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UNDERSTANDING THE DEVELOPMENT

OF LEGITIMATE TEACHER AUTHORITY THROUGH

THE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

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UNDERSTANDING THE DEVELOPMENT
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THE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family: my husband Scott Roberson and my sons,

Buck Roberson and Dakota Roberson. Without their love, support, cooperation, and

understanding, I do not believe that I would have attempted this, much less finished it.

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Abstract

Focusing on the relational elements of care, respect, and trust, this sequential qualitative study examined teacher authority development through the development of the teacher-student relationship. Teacher effectiveness was also investigated in relation to legitimate teacher authority and laissez-faire teacher authority. A model was produced which illustrates how teacher effectiveness is gained through the development of legitimate teacher authority via the teacher-student relationship. The model, which was originally based on current theory from the literature, was supported by the findings of the study. Study participants, who were from the same school district, included 20 anonymous high school English students and 15 teachers from across the district. Among the teachers were 13 females and two males whose ages ranged from 24 to 59 years; all were Caucasian. Data included essays on effective and ineffective teachers collected from the students, and observations and semi-structured interviews conducted with the teachers.

Student essays were used to create a teacher observation form which identified effective and ineffective teacher behaviors; this form was used to analyze the teacher observations and identify the most and least effective teachers. Observational and interview data were used to classify each teacher as either a legitimate or laissez-faire authority; these data were then analyzed to describe how legitimate teacher authority develops and how authority affects teacher effectiveness in the classroom.

Based on authority type, the teacher observation and interview data were analyzed to describe how those teachers classified as legitimate authorities develop authority as they interact with their students. Using multiple forms of consistent care

and respect via their teacher-student relationships, these teachers develop trust with their students; trust which is embodied as student cooperation in the classroom. By cooperating with the teacher, students allow the teacher to have authority and legitimize it through continued cooperation. Teacher care included learning about students as individuals and meeting students' needs. Teacher respect included: treating students as individuals, recognizing their worth, allowing them to have autonomy, and fairness in the treatment of students in relation to each other.

Based on both teacher effectiveness and teacher authority type, the teacher observation and interview data were analyzed to describe how teacher authority type affects teacher effectiveness in the classroom. The most effective teachers were found to be strong legitimate authorities while the least effective teachers were found to have either weak legitimate authority or laissez-faire authority. Students of the most effective teachers were the most cooperative and appeared to be self-regulated in the classroom. Students of the least effective teachers were the least cooperative; they regularly ignored or argued with the teacher, requiring the least effective teachers to exert their authority many times during their observations to gain student cooperation.

This study holds many theoretical implications. It provides a model describing the development of legitimate teacher authority and teacher effectiveness through the teacher-student relationship, adds to the literature on teacher socialization of students, and describes major differences between effective and ineffective teachers. This study holds practical implications for the training and evaluation of preservice and in-service teachers. It also holds practical implications for parenting in that it describes the development of legitimate authority from the perspectives of teens and adults.

Chapter 1: Introduction

In today's high-stakes testing climate, where teacher effectiveness is regularly assessed using the measureable standards at hand, effective teaching has become narrowly defined as "a teacher's ability to improve student learning as measured by student gains on standardized achievement tests" (Little, Goe, & Bell, 2009, p. 1). This narrowed definition is supported by specific research findings in that: 1) test scores have been shown to be an indicator of student achievement (Little et al., 2009; Rockoff, 2004), 2) test scores have been positively correlated with students' later achievement (Leigh, 2010; Rockoff, 2004), and 3) overall, teachers have been shown to "account for about 30% of the variance" in student achievement (Hattie, 2002, p. 3). Test scores, however, do not account for other student outcomes which are highly desired in today's society (Campbell, Kyriakides, Muijs, & Robinson, 2003).

Research has found that many of these "other" student outcomes are often correlated with effective teachers, outcomes such as: lower rates of teen pregnancy, higher rates of students who attend and complete college, and higher rates of prosocial development among students (Campbell et al., 2003; Chetty, Friedman, & Rockoff, 2011; Davis, 2003; Hanushek, Kain, O'Brien, & Rivkin, 2004; Hattie, 2002, 2009; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008). Student outcomes like these, which extend far beyond test scores, are highly desired by society because they represent long-term affective, behavioral, economic, and social gains which are necessary for the advancement of society (Campbell et al., 2003; Chetty et al., 2011; Cornelius-White, 2007; Jensen, 2010; Little et al., 2009; Malm & Löfgren, 2006; Noddings, 2005; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011; Wentzel, 2003, 2004, 2010; Wentzel & Looney, 2007).

With student outcomes such as these in mind, one group of researchers has defined teacher effectiveness, as "the power to realize socially valued objectives agreed for teachers' work, especially, but not exclusively, the work concerned with enabling pupils to learn" (Campbell et al., 2003, p. 354). This definition of teacher effectiveness is much broader and perhaps more realistic than the current focus on test scores, for society still expects teachers to help students develop into adults that will contribute to the future success of society (Davis, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Malm & Löfgren, 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007).

This societal expectation of teachers is not new. Society has always expected teachers to play an important role in the development of students, for it has always been commonly understood that children need the guidance of adults as they grow and develop (Simon, 1994). The common law concept of *in loco parentis,* literally translated "in the place of the parent," encompasses this idea; in that teachers, having been entrusted with the academic, social, and moral development of students, are to act in the place of the parent while the student is at school (Jackson, 1991; Simon, 1994).

Returning to the broader definition of effective teaching, the phrase, "…the power to realize…" (Campbell et al., 2003, p. 354) highlights the idea that effective teachers hold power over what occurs in their classrooms – including student outcomes. This power is most likely derived from the authority that effective teachers have in their classrooms (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Kerssen-Griep, Gayle, & Preiss, 2006). In his study of urban teachers, Brown (2004) found that effective teachers have "the ability to develop a classroom social environment in which students agree to cooperate with teachers and fellow students in pursuit of academic excellence" (p. 268). Elliott (2009)

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described this in a slightly different way in that a teacher holds authority when students "accept its legitimacy and consent to do what is required of them" (p. 198). The terms, "cooperate" and "consent," are key to understanding how teacher authority relates to students and student outcomes. Authority is *given* to teachers by students and expressed as the students' consent and cooperation toward the goal of educational attainment (Brown, 2004; Elliott, 2009). Given this understanding, the question must be asked: if holding authority in the classroom is the key to teacher effectiveness, how do teachers go about *developing* that authority?

Statement of the Problem

Recently, in their review of social theories and qualitative studies pertaining to authority in the classroom, Pace and Hemmings (2007) described teacher authority as "a fundamental, problematic, and poorly understood component of classroom life" (p. 4). This clearly and succinctly describes the conundrum that teachers face in the classroom. While many teachers recognize that they need authority to succeed in the classroom, few seem to understand how to develop or maintain it. This lack of understanding on authority development is a relatively new phenomenon, for the need to *develop* authority in the classroom is a circumstance that has arisen in just the past 50 years or so (Pace & Hemmings, 2007).

Society expects teachers to function in a fashion similar to parents, by guiding the academic, social, and moral development of the students in their classrooms (Davis, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Malm & Löfgren, 2006). Recognizing that teachers *are not* the parents of their students, society has used the common law practice of *in loco parentis* to confer upon teachers the authority to act in place of the parent in the

classroom (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). This vested parental-type of authority is predicated upon two expectations of students: (1) they accept the teacher's instruction and (2) comply with the teacher's requests (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). For a long time, this traditional teacher authority was accepted by students with little question (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). In today's society, however, being endowed with this type of authority no longer means that a teacher automatically gains authority upon certification. This is the difference between *de jure* authority, authority in name only, and a *de facto* authority, authority that actually influences the thoughts and actions of others (Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

Researchers in the field of communications equate the type of influence over thoughts and actions that accompanies *de facto* authority with legitimate, referent, and expert forms of power (e.g., Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Berger, 1994; Kerssen-Griep et al., 2006; Roach, Richmond, & Mottet, 2006). They point out that even though the terms "power" and "authority" are often used interchangeably and are understood to be closely related, they are different constructs (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Berger, 1994). Authority is understood as the ability to influence another's thoughts and behaviors, while power is understood as the ability to control access to valued resources (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Berger, 1994). A mother who withholds her daughter's allowance until the daughter cleans her room uses authority with power; the mother has influenced her daughter to clean her room (i.e., authority) by withholding her daughter's allowance (i.e., power) which is a valued resource.

Today, parents and teachers strive for the same goal, namely the prosocial development of their children and students into well-adjusted adults. Even though they

strive for the same goal, there is a fundamental difference in the parents' and teachers' ability to affect this goal – especially as it pertains to children or students. That fundamental difference lies in the type of authority parents and teachers have, because the power and influence that any authority holds is in the eye of the beholder. The traditional de facto authority teachers once held, which was very much like parental authority in its automatic establishment and acceptance, no longer exists. The authority that today's teachers hold is often tenuous and regularly up for negotiation, especially at the start of the school year when students are most likely to be involuntary partners in the learning process (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Unlike parents, teachers do not have a long relational history with their students on which to base their authority. Teachers initiate relationships with their students on the first day of school, and the authority they start with is in name only (Horan, Houser, Goodboy, & Frymier, 2011; Myers & Martin, 2006). In order to have a good working relationship with their students, teachers must develop legitimate authority and develop it quickly (Horan et al., 2011; Myers & Martin, 2006; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). It is understood by many (e.g., Brubaker, 2009; Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; McLaughlin, 1991; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000) that teachers must negotiate and earn the authority they have in the classroom. This is based on the understanding that legitimate authority over another is given only so long as the other allows it (Brubaker, 2009; Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

De facto authority is considered by many to be *legitimate* authority (e.g., Harjunen, 2011; McLaughlin, 1991; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000) because those who are subject to the authority legitimate it by consenting to it. In

most instances, consent to authority is evidenced by compliance and cooperation with the authority (Brubaker, 2009; DeCremer & Tyler, 2007). Consent, however, is predicated upon the belief that the authority cares for and respects those in subjection and can be trusted to remain that way (Harjunen, 2011; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). A parent, whose child feels loved and accepted, has legitimate parental authority over that child; this is because the child believes the parent has the right to hold that power (Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). The child's trust or belief is based on the care and respect given by the parent and is evidenced by the child's acceptance, compliance, and cooperation with the parent's directions and guidance (Baumrind, 1971, 1973; Maccoby, 1992, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). *De facto* or legitimate authority, and the power it holds to influence those who subject themselves to it, *exists only in relationships* (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Berger, 1994; Brubaker, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Maccoby, 1992, 2007; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Parental authority is normally legitimate and unquestioned because the parent and child have shared a close loving relationship from the day the child was born; with the parent guiding the thoughts and actions of the child for as long as he or she can remember (Maccoby, 1992, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Teachers need to develop legitimate authority similar to that of parents, so their students will believe, accept, comply, and cooperate with them when they teach (Steutel & Spiecker, 2000); authority development, however, is complicated by the lack of relational history and the recognition that some students are involuntary partners in this hierarchical relationship (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Until a cooperative relationship is established and legitimate authority is given by students, the teacher holds little

influence over the thoughts or actions of the students (DeCremer & Tyler, 2007; Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Recognizing that (1) teachers need to develop legitimate authority in order to positively influence students and their related student outcomes and (2) that authority develops in relationships; this study will focus on how teachers develop legitimate authority through the development of cooperative teacher-student relationships (TSR).

Significance of the Study

In order to adequately address authority development in teacher-student relationships, research findings from the field of education have been used in conjunction with research findings from the field of instructional communication. Even though these two fields of study share a focus on instruction in the classroom and resulting student outcomes, seldom do studies originating in the field of education cite findings from the field of instructional communication (Nussbaum, 1992; Sprague, 1992, 2002). This is most likely the result of two limitations: (1) most instructional communication studies are conducted using primarily undergraduate students from communication classes (Finn et al., 2009; Nussbaum, 1992; Sprague, 2002) and (2) the concepts and language used by the field of instructional communication are not always uniformly understood within the field of instructional communication and can be unclear and confusing to those outside of it (Sprague, 2002).

Even with these limitations, instructional communication research and its specific focus on the dynamic between instructors and students brings an important perspective to this study. At the heart of all instructional communication research is the central understanding that instructional communication takes two basic forms:

rhetorical and relational communication (Finn et al., 2009; McCroskey, Valencic, & Richmond, 2004; Schrodt et al., 2009). Rhetorical communication describes the traditional, one-way transfer of factual information from teacher to student, while relational communication describes how meaning, and an appreciation for that meaning, and affect are constructed and shared in the relationship between teacher and student (Finn et al., 2009; McCroskey et al., 2004; Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Schrodt et al., 2009). Teachers communicate both rhetorically and relationally when teaching, and research has shown that the relational component involves affective learning that has an impact which gives valence to how students perceive both the instructor and what has been taught (Ellis, 2000; Mottet & Beebe, 2006). Given that legitimate authority is developed within relationships and is based on the students' perceptions of the teacher, it is very likely that legitimate authority is developed using relational communication. With that in mind, this study will focus on the ways teachers relationally communicate with their students through the teacher-student relationship.

Instructional communication research has described multiple teacher communication strategies and behaviors (e.g., credibility, nonverbal immediacy, prosocial communication behaviors, affinity-seeking, power, instructional influence, and confirmation) that empirically have been shown to increase the influence a teacher has over student learning and outcomes in university students (Frymier & Houser, 2000; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Schrodt, et al., 2009; Teven & Hanson, 2004; Teven & Herring, 2005). While self-determination theory and autonomy supportive teaching describe teacher behaviors that have been shown to socialize students' internalization of motivation (e.g., Klem & Connell, 2004; Reeve, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000), few

other theories in the field of education effectively address increasing teacher influence in the classroom in an organized and comprehensive manner. Given that, the current study will use the instructional communication constructs of *teacher credibility* and *teacher confirmation* to understand teacher authority development in the context of P-12 teacher-student relationships in the field of education.

Teacher credibility and teacher confirmation were chosen as constructs within which to understand the legitimate authority development of teachers for two important reasons. First, as noted earlier, authority development occurs only within relationships, which means that it must develop using some form of relational communication, and credibility and confirmation both use forms of relational communication (Finn et al., 2009; McCroskey et al., 2004; Schrodt et al., 2009). Second, both credibility and confirmation have been shown to increase a teacher's influence over students as indicated by increased positive student outcomes (Schrodt et al., 2009), a circumstance that mirrors findings on legitimate authority (Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

Summary

This study aims at understanding how teachers develop legitimate authority in their classrooms. Recognizing that legitimate authority develops in relationships, authority development has been elucidated using credibility and confirmation within the context of the developing TSR. Combining theory and findings from the education and instructional communication literature, the literature review that follows in Chapter 2 will elaborate on the different constructs identified in legitimate authority and how they relate to each other. Of note, the following construct descriptions are all necessary for the theoretical understanding of authority development, however, as this study will

focus on the relational aspects of development, only constructs which are relational in nature (i.e., constructs which can reciprocate in dyads) have been included in the subsequent study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The need for effective teachers and the need to identify them have been salient

educational concerns for years (Medley & Mitzel, 1959; White, 1993). The evidence for

why effective teachers are needed is weighty (Cornelius-White, 2007; Hattie, 2009;

Menuey, 2005; Roorda et al., 2011) and the question of *what* makes teachers effective is

now more relevant than ever (Wang, Lin, Spalding, Klecka, & Odell, 2011). In the

following literature review, I will discuss why students need effective teachers and how

the teacher-student relationship sets the stage for teacher effectiveness by giving

teachers an avenue through which to develop and earn legitimate authority.

