten participants would still seek clarification from the instructor in a classroom even if the instructor is demonstrating demotivating behaviors. Their reasons are shown below.

Participant 289 stated that she would still seek clarification from the instructor despite any demotivating behavior "because he's teaching the class. He's grading it….Because they're there and that's what they are supposed to do."

Participant 517 had a similar outlook:

> If I run across a professor in this program who exhibit some of that behavior, 1) I'll know not to put them on my committee. And 2) I would probably really try to chase them down in person and just really be assertive as I could that "okay. I'm not understanding this" or "I don't understand what your assignments are" or whatever. I would really try to address it and more from a position of strength that I feel now.

Participant 124:

> Now remember, in lack of better words, you know how you say that you pay the police officers to do their job? It's part of their job to address any student concerns that are going on. I feel like it's their job to address certain issues. If it directly correlates with the curriculum.

5.6   Additional Analysis

Because there were some incidents recorded where language was reported to be an issue in participant's demotivation and/or information seeking behaviors, questions regarding these issues were addressed in the follow-up questions. Due to a scheduling conflict, Participant 789 was unable to participant in the follow-up questions.

5.6.1   Follow-Up Email Questions

The following questions are included to further investigate this pattern.

A. How do you define an instructor's spoken language (ISL)?

B. Does an instructor's spoken language in the classroom lead you to become demotivated in a classroom? Why or why not? IF IT HAS, please describe an experience wherein an instructor's spoken language has led to your demotivation in a classroom.

C. Does an instructor's spoken language in the classroom have an effect on your willingness to seek clarification in the classroom? Why or why not? IF IT DOES, please describe an experience wherein a professor's spoken language has had an effect on your willingness to seek clarification in the classroom?

5.6.1.1 How Participants Defined Instructor Spoken Language (ISL)

5.6.1.1.1 Tone

Participant 302 defined ISL as the tone of the instructor's voice. When asked if the instructor's spoken language in the classroom led her to become demotivated in a course, Participant 302 stated, "Yes. Yes. If a professor sounds hostile or impatient, it discourages me from even thinking about asking them any questions." She went on to share an experience:

> I took another BLANK course a few years ago where the professor told us that she had to complete all entire course load and so would not be taking any questions in class. She said we would have to write out our questions and drop them in a mug at the end of each class for her to review. I understood by her words and her very stern tone that she was impatient and not very focused on student learning. I knew from that point that I had to work on my own to succeed in that class. Considering that stats is a weak area for, I did not excel in that class. Needless to say, that was my least favorite class in my entire graduate school career.

When asked if the instructor's spoken language influences her willing to seeking information in the classroom, Participant 302 responded: "Yes. If I am already demotivated by a professor's words, I am certainly not going to an instructor for any clarification."

5.6.1.1.2   English Speaking Skills

Participant 546 defined ISL as the instructor's English speaking skills. He said:

The instructors spoken language (English) has never demotivated me. I have a good grasp of the language and never had issues understanding what was being discussed in the classroom. Now if the medium of instruction was French or Spanish, I would be demotivated, because I do not speak or understand either of those languages. Medium of instruction (language) does play a role in motivating or demotivating students. Lecture delivery also plays a role in demotivating. So if the professors deliver a lecture which is monotonous, and in very low volume like murmuring can demotivate a student. It brings down the fact that if you do not understand what you are hearing, you may get demotivated from attending further sessions….We had PROFESSOR X who taught COURSE in my final year of undergraduate BLANK program. Professors spoken language at home was not English and he would insist on delivering the lecture in English, and he would slaughter the language. He used to literally use opposite meaning words to describe something he wanted to say. He was someone who did not speak the language at all. The issue was, this was an important mandatory course and there was no way to avoid it. That was demotivating…..I don't think instructor's spoken language in the classroom have an effect on my willingness to seek clarification in the classroom. If I know that the professor has answers to my questions, I would still seek clarification and work out the communication issues. Communication problems is secondary, at least in my case.

5.6.1.1.3   Accent

Participants 138 and Participant 931 defined ISL as the instructor's accent. Participant 931 stated:

It depends really. I'm pretty good at working with accents after I'm exposed to them for a period of time. However, I can imagine that if someone had a really thick accent, I might have troubles. I would probably become demotivated if I asked for clarification and I either could not understand the clarification or was met with a rude response. I've never had a professor who's had this problem before.

When asked if it affected his willingness to seek clarification, Participant 931 stated:

Like I said before. It would only really have an impact if I asked for clarification and then could not understand the clarification due to the accent. If that was the case, I would go seek clarification from the TA or from classmates. [But] I have not had this problem with a professor before.

5.6.1.1.4　Word Choice

Participant 289 defined ISL as the instructor's choice of words. She said:

….I usually determine what kind of person he/she is by the type of language he/she uses….I guess their choice of words?.... I would like to learn things from people whom I can respect. If they offend people with their words (not their view), I question their quality as a human being. That kind of thing would probably affect my motivation in a classroom. I haven't experienced any personally, but have heard extreme cases from others who attended a different university, not BLANK UNIVERSITY….coincidentally they went to the same university.

When asked if ISL affects her willingness to seek clarification, Participant 289 stated:

Yes….I don't like to speak in front of other people in the first place, so an instructor's bad mouth would stress me even more. Also, I would like to think through before I open my mouth and ask something… so if I ask, it would be during a break or after the class. But the most comfortable way for me would be by email in that kind of situation.