Why Effective Teachers Are Needed: Student Outcomes

A large number of positive student outcomes have been consistently correlated

with effective and expert teachers (Chetty et al., 2011; Hanushek et al., 2004; Hattie,

2009; Jensen, 2010; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). These positive outcomes can be classified

as either academic or social in nature. Positive academic outcomes have been observed

as increases in: motivation in the classroom (Anderman & Maehr, 1994; Davis, 2006;

Reeve, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wentzel, 1997; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998),

motivation to do homework (Katz, Kaplan, & Gueta, 2010), achievement in the

classroom (Klem & Connell, 2004; Roorda et al., 2011; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998),

engagement in the classroom (Davis, 2006; Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004;

Roorda et al., 2011), student compliance with the teacher (Burroughs, 2007), positive

academic socialization (Wentzel, 1998, 2003, 2009, 2010), and rates of students who

attend and complete college (Chetty et al., 2011). Positive student outcomes that are

social in nature have been observed as increased: prosocial socialization and

development (Davis, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Wentzel, 1998, 2003, 2009, 2010), sense of belongingness within the school (Anderman, 2003), sense of relatedness to the teacher (Furrer & Skinner, 2003), prosocial development of student leadership (Chang, 2003), rates of career earnings (Chetty et al., 2011; Jensen, 2010), and potential economic gain for society overall (Jensen, 2010). Effective teachers have also been shown to influence the attenuation of several negative student outcomes. These can include: decreased rates of teen pregnancy (Chetty et al., 2011), lowered student aggressiveness toward peers and teachers (Meehan, Hughes, & Cavell, 2003), prevention of the development of behaviors that leave students at-risk for school failure such as aggression and social withdrawal (Chang, 2003; Hamre & Pianta, 2005), and decreased impulsivity and academic dishonesty (Anderman, Cupp, & Lane, 2010; Stearns, 2001).

A smaller, but still substantial, number of negative student outcomes have been correlated with ineffective and incompetent teachers (Hanushek, 2008; Menuey, 2005; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Like positive student outcomes, negative student outcomes can be academic and social in nature. Negative academic student outcomes include: short-term lowered student achievement and lowered long-term student gains (Sanders & Rivers, 1996), lowered self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994), demotivation (Christophel & Gorham, 1995), lowered relevance of academic information (Perry, Turner, & Meyer, 2006), and student resistance in the classroom (Burroughs, 2007; Christophel, 1990; Kearney & Plax, 1992). Negative social student outcomes include: lowered positive student affect toward the teacher, lowered positive student affect for the class, and lower overall student satisfaction (Myers & Knox, 2000), increased negative student

affect toward the teacher (Martin, 1984; Tal & Babad, 1990), increased antipathy and

ridicule among peers (Martin, 1984), and dropout (Fortin, Marcotte, Potvin, Royer, &

Joly, 2006).

When looking at some of the positive and negative student outcomes, like the

increased likelihood of either college attendance or dropping out of school altogether,

one cannot help but notice that these long-term outcomes appear to be the result of the

accumulation of many short-term outcomes (Chetty et al., 2011; Fortin et al., 2006;

Hanushek et al., 2004; Jensen, 2010; Malm & Löfgren, 2006; Sanders & Rivers, 1996).

With positive outcomes occurring each year, students' enjoyment of learning is

reinforced and they are more likely to value school and go on to college. Conversely,

when students are faced with negative outcomes on a regular basis, they are more likely

to devalue school and dropout. Cumulative and long-term outcomes like these may be

the result of the process of socialization occurring between teacher and student in the

classroom, wherein the experiences students share with their teachers shape how the

students view themselves and their world.

Why Effective Teachers Are Needed: Student Socialization

Teachers are expected to help students develop academically, but as these

outcomes indicate, teachers also help students develop socially and for the long-term

(Davis, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Wentzel, 1998, 2003, 2009, 2010; Wentzel

& Looney, 2007). In the process of teaching academic content to students, teachers also

pass along social content; a type of social "teaching" known as socialization (Davis,

2003; Harter, 1999; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Grusec & Hastings, 2007; Liable &

Thompson, 2007; Lutfey & Mortimer, 2003; Maccoby, 1992, 2007; Noddings, 1988,

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2005; Owens, 2003; Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 2002; Wentzel & Looney, 2007). Grusec

and Hastings (2007) defined socialization as:

> …the way in which individuals are assisted in becoming members of one or more social groups…'assist' is important because it infers that socialization is not a one-way street but that new members are active in the socialization process and selective in what they accept from older members of the social group… Socialization involves a variety of outcomes, including acquisition of rules, roles, standards, and values across the social, emotional, cognitive, and personal domains. Some outcomes are deliberately hoped for on the part of agents of socialization while others may be unintended side effects of particular socialization practices (e.g., low self-esteem, anger and reactance, and aggression to peers as a function of harsh parenting). (p. 1)

In a more in-depth fashion, Harter (1999) described the process of socialization as

occurring when a person internalizes the perceptions and evaluations that a significant

other holds about him or her, as well as internalizes the standards and values of that

significant other.

Socialization is the process through which identity development occurs in

response to specific relationships. Socialization involves the ongoing construction of

"who I am" by selectively adopting and incorporating into the self: the "who" that

significant others see, and the "what" those significant others value and devalue (Harter,

1999; Maccoby, 2007). Identity adoption may occur because the individual is reinforced

for acting in a way that aligns with the new identity. For example, a student who does

well in class may adopt a "good student" identity because the teacher compliments that

type of behavior when it occurs; with adoption of the good student identity, the student

may also adopt certain beliefs and behaviors the teacher values because those are part of

the identity.

The best-known and most important socialization context is the parent-child

relationship (Baumrind, 1971, 1973; Harter, 1999; Maccoby, 1992, 2007); by

comparison, the relationship that develops between a teacher and student (i.e., the teacher-student relationship or TSR) is seldom formally recognized. Despite this, the TSR may be the second most important socialization context in the life of a student, for it is within these school relationships that students begin developing adult identities (Davis, 2003; Eccles & Roeser, 2011; Harter, 1999; Maccoby, 2007; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Wentzel, 1997, 2003, 2004; Wentzel & Looney, 2007; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998). The TSR's importance becomes clear when one realizes that students now spend more waking hours with teachers than with their families, and that the amount of time spent in a relationship with someone, potentially translates into the amount of influence that person can have on identity development (Davis, 2003; Eccles & Roeser, 2011; Harter, 1999; Maccoby, 2007).

Recognizing a teacher's socializing influence has the potential to be impactful, it is important to note that Harter (1999) has also found the *valence* of relationships to significantly influence the development of identity. Given that *long-term* student outcomes are valenced (e.g., positive: attend and complete college; negative: dropout); this indicates that the positive or negative relationship a teacher develops with a student may impact the valence of the development of the students' identity. For example, student outcomes of positive TSRs, such as increased student affect for the teacher (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992a) and reciprocated teacher affect for the student (Skinner & Belmont, 1993), can lead to increased student involvement (Booth-Butterfield, Mosher, & Mollish, 1992), motivation, and achievement (Reeve, 2006; Roorda et al., 2011; Wentzel, 1997), which most likely leads to increased college attendance and completion (Chetty et al., 2011). On the other hand, student outcomes of

negative TSRs, such as lowered self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994) and lowered achievement (Sanders & Rivers, 1996), can lead to students who resist learning in the classroom (Burroughs, 2007) because they feel both rejected by their teacher (Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Zhang & Sun, 2011) and that they do not belong (Pomeroy, 1999); eventually leading to students who drop out altogether (Fortin et al., 2006). Students who feel supported by teachers learn to value school and are socialized to develop identities in which school is important to who they become; conversely, students who feel rejected by teachers learn to devalue school and are socialized to develop identities that reject school. These hypothetical student trajectories emphasize the importance of the TSR because of the influence teachers, effective or not, can have on student identity development.

Teacher-student relationships share many similarities with parent-child relationships, such as adult-child dynamics and reciprocalness (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby, 2007). Unlike the parent-child relationship, which is normally established at birth, the teacher-student relationship is established on the first day of school, and their respective roles are negotiated from that day forward (Newberry, 2010). Effective TSRs are also similar to effective parent-child relationships (i.e., authoritative parenting; Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby, 2007) in that effective teachers have high expectations of all their students, yet are also very responsive to them individually (Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 1997). Effective teachers, who are demanding and nurturing, fulfill students' basic needs (i.e., relatedness, autonomy, and competence), and in so doing, motivate them (Reeve, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Students seem to be motivated to work for caring teachers (Wentzel, 1997) because these teachers create close, caring relationships

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which encourage students to adopt and pursue the goals that the teacher values (Grusec, Goodnow, & Kuczynski, 2000; Wentzel, 2003). Values acquisition, part of the socialization process that occurs in relationships, appears to be greatly influenced by warmth and social support on the part of the socializer (Grusec et al., 2000). Socializing students to adopt "appropriate types of classroom behavior and standards for social as well as academic competence" (Wentzel, 2003, p. 322) not only motivates students to achieve in class; it increases the likelihood that those students will develop healthy identities that are both academic and social in nature (Davis, 2003; Harter, 1999; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Wentzel, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2010; Wentzel & Looney, 2007; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998).

Academic development does not occur independently of social development in the classroom. In the process of teaching academic content to students, teachers also pass along social content in the form of: beliefs, values, moral standards, attitudes, motivation, and emotional responses (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby, 2007; Patrick, 1997; Wentzel, 2003; Wentzel & Looney, 2007); a process of which many teachers are unaware (Elliott, Stemler, Sternberg, Grigorenko, & Hoffman, 2011). These social thought systems, transferred between teacher and student, become a shared system of beliefs and values which are not limited to academics and the classroom, but extend to all social interactions outside the classroom (Patrick, 1997; Wentzel, 2003; Wentzel & Looney, 2007). With every teacher-student interaction that occurs while teaching academic content, the teacher: (1) models for the student how he or she should interact with and relate to others in social relationships, (2) directly teaches acceptable and unacceptable forms of communication in interactions, and (3) directly teaches each

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student how they should expect others to relate to them (Baumrind, 1971; Harter, 1999; Maccoby 2007). As the teacher manages student interactions in the classroom, again, the teacher directly teaches students how to relate to each other (Patrick, 1997; Wentzel, 2003, 2004; Wentzel & Looney, 2007). As this occurs, whether knowingly or not, the teacher molds the student's developing identity.

Teacher-Student Relationship as Central to Effective Teaching

Many researchers have pointed to the teacher-student relationship as the root of teacher effectiveness (e.g., Davis, 2003; Den Brok, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2004; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Goldstein, 1999; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Pianta, Hamre, & Stuhlman, 2003; Wubbels & Levy, 1993). Frymier and Houser (2000) described the TSR as a unique form of hierarchical, time-constrained, goal-oriented, interpersonal relationship that progresses through normal relational developmental stages. Goldstien (1999) described it as an interpersonal relationship in which "[t]he teacher and student must connect with each other in order to work together productively and successfully" (p.650). Pianta, Hamre, and Stuhlman (2003) described the TSR as a bidirectional, dyadic, relationship system consisting of daily classroom interactions of teachers and students, which is affected by the personalities and beliefs of those involved. From the variability in these definitions, it is not difficult to see why the TSR, especially the TSRs of effective teachers, needs to be further studied.

Each of the previous definitions captures important aspects of the TSR, but none of them seems to clearly identify the key attributes and mechanisms of the TSR. Goldstein (1999) mentioned that teacher and student need to connect, but failed to mention, along with the other two (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Pianta et al., 2003), how

that connection occurs. Pianta et al. (2003) described the TSR as a relationship system; and both their definition and that of Frymier and Houser (2000), indicated the complexity and constraints involved in the TSR, but both seemed to miss the more important longitudinal effects the TSR may have on students. In fact, Frymier and Houser's (2000) definition seemed to de-emphasize the potential longitudinal effect of the TSR when they describe the relationship as "time-constrained." Finally, Pianta et al., (2003) described the TSR as "bi-directional," recognizing the reciprocal give and take that occurs in all relationships, while Goldstein (1999) and Frymier and Houser (2000) completely missed this singularly unique element of all relationships (Bell, 1979).

This is a major flaw in the perspective of many who study the teacher-student relationship in the field of instructional communication (Sprague, 1992, 2002). They seem to perceive the relationship from only one side, which results in descriptions of the TSR that reflect this uni-dimensional perspective (Sprague, 1992, 2002). In seeing teacher-student interactions as individual units, they perceive only teacher action and resulting student reaction; completely missing the continuous reciprocal interactions that occur between the two over time (Sprague, 1992, 2002). As it is, little research has been conducted on reciprocity in the TSR (Sameroff & Mackenzie, 2003; Skinner & Belmont, 1993), on exactly what reciprocates in the TSR (Grusec et al., 2000; Skinner & Belmont, 1993), or how reciprocal effects occur concurrently on teacher and student in the TSR (Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Zhang & Sun, 2011).

Returning again to the definition of the TSR, it may be understood as a complex interpersonal relationship in which: (1) teacher and student have the potential to connect

and share goals and values via interactions and reciprocal communications, and (2) longitudinal academic and social student development (i.e., outcomes) occurs as the student either accepts or rejects the teacher's goals and values. Thus, the teacher-student relationship appears to be the link between teachers and student outcomes (Cornelius-White, 2007; Davis, 2003; Den Brok et al., 2004; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Goldstein, 1999; McCombs, 2010; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Pianta et al., 2003; Roorda et al., 2011; Wubbels & Levy, 1993; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005). This link emphasizes the need to understand how effective teachers relate to their students via the TSR in order to determine how they produce the effects they do in students. Several researchers suggest that teachers are effective because of the legitimate authority they negotiate with their students (e.g., Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Brown, 2004; DeCremer & Tyler, 2007; Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Kerssen-Griep et al., 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Perhaps as effective teachers relate to their students through the TSR, this gives them the medium through which to negotiate with students and earn legitimate authority. As effective teachers develop legitimate authority with students, the students become more willing to be influenced by them in the classroom.

Teacher-Student Relationship as Central to the Development of Legitimate Authority

Authority is a complex construct whose meaning changes from person to person and situation to situation. Despite this seeming ambiguity, educational and instructional communication researchers agree that authority owes its existence to the relationships that develop between people (Berger, 1994; Brubaker, 2009; Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992; Steutel & Spiecker,

2000). In the education literature, teacher authority is now specifically understood to be a form of legitimate authority in which the power differential between teacher and student is narrow and negotiated, with students consenting to and cooperating with the teacher, so long as the teacher's use of power to influence students' thoughts and behaviors is considered reasonable and appropriate by the students (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

For some, teacher authority may be described best as a conundrum. Authority is essential to a well-functioning classroom, yet it becomes more problem than solution when it is poorly understood and therefore poorly negotiated (Harjunen, 2009; Pace & Hemmings, 2007). Every teacher seems to know that they need authority in the classroom in order to be effective and productive. A few still assume that it should be automatically given because, as teachers, they hold traditional authority, but most teachers realize that today's students no longer automatically allow someone to have authority because of the position they hold in society (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Teachers should understand that if they want to be effective in the classroom they must earn the right to hold authority over students – from the students themselves (Harjunen, 2011, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Unfortunately, the majority of teachers do not have a clear idea of how to earn authority from students (Brubaker, 2009; Harjunen, 2011, 2012). They do not know how to begin earning authority because often they do not realize that legitimate teacher authority involves knowledge and skills applied both academically *and socially* (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Once they *do* begin earning authority,

many teachers struggle with the reality that, to be effective, they must continue earning authority on a daily basis (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007).

Teacher authority is a very complex construct, but researchers of educational authority agree that for a teacher to earn legitimate teacher authority from students, the teacher must: (1) be an expert in both academic and social domains, and (2) provide evidence of authority in these domains to students (Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Harjunen (2011) noted that a teacher's authority is a "delicate balance between pedagogical authority and authoritarian authority" (p. 404), with pedagogical authority understood as knowledge expertise and authoritarian authority understood as expertise in the management of students and their interactions. Similarly, Steutel and Spiecker (2000) described a teacher's legitimate authority as composed of both theoretical and practical authority; theoretical authority, like pedagogical authority, is knowledge expertise and practical authority, like authoritarian authority, is expertise in student management. Pace and Hemmings (2007) divided legitimate authority into professional authority, knowing the content and how to teach it, and moral authority, teaching students the how and why of good conduct. Respectively, these two forms of authority (i.e., pedagogical/theoretical/ professional authority and authoritarian/ practical/moral authority) comprise a teacher's academic and social understanding of what to know/do and how to learn/do it. For the sake of clarity, from this point forward, the terms "pedagogical" and "practical" will be used to refer to teacher expertise in the areas of knowledge and student management. Pedagogical was chosen for its clear recognition that this type of authority is based on a teacher's understanding of what and how to teach. In a similar manner, practical was

chosen because in education the term practical often is understood to mean "as applied in the classroom." With a thorough grasp of both pedagogical and practical authority, a teacher has a good chance of developing legitimate authority in the classroom.

Legitimate Teacher Authority: The Instructional Communication Perspective

Instructional communication researchers use a narrower definition for the term "authority." For them, "an authority" has expert power, which is expertise in content knowledge or explanatory ability (Rhoads & Cialdini, 2002; Teven & Herring, 2005). This type of authority fits into the pedagogical authority construct, described earlier in the education literature as one component of legitimate authority (Harjunen, 2011, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Despite a lack of consensus on names, both educational and instructional communication researchers understand the TSR and its reciprocal interactions and communications play a central role in the teacher-student negotiations that lead to the development of legitimate authority (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Harjunen, 2011).

Instructional communication researchers most likely would describe legitimate authority as the effective use of interpersonal power, in the form of influence and control, to persuade students to comply and cooperate with the current learning situation so that long-term educational goals can be accomplished (Berger, 1994; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992). Instrumental to this definition is the specification that a teacher's interpersonal power is evidenced by the influence and control he or she exerts over students through the TSR (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992). To this end, instructional communication researchers have studied verbal and nonverbal instructor communications and behaviors in relation to students to determine how specific

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instructor communications and behaviors influence student outcomes (Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Sprague, 1992, 2002). Two particular constructs have been shown to greatly increase an instructor's ability to influence students in the classroom and produce positive student outcomes such as 1) increased cognitive and affective learning, 2) increased student affinity, and 3) increased student satisfaction with the teacher and course (Finn et al., 2009; Schrodt et al., 2009). Those two constructs are *teacher credibility* and *confirmation* (Ellis, 2000; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Myers & Martin, 2006; Schrodt et al., 2009).

Teacher credibility.

According to educational researchers, for a teacher to be effective in the classroom, he or she must combine pedagogical and practical authority to have legitimate authority over students (Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). In order for a teacher to be granted pedagogical authority by students, the students must first be willing to believe and accept what the teacher says as trustworthy, and then believe and accept that what the teacher says holds value for them (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). When students value the content and social knowledge a teacher holds and communicates, they are more willing to comply and cooperate with his or her instruction, which provides the teacher with the practical authority needed to effectively manage classroom interactions (Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). The question then is how do teachers provide evidence to students that what they teach is trustworthy and value-worthy?

"Teacher credibility," borrowed from instructional communication, is a complex but measureable construct which holds great potential to help answer this question. Teacher credibility is composed of both relational communication forms which reciprocate between teacher and student, and rhetorical communication forms which move in only one direction – from teacher to student (Schrodt et al., 2009). Credibility encompasses a teacher's believability as perceived by students, with the teacher's believability supported by three sources of evidence: *care, trust, and competence* (Schrodt et al., 2009). The level of influence that a teacher has over students and their related outcomes is generally equal to the teacher's level of believability (Myers & Martin, 2006). Teacher credibility has been shown to directly affect a teacher's ability to influence student thought and behavior in the classroom (Myers & Martin, 2006) and has been shown to be directly correlated with student learning and numerous other student outcomes that promote learning (Finn et al., 2009; Schrodt et al., 2009). Based on this understanding, teacher credibility might be considered the instructional communication equivalent of legitimate teacher authority since both involve increasing teacher believability in order to increase teacher influence over student outcomes. Teacher credibility, like teacher authority, exists only within the bounds of relationships and as such, describes care, trust, and competence from the perspective of the teacher *and* the student (Finn et al., 2009). This is an important distinction because it recognizes that the teacher's relational contribution to the TSR only matters if the student can perceive it (Teven & McCroskey, 1997). It has also been discovered that even though teachers may vary on their perceived levels of care, trust, and competence, students will

still perceive them as highly credible as long as they exhibit a noticeable level of *all three* subconstructs (Myers & Martin, 2006).

In the last 30+ years, instructional communication researchers could not decide whether credibility had two dimensions (i.e., trust and competence) or three dimensions (i.e., trust, competence, and care) upon which teachers built their reputations with students (Finn et al., 2009; McCroskey & Teven, 1999). This indecision was based on early, poorly designed empirical studies that failed to clearly separate out care as a subconstruct of credibility (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). McCroskey and Teven (1999) were finally able to describe and measure the construct of care in relation to teacher credibility well enough that most instructional communication researchers agreed care should be included with trust and competence as an evidence of teacher credibility (Finn et al., 2009; McCroskey & Teven, 1999). To further complicate the issue of exactly what comprised the construct of teacher credibility, instructional communication researchers used, and still use, numerous interchangeable synonymous terms for each of the subconstructs of credibility (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). This ambiguity within the literature which results from a lack of consensus on construct names or descriptions is a major criticism of communications literature and appears to be one of the main reasons that educational researchers avoid using findings from the instructional communication literature (Sprague, 2002). With this in mind, this study will use the framework of credibility as described by McCroskey and Teven (1997, 1999). Following, the subconstructs of care, trust, and competence will be described as they relate to credibility and as they are understood in the education literature.

Care.

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As the most recently delineated subconstruct of teacher credibility, care has been difficult to pin down (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). In the instructional communication literature, care is specifically referred to as "perceived care," "goodwill," or "intent toward the receiver," three concepts which indicate the relational nature of care. "Perceived care" is understood to mean *care about the welfare of the student as it is apparent to the student* (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). On the other hand, "goodwill" and "intent toward the receiver" (i.e., student as receiver) both refer to *care for the student as apparent to the teacher* (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). The distinction of what the student perceives versus what the teacher perceives is important because it recognizes that care reciprocates in relationships, and for care to function as it should in a relationship, both parties must be able to detect it (Teven & McCroskey, 1997).

According to McCroskey and Teven (1997, 1999), care has been operationalized in the construct of teacher credibility with three components: empathy, understanding, and responsiveness. Empathy and understanding represent goodwill and intent toward the receiver, while responsiveness represents perceived care. Empathy involves emotionally taking another's perspective and feeling what they feel in a given situation, while understanding is cognitively taking another's perspective and recognizing their needs and ideas. Responsiveness is the outward manifestation of care perceived by students and is noted when the teacher pays attention to or listens to a student, or responds to a student's needs. Teachers who are particularly sensitive to student needs and proactively respond to minute outward signals are perceived by students as especially caring.

The teacher credibility subconstruct of "care" is very similar to the concept of "care" as described by educational researchers who take a sociocultural approach to their studies of care in the classroom, in that care in a relationship is reciprocated, both given and received, by each person in the relationship (e.g., Davis, 2003, 2006; Goldstein, 1999; Liable & Thompson, 2007; Noddings, 1988, 2005). Responsiveness (i.e., perceived care) appears to be very similar to the concepts of "relatedness" from self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and "closeness" (Newberry & Davis, 2008); wherein students feel a sense of emotional attachment with the teacher. Empathy and understanding (i.e., goodwill and intent toward the receiver) appear to correspond with other educational conceptions of care, such as relational knowing and attentiveness, which view care from the teacher's perspective. Relational knowing (Hollingsworth, Dybdahl, & Minarik, 1993; Webb & Blond, 1995) and attentiveness (Elbaz, 1992) both describe how the teacher's care for a student is perceived as the depth of personal knowledge the teacher has about the student. Deep knowledge of a student (Elbaz, 1992; Hollingsworth et al., 1993; Webb & Blond, 1995) allows empathy and understanding to develop which enables the teacher to be sensitively responsive to the social or academic needs of the student (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Teven & McCroskey, 1997), and helps the student feel a sense of closeness and relatedness with the teacher (Newberry & Davis, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000). This closeness (i.e., perceived care) most likely encourages the student's willingness to believe the teacher and accept his or her guidance and influence (i.e., increased credibility); an idea which is strongly supported by current theories of parental and teacher socialization (Baumrind, 1971, 1973; Davis, 2003; Grusec et al., 2000; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008;

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Liable & Thompson, 2007) and is beginning to gain empirical support (Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998). Care, whether from the instructional communication or educational perspective, appears to be a construct necessary for success in the classroom for both teacher and student. Thus, this study will focus on "care" as a major relational element to explore in the TSR.

Trust.

As the second relational communication element of credibility, trust might best be characterized as the level of belief or faith one has in a relational partner which promotes the willingness to be influenced by or vulnerable to the partner (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Trust is central to the credibility or believability of another (Schrodt et al., 2009) because it reduces the uncertainty of that person (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

The trust or trustworthiness component of credibility goes by many names in the instructional communication literature, having been alternately identified as: character, safety, and honesty (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). Character refers to the teacher's authentic self as perceived by students (Myers & Martin, 2006) and is most likely based on the overall perception of the accumulated experiences that students have had with the teacher (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Safety seems to refer specifically to the vulnerability aspect of trust as defined above, wherein students are willing to expose their vulnerabilities with a teacher (e.g. look/sound dumb in front of the class) because they believe the teacher will keep them safe from any source of harm (Raider-Roth, 2005; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Finally, honesty refers to the teacher's authenticity and integrity as perceived by students (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Each of these

versions of trust seems to tap into different aspects of trust as perceived by others and aligns well with Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's (1999) facets of trust: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) noted specifically that if these facets are present, trust will likely develop. This understanding lines up with Wooten and McCroskey's (1996) inference that trust invested in another person is based on accumulated evidence and normally closely intertwined with the perception of care from that other.

Bell and Daly (1984) listed trust as one of a number of affinity-seeking behaviors that teachers use to influence their students' liking of them. Teachers exhibit trustworthiness by "emphasizing his or her sense of responsibility, reliability, fairness, dedication, honesty, and sincerity" and appear to do this to elicit trust from their students (Frymier & Wanzer, 2006, p. 199). Teachers also indicate their trustworthiness by being authentic with students, behaving in a manner consistent with their stated beliefs, and being true to their word by fulfilling commitments made to students (Frymier & Wanzer, 2006). Given the amount of evidence that teachers present to students in support of their trustworthiness and credibility, teachers seem to recognize that trust is necessary to learning. Trust is necessary because it promotes student willingness to believe what the teacher says and accept the teacher's guidance and influence (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Trust also promotes an atmosphere of safety for students who may feel insecure or uncertain in their knowledge (Ellis, 2004; Schrodt et al., 2009; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). More importantly, trust, and the willingness to accept guidance that comes with it leads to student compliance and cooperation in the

classroom; a situation that supports positive student outcomes (DeCremer, 2002;

DeCremer & Tyler, 2005; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996).

Trust is considered a fundamental relational communication variable that

defines the nature of relationships (Burgoon & Hale, 1984), and is vital to their proper

functioning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Given this, "trust" is the second

relational element this study will focus on to explore legitimate authority in developing

TSRs.

Competence.

Competence, the third subconstruct of teacher credibility, is a rhetorical

communications element and is essentially the same as pedagogical authority, which

was noted earlier (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006; Myers & Martin, 2006; Pace &

Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Competence is the impression students

form of a teacher's ability to communicate in an appropriate and effective manner; a

competent teacher has expert power and is considered "an authority" (Rhoads &

Cialdini, 2002; Rubin & Feezel, 1986).

As with care and trust, instructional communication researchers refer to

competence using a number of different terms: qualification, expertness, intelligence,

and authoritativeness (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). Unlike the alternate terms for care

and trust which described both constructs from teacher and student perspectives; the

alternate terms for teacher competence are from the student's perspective of the teacher,

as one who has an abundance of knowledge and is good at explaining it. Teachers who

are knowledgeable and explain content exceptionally well provide much evidence for

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their believability (Finn et al., 2009), making competence an important component of teacher credibility.

Teacher credibility, the construct within instructional communication which appears to come closest to the construct of legitimate authority found in education literature, is composed of three subconstructs (i.e., care, trust, and competence). According to Mottet and Beebe (2006), care and trust are relational elements, while competence is a rhetorical element. As relational elements, care and trust are transactional, reciprocating between teachers and students through the TSR. As relational communication forms, they also take into account the affective learning that occurs in the classroom which gives valence to the learning experience. Competence, as a rhetorical element, tends to move in only one direction and is a strictly cognitive learning form. As this study aims to understand how teachers develop authority by relating to students through the TSR, it will focus on care and trust as relational communication elements and exclude competence due to its rhetorical nature.

Teacher confirmation.