5.6.1.1.5　Multiple Definitions

Participant 460 defined ISL in three ways: Ambiguity of meaning, poor English skills, and speech speed.

Participant 460:

Yes, when they speak vague or their English is poor or they speak slowly class will be boring. Sometimes I fall asleep when they are speaking slowly.

At the same time, these elements do not affect her willingness to seek clarification. Participant 460 said, "Not really. Because even if their English is poor it is still understandable."

5.6.1.1.6　Purpose

Participant 517 defined ISL as the instructor's harsh criticism. She stated:

Yes, an instructor's spoken language could lead me to becoming demotivated – and, after looking over a list of all of the classes I've taken at the graduate level, one has come to mind where that did, in fact, happen. While learning isn't always an enjoyable experience, there is no reason for a student to end up feeling less than who he or she is

because of the instructor's words. And even if the professor is directing those words at another student, everyone else is sitting there, thinking, "But for the grace of God go I."

When asked if ISL affected her willingness to seek clarification, **Participant 517** stated:

> Yes, I would say so. In thinking over this question, I recall a face-to-face class where the professor belittled a couple of classmates during our class time and also in their absence because they didn't participate in some after-class activities. This particular class had several "immersion" type activities…it was understood going in that there would be some off-hour activities we would all be expected to attend. I was surprised that this professor, whom I had long admired, made numerous snarky, mean-spirited remarks when these two classmates opted out of several of those activities. I had no idea there was this streak of meanness within him. I didn't know how to defend my classmates. Actually they took care of themselves quite well and ignored him. I know I didn't want him to turn his mean-spirited remarks loose on me. I ended up losing a lot of interest I had in the subject; my desire to throw my heart and soul into it lessened as I didn't know how to respond to his behavior. While I learned from the class, I could have learned more if I hadn't been witness to such negativity directed at students. It cost me my desire to take any other classes with him; I went out of my way to find another professor to work with in another department for a follow-up class.

Participant 124 defined ISL as the instructor's willingness to answer questions. He didn't

see the ISL as a factor, *As long as the focus in the course is on the course material, the instructor*

spoken language doesn't demotivate me. When asked if ISL would have an effect on his

willingness to seek information, Participant 124 stated:

> If the instructor is negative toward asking questions, it may affect my willingness to ask questions. I can't recall any personal experience when an instructor was directly negative toward me asking questions. The only exception to this is if the instructor is obviously dealing with limited remaining course time and needs to cover some important points.

Participant 998 defined ISL as the instructor's responses to student work and discussions.

> In my opinion, instructor's spoken language in the classroom is important and can neither motivate students to learn nor demotivate them. In [one] class, the professor always gave unclear explanation and instruction for assignments. That made me feel that I could not fully understand the objective of some assignments and what the professor expected student to learn from the assignments. I felt frustrated and that feeling demotivated me to participate…. The other situation…I think the course is "NAME OF COURSE." I turned in the mid-term papers and got a very bad grade and comment from the TA in that class. I can remember that comment since it made me too upset. The TA said "your paper is not a PhD level paper". It embarrassed me. I hate that course as well as the TA….But his comment did motivate me to work hard and I promised to myself that I have to get A for

that course. If this happened to me when I was in undergraduate level, I might go ahead and drop off from that course. I would say that every coin has two sides. That why I think that instructor's spoken language in the classroom can lead to both positive (motivate) and negative (demotivate) events.

When asked if it affected her willingness to seek information, Participant 998 replied:

Yes, it has an effect on my willingness to seek clarification in class. If the instructor uses inappropriate language (spoken and written), it makes me feel uncomfortable to ask for clarification since I afraid that they may not want to answer or give some suggestion. However, I see a positive side from this situation. This situation leads me to become more independent learner, particularly when studying in graduate levels (both Master and PhD) and it is more important. Sometime when I was afraid to ask questions and overwhelmed with instructors in some classes, I decided to go to class and get some idea from their lecture and discussion. Then I seek for information on those topics by myself later and ask some clarification from classmates that I was on the right track. For example, in the COURSE and COURSE with PROFESSOR ….I always asked clarification and checked with MY CLASSMATES. I did the same thing when I took the COURSE and COURSE from DEPARTMENT.

5.6.2 Source of Instructor Expectations

The question regarding where students gain their expectations of their instructors came from the initial interview with Participant 931. During this interview, it became apparent that his expectations of his instructors came from people around him. Participant 931 stated:

I think it's worth considering where the expectations come from as well….As far as . . . okay, I can still say this is that I think it where you get the information affects it because when I have my friends telling me what they think the class is going to be like and when I have [my advisor] telling me, "okay. The class is going to be challenging. So you should probably arrange your schedule in this particular way." Cause I had that for [subject] where everyone's telling me, "This is a real hard class." Everyone who has gone through it. And then talking to [my advisor], "well we should probably set up where you have [name of course] as a buffer to have more time for this class." And so kinda going into it with that expectation of "this is going to be really challenging." And then it was pretty challenging. I think perhaps partly because of the professor. But I think where those expectations come from can affect whether I'm more or less frustrated. Because it's specifically because I have this authority figure telling me, "Look. This is going to be really hard. You need to prepare for this."….Well, that's where my information comes from. So because I can kind of generate why . . . cause the course descriptions don't tell you anything so all the information I have about other classes in the department are either going to come from other students or other professors or staff… I've never had advising

here, so it would come from other staff. So even in undergraduate, my advising came from my mentor professor but that's because we had a really small school.

From this exchange, the following questions were asked to all the participants regarding the genesis of their expectations of instructor behaviors.