Teacher confirmation, like care and trust, is a strictly relational communication form, and may be understood as the way teachers demonstrate respect for students using authenticity and empathy (Ellis, 2000; Schrodt et al., 2009). By being authentic and showing his or her true self to students, the teacher attempts to reciprocally elicit authenticity from students. Seeing the students' authentic selves allows the teacher the chance to empathize with the students and attempt to understand how they feel by taking their perspectives. Teacher confirmation is the process in which "teachers acknowledge, respect, and communicate their appreciation for their students" (Schrodt

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et al., 2009, p. 353) by communicating to students that they are unique individuals who are significant and valued (Ellis, 2000; Goodboy & Myers, 2008). Confirmation behaviors involve *recognition, acknowledgement, and endorsement* of students by: (1) responding to them in an affirmative fashion, (2) demonstrating sincere interest in students as individuals and learners, and (3) teaching to the capabilities of all students (Ellis, 2000; Schrodt et al., 2009).

According to Goodboy and Myers (2008), *recognition* is the focusing of attention on a specific student as noted when the teacher calls on the student, makes eye contact, or physically touches the student, thus demonstrating respect by giving full attention to the student. *Acknowledgement* entails nonjudgmental open communication between teacher and student in which the teacher shows respect by recognizing the genuineness and effort involved in the student's communication regardless of whether the teacher agrees or not. Once the teacher responds to the student's statement, *endorsement* involves the teacher validating the student's response by outwardly accepting the feelings behind it as "true and accurate" (p. 154). Confirmation appears to help students realize that the teacher perceives and accepts their individuality, recognizes their individual needs, and will respond to those individual needs in an appropriate manner in the classroom. Confirmation also seems to help students understand that they are valued and respected as individuals, that their value will be upheld, and they will be treated with respect regardless of their classroom performance.

Confirmation is a relatively new concept in the instructional communication literature, having been operationalized just recently (Ellis, 2000). As a new construct, it has not yet been translated into the education literature. However, as *confirmation* is

described, it is very similar to descriptions of *respect* found in the education literature.

Goodman (2009) described respect for students as the recognition that all have value

and should be treated as such. Stojanov (2010) described respect for a student as "to

recognise her as a distinctive centre of consciousness, that is, as a subject of intentions,

as the holder of a particular point of view towards the world" (p. 171). Giesinger (2012)

noted that teachers should show respect to students "by taking their individual needs,

desires, capacities, potentials, opinions and decisions seriously – they should take a

special interest in them." (p. 111). Given these descriptions, it appears that when the

education literature speaks of "respect" it is also referring to the concept of

"confirmation" used in the instructional communication literature (Ellis, 2000;

Giesinger, 2012; Goodman, 2009; Schrodt et al., 2009; Stojanov, 2010).

Confirmation has been shown to have a strong positive correlation with student

satisfaction, motivation, affective learning, and cognitive learning (Ellis, 2000, 2004;

Goodboy & Myers, 2008). Confirmation also has been shown to be negatively

correlated with antisocial student classroom behaviors such as challenge behaviors and

excuse-making communications and positively correlated with prosocial classroom

behaviors like positive in-class communications and student participation (Goodboy &

Myers, 2008). The correlation with decreased negative behaviors and increased positive

student behaviors infers that confirmation supports effective classroom management

strategies. The correlation with increased student outcomes most likely indicates that

confirmation is instrumental in the production and maintenance of a positive class

climate (Jones & Gerig, 1994). Further support for this inference is found in the

negative correlation that confirmation has with student receiver apprehension (Ellis, 2004).

Student receiver apprehension is the fear of publicly misunderstanding something and the perceived social judgment that accompanies being wrong (Ellis, 2004; Jones & Gerig, 1994). That confirmation is negatively correlated with receiver apprehension indicates that teachers who are confirming with students help lower their students' levels of apprehension (Ellis, 2004). Receiver apprehension can occur when: new information is introduced, information is too complex for the receiver to comprehend, the receiver lacks the necessary schemata for understanding, or the receiver will be informally or formally evaluated based on recall of the information (Ellis, 2004). Students with receiver apprehension have lowered levels of recall, motivation, achievement, cognitive learning, and affective learning (Ellis, 2004; Jones & Gerig, 1994), so lowering receiver apprehension is important for student achievement on an individual basis. It appears that teachers who confirm students *help them overcome their fear of being wrong in front of the class*, hence the previous supposition that these teachers develop and maintain a positive class climate that is safe, open, and nonjudgmental. Perhaps receiver apprehension is reduced in students of confirming teachers because the students trust the teacher to be accepting and nonjudgmental, and trust that the teacher cares for them enough that he or she will not let anyone else in the class be judgmental of them either. This aligns nicely with Turman and Schrodt's (2006) findings that students perceive the power used by confirming teachers to be prosocial in nature and that these teachers are "more likely to earn their students' respect, and thus be more successful in attempts to influence their students" (p. 274).

Given that confirmation, like care and trust, is a relational communication element which reciprocates between teacher and student and gives affective valence to the process of learning (Mottet & Beebe, 2006), it is the third relational element this study will use as a lens through which to study authority development and the TSR. However, the term "respect" will be used in place of "confirmation." This will be done for three reasons. First, as was earlier noted, respect and confirmation appear to be equivalent constructs described independently by educational and instructional communication researchers. Second, for most readers, the term "respect" carries with it a commonly recognized understanding that the term "confirmation" does not. Third, the education literature on legitimate authority development uses the term "respect" to refer to the concept of "confirmation" (Ellis, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Since legitimate authority is at the center of this study, it seems appropriate to use the term already present in the authority literature. In addition to care and trust, which were delineated earlier, respect is the final relational communication element through which legitimate authority development in the TSR will be viewed.

Developing Legitimate Teacher Authority

As can be seen from the instructional communication literature, teachers use a number of verbal and nonverbal communication forms to gain the power and influence over students' thoughts and behaviors that educational researchers see as legitimate teacher authority (Ellis, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). Up to this point however, legitimate authority has been described predominantly from

the teacher's perspective. If a teacher has pedagogical and practical authority, meaning the teacher knows what to teach/do and how to teach/do it, the strong possibility exists that the teacher will be able to develop legitimate authority and be effective in the classroom (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). However, as noted earlier, legitimate teacher authority exists only within the relationships a teacher shares with his or her students (Berger, 1994; Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Even though a teacher may have pedagogical and practical authority, the teacher must first have that authority legitimated by student consent before he or she is allowed to exert any control or hold any influence over students (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). Gaining consent from students for legitimate authority is not a simple task, especially given that some students are in the classroom on an involuntary basis (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). Gaining students' consent and cooperation has been described thus far as "earning" and as a "negotiation" (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). Both terms describe different aspects of the process.

Earning authority.

The term "earning" indicates that the development of legitimate teacher authority requires effort or work on the part of the teacher to prove that he or she can be trusted to be in authority (Goodman, 2009; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Harjunen, 2011; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). Once legitimate authority is earned from students, it is maintained through *continued* evidence of the teacher's reasonable and appropriate use of the power and influence granted to him or her (Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace &

Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). As teachers demonstrate care and respect for their students, they prove to their students that they can be trusted to be benevolent in their use of authoritative power (Ellis, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). It may even be that students are more willing to give a teacher they trust the benefit of the doubt when he or she missteps relationally (Gregory & Ripski, 2008) because the students are more likely to interpret the teacher's behavior based on the expectations they have developed for the teacher rather than on each individual occurrence of teacher behavior (Maccoby, 1992). However, if the teacher ever appreciably oversteps the bounds of his or her authority, the legitimacy of the teacher's authority will be called into question, and will likely result in the students prompting a renegotiation of the teacher's level of authority and influence (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Turman & Schrodt, 2006).

Negotiating authority.

The term "negotiation" indicates that the development of legitimate authority involves the continual balance of power between teacher and students in the classroom, a balance which is reached through reciprocal, back-and-forth communications in their TSRs (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Turman & Schrodt, 2006). These negotiations do not involve the teacher and students sitting down at a bargaining table and discussing their differences. Rather, these negotiations for legitimate authority take place in the push and pull of the relational elements as the teacher and student interact and relate to one another. The pushes and pulls qualitatively

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and quantitatively change the reciprocation of care, respect, and trust between teacher and students, and indicate that the power in the relationship is under negotiation (Harjunen, 2011; Kearney & Plax, 1992; Mottet, Beebe, & Fleuriet, 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Most likely, it is the method with which the teacher demonstrates care, respect, and trust in the process of negotiating that provides the evidence needed to support his or her claim to the power and influence of legitimate authority (Finn et al., 2009; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). By forcing a change in the way the relational elements move through the relationship, the students push the teacher to renegotiate by proving that he or she can be allowed to hold authority once again (Harjunen, 2011; Kearney & Plax, 1992; Mottet et al., 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Put more simply, students will resist cooperating with a teacher in reaction to what they perceived was an unjustified breach of care, respect, or trust on the part of the teacher. To set things right, the teacher must use the TSR to prove that he or she still cares and respects the students and can be trusted by the students to act toward them in a manner that is justifiable and within the bounds of the authority given.

As noted earlier, many teachers struggle with the realization that even though they have put forth effort and legitimately earned authority and the cooperation of their students, overstepping their legitimate authority a single time invites the re-negotiation of both their authority and the students' cooperation (Harjunen, 2011, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007). Legitimate authority can be fleeting in nature because it only exists so long as the students consent to it (Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Once legitimate authority is earned from students, it is

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maintained through continued evidence of a teacher's reasonable and appropriate use of power to influence students' thoughts and behaviors (Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

Evidence for authority.

Since teachers must continually provide students with evidence that they are worthy of the authority they hold in their classrooms, how do teachers go about providing that evidence? As has already been argued, teachers provide this evidence through their TSRs with students. Following is the discussion of how teachers use care, respect, and trust in their TSRs to prove to students that they are capable of holding authority in their classrooms.

Care and authority in the teacher-student relationship.

Noddings (2005) stated it clearly, "…caring is the very bedrock of all successful education…" (p. 27). Noddings is not the only one who feels this way. A teacher's care is considered by many to be a central element of the teacher-student relationship (Goldstein, 1999; Goldstein & Lake, 2000; Newberry & Davis, 2008), and as noted earlier, the teacher-student relationship is central to the development of legitimate teacher authority (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Harjunen, 2011). Putting these together, it appears that care on the part of the teacher is necessary for the teacher to develop legitimate teacher authority.

Care appears to be a major characteristic of teachers described as both supportive and autonomy supportive (Cornelius-White, 2007; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Reeve, 2006; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Webb & Blond, 1995). Many of the outcomes of teacher care found in the educational

literature, such as increased cognitive learning, affective learning, engagement, and motivation (for a meta-analysis see Cornelius-White, 2007; Roorda et al., 2011), have been studied extensively and parallel those found in studies focusing on instructor care in the instructional communication literature (Finn et al., 2009; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). Even though research on student outcomes of care has been extensive, educational researchers have found the construct of care difficult to define (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Noddings, 1988); again, a circumstance that parallels the difficulty instructional communication researchers had with delineating care as a construct (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Teven & McCroskey, 1997).

In the education literature, care most often has been regarded as an ethic (Goldstein, 1999; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Newberry & Davis, 2008; Noblit, 1993; Noddings, 1988, 2005). An ethic is generally defined as a moral or right way of thinking and behaving, but Noddings (2005), who popularized the term "ethic of care," emphasized "caring is a way of being in relation, not a set of specific behaviors" (p. 17). Teachers with an ethic of care believe they should teach the whole student. To these teachers, the social development of students is as important as their academic development, and that it is their job as teachers to help students develop in both academic and social capacities (Noddings, 1988, 2005; Sabbagh, 2009; Wentzel, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2010). Given this holistic view of students and teaching, it requires little effort to envision the effective TSR as a socialization context in which the teacher considers not only the academic growth, but also the social and emotional growth of the student to be the ultimate educational goal (Davis, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Noddings, 1988; Sabbagh, 2009; Wentzel, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2010).

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Without ever saying a word, teachers regularly instruct students in the importance of care for self and others using the reciprocity inherent in the socialization context of their shared relationship (Noddings, 1988, 2005). These teachers influence the prosocial development of their students through the daily reciprocal exchange of care (Ellis, 2000, 2004; Goodboy & Myers, 2008; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Wentzel 2003, 2004). In the majority of effective TSRs, students tend to perceive the teacher as caring, accept the care, and reciprocate in kind (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). As effective TSRs progress, student identity development is prone to become more prosocial as students learn to accept, value, and integrate the academic and social goals, attitudes, values, and beliefs the teacher promotes (Davis, 2003; Eccles & Roeser, 2011; Grusec et al., 2000; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Lutfey & Mortimer, 2003; Maio, Olson, Bernard, & Luke, 2003; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Wentzel, 1998, 2003, 2004; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998).

When teacher-student relationships are characterized by care, with students perceiving and accepting the care given by teachers, the students are more willing to be influenced by the teacher and accept the teacher's reasonable instruction, direction, and correction (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992a; Richmond, Lane, & McCroskey, 2006), a situation that is recognized as the teacher having legitimate authority (Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Students who feel that a teacher cares for them will allow the teacher to have legitimate authority because they believe the teacher has their best interest at heart and would not do anything to "harm" them (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992a; Richmond et al., 2006). This is an important point to consider when deciding to risk being vulnerable to another by allowing that person to have power and influence over

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you (Raider-Roth, 2005; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). As a teacher consistently shows care for students, the cumulative evidence of the teacher's care influences students to believe and eventually trust that the teacher's good intentions will continue (Harjunen, 2011; Raider-Roth, 2005; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). The development of trust in the teacher is absolutely necessary for students to allow a teacher to have legitimate teacher authority (Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). Trust will be discussed shortly; however, the relational element of respect must be discussed first in order to have a full appreciation of the need for trust.

Respect and authority in the teacher-student relationship.

"The idea that a person should be respected is common…but in educational theory the concept of respect is rarely used" (Giesinger, 2012, p. 100). As noted, there is very little on "respect" in the education literature, but this should not be taken as a commentary on the importance of respect in the classroom. Goodman (2009) described respect as dignity, autonomy, and equality extended from one person to another in a relationship. Stojanov (2010) described respect as recognizing that someone has a "distinctive centre of consciousness" (p. 171). Giesinger (2012) described respect as taking a "special interest in" someone "by taking their individual needs, desires, capacities, potentials, opinions, and decisions seriously" (p. 111). Given that these definitions are relational in nature, perhaps respect should be understood as the recognition of another person's individuality which culminates in the perceptible extension of acceptance to that person. As such, it appears that respect, like care, may also be considered a defining characteristic of relationships.

It is difficult to find respect as an independent construct in the literature, but it has been found often alongside the construct of care. Respect is listed as a perceived relational element secondary to care in studies of: caring teachers (Bosworth, 1995; Elbaz, 1992; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Muller, 2001; Nie & Lau, 2009; Noblit, 1993; Teven & Hanson, 2004; Teven & McCroskey, 1996; Webb & Blond, 1995), supportive teachers (Anderman, 2003; Bosworth, 1995; Brewster & Bowen, 2004; Cornelius-White, 2007; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Osterman, 2000; Webb & Blond, 1995), and autonomy supportive teachers (Cornelius-White, 2007; Hardré & Reeve, 2003; Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al., 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Perhaps some see respect as an integral element or outcome of care. However, given the argument that it is possible to care for someone without respecting them and possible to respect someone without caring for them, respect is most likely a separate construct from care. Support for this inference comes from studies of at-risk students who specifically list respect as separate from care and note that respect, as students perceive it, is extremely important – especially when coupled with care (Baker, 1999; Daniels & Arapostathis, 2005; Hamill & Boyd, 2002; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Klem & Connell, 2004; Ladd & Burgess, 2001; Meehan et al., 2003; Muller, 2001; Pomeroy, 1999).

Similar to care, teachers most likely socialize students to have self-respect *and* to give or extend respect to others via the reciprocity inherent in the TSR. By treating their students with respect, teachers simultaneously (1) teach their students they are worth respect, (2) elicit the reciprocation of respect from their students, and (3) model the importance of giving respect to another. Respect is important to students, especially

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high school students (Yelsma & Yelsma, 1998), because it helps them see that they are accepted by the group (DeCremer, 2002; DeCremer & Tyler, 2005). Acceptance increases students' self-esteem which is positively correlated with the amount of respect they show others, especially teachers (Yelsma & Yelsma, 1998). Given the impact that teachers have on class climate (i.e., the group) and student belongingness (i.e., acceptance), perhaps extending respect to students is one way teachers share their social capital with students (Croninger & Lee, 2001; Peter & Dalbert, 2010; Pomeroy, 1999). Mutual respect and the in-group inclusiveness it engenders also combine to produce a spirit of trust and cooperation within students which is highly conducive to the learning context (DeCremer, 2002; DeCremer & Tyler, 2005). Respect, like care, leads to student willingness to trust a teacher. In addition, respect also helps students be more willing to cooperate with the teacher in class. Where care provides evidence of a teacher's continuing goodwill toward students, perhaps respect provides evidence that the teacher's care is student-specific and gauged to help each student in the best way possible. In this way respect and care between teacher and student in the TSR leads to mutual trust and in-class cooperation which are the hallmarks of legitimate authority.

Trust and authority in the teacher-student relationship.

Trust is a critical element of the TSR because it determines a student's willingness to be open to, accept, and cooperate with a teacher's instruction (DeCremer, 2002; DeCremer & Tyler, 2005; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Trust is the "willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000, p.556). Given that trust develops with a teacher in the

context of a class full of students, vulnerability takes on a whole different dimension

that harkens back to care and class climate (Croninger & Lee, 2001; DeCremer, 2002;

DeCremer & Tyler, 2005; Noddings, 1988; 2005; Peter & Dalbert, 2010; Pomeroy,

1999). When students trust the teacher and are willing to expose their vulnerabilities by

potentially being wrong in front of their classmates, it indicates their trust lies not only

in the care and respect of the teacher but also in the care and respect of the class – a

class climate that the teacher creates (Ellis, 2004; Raider-Roth, 2005).

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) described five "facets of trust" which must

be present for trust to develop. They noted that the facets, benevolence, reliability,

competence, honesty, and openness, vary in their salience for those in hierarchical

relationships, with subordinates tending to base their trust on evidence of the superior's

benevolence, openness, and integrity. This is important to note because the TSR is a

hierarchical relationship. For students to be willing to place themselves in a position

that is not only subordinate to, but also vulnerable to, a teacher, in effect allowing the

teacher to have legitimate authority over them, they must first see that the teacher is

benevolent, open, and has integrity (Tschannen-Moran &Hoy, 2000), that is caring,

respectful, and trustworthy. With care, respect, and trustworthiness continually

evidenced, students are willing to trust and cooperate with a teacher and allow the

teacher to have the power and influence that we understand as legitimate teacher

authority (DeCremer, 2002; Ellis, 2000; Goodman, 2009; Gregory & Ripski, 2008;

Harjunen, 2011, Noddings, 1988, 2005; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker,

2000; Teven & McCroskey, 2007; Tschannen-Moran &Hoy, 2000).

Conclusion

Teachers who are considered effective in the classroom are those who consistently produce positive student outcomes (Campbell et al., 2003; Chetty et al., 2003; Hattie, 2002, 2009; Little et al., 2009). Not only do the students of these teachers consistently achieve more academically, they are also more prosocial in their development and tend to be more academically, socially, and economically successful later on in life (Campbell et al., 2003; Chetty et al., 2011; Davis, 2003; Hanushek et al., 2004; Hattie, 2002, 2009; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008). The question of how effective teachers consistently produce these positive student outcomes has been studied for years (Hattie, 2009), but the answer still seems to be somewhat elusive (Wentzel, 2009). Some researchers have tried to account for a teacher's effectiveness by elucidating teacher characteristics, while others have chosen to look at teacher characteristics and related student outcomes (Hattie, 2002, 2009), but very few researchers have looked in the middle of that dynamic, where the teacher and student interact (e.g., Den Brok et al., 2004; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Pianta et al., 2003; Wubbels & Levy, 1993).

Considering that student outcomes are a result of the teaching-learning process that occurs between teacher and student; it makes sense to look for the source of teacher effectiveness in the relationship that develops between teacher and student. Since relationships are (1) maintained by a reciprocal communication process that uses relational elements and (2) characterized by the relational elements used most; it makes sense to look for effectiveness in the dominant relational elements (i.e., care, respect, trust) teachers use to communicate with students via their TSRs (Ellis, 2000; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997).

Recognizing that the TSR is a very specific form of relationship because: (1) students are involuntary partners, and (2) a power hierarchy exists due to a knowledge differential, with the student as novice and teacher as expert; this study will attempt to look for effectiveness in how teachers use the relational elements in the relationship to earn legitimate authority (Ellis, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). This is how the teacher-student relationship comes into play in the development of legitimate teacher authority. Legitimate authority is developed and maintained through the reciprocal exchange of care, respect, and trust between teacher and student(s). The reciprocity of this relational context is extremely important. As the relational needs of students are met through the reciprocal exchange of care, respect, and trust, teachers gain influence over them as the students come to accept, cooperate, and become willing participants in the reciprocal teaching-learning process that occurs through the TSR. (Ellis, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). As acceptance, cooperation, and participation increases in the classroom, so does the likelihood of successful goal completion resulting in positive academic and social outcomes (Ellis, 2004; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Kelman, 2006; Mottet, Frymier, & Beebe, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Turman & Schrodt, 2006; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998). A conceptual model of legitimate teacher authority in the teacher-student relationship and how that leads to teacher effectiveness can be seen in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Development of Legitimate Teacher Authority in the TSR Leading to

Teacher Effectiveness

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  ┌─────────────────┐     ◄──►     ┌─────────────────┐
  │ Positive Student│              │ Positive Student│
  │     Outcomes    │              │  Socialization  │
  └─────────────────┘              └─────────────────┘
                ▲                        ▲
  ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
  │              Teacher Effectiveness                │
  └──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
             ▲                              ▲
   ┌──────────────┐   ──►    ┌──────────────┐
   │  Legitimate  │   ◄──    │   Student    │
   │  Authority   │          │ Cooperation  │
   └──────────────┘          └──────────────┘
        ▲                              ▼
      ┌────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │  ┌────────┐  ┌──────┐                   │
      │  │Teacher │  │ Trust│        │Student │ │
      │  │        │  └──────┘                   │
      │  │        │   ┌──────┐                  │
      │  │        │   │ Care │                  │
      │  │        │   └──────┘                  │
      │  │        │  ┌────────┐                 │
      │  │        │  │Respect │                 │
      │  └────────┘  └────────┘        └───────┘│
      └────────────────────────────────────────┘
      ┌────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │       Teacher-Student Relationship      │
      └────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
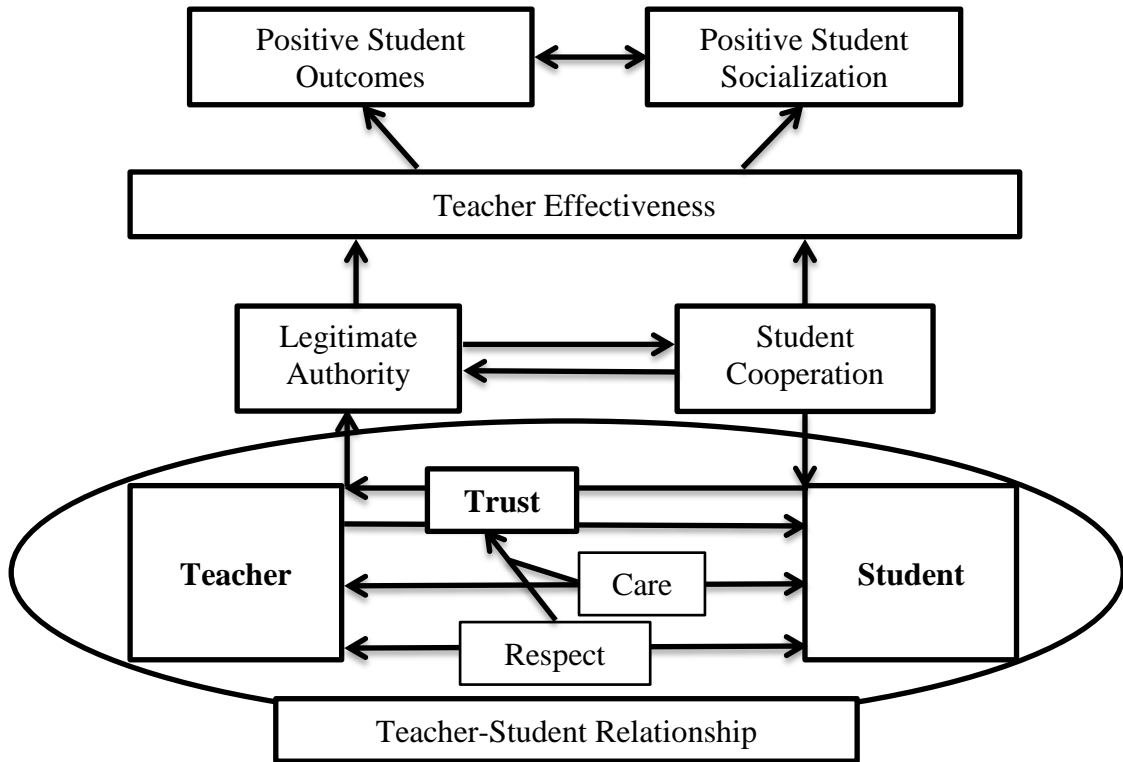
Research Purpose and Questions

Pace and Hemmings (2007, p. 22) conclude their historical review of the

classroom authority literature with this admonition:

> A good conceptual and realistic grasp of classroom authority continues
> to elude most educational policy makers and researchers. The problems
> that plague public education will never be resolved until theorists,
> ideologues, and researchers acknowledge the fact that a good education
> simply is not possible without classroom authority relations that promote
> learning. *The most promising possibilities* depend on theoretical
> elaborations of authority, the examination of ideologies that underlie
> common sense understandings, and *the investigation of what really
> happens inside classrooms as participants interpret and manage the
> forces that shape teacher-student relations* [emphasis added].

In response to this call, the purpose of this study was to explore how teachers in

diversely populated rural schools earn legitimate authority through the individual

relationships they develop with their students. To address this call, this study was conducted in a moderately-sized rural school district with the cooperation of the English II students and randomly selected teachers from the district. A detailed description of these two populations, as well as the justification for choosing them will follow in the next chapter. In this study, the specific relational elements of care, respect, and trust, as identified earlier in the constructs of teacher credibility and confirmation, were used to describe how legitimate authority is earned as the teacher develops teacher-student relationships that are characterized as cooperative. Given this theoretical understanding of the relational elements of care, respect, and trust in the development of legitimate teacher authority, I proposed the following set of research questions:

1. What teacher behaviors do high school students in a diversely-populated rural school perceive as characteristic of effective and ineffective teachers? In particular, what teacher behaviors do they identify as characteristic of care, respect, and trust in the teacher-student relationship, respectively?

2. How do teachers in a diversely-populated rural school develop legitimate authority through the teacher-student relationship? In particular, how do they perceive and experience care, respect, and trust, respectively?

3. How does the development of legitimate authority differ between the teachers considered most and least effective? In particular, how do their perceptions and experiences differ in relation to care, respect, and trust, respectively?

Chapter 3: Methodology

The teacher-student relationship has been identified in the research literature (e.g., Davis, 2003; Den Brok et al., 2004; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Goldstein, 1999; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Pianta et al., 2003; Wubbels & Levy, 1993) as central to the development and future preparation of students; given this understanding, it was surprising to discover that the relationship itself and how it functions is vaguely understood due to a lack of research. In order to understand the complexity of the teacher-student relationship and the legitimate authority within it, I proposed using a qualitative study with two sequential sets of data collection to fully capture the process of relational and authority development (Creswell, 2007; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Schutz, Nichols, & Rodgers, 2009).

Design of the Study

A qualitative design was chosen for the unique contribution it can make to an investigation. As Maxwell (2004) noted, the strength of qualitative research lies in its ability to recognize the interplay of causality and context, as well as its ability to realize the meaning of a causal explanation through interpretive understanding. In particular, the research used a sequential qualitative design (Greene et al., 1989; Schutz et al., 2009). Normally, the term "sequential design" refers to mixed methods studies, but this study will collect only qualitative data. The sequential design was chosen for its developmental nature, in which the researcher uses "the results of one method to help develop or inform the other method" (Greene et al., 1989, p. 196). In this study, both methods were qualitative, but the first set of data collection was used to inform the second set of data collection. The data collected included documentation data from

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students in the form of essays, as well as observational and interview data collected from teachers. Multiple qualitative data forms from diverse participants provided the rich detailed information needed to describe how the TSR and legitimate authority develop in relation to each other (Creswell, 2007). Next is a basic overview of the data collection and analysis procedures; detailed descriptions of these procedures, as well as sampling procedures and participant information will follow.

The first set of data collected in this sequential design included de-identified essays from a group of criterion-sampled students. The essays were analyzed for content and the results were used to inform the second set of data collection (i.e., qualitative teacher data) in two ways: 1) to construct a teacher observation inventory, and 2) to provide provisional codes for the analysis of the teacher interviews. In the second set of data collection, qualitative data was collected from a random sample of teachers, including classroom observations and individual semi-structured interviews. To add to the trustworthiness of the study, a second observer, who will be described later in the "Limitations and Trustworthiness" section, was recruited to co-observe with me. Participant interviews and observations were analyzed and coded. Using these analyses, each participant was categorized based on his or her authority type and then all participants were ranked from most to least effective. Analyses were then used to describe the development of legitimate teacher authority through the TSR, as well as to describe how the most and least effective teachers differ on legitimate authority development. The triangulation of multiple forms of qualitative data from students, teachers, and an outside observer, provides illumination, clarity, and trustworthiness to this study (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002; Schutz et al., 2009).

Sampling and Participants

      School information.