5.6.2.1 Interview Question: Where do your expectations of instructor behavior come from? Why?

Three of the participants (546, 289, 998) defined where the actual instructor behavior comes from.

5.6.2.1.1 Experience

Participant 302:

Experience mostly. I have taken courses taught by very good instructors, and so I know what to expect from professors. I am also currently completing a teacher training program. That program has taught me a lot about student and instructor responsibilities. It has also taught me about how professors should behave and lead courses in order to improve on student engagement. Lastly, my expectations come from the expectations I have for myself. As a student teacher, I strive to treat every student I teach with respect and dignity, even when they ask obvious questions. I believe that I should be treated similarly when I am in the student role.

Participant 460: "Mostly my experience. Because it is [the instructor's] job and they are getting paid to teach something to students."

Participant 931:

I think part of it comes from how I have been taught over the years, and what I have found effective or not effective for me. For example, I expect instructors to check for student understanding, because I found that helpful to me and I appreciated it when instructors do that. Additionally, it is normal for me that professors dress professionally when the teach. I'm just always used to my instructors wearing a dress shirt and tie or a dress, and so if I have a professor who dresses more relaxed I'm usually a little more wary of what they actually know. I suspect this is just part of human nature. You find things that work for you and you discover norms and stick to them. If I was always taught that you are just supposed to copy down everything the professor says and regurgitate it

all the time, I would think that was normal and would feel weird about a professor who did not teach that way.

Participant 124:

In general, most people behaviors come from life experiences. It is akin to the oldest arguments in psychology which is Nature vs Nurture. I think life experiences, upbringing, bad courses taught, among other things, promoted that behavior in them. One important point is any bad behavior can be unlearned if they are willing to change.

Participant 517:

I would say my expectations of instructor behavior have just been built on through the years, from elementary school on up to now at the graduate level. I may be an older-than-average, late-in-life grad student but the kid in me still doesn't want the "mean teacher." I want a teacher that will challenge me but also be there to help me when I get into trouble with the material. Be fair. Show me how to improve my work and give me input. Seriously, give me input that will help me grow and learn. Have a game plan for teaching and what's going to happen in the classroom – especially if there are assignments to turn in. It makes me nervous when there's not a syllabus and I've no idea what's coming down the pike. So, in a nutshell, my expectations represent a composite of how the best teachers I've had behaved and presented themselves. I've been blessed to have had some really good instructors – I have high expectations for myself and I expect to be able to learn something from any professor I come across. I've not been in school at any stage of my academic career to goof off – and especially at this point in my graduate studies (and considering my age), I simply don't have the time or money to waste on less-than-stellar professors.

Participant 138:

If I am not acquainted with the instructor, the expectations come from the course they are offering and the expertise of the instructor on that topic – which I can gather from the papers published by them. If I am acquainted, the expectations come from my previous experience. If I want to learn something from the course, the instructor's expertise will certainly be an indicator of what I am going to get out of that course. If I have taken a course with the instructor before, I will have a good estimation of how much will they be able to deliver to me during that course.

5.7   Summary

This chapter provided the data results from the demographic survey and insights into the perceptions of the participants about the following: 1) expected instructor behavior, its sources,

and unmet behavior effects; 2) demotivating instructor behavior and their personal experiences;

3) the effect of demotivation on their information seeking behavior processes, as defined by

Kuhlthau, in the classroom. These findings are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between doctoral students'

information seeking behaviors and instructor demotivating behaviors as perceived by the

participants. The research data of this study was gathered using a demographic survey, an

Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey, and semi-structured face-to-face interviews and (10

participants) and follow-up email questions (9 participants). This chapter discusses this study's

findings. In addition, this chapter introduces findings that were out of the scope of this

dissertation's purpose and research questions; recommendations to instructors; and

recommendations for future research concerning student-perceived instructor demotivating

behaviors and student information seeking behaviors.

6.2   Speculations and Discussion

Because this study looked at a small group of participants (n=10) in terms of their

perceptions of instructor demotivating behaviors and how these perceptions affect their

information seeking behaviors in the classroom, the results of this study cannot be used to

generalize these populations. What these results can do is provide a starting place for other

studies to follow in terms of doctoral students' needs. While these results cannot be generalized,

speculations can be made about the individual participants based on their responses in this study.

6.3   Demographic Survey Results

Because the demographic survey results were very straightforward, they will not be

discussed separately in this chapter. Instead, the results of this survey will be discussed in connection to the Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey, the semi-structured interviews, and the follow-up questions.

One important aspect that the demographic survey introduced and the interviews expanded upon was the participants' home countries and its influence on their views of instructor demotivating behaviors. In particular, the participants from countries in Asia, such as Iran, Thailand, and India discussed the school systems of their countries in terms of demotivation. These participants felt that either the instructors in their home countries were specific to their schools. In reality, while the participants from other countries did express dissatisfaction with their instructors in a lot of ways, they did not place blame on their individual country's school systems. This is interesting because it does bring up the possibility that not only school environment can affect students' perceptions of their instructors and their own levels of demotivation, but it also establishes the link between culture and demotivation. Had two participants from different continents/countries had brought up the concept of their past education environment in their answers concerning instructor demotivating behaviors, then this pattern would not have been recognized so readily. This pattern of participants from Asian countries bringing up the same issue with their individual past education illustrates that different educational systems and environments can have a different, in terms of severity, effect on the individual.