The population studied in this investigation included the teachers and students at a rural school district in the center of the country. The teachers and students of this school district were chosen as participants for two reasons. The first reason is based on the difference between the district's student and teacher demographics as they relate to student achievement. According to T. Price, in the school's Activity Office (personal communication, May 29, 2012), this school district is considered to be a moderate-sized district in the state of Oklahoma, with 1781 students served in the 2011-2012 school year (U. S. Department of Education: National Center for Education Statistics [USDE: NCES], n.d.). The student population is quite diverse. As of 2012, 51% of students in the district identified themselves as belonging to a racial minority (i.e., Native American, African American, Hispanic, Asian, and Other); by comparison, 24% of students in the state identify with a racial minority (USDE: NCES, n.d.). The students in this district are also economically diverse with 62% qualifying for free or reduced lunches in the 2011-2012 school year (USDE: NCES, n.d.). Recognizing that to qualify for *reduced* lunches, a household of two can make no more than $28,000 a year; this means that 62% of the district's students come from low socioeconomic status (SES) households. These students live in geographically diverse communities that range from within the city limits of the nearest city to areas more than 10 miles outside of the city limits. The U. S. Department of Education has classified these communities as: remote town, fringe rural, distant rural, and remote rural (USDE: NCES, n.d.). These students

attend school at six district school sites which are located in and around the nearest town.

According to W. Insby from the superintendent's office (personal communication, October 30, 2012), the district employs 154 certified staff members. Recognizing that administrators, counselors, and nurses are certified staff members and removing their numbers from the total, there are 120 certified teachers in the district. The district's calculated teacher to student ratio is 1:15, but regular core academic classes average approximately 22 students. According to the 2012 A-F School Report Cards, produced by the Oklahoma State Department of Education, student achievement in this district was given a grade of "B" indicating that, overall, student achievement is above-average, but has room to improve.

Given the racial and economic diversity of the students in this district and the fact that most of them come from rural areas which lack in educational and economic resources, one would expect more of the students to struggle in school and have lower achievement (Khattri, Riley, & Kane, 1997; Ma & Klinger, 2000; Ogbu, 1992). In addition, given the racial and economic disparity between the students and teachers in the district (i.e., 6.5% of teachers identify with a racial minority and almost all are above the $28,000 low-SES income threshold since beginning teachers earn a minimum of $31,600), one might assume that these students would have difficulty identifying with their teachers, which could impede progress toward the common goal of learning (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000; Ogbu, 1992). However, the students in this district have shown an above-average level of student achievement (A-F School Report Cards, 2012). This indicates that something may be enabling these students to achieve

at greater levels than their school demographics would normally indicate. This investigation attempted to understand the proposed source of student achievement in this district by studying the teacher-student relationships of the teachers in this district.

The second reason for studying this population was because, up until recently, I worked as a high school teacher in this district. As Creswell (2007) described it, I am considered an insider. Being an insider had both positive and negative impacts on this study. As an insider, I was trusted by many of the administrators, teachers, and students in the district. The participants were more willing to verbally open up to me during the interviews and let me see how they actually interacted with their students during observations. In addition, as an insider, I understood the culture of public school teaching and was less likely to misunderstand or distort what I heard and saw because I could identify what was relevant. However, being an insider also had the potential to bias my findings because the knowledge and experience I have could have leaked into and intermingle with my findings. I addressed this potential bias in the Limitations and Trustworthiness section at the end of Chapter 3.

Sampling strategies.

Student participants.

The students chosen as potential participants for the first data set of the study were criterion sampled (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002). Criterion sampling involves selecting participants based on a "predetermined criterion of importance" (Patton, 2002, p. 238). In this case, five predetermined criteria were used for inclusion in this sample; participants had to be: 1) high school students, 2) from this school district, who were 3) old enough to have been taught by a large number of school teachers, 4) experienced

writers, and 5) never had me for a teacher. The student population from which this sample was taken included any student enrolled in a sophomore-level English II class at the high school in the school district purposely selected for this study. As sophomores, these students had been taught by enough teachers that they most likely experienced both effective and ineffective teachers – experience which informed their essay writing. These students also have enough experience with writing that the essay they were asked to write was relatively routine, and fit well within their regular English II curriculum. It was important that this particular writing assignment be routine so that it did not impede their learning. The routineness of the assignment was also important so that the students would be unaware of the actual purpose of the essays and so write honestly about effective and ineffective teacher. The final criterion for inclusion in this sample, that these students never had me as a teacher, was necessary because I am a former teacher at the high school in this district. As such, I taught almost all the students in the junior and the senior classes. By collecting essays from the sophomores, students who had never been under my tutelage, I could be assured that their opinions of how teachers should relate to students were not swayed or biased by anything that I might have said while I was their teacher.

The pool of potential student participants (N=90) included an approximately equal ratio of males and females ranging in age from 15 to 16 years. Their demographics mirrored that of the school district; approximately half of the students identified with a racial minority and over half of them lived in households identified as low SES. Of this potential pool of students, a sample of 20 students volunteered their

essays for use in this study. Since their essays were deidentified, it was not possible to determine the demographics of the sample.

Teacher participants.

A purposeful random sampling strategy was used to select participants (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002) from among the teachers of this school district. Purposeful random sampling involves randomly sampling participants from a larger population which was purposefully selected because the population was information rich (Patton, 2007). Purposeful random selection means that the sample is more likely to be representative of the selected population (Patton, 2007). In this case, the population included the entire certified teaching staff (N=120) in the chosen school district.

The pool of potential participants (N=120) in this school district included faculty who taught a wide variety of school subjects from pre-kindergarten through high school. They ranged in age from 23-64 years and their teaching experience ranged from 0 to 40 years. Of the 120 certified teachers, 17 were male and 103 were female. Racially, the group was homogeneous. Nine teachers identified as Native American and one identified as Hispanic, while the remaining 110 teachers identified as Caucasian. From this larger group (N=120 total), 15 participants were purposefully random sampled and recruited for the second qualitative set of data collection in this study. Knowing that in a qualitative study, a larger number of participants would provide me with richer data which had the potential to approach saturation (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002) I chose to select 15 teacher participants.

In order to randomly sample the purposefully selected population, an alphabetized list of the teaching staff was obtained from the District Superintendent's office. The

alphabetized list was then numbered consecutively from 1 to 120. Using a random number generator (http://www.random.org/), the numbers from 1 to 120 were randomized and the newly produced list of randomized numbers was used to reorder the list of certified teaching staff. For example, the first five numbers on the randomly generated number list were 75, 68, 27, 67, and 85; the teachers from the original list whose numbers matched those random numbers became the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth persons on the new list. The first fifteen teachers on the randomly generated list were approached, provided informed consent, and asked to volunteer to participate in the study. Of the first 15 teachers approached, two declined to participate. The next two teachers on the list were approached, provided informed consent, and asked to volunteer for the study; they agreed to voluntarily participate. The teachers in the sample ranged in age from 24 to 59 years, with the vast majority of the participants (N=12) in their mid-30s to mid-40s. The sample ranges from less than one year teaching experience to 26 years of teaching experience, with two of the participants in their first year of teaching. Of the 15 participants, 7 hold a bachelor's degree, 8 hold a Master's degree, and 2 are Nationally Board Certified. The number of participants that hold Master's degrees seems somewhat high, but is not surprising given that there is a local regional university. Of the 15 participants, 2 are male and 13 are female (i.e., 15.4% male; 84.6% female); this is similar to the gender ratio for the faculty of the entire district (i.e., 16.5% male; 83.5% female). The racial makeup of the sample (i.e., 100% Caucasian) is also similar to that of the district (i.e., 92% Caucasian), with both being exceptionally homogeneous in comparison to the student population (i.e., 49% Caucasian). It should be noted that this purposeful random sample is considered highly representative of the population of

teachers in the school district. Not only is it demographically representative, the sample also represents a wide variety of content areas and grade levels across the school district. Early childhood, elementary, and all middle and secondary core content areas are represented, as well as special education, an elective course, and a vocational program. In addition, three of the participants either currently coach or recently coached a sport (i.e., Carl, Chris, and Kristy). So too, all grade levels are represented from prekindergarten to twelfth grade, with the exception of the fourth and fifth grades.

Data Collection

Student essays.

The first set of data collected in this sequential qualitative study took the form of de-identified comparative essays written by the student participants in response to a prepared writing prompt (Appendix A). For an essay to be comparative, the writer must compose a narrative which uses specific points of comparison to describe in detail how two or more items are similar and/or differ. In this essay, the students were asked to describe how the behaviors of effective and ineffective teachers differ based on the specific points of care, respect, and trust. The essay prompt was given to students as a weekly writing assignment, for which they received a grade. Once the essays of those students who volunteered to participate were collected and de-identified, I was given access to them for qualitative analysis. The methods used to analyze the essay for content will be described in detail later. The findings of the student essays were used to create the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) section of the observation instrument.

Observations.

The second set of data collection began with individual in-class observations of the 15 randomly selected teacher participants as they taught class. Each observation was conducted over once class period (i.e., approximately 45 minutes). Each teacher was observed a total of three times by two observers; twice by me and once by a second observer who co-observed during one of my two observations. During each observation, the Teacher Observation Field Note Protocol (Appendix B) was digitally completed by the observer(s). During each observation, the observer(s) continually typed what they saw and heard into the Teacher Observation Field Note Protocol (Appendix B), recording their observations on a minute by minute basis. Immediately after each observation, the field notes were expanded by the observer(s). When both observers were present, each conferred with the other to complete the field note expansion. Once expansion of the field notes was completed, the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) was used to identify specific effective or ineffective teacher behaviors that occurred during the observation.

Additionally, a second observation instrument was created so that the observed teacher's use of authority in the classroom could be catalogued. While the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) from the student essays would catalogue the behaviors of effective and ineffective teachers as they related to students during observations, it would not adequately identify and specify the teacher's use of authority during class. As such I turned to the research literature and created the Teacher Authority Log (Appendix C).

Creation of the Authority Log (Appendix C) was based on the earlier discussion of teacher effectiveness and teacher authority found in Chapter 2. In that discussion it

was reasoned that a teacher's effectiveness is based on the authority he or she holds in the classroom (Elliot, 2009; Harjunen, 2011, 2012) and that the legitimacy of the teacher's authority is evidenced by student cooperation (Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Harjunen, 2011, 2012); so it was deduced that a teacher's levels of effectiveness and authority should be directly correlated with the students' level of cooperativeness. With this understanding, it appeared reasonable to infer that a teacher's level of effectiveness and authority could be ascertained based on two observed criteria: 1) the number of discrete events over which the teacher has to exert his or her authority in a class period and 2) the number of attempts it takes for the teacher to gain student cooperation in each event. While the second criterion is self-explanatory, I will further explain the first. An increased number of discrete events over which a teacher has to exert his or her authority can call into question the effectiveness of the teacher's authority. Students who cooperate with a teacher who has legitimate authority are more likely to do what the teacher expects of them without the teacher having to say anything, thus decreasing the number of discrete events over which the teacher has to exert authority (Harjunen, 2011, 2012). An increase in discrete events over which the teacher must exert authority also may be due to increased misbehavior from students who are testing the teacher's weak authority to see what they can get away with or to cause problems for the teacher in retaliation for his or her bad behavior (Harjunen, 2011, 2012). Based upon this reasoning, the Teacher Authority Log was created and added after the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C).

The Teacher Authority Log (Appendix C) took the form of a table with the following columns to be filled-in by the observer: "Reason to Exert Authority,"

"Number of Tries," "Teacher Give In?," and "Full Student Cooperation." In the Reason to Exert Authority column, the observer listed and described the specific event and student group type (i.e., individual, small group, or whole class) over which the teacher attempted to exert authority by giving a directive that was to be followed within the current class period. This clarification was made because there were times when a teacher would assign homework, but we would never be able to determine if the directive had been followed. In the Number of Tries column, the number of times the teacher attempted to exert authority over the same event were tallied. In the Teacher Give In? column, the observer marked yes or no to indicate whether the teacher stopped trying to exert his or her authority before full student cooperation was achieved. Finally, in the Full Student Cooperation column, the observer marked either yes or no/partial to the level of cooperation the teacher received from the student(s). Full cooperation indicated that the student(s) did everything in the teacher's directive (e.g., If a student was told, "Sit down and get back to work," the student sat down and started working again). No/partial cooperation indicated that the student(s) did not comply at all or only complied with part of the teacher's directive (i.e., in the previous example, partial compliance would mean the student sat down but did not go back to work). Student cooperation was defined at the bottom of the Authority Log (Appendix C) as: "Individual, small group, or 90-95% of class does all requested within a reasonable time (no more than 30 seconds) & with little complaint."

Semi-structured interviews.

Interviews were conducted and audio recorded with the participants in their classrooms either during their planning periods or outside of regular school hours. A

total of 15 interviews were conducted and each took approximately one class period to complete. The interviews ranged from 29 minutes to one hour and 25 minutes, averaging 49 minutes in length. Each participant was interviewed using a semi-structured interview protocol (Appendix D) composed of a list of open-ended questions constructed prior to the interview (Creswell, 2007). The questions explored the participants' perceptions about the TSR and how they, as teachers, go about developing those relationships using care, respect, and trust to develop legitimate authority. Examples of pre-constructed questions include: "What can you tell me about the individual relationships you have with your students?" and "How do you see care functioning in the individual relationships that you have with each student?"

Procedure

The first set of data collected in this sequential qualitative study began with student essays written by English II students from the high school in the selected school district (see Table 3.1 below for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). Upon IRB approval for this study, the English II teacher was emailed the student essay prompt (see Appendix A). The teacher assigned the essay prompt as a weekly in-class writing assignment which the students completed for a grade. Writing tasks like this had been assigned and completed on a weekly basis throughout the school year, so the essay prompt for this study did not deviate from the students' usual routine nor interfere with their learning. Only after the essays had been written and graded were the students approached to participate in the study. At that time, all English II students were informed of the study and invited to participate in the study via their essays, which would be de-identified of their names and grades; a script was used to inform the

Table 3.1: Sequence of Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

Data Collection Sequence	Research Question	Data Types	Data Analysis Procedures
First Data Set	RQ1	Student Essays	Content analysis of essays to identify behaviors of effective and ineffective teachers
			Content analysis used to create Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) for use in second set of data collection
Second Data Set	RQ2 RQ3	Teacher Observations	Individual observations and interviews used to categorize each teacher by authority style for RQ2 (Table 3.3)
			Observations used to rank teachers on effectiveness (Appendix H) and categorize them by effectiveness level for RQ3 (Table 3.2)
			Individual observations triangulated with aggregated interview data to support conclusions in RQ 2 and RQ3
	RQ2 RQ3	Teacher Interviews	Individual interviews and observations used to categorize each teacher by authority style for RQ2 (Table 3.3)
			Interview data aggregated across teachers categorized as legitimate authorities (Table 3.3) with individual observational data used to support conclusions for RQ2
			Interview data aggregated across teachers categorized as most effective and least effective (Table 3.2) with individual observational data used to support conclusions for RQ3

students (see Appendix E). Student informed assent and parental informed consent

forms were given to students to take home for their parents to read, sign, and return.

Only the essays of those students who returned both signed forms were used to conduct

the content analysis. Once the participants were identified, the English II teacher de-

identified the essays (i.e., used a black marker to obscure both name and grade) before

turning them over to me for analysis. In order to distinguish between essays later during

analysis, I numbered the individual essays from 1 to 20. Based on the content analysis of the student essays, the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) was created; the method of the content analysis will be described in detail later.

The second set of data collection in this sequential qualitative study was conducted on a purposeful random sample of 15 teachers from the chosen school district (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). A script (Appendix F) was used to inform each teacher of the study and as each teacher volunteered, he or she was provided informed consent and became a study participant. Contact information (i.e., phone numbers and email addresses) was collected from each participant in order to set up observation and interview times. Each participant was contacted by phone or email and dates and times were set to conduct the two observations of the teacher.

During the observations, I and the second observer took the role of non-participant observers (Creswell, 2007). This meant that the teacher was informed prior to the observation that the second observer and I would not interact with anyone in the classroom during the observation to minimize any effect our presence might have on the dynamic being observed (Creswell, 2007). Each participant, with the exception of one, was observed once in the morning and once in the afternoon. The exception was made for a teacher who taught in the morning and coached in the afternoon. The decision was made to observe two of his morning classes because he coached cross country racing in the afternoon and, as the teacher noted, we would see almost no teacher-student interaction. The second observer observed with me during one of the two observation

sessions for each teacher. In this way, each participant was observed a total of three times by the two observers.

Following is the description of the observations as they progressed. The co-observations the second observer and I conducted together followed the same procedure as the observations I performed alone, with the exception of the peer-review performed after each co-observation. As such, the description of the observations will center on the co-observations since those will include everything that occurred during solo observations plus the peer-review process.

Before every observation, the second observer and I arrived a few minutes early to *unofficially* observe the teacher from a secluded spot in the back of the classroom. The unofficial observation was done so the teacher and students could become somewhat accustomed to the presence of the observers (Patton, 2002). We noticed that in most instances, the students and teacher readily forgot about us. I asked one of the teachers (i.e., Lark) about this before her interview and she said that it was because classes were regularly observed by administrators for the new teacher evaluation system, so the students had become accustomed to having another adult observing in the classroom. It is also worth noting that since a regional university with a large teacher education program is in the same town as this school, the students may also have become accustomed to undergraduate teacher education students observing in their classrooms. At the end of each unofficial observation time, the teacher was officially observed for the equivalent of one class or subject period (i.e., 45 minutes).

As the observation began the second observer and I continuously entered what we saw and heard on a prepared digital field note template, noting our observations

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minute by minute on the Teacher Observation Field Note Protocol (Appendix B). At the conclusion of every second observation, I met briefly with the observed teacher to make an interview appointment for a later date.

Immediately following each observation, or as soon as possible given that some observations were scheduled within a few minutes of each other, the condensed field notes were expanded and then initially analyzed and coded using the Teacher Observation Inventory and the Teacher Authority Log (Appendix C). As the second observer and I expanded our condensed field notes, we initially did so separately in order to capture our specific observations. Once the second observer and I finished expanding our field notes, we then peer-reviewed our expanded notes to come to an agreement on what we had observed so we could better describe and understand the events we had witnessed (Creswell, 2007). After comparing and combining our expanded field notes, the second observer and I worked together to complete the Teacher Observation Inventory and the Teacher Authority Log (Appendix C). The Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) included a checklist of paired oppositely-valenced effective and ineffective teacher behaviors and characteristics (i.e., from the content analysis of the student data) which fell into one of six behavioral domains: care, care and respect, respect, leadership/authority, trust, and connecting in the teacher-student relationship (i.e., care, respect, trust combined). As specific examples of the descriptors of effective and ineffective teacher behaviors from the checklist were found in the expanded field notes, they were marked as observed on the inventory and notes were entered next to the descriptor to describe the specific observation. Next, the expanded field notes were further analyzed using the Teacher Authority Log (Appendix

C). Each specific incident, in which the teacher attempted to exert his or her authority to gain student cooperation, was listed and described on the authority section, with additional attempts tallied until the students fully cooperated or the teacher stopped trying. The type of student cooperation, whether complete, partial, or non-compliance, was also denoted on the authority section.

All the interviews were conducted in a face-to-face fashion and were digitally audio-recorded (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). Eleven participants were interviewed in their rooms during their planning periods. Four chose to conduct their interviews during the 2012 spring break. At the conclusion of the interview, each participant was informed that additional interviews may be requested for further clarification or for member-checking during analysis and interpretation. No additional interviews were required, but during analysis a few minor follow-up questions for clarification were identified and asked via email. Once all the interviews had been transcribed and initially coded, each teacher was emailed his or her coded transcript and asked to member-check the initial coding and make notes or corrections on it. A 60% response rate from participants was achieved during the member check. Most participants made no corrections and left few comments other than "Everything looks correct" or something similar; however three participants clarified specific items in their coded transcripts to help me better understand what they had said during their interviews. For example, one participant, Kristy, said in her interview, "I'll have all kinds of interesting answers, like I want to say in my head like "really?" You know we just keep the comments to ourselves; it takes a lot of patience." Kristy's response on her

member-check about this particular quote helped me realize that while this does happen, it happens rarely, and most of her "students ask very insightful and good questions."

Data Analysis

Throughout the analyses, observations, transcripts, response segments, and coding were frequently compared by reading each set of data back and forth (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). The resulting codes for each group of participants were compared, contrasted, and aggregated; similar patterns were clustered, and categories were developed into themes (Morse, 1994). Table 3.1 contains a summary of the data collected and the procedures used to analyze the data in response to each research question.

Content analysis of student essays.

In the first data set of the study, student comparative essays on the behaviors that characterize effective and ineffective teachers were collected and analyzed for content in order to respond to Research Question 1 (i.e., "What teacher behaviors do high school students in a diversely-populated rural school perceive as characteristic of effective and ineffective teachers? In particular, what teacher behaviors do they say characterize care, respect, and trust in the teacher-student relationship, respectively?"). Using a variation on the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), all the descriptors of effective and ineffective teachers written in the essays were identified and the second observer and I, in tandem, coded the descriptors using care, respect, and trust as the initial provisional code categories (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Any descriptor that did not clearly fit into one of the three initial code categories (i.e., care, respect, and trust) was placed in a separate category, which was sorted again. On the second round

of coding, the second observer and I agreed that a number of the descriptors would fit into two or more of the initial provisional code categories of care, respect, and trust; thus, the code categories that combined initial provisional code, care/respect and connection (i.e., the *in vivo* code most commonly used by the students to mean the combination of care, respect, and trust), emerged from the data. The category of leadership/authority also emerged from the data which, as noted earlier, was surprising because the students were never asked to describe their teachers as leaders or authorities in the classroom, only as effective and ineffective. All student descriptors for effective and ineffective teachers were placed in the following categories: Care, Respect, Trust, Care/Respect, Connection (i.e., care/respect/trust), and Leadership/Authority. Within the categories, specific opposing teacher behaviors or teacher characteristics of effective and ineffective teachers were identified; including all synonymous student descriptors for that behavior or characteristic (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures).

The results of the content analysis of the student essays (Appendix G) were used to create the oppositely-valenced behavioral checklists. Specific qualitatively distinct descriptors from within each category were used, either verbatim as *in vivo* codes or modified to reflect the teacher's perspective, to populate an effective teacher behavior checklist and an ineffective teacher behavior checklist. For example, the effective teacher behavior Care subcategory, "helps with student academic understanding," included the descriptors: "learning activity choice," "student paced lesson," "personal relevance," "fun/interesting," "make sure students understand," "allow questions," "sees that student understands," "explains again," and "gives help." When the effective and

ineffective teacher behavior checklists were combined into a single teacher behavior checklist on the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C), oppositely-valenced subcategory descriptors of behaviors and characteristics were placed on a single line, with a space left between each specific descriptor, and grouped by category (i.e., care, care/respect, respect, leadership/authority, trust, and connection), to provide for order and ease of use. The space left between each set of descriptors allowed for a more specific description of the observed behavior or characteristic. In addition, space was left at the bottom of each category of the checklist to write in any observed behavior that fell within the category but which did not fit within any of the listed descriptors. Directions for this were written at the bottom of the checklist.

Observation analysis.

Qualitative analysis of observations began early in the data collection (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). After each observation, condensed field notes were expanded and then analyzed and coded using both sections of the observation instrument: the Teacher Observation Inventory and the Teacher Authority Log (both in Appendix C).

On the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C), teacher behaviors and characteristics that were observed, both effective and ineffective, were marked as observed in the appropriate column on the checklist. With each observed behavior/characteristic, notes were taken from the expanded field notes and inserted next to the descriptor in order to provide a fuller description of the particular behavior/characteristic that had been checked as "observed" on the checklist. Once the

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Teacher Observation Inventory was finished, the Teacher Authority Log (Appendix C) was completed.

In the Authority Log (Appendix C), each of the observed teacher's attempts to exert authority was listed with the time it was observed from the condensed field notes, described, and enumerated. An exertion of authority was defined as a teacher's verbal directive to a student or group of students, for a discrete event, which was to be obeyed immediately. Each attempt by the teacher to exert authority in relation to a specific event was denoted, with additional attempts tallied until student cooperation was achieved or the teacher gave up. The student cooperation (or lack thereof) which resulted from each authority exertion, as well as whether the teacher gave up on the authority exertion were marked on the Authority Log (Appendix C). It was also noted on the log whether full student cooperation was achieved or not. Partial student cooperation (e.g., student sits down but does not go back to work as directed) was marked in the "No" column because the student did not comply with everything the teacher said. This is an important distinction which will be discussed later.

Once both sections of the observation instrument (i.e., Teacher Observation Instrument and Teacher Authority Log; Appendix C) was complete, the second observer and I discussed our overall impressions of the effectiveness of each observed teacher, especially in regard to each of our areas of expertise: classroom management for the second observer and the TSR for me. During this time, the specific behaviors of each teacher that appeared to make the teacher more or less effective, and were more salient for each observer, were identified and discussed.

After data collection was concluded, two analyses were conducted on the observational data (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). First, the individual observational results for each participant were compared and contrasted with the thematic analysis of that individual's interview (Patton, 2002) to determine the type of authority the teacher possessed (i.e., legitimate, traditional, or laissez-faire); an analytical process which will be described later. Second, the observational data were used in conjunction with observer rankings to rank the teachers from most to least effective to identify the most effective and least effective teachers in the sample. Data from the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) were then aggregated and an inductive thematic analysis was completed across participants according to the categorization of the participants as most and least effective; both frequency and intensity of the behaviors were considered for each category (Patton, 2002).

Teacher rankings.

The ranking of teachers from most to least effective was based on observational data (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). To rank the teachers from most to least effective (Appendix H), the two observers independently ranked the teachers, peer-reviewed and discussed their rankings, and then averaged their rankings with rankings obtained from the combined results of the Observation Inventory and Authority Log (both in Appendix C).

Initially, the ranking of teachers from most to least effective was simply going to be conducted based on frequency counts (Creswell, 2007) of authority exertions from each teacher's Authority Logs (Appendix C). This analysis decision was grounded in

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the relationship found in the research literature between teacher effectiveness and teacher authority (Elliot, 2009; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Harjunen, 2011, 2012), which was discussed earlier. Based on this earlier understanding, teachers who were observed to exert their authority more often would be considered less effective, because it was understood that their students would resist their authority and be less likely to comply the first time the teacher gave a directive. Thus, more authority exertions due to additional attempts to gain student cooperation would be an indicator of a lack of authority and a lack of effectiveness.

Early in the collection of observational data, however, I noticed that teachers of younger students gave directives much more often, than teachers of older students. I speculated that this might be due to the younger students not having as much training in "how to be a student" as the older students, resulting in the need to tell them what to do more often. During the interview process, this speculation was confirmed by one of the participants, Amber, who had taught students from early childhood through junior high. With this realization, I determined that using only the frequency counts of the Teacher Authority Logs (Appendix C) to rank teachers from most to least effective would bias the ranking of the sample against teachers of younger students.

To avoid biasing the ranking of teachers from most to least effective, in addition to the Authority Log (Appendix C), I opted to include in the ranking: 1) averaged frequency counts of effective and ineffective teacher behaviors from the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C), recognizing that the early childhood and elementary teachers tended to score higher on this checklist and 2) the overall impressions of teacher effectiveness from both observers, as had been discussed after

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each co-observation. As to our impressions, I looked at effectiveness through the lens of the TSR and the second observer looked at effectiveness through the lens of classroom management, thus providing a more holistic view of each teacher's effectiveness. Appendix H is a worksheet that summarizes the ranking process. Following is a short narrative description of that same ranking process.

A multistep process (Appendix H) was necessary to convert the frequency counts from the Authority Log and the Teacher Observation Inventory (both from Appendix C) into rankings which could then be combined with observer rankings. The frequency counts of the Observation Inventory and Authority Log had to be converted into rankings, because the effectiveness scale of the Observation Inventory was the opposite of the effectiveness scale of the Authority Log (Appendix H). While an effective teacher should produce a high number of effective behaviors on the behavior checklist, the same teacher should produce a low number of authority exertions on the authority log.

Rankings from the Authority Logs (Appendix C) were based on a combination of the columns of the log. Frequency counts on each column of the Authority Log (Appendix C) were averaged across the three observations (Appendix H). The averages in these columns were then added together for each teacher and the teachers were ranked; the rank of one was assigned to the teacher with the lowest authority total and the rank of 15 was assigned to the teacher with the highest authority total. Averages across the columns were totaled because a higher total in each of those columns should indicate lower teacher effectiveness and the relationship among the column indicators is most likely additive and not multiplicative in nature.

Rankings from the Observation Inventory (Appendix C) were based on frequency counts of the effective teacher behaviors minus the ineffective teacher behaviors, which were averaged over the three observations (Appendix H). The teacher with the highest average number of effective behaviors was given the rank of one and the teacher with the lowest average number of effective behaviors was given the rank of 15. The decision to subtract the ineffective behaviors from the effective behaviors was based on the understanding that negative behaviors (i.e., ineffective) detract from positive behaviors (i.e., effective) in relationships (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001).

Rankings from the Teacher Authority Log and Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) were then averaged (Appendix H) to produce a ranking based solely on the two observation instruments. Since several of the average scores were decimal numbers, the teachers were ranked again based on the average scores.

Rankings from the two observers (Appendix H) were based simply on their individual impressions of each teacher's effectiveness developed during the observations. The rankings from the two observers were more varied than the calculated rankings from the observation instruments. After peer-reviewing and discussing each other's rankings, we determined that the variations in our observer rankings were due to two things: 1) the second observer's rankings were based on a single observation and my rankings were based on two observations, and 2) as described earlier, we used different lenses to evaluate the teachers' effectiveness (i.e., TSR and classroom management). To moderate the variability, the two observer ranks for each teacher were

averaged and then the teachers were ranked again based on the average of the two observer's scores.