6.4   Instructor Demotivating Behaviors Survey

Several insightful results came from the Instructor Demotivating Behaviors Survey. All of the participants (n=10) agreed on instructor behaviors in which the student-instructor relationship was important, as well as the instructor's expertise in a particular subject. These

participants didn't want to feel disrespected, unnecessary in the eyes of their instructors, or obviously hated by them, as well as instructors who didn't establish fair behavioral procedures. Respect, the feeling that someone cares, appreciation, behavioral boundaries, and equal treatment are three examples of the simple standards needed to establish and keep a relationship. Because the relationship between the doctoral student and their instructors is so important to create and nurture, it is not very surprising that all the participants agreed that these behaviors were demotivating. In addition, one of the five behaviors that all of the participants agreed upon can be categorized in having an effect on the participants'' academic success. The participants agreed that instructors who didn't know the subject they were teaching could make them feel unmotivated to learn the material. While the participants didn't expect their instructors to know everything about the content they were learning, they did expect their instructors to have a general idea of what they were teaching. This connects to the concept of respect. Several of the participants saw their instructors as leaders, and part of being a leader is having some idea of what is happening in order to direct others. The participants felt that if their instructors were unwilling to learn the concepts needed to teach them that they were better off learning by themselves.

The number of participants who found a specific instructor behavior demotivating goes down from there. The results become a list of demotivating instructor behaviors set apart by the number of participants in total who found them demotivating, so while it provides a direction of the behavior perceptions, it doesn't give anything more than that. These results can be seen in Tables 12-16 in Chapter 5. The results that were more telling occurred when the Demographic Survey and the Demotivating Instructor Behaviors results were compared.

6.5   Participant Demographic Survey and Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey Parallel Results

The first subgroup was divided into females and males. In the highest perceived instructor demotivating behaviors category, the male participants found 19 behaviors demotivating, while the female participants found 15. The amount of behaviors perceived to be highly demotivating is not much different between the groups, but what it is interesting is the type of instructor behaviors each group found demotivating. For example, the female participants reported more instructor behaviors that dealt with relationship development, such as displayed emotional stability and tried to intimidate students with anger, to be highly demotivating, and the male participants reported behaviors that would affect academic success, such as unrealistic expectations of students and was unprepared for the class session, to be highly demotivating. This could be because of the different expectations the two groups have of their instructors and their respective doctoral programs. In addition, societal expectations of gender roles could provide some insight into the participants' answers. In general terms, women are said to be focused more on relationships, while men are said to be more focused on end products. Again, the results of this study cannot be used to generalize given the sample size, but this finding could be utilized as a first step towards discovering if society standards of gender roles influence students' expectations of their instructors and their academic programs.

A comparison between these groups was also done to determine which behaviors the female and male participants found to be the least demotivating. The female participants did not find an instructor's movement in the classroom to be at all demotivating. They showed no concern whether the instructor stood in one place or walked around the room during class discussions. Proximity and/or movement did not register with this group. The male participants were not concerned with an instructor's display of empathy or sympathy towards students and

they did not have a problem with an instructor using micro-managing tactics, such as monitoring student work too closely. An explanation for these findings could again be explained by the gender standards in society. Based on what the female participants found to be highly demotivating, their focus was on establishing a cordial relationship with their instructors. While proximity can be used to establish familiarity between an instructor and students in the classroom, it is not always necessary in terms of establishing a healthy instructor-student relationship. In this case, the male participants' response illustrates the idea that they were not affected by the instructor's ability to show sympathy towards students or whether the instructor hovered over students. This could be explained in terms of goal-reaching. If a goal is to be accomplished, obstacles such as emotions and personalities, while inconvenient, are not perceived to be important if the goal, in this case academic success, is not obstructed.

When the commonly perceived instructor demotivating behaviors was analyzed between these two groups, it was found that when analyzed together, the results include a mixture of relationship-establishment and goal-setting. Both groups want their instructors to be respectful and care about them as students, but at the same time, they also want their instructors to put effort into their teachings with such behaviors as punctuality and subject knowledge.

The next subgroup was international students and American students. In the Instructor Demotivating Behavior Survey, the international participants found 22 behaviors to be highly demotivating, while the American participants found 11. Sixteen out of the 22 behaviors chosen by the international students to be highly demotivating focused more on the instructor's ability to teach a class, while six of the behaviors focused on the instructor's personality. For the American participants, four out of the 11 behaviors focused on the instructor's ability to teach a class, and seven focused on the instructor's personality. In the lowest perceived instructor demotivating

behaviors category, the international participants didn't think an instructor's movement around the classroom to be demotivating, and the American participants did not find concerns associated with academic success, such as a real-world application of the course material, the inclusion of supplemental materials, or the use of negative feedback. When bringing the two groups together for analysis, it was found that both groups wanted to be respected by their instructors, expected the instructor to be fair, and knowledgeable about the subject taught.

Another subgroup that was analyzed was computer science and information science students. In the highly perceived instructor demotivating behaviors, computer science students found 19 behaviors to be demotivating, and the information science students found 15. Computer science students were more concerned with the instructor's personality when compared to information science students. Instructor behaviors, such as negative personalities, intellectual incompetence, use of intimidation tactics, and making snarky remarks, bothered the computer science students. The information science students focused more on the instructor's behavior in terms of their own academic success. For example, the information science students felt highly demotivated if the instructor didn't explain directions clearly, forgot assignment due dates on a consistent basis, and refused to provide sufficient explanation for grades. One reason why the computer science participants focused more on instructor personality than the information science students is because all the classes taken by computer science students occur face to face in a classroom. The classes for the information science students use the hybrid method of face-to-face and online classes. Thus, computer science students spend more time with their instructors as compared to information science students. Both computer science and information science students found behaviors that represented the instructor's personality and teaching

competence to be demotivating. Again, these groups want an instructor to be respectful, knowledgeable, and fair.

The next groups analyzed were participants ages 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, and 50 and older. Two categories of focus were the instructor behaviors the participants thought were highly demotivating and not at all demotivating. The participants who were between the ages of 20 and 29 (n=5) found 15 out of the 80 (18.75%) of the instructor behaviors to be demotivating. These behaviors focused on both the instructor's personality and ability to teach a course. Participants between the ages of 30 to 39 (n=1) found 65 out of the 80 (78%) instructor behaviors to be demotivating. The instructor behaviors chosen by the participant in this group focused more on instructor's personality than an instructor's ability to teach. The behaviors chosen included didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support for students, didn't praise student behaviors, and didn't display empathy or sympathy for students. Participants between the ages of 40 to 49 (n=3) found 35 of the 80 (41.17%) instructor behaviors to be demotivating. Like the participant in the 30-39 age group, the participants in the 40-49 age group focused on the instructor's personality than they did on the instructor's ability to teach. These behaviors included didn't give students positive feedback when they shared good ideas during class discussion, didn't seem to enjoy teaching, and overly critical of student questions/discussions. Participants who were 50 and older (n=1) found 30 out of the 80 instructor behaviors to be highly demotivating. Like the participants in age groups 30-39 and 40-49, the participant in this group focused more on an instructor's personality than the instructor's teaching ability. In all fairness, the participants in age groups 30-39 and 50 and older each had one participant to represent that age group when compared to the other groups, so it would not be fair to state that these findings represent all students in these age groups. But, at the same time, one explanation that can be provided as to why the participants

between the ages of 20-29 were able to focus on both instructor personality and instructor teaching ability is because they have had taken less classes than other participants in this study, thus have had less time to observe and at times be demotivated by instructor behaviors. While this may seem like a long shot, two participants in the 20-29 age group participated in the five-year doctoral program, in which they had the choice to bypass a master's degree, and one of the participants in the 40-49 age group earned two master's degrees after dropping out of a doctoral program. All of the participants are doctoral students, but they also have come into their respective doctoral program with different levels of experience. As a result, it makes sense that the younger participants in this study would be idealistic in their expectations of their instructors, while the older participants would value the student-instructor relationship more.

When evaluating the age group categories in terms of the lowest perceive instructor demotivating behaviors, the participants between 20-29 found two out of the 80 (2.5%) behaviors not demotivating; they included the instructor's inability to show sympathy towards students and an instructor's use of student micromanaging. The participants in between the ages of 30 to 39 found 16 of the 80 (20%) behaviors to not be demotivating. They included an instructor's use of curse words, verbal aggression, and eye contact. The participants in the 40-49 age group found four of the 80 (5%) behaviors to not be demotivating. They included the instructor's location during lecture/class discussion, graded assignment turnaround, and use of negative feedback. The participant who was 50 and older found 49 of the 80 (61.25%) behaviors to not be demotivating. These included a mixture of behaviors focused on instructor personality and teaching ability. They included an instructor's failure to keep up with the established schedule, presentation of unclear directions, and lack of preparation for the class session. Unlike the pattern established with the age groups concerning their perceptions of the most demotivating

instructor behaviors, the results in this category did not create a clear pattern with all of the groups. Because age groups 30-39 and 50 and older only had one participant in each group, their results were a bit higher than the other groups. There were no other participants in these two age groups to add more insight into what would be considered the least demotivating instructor behaviors. At the same time, this does not invalidate these two participants' perspectives. The participant in age group 30-39 found instructor personality to be the least demotivating behavior factor, and the participant who was in the 50 and older age group, found a mixture of these two behavioral factors to not be important to demotivation levels. Despite the age of the participant, all groups found elements of instructor personality to be unimportant to their demotivation levels.

The final group analyzed were the doctoral candidates and doctoral students. Doctoral candidates perceived 18 out of the 80 instructor behaviors to be highly demotivating, while doctoral students perceived 15. Both groups found instructor personality and teaching ability to highly influence demotivation. In the category of least demotivating instructor behaviors, doctoral candidates perceived two out of 80 behaviors to be demotivating, and the doctoral students perceived one out of the 80 behaviors to be demotivating. Both groups found aspects of an instructor personality to be the least demotivating. Both groups found behaviors that included instructor personality and instructor teaching ability to be equally demotivating. While they did have these behaviors in common, most of the behaviors the two groups perceived as highly demotivating concentrated on the instructor personality. Again, experience does come into play when comparing these groups in terms of what they find highly demotivating and not demotivating.

For an instructor to please these 10 participants, said instructor would need to be

emotionally approachable and available while being respectful and knowledgeable about the

subject taught. While this may be very reasonable expectations on the part of the student,

expecting an instructor to fulfill the expectations of each and every one of their students may be

a bit unrealistic without the help of findings like those reported in this study, and training in these

areas.

6.6   Results According to the Research Questions

Four research questions provided a framework for this study:

1. What behaviors do doctoral students expect from their instructors?

    a. Where do these expectations come from?

    b. How do doctoral students feel when their expectations of instructor behaviors
        are not met?

2. What instructor classroom behaviors do doctoral students perceive to be
    demotivating?

3. To what extent do instructor demotivating behaviors affect doctoral students'
    willingness to seek information from their instructors?

4. How does Kuhlthau's information search process (ISP) model help to explain the
    relationship between student-perceived instructor demotivating behaviors and student
    information seeking behaviors in a classroom setting?

5.

6.6.1   Participants' Instructor Behavior Expectations, Their Origins, and Emotional
        Consequences

The first research question is: What behaviors do doctoral students expect from their

instructors? Where do these expectations come from? How do doctoral students feel when their

expectations of instructor behaviors are not met?

215

All 10 participants had established expectations of instructor behavior, but the sources of these expectations and the effects when their expectations were unfulfilled were different. All in all, the participants expected their instructors to be approachable, knowledgeable about the content, and humble when it came to answering questions. These expectations came from their own experiences as students, which for most of them had been a long time. During this time, they were able to decide what they liked and didn't like about a professor's behavior. Their feelings again differed when they felt their expectations were not being met. Overall, the participants felt the predictable anger and resentment if an instructor did not believe in a way they felt was appropriate, which led many of the participants to report that they would do everything short of dropping the course.

6.6.2   Participant-Perceived Demotivating Instructor Behaviors

The second research question is: What instructor classroom behaviors do doctoral students perceive to be demotivating?

From the results of the Demotivating Instructor Behavior Survey and the interviews, it is obvious that these 10 participants found several instructor behaviors to be demotivating. All 10 participants felt demotivated when their instructors did not give them validation in the form of feedback, and did not respect the students. A common theme of all their experiences was that they felt the instructor did not respect them as students. These experiences left them frightened and scared from these experiences. From these scars resulted a type of defense mechanisms in the form of avoiding asking questions in class (Participants 198 and 998), an ill feeling towards a certain professor (Participants 546, 517, 789, and 302), and carrying resentment for an

216

instructor's actions (Participant 931). Most of the experiences shared by the participants still

influenced how they, as students, behaved in the class.

6.6.3 The Effect of Participant-Perceived Demotivating Behaviors on Participant Information Seeking Behaviors

The third research question is: To what extent do instructor demotivating behaviors affect

doctoral students' willingness to seek information from their instructors?

From these 10 participants, eight reported that they would not seek information from an

instructor if he/she displayed demotivating behaviors. Instead, they would turn to either their

classmates and/or technology in the form of the Internet. The two participants who reported that

the instructor's behavior had no bearing on their willingness to seek information from the

instructor seemed to do so in spite of the instructor's attitude because they believed since the

instructor was getting paid to help students, then they should fulfill their job title.

6.7 Kuhlthau's Information Search Process (ISP) Model Revisited

The fourth research question is: How does Kuhlthau's information search process (ISP)

model help to explain the relationship between student-perceived instructor demotivating

behaviors and student information seeking behaviors in a classroom setting?

As stated in Chapter 2, Kuhlthau's ISP model examines people's perceptions and the

personal meaning assigned while they seek information through their cognitive, affective, and

physical processes. Through this journey, the information seeker goes through stages (initiation,

selection, exploration, formulation, collection, and presentation) and at each stage, their

cognitive, affective, and physical realms are activated as they work through the process of

finding information. For this study, the participants were asked to focus on the cognitive,

affective, and physical realms in the initiation stage. The initiation stage occurs "when a person first becomes aware of a lack of knowledge or understanding" (Kuhlthau, 1991, p. 366).

6.7.1   Initiation-Cognitive Realm

In this realm, all of the 10 participants had some type of plan upon the realization of a knowledge gap. Participant 998 related what she had learned before to the new knowledge she did not understand; Participants 289, 931, 124,302,302, 138, and 546 knew they needed to either go to an online source or review course materials; and Participants 289 and 517 immediately thought to ask the instructor for clarification. None of the participants reported a thought of indecision upon the realization that they did not know/understand a concept taught by the instructor. Instead, all of the participants expressed proactive plans to fill in their knowledge gaps. This finding should not be surprising considering that one of the expected outcomes of a doctoral program is to produce effective and efficient researchers. At this level of higher education, students in a doctoral program are expected to have the ability to seek, evaluate, and present information independently to work towards their writing of a dissertation. All of the participants in this study are/or will be fully engaged in the dissertation process, so the finding that they know immediately what to do when they don't understand something was an expected finding.

An interesting finding, as reported in Chapter 5, is that some of the participants had difficulty distinguishing between their thought process and their future physical action when faced with an information gap. Several of the participants answered the interview question pertaining to this research question in terms of what actions they would take to close the information gap. These actions included asking questions to either classmates or the instructor,

looking over course materials, such as textbooks and readings, or search the Internet. This finding could suggest that when the participants do not understand something in class, they don't think of this occurrence as a moment to collect their thoughts, but they see it as a time to develop a game plan to close the gap. The main goal, as shown through the testimony of the participants, is to close the gap as soon as possible so that they are able to go to the next step of learning. In order to speed this process along, the participants forwent their own thought processes and immediately sprang into action because action is the only way to find the solution to close to gap.

6.7.2   Initiation-Affective Realm

Unlike the cognitive realm in the initiation stage where all of the participants seemed to have a plan when confronted with a knowledge gap, the feelings attributed to this realization varied between the participants. Again, this is not an unexpected finding considering the cultural and age diversity represented by these participants. Sixty percent (60%) of the participants were labeled by the university they attended as international students. This is significant because culture does play a part in how people learn and feel about learning.

When faced with the realization of the knowledge gap, Participant 541 felt demotivated, while Participant 124 felt it was a part of learning. Participant 517 felt that this would be the opportunity for her information seeking abilities, while Participant 302 initially felt stressed out and overwhelmed. These examples make sense because they are influenced by the individual personality. While it might be common for these participants to have created a plan/process in seeking information, their feelings towards the realization that they don't know/understand a concept will be different because they are humans and humans react differently to their own shortcomings based on their individual life experiences.

6.7.3 Initiation-Physical Realm

In the physical realm, the participants were more comfortable due to their goals of filling in their own information gaps. Again, all the participants had a plan in mind to help them achieve this goal. Most of the participants used social means to acquire an answer through either asking the instructor or a classmate a question. The preferred source of information was the instructor because the participants felt that he/she would have the most knowledge to answer the question. In contrast, Participants 546 and 302 did not rely or look to the instructor for help. Instead, both participants relied on their own information seeking abilities to help themselves. Due to his history of teaching, Participant 546 saw himself as a reliable source to fill in his information gap. For Participant 302, using technology allowed her not to have to deal with human characteristics and error. For her, the information control and information speed of the online library catalog allowed her the freedom to not have to wait for a reply email and to establish her information independence.

Using this information holistically, Kuhlthau's ISP model can help explain the relationship between student information seeking behaviors and instructor demotivating in terms of trust. Most of the participants in this study saw the instructor as the first option in their information search in the Initiation stage. If students find an instructor's behavior demotivating, for the most part, said instructor could no longer be considered a viable source due to the student not wanting to deal with the instructor's attitude and behavior. At the Initiation stage, there is a source gap because the instructor is no longer a viable information option. As a result, with an uncertainty of a reliable information source, the "uncertainty and apprehension" that Kuhlthau (1991) discusses occurs in the initiation stage may take over and the information gap may never be closed (p. 366).

6.8   A Comparison with Christophel and Gorham

Since Christophel and Gorham (1992) served as a catalyst for this study, the following section compares the results of their studies and the results of this study.

In the first comparison, the Christophel and Gorham (1992) study had over 200 participants, while this study had 10 participants. The elements that will be compared in this section will be what the participants found to be demotivating regardless of the sample size. One of the most frequently reported demotivating instructor behaviors were boring teacher personality, lack of instructor clarification, unfair grading policies and assessments, and the instructor's physical appearance. In comparing their study and this study, a common demotivating instructor behavior was an instructor's use of unfair grading policies and assessments. All of the other findings in Gorham and Christophel (1992) were not found.

The reason for this could be the differences in age and academic experience between the two groups. The doctoral participants of this study have experienced at least six years of higher education, which would then imply that they have had more experiences with instructors and may have experienced more varied instructor behaviors, while the participants in Christophel and Gorham (1992) were comprised of undergraduates from varying levels. Less than half of these undergraduates had a declared major.

The factor of direction and discipline in terms of selecting an academic major could explain the difference in the results. The doctoral students in this study had already chosen a specific field to study, while the undergraduates in Gorham and Christophel (1992) had plenty of time based on her academic level status to work through that decision. By the time students enter the doctoral level, they should have worked through an undergraduate and graduate degree. The earning of these two degrees becomes the foundation of what students' study in their doctoral

programs because academic programs, such as psychology, computer science, mathematics, journalism, etc. require students to have a background in the subject in terms of diplomas in order to pursue a doctoral degree in that field. To say that doctoral students are ready and experience in their field is true, but this is not the same for undergraduates.

6.9   Recommendations for Future Research

6.9.1   Larger Sample Size

Studies in which the goal is to establish generalizability should work with a larger sample size. Not only could the findings be generalized in a larger population, but it would be interesting to see if a more robust population would be different from the findings of this study. In addition, a larger sample size would allow the opportunity to include doctoral students from various departments, academic backgrounds, cultures, etc., as well as establish a comparison between the genders and different age groups.

6.9.2   Student Demotivating Behaviors

While this study focused on the perceptions and information seeking behaviors in the arena of instructor demotivating behaviors, an important future study that would need to be completed is the perceptions and information sharing behaviors of instructors in the area of student demotivating behaviors. The same research questions could be used by simply reversing the role of the students and the instructors. For example, what behaviors do instructors expect from their students? Where do these expectations come from? How do instructors feel when their expectations of student behaviors are not met? By focusing on the instructors in future research, we can gain a better understanding of the full teacher-student relationship. Again, this study was

only meant to examine the perceptions of students as a starting point. Research concerning faculty must be completed to not only give both sides a voice, but to also identify where the disconnect between the two parties exist.

6.9.3 The Impact of Culture on a Student's Information Seeking Behaviors and Expectations of Instructor Behaviors

Two participants from this study reported feeling a difference between their home country's teaching techniques and those techniques used in the United States. As an American student who has never studied abroad, I have not experienced this phenomenon. For future research, I would suggest that a study include students from different countries to determine the effect of culture on their information seeking behaviors and their perceptions of instructor demotivating behaviors. In addition, the study should investigate their expectations of instructor's behaviors. This comes from the finding in this study that instructors are seen as all knowing entities and student-led instruction is not a common. These expectations and perceptions are an important avenue to explore because the international student population studying in the United States has risen considerably in the last decade. More and more students from other countries are coming to America to earn their degrees. In order to be able to accommodate their learning needs, instructors need to be familiar with how their cultures affect their perceptions and information seeking behaviors.

6.10 Conclusions: The Instructor-Student Relationship

Through conducting this study, I have found that the participants felt a great sense of responsibility for their own education, and a great respect for the position of the instructor. The feelings of demotivation they shared with me were not innate, but rather they were gained

through experience. A somewhat unfortunate aspect of this study was realizing that most of the participants who had experienced what they perceived to be demotivating instructor behavior held on to those negative feelings. As a result, they did not allow themselves certain freedoms because they were terrified of the return of the demotivating instructor behavior. This fear, unfortunately, will probably not leave them, and the memories of the incidents have become a part of who they are as students, and one could predict, who they become as scholars. It is a part of human nature to hold on to the negative as a form of survival, but it is also a part of human nature to grow in our situations and expect better. It could also teach students what not to do as they grow into professors and scholars.

While the words of the participants as presented in Chapter 5 may seem harsh and anti-instructor, the truth is that each participant in this study bore great respect for their instructors and for the position and leadership such a role represents. As doctoral students, the participants shared the understanding and the experience that instructors make mistakes and have as much a right as anyone to have a bad day. From my interactions with these participants, the one aspect that seemed to tie every one of them together is their need to be accepted, in some form or another, by their instructors. It didn't matter if this acceptance came from feedback (positive or negative), evaluations of their assessments, or simply recognizing that they were in the class. What each participant seemed to want was validation from their instructors. If their words come across as angry or resentful towards instructors as a group, they were not. The exact opposite is true: These participants, regardless of their experiences, still sought validation in some form from their instructors. They still believed in the importance of the student-teacher relationship. The fact that this belief in this relationship still exists in the sometimes harsh and sometimes very unforgiving world of academia is refreshing and hopefully, this hope never disappears.

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

PARTICIPANT GENDER: M   F

1. How old are you?

AGES	
20-24	
25-29	
30-34	
35-39	
40-44	
45-49	
50+	

2. What stage are you at your PhD program?

STAGES	
>1st year	
1st year	
2nd year	
3rd year	
4th year	
5th year	
ABD	

3. What is the highest degree you have obtained so far?

4. What is the best way to contact you for a follow-up meeting?

APPENDIX B

DEMOTIVATING INSTRUCTOR BEHAVIOR SURVEY

Instructions: Read through the following list of instructor demotivating behaviors. Put an X by any instructor behaviors **YOU** find to be demotivating. It is understood that everyone can have a bad day. **The purpose of this survey is to find out which consistent instructor behaviors you find demotivating**. If you have any questions or need clarification, please feel free to ask.

Acted unfriendly	
Appeared to be nervous or lacked confidence	
Appeared to be oblivious to student needs or behaviors	
Applied unfair grading policies	
Attempted to humiliate students	
Avoided answering questions	
Became impatient when students asked questions	
Created assignments that were too difficult or too simple	
Delivered vague and confusing lectures	
Demonstrated ineffective or improper teaching methods	
Displayed emotional instability	
Disrespected students	
Doesn't actively engage students in the lesson	
Didn't care if students pay attention to lectures	
Didn't check for student understanding	
Didn't connect lectures to assignments and exams	
Didn't connect material to student's lives	
Didn't display empathy or sympathy	
Didn't encourage class discussion/questions	
Didn't give students positive feedback when they share good ideas during class discussion	
Didn't have a sense of humor	
Didn't organize the class session effectively	
Didn't praise student behavior	

Didn't provide a lesson agenda before each class	
Didn't provide emotional or interpersonal support to students	
Didn't provide learning examples	
Didn't provide students with behavior boundaries	
Didn't provide students with enough time to finish assignments/exams	
Didn't provide students with helpful handouts and/or teaching aids (ex: extra reading materials)	
Didn't provide students with information about how to complete a task or assignment	
Didn't review material for exams	
Didn't seem to enjoy teaching	
Didn't seem to care about the course or the students	
Didn't show up to class	
Didn't smile	
Didn't stress important concepts during lectures	
Didn't try to create a teaching environment that is conducive to student learning	
Didn't try to make the course interesting for students	
Didn't use eye contact	
Didn't use visual aids	
Failed to keep up with the established schedule	
Favored certain students	
Forgot due dates on a consistent basis	
Forgot students' names on a consistent basis or doesn't bother to learn student names	
Give lectures that do not allow students to take notes easily	
Had an overall negative personality	
Had an unenthusiastic attitude	
Had unrealistic expectations of students	
Lacked creativity	

Lacked passion for the subject taught	
Made no attempt to engage with students on a personal level	
Made sarcastic/snarky remarks	
Made the course too easy	
Monitored student work too closely	
Not willing to help students who had difficulty understanding the material	
Often late to class	
Overly critical of student questions/discussions	
Practiced unfair classroom behavior procedures/processes	
Presented lectures that didn't follow the protocol described in the syllabus	
Presented unclear directions/expectations	
Provided negative feedback	
Provided no feedback	
Provided vague feedback	
Refused to answer student questions	
Refused to meet with students outside of class	
Refused to provide sufficient explanation of grades	
Seemed intellectually incompetent	
Showed no concern for student achievement or progress	
Showed no concern for student participation	
Showed open contempt (either verbally or physically) towards students	
Stood in one place during lecture/class discussions	
Took a long time to return graded assignments	
Tried to intimidate students using anger	
Used chauvinistic or sexist language/remarks	
Used profanity/curse words	
Used subject knowledge to be condescending or to point out how much the students did not know	

Was overcritical of students	
Was unprepared for the class session	
Was verbally aggressive	
Wasn't knowledgeable about the subject taught	

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