Finally, the Observation Instrument Rankings and Observer Rankings were averaged and then ranked by teacher to produce the final ranking of teachers from most to least effective (Appendix H). Recognizing the inexactness introduced by the observers' subjectivity, it was determined that the ranking of the teachers from most to least effective would be done only to identify those teachers considered most effective and those considered least effective in order to analyze their differences for Research Question 3.

To categorize the teachers as most effective, moderately effective, and least effective (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures), they were divided into three groups of five teachers based on their rankings (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Categorization of Teachers Based on Effectiveness Level

Teacher	Rank	Effectiveness Level
Tammy	1	most
Amber	2	
Allie	3	
Kristy	3	
Abby	5	
Carl	6	moderately
Chris	7	
Candy	8	
Jamie	8	
Sandra	8	
Lacy	11	least
Jessica*	12	
Cathy	13	
Connie*	14	
Lark*	15	

*Teachers categorized as laissez-faire authorities

According to the ranking calculations (Appendix H), the breakpoint separating the most effective from the moderately effective appeared to be between the two teachers ranked

third (i.e., Allie and Kristy) and Abby who was ranked fifth. I chose to include Abby in the most effective group because I had ranked her as first and strongly believe, based on her observation and interview data, that she is a very effective teacher. The breakpoint between the moderately effective and least effective teacher was much more definite. While the bottom three teachers in the moderately effective category all shared the rank of eighth, the top teacher in the least effective category was ranked eleventh. Based on this combined ranking system, Abby, Allie, Amber, Kristy, and Tammy were ranked as most effective while Cathy, Connie, Jessica, Lacy, and Lark were ranked as least effective at gaining the student cooperation necessary for effective teaching.

Interview analysis.

All audio recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). In an initial effort to condense the extensive text into core themes which reflected the overall context, the data was deductively segmented by question and then inductively analyzed (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). Each transcript was read thoroughly and all responses relevant to the phenomena of interest were noted on the transcript. The transcript was then coded and thematically analyzed (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). The specific categories of care, respect, trust, and legitimate authority were looked for in the transcripts; but in the process of analyzing the data, I remained open to unexpected categories (see teacher interview analysis codebook in Appendix I).

One such unexpected category was the laissez-fair authority style. In addition to the two authority styles referenced in the interview protocol (legitimate authority and traditional authority; Appendix D), laissez-faire authority emerged from the interview

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data as an authority style used by some teachers. Laissez-faire authority will be described later.

Triangulation of interview and observational data to categorize teachers by authority style.

In response to Research Question 2 (i.e., "How do teachers in a diversely-populated rural school develop legitimate authority through the teacher-student relationship? In particular, how do they perceive and experience care, respect, and trust, respectively?"), each teacher was categorized by authority-type, based on both interview and observational data (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). All individual teachers' interview data were compared and contrasted with their own observational data to determine if their perceptions and descriptions as reported in their interviews were supported by or in contrast to their observed in-class behaviors. This was done to account for the "halo effect" that can occur with some participants. During interviews, participants display the halo effect when they describe (and may also perceive) their actions and behaviors in terms that they believe their audience will find to be more appropriate or socially acceptable than the actions/behaviors actually are (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). It is understandable that teachers would describe themselves in more positive terms, especially in relation to their authority; very few teachers would probably be willing to admit that they were not in charge of their students. This was also the reason why observations were conducted before the interviews. I did not want the discussion that occurred during the interview to influence the teacher's behavior in the classroom; so the interview came last. To account for the halo effect while categorizing teachers based on their authority style, the

strength of observational data superseded that of interview data, especially in instances where the teacher's perceptions of his or her behavior from the interview contrasted sharply with his or her observed classroom behavior.

The three authority styles from the study, legitimate, traditional, and the newly found laissez-faire authority, were used to categorize the teachers (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collected and analysis procedures). While categorizing the teachers, the observational data used to make the determination included the authority exertions and responsiveness to student needs, from the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) as well as the level and type of student cooperation (i.e., willing, begrudging, or fleeting compliance) noted by the observers. Student cooperation is an important distinction in the type of authority because students cooperate very differently with each type of authority. They respond willingly to legitimate authorities (Pace & Hemmings, 2007), begrudgingly to traditional authorities (Pace & Hemmings, 2007), and both begrudgingly and fleetingly to laissez-faire authorities (Harjunen, 2012).

Each teacher was initially assigned the authority style with which he or she first identified during interviewing. Once the observational data was compared with the interview data, the identified authority styles of five teachers (i.e., Cathy, Connie, Jamie, Jessica, and Lark) were inconsistent with their observation data, and thus each was reassigned to the authority style category that matched her observation. Cathy and Jamie, who said they were traditional authorities, were reassigned as legitimate authorities; Connie, who chose neither of the two authority types suggested in the interview (i.e., legitimate and tradition), was assigned as a laissez-faire authority; and Jessica and Lark, who both said they were legitimate authorities, were reassigned as

laissez-faire authorities. As noted earlier, the laissez-faire authority style, which was not

discussed in Chapter 2 and therefore, not referenced in the interview protocol

(Appendix D), emerged from the data during analysis. Laissez-faire authority will be

discussed in-depth later in Chapter 4. A summary of the categorization of teachers

based on authority type is found below in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Categorization of Teachers Based on Authority Type

Authority Type	Legitimate	Laissez-Faire
Teachers	Abby, Allie, Amber, Candy, Carl, Cathy*, Chris, Jamie, Kristy, Lacy*, Sandra, Tammy	Connie* Jessica* Lark*

Note: No participants were categorized as traditional authorities.
* Least effective teachers

Triangulation of interview and observational data to identify and analyze

most and least effective teachers.

In response to Research Question 3 (i.e., "How does the development of

legitimate authority differ between the teachers considered most and least effective? In

particular, how do their perceptions and experiences differ in relation to care, respect,

and trust, respectively?"), the data were analyzed across the five teachers ranked most

effective and across the five teachers ranked least effective (see Table 3.1 for summary

of data collected and analysis procedures), based on the teacher effectiveness rankings

(Table 3.2) and teacher authority categorization (Table 3.3). Interview data of the five

most effective teachers (i.e., Abby, Allie, Amber, Kristy, and Tammy; Table 3.2) were

aggregated to find commonalities among the perceptions and experiences of teachers

considered most effective. Individual observational data were used to support findings.

The same was done with the five least effective teachers (i.e., Cathy, Connie, Jamie,

Lacy, and Lark; Table 3.2). Across group differences were then analyzed to look for substantive differences between the most effective teachers and least effective teachers on their perceptions of how legitimate authority is developed within the teacher-student relationship. Relevant responses, in the form of observations and direct quotes from the participants, were extracted to create a descriptive narrative of the findings

Limitations and Trustworthiness

Authority development and the teacher-student relationship are somewhat messy constructs, which means that this study was limited in several ways. As noted earlier, several forms of authority have been described by researchers, but only the development of legitimate authority was the focus of this research. Numerous constructs were described that are necessary for legitimate authority to develop, including pedagogical authority, and practical authority; however, as this study focused on the relational aspect of authority development, only the social aspect of pedagogical authority was investigated. Specifically, this study focused on the relational elements of care, respect, and trust and how they function together in the teacher-student relationship to develop legitimate authority. Other relational elements, like emotions and boundaries, also exist in the teacher-student relationship, but they were not included in this study due to the complexity they would add to the problem at hand. Finally, personality is an important variable that often comes into play in relationships, but personality was not initially considered because this study aimed to describe the dynamic between teacher and student at a very basic, non-situation specific level. However, personality, especially the warmth or coolness of a teacher's personality, emerged from the student data and was noted by the majority of students as an

important aspect of an effective or ineffective teacher, so the teacher aspect of personality was included on the teacher observation form.

A qualitative design with two sequential sets of data collection (i.e. student data collected first, followed by teacher data collection) was chosen for this study in order to fully capture the process of relational and authority development from the perspectives of both students and teachers (Creswell, 2007; Greene et al., 1989; Schutz et al., 2009). Even though this study is relatively comprehensive, given the number and variety of data sources triangulated, it still has limitations.

First, this study is limited because it describes the teacher-student relationship (i.e., a highly complex construct) using limited samples of student (N=20) and teacher (N=15) participants from a single moderately-sized school district in Oklahoma. While the student participants represented a single high school grade level (i.e., sophomores) and content area (i.e., English II); they were purposefully criterion-sampled (Patton, 2002). Criterion sampling added to the trustworthiness of the study because the population chosen was data rich based on their experiential and demographic heterogeneity. Compared to the students, the purposeful random sample of teachers (N=15) was demographically homogeneous and lacked in diversity. This is important because it relates back to the earlier argument that these teachers had to be effective in some way other than sharing similar demographics with their students.

Using a purposeful random sampling strategy to select the teachers also added to the credibility of this study because the findings reported came from participants who "were randomly selected in advance of how the outcomes would appear and that the information was comprehensive" (Patton, 2002, p. 241). Even though the purposeful

random sampling strategy used in this qualitative study was not designed to identify a representative sample of teachers, like the statistical random sampling strategies used in quantitative studies do (Patton, 2002), nevertheless, the sample was statistically representative of the teacher population. Demographically, the purposeful random sample of teachers was highly representative of the teacher population. The sample was also highly-representative of the population in that all teacher experience levels (i.e., novice to veteran) and almost all grade levels (i.e., grades 4 and 5 were not represented) and school subjects were included. However, despite the extensive representativeness of the teacher sample, the results of this study may not necessarily generalize to the larger population.

This study also is limited in that it partially relied upon the collection of observation data of the teachers as they taught during their normal class periods. Whether observers are participants or nonparticipants, their mere presence in the observational setting has the potential to produce an observer effect in which those being observed act differently than they would if they were not observed (Patton, 2002). To reduce the observer effect on the teachers and their students and to minimize the disruption of classroom learning, the nonparticipant observers followed several behavioral protocols. First, the observers arrived a few minutes early to each teacher's classroom and simply sat in the room to allow the teacher and students time to become somewhat accustomed to the observers' presence. Second, the nonparticipant observers interacted as little as possible with the teacher and students in the classroom. Third, the observers sat in the back of the room away from the students, often on student-sized chairs or in the floor, to present a lower, less noticeable profile. Fourth, the observers

purposefully chose to wear street clothes in order to blend in with older students. Finally, the observers waited until the class period was over and the students were transitioning before leaving the classroom. These protocols worked very well. For example, in one of the high school classes observed, the students, who were all former students of mine, did not notice the second observer and me until the end of the class.

Two other circumstances also may have helped alleviate the observer effect with the teachers: institution of the new Teacher Leader Effectiveness (TLE) Evaluation system in the state of Oklahoma and the fact that I was an insider because I had very recently been a colleague of these teachers. With the new TLE evaluation system set in place the same academic year the data was collected for this study (i.e., 2012-2013), all the teachers in the district had become more accustomed to being observed because they were regularly (i.e., multiple times) observed by their own administrators. Since they were already accustomed to observers, our presence probably had little effect on the behavior of the teacher and his or her students. Also, as a former colleague, most of the participants did not see me as an outsider, but rather as someone they knew. More importantly, they most likely saw me as another teacher who understood how things worked in the classroom and therefore saw little reason to "be on their best behavior." The reverse could also be said. As a former colleague who was now working on her doctorate, it was possible that the teacher participants could see me as someone who was there to evaluate or judge them. Given the data collected, which will be discussed in Chapter 4, this was not likely.

As an insider (i.e., former teacher in this school district), my subjectivity also was called into question. While the experience I have as an insider made it easier to

access participants and helped me identify relevant data during collection; it also had the potential to color my view or automatically filter out data that my experiences previously determined were not relevant. In an effort to reduce my bias, I put several measures in place. First, I included my subjectivity statement (Appendix J) to further inform the reader of my positionality as a researcher and possible biases. I chose to maintain a research log in which I documented the progression of the study including: data collections, research meetings, communications with participants, analysis and interpretation notes, brainstorming, questions, and deviations from the research proposal (Patton, 2002). I returned to my participants during analysis and interpretation (i.e., member checking) to have them determine if my analysis and interpretation aligned with what they said and did (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002). Finally, I employed researcher triangulation (Patton, 2002) by having a second observer with me during one of the two scheduled observations of each participant. We simultaneously took independent field notes and completed independent observation checklists on each participant then shared and peer-reviewed our observations (Creswell, 2007). The second observer was also a graduate student in the Educational Psychology Department of the College of Education at the University of Oklahoma. He was in good academic standing with the University and, for a graduate student, had relatively extensive training in quantitative research in the social sciences. The second observer also had some expertise in classroom instruction as, at that time, he had been one of the instructors of the undergraduate course, Cognition, Motivation, and Classroom Management for Teachers, for three years. He was the first to admit, though, that his expertise in classroom instruction was more theoretical than practical since he had

taught about instruction in the P-12 classroom setting, but had never actually taught in that setting. Even with these checks in place, I was still ever mindful of my biases in relation to this study; regularly self-evaluating by asking "is that really what I saw" or "is that really what the participant meant?"

Given these limitations, it was important to maintain high standards for data collection, analysis, and interpretation in order to uphold the integrity of the data sources (Morse, 2003; Patton, 2002). Triangulation using an outside observer and multiple forms of qualitative data strengthened the trustworthiness of the results. As completed, the overall findings of this study illuminate the teacher-student relationship by describing how teachers use care, respect, and trust in the TSR to earn legitimate teacher authority. These findings also further clarified this understanding by clarifying how the relational approaches of effective and ineffective teachers differ as they relate to students.

Chapter 4: Findings and Conclusions

This study aimed to explore and understand how teachers become effective in the classroom by clarifying how legitimate teacher authority develops out of the TSR, specifically through the relational elements of care, respect, and trust. Figure 5.1 provides the updated model of legitimate authority development through the TSR which illustrates how each of the relational elements functions in the TSR. The model in Figure 5.1 is modified from the proposed model in Figure 2.1, which was created based on the existing literature. The model updates in Figure 5.1, which are minor, are based on the findings from research questions 2 and 3 of this study. To help unpack how legitimate authority is developed, and how care, respect, and trust are involved in that process, the findings of this study will be presented with respect to the research questions. Following are the findings in response to the research questions as they emerged from the multiple forms of data collected in this study. Relevant quotes from student essays and teacher interviews, and relevant observation notes are included in the findings. Since the student essays were de-identified, quotes from individual students will be identified by the number each student was assigned. So too, teacher quotes and observations will be identified based on the pseudonym assigned to each teacher. The findings will be presented with respect to the following research questions:

1. What teacher behaviors do high school students in a diversely-populated rural school perceive as characteristic of effective and ineffective teachers? In particular, what teacher behaviors do they identify as characteristic of care, respect, and trust in the teacher-student relationship, respectively?

2. How do teachers in a diversely-populated rural school develop legitimate authority through the teacher-student relationship? In particular, how do they perceive and experience care, respect, and trust, respectively?

3. How does the development of legitimate authority differ between the teachers considered most and least effective? In particular, how do their perceptions and experiences differ in relation to care, respect, and trust, respectively?

Student Responses to Research Question One

Research question one was designed to investigate student perceptions of the characteristics of effective and ineffective teachers, especially in relation to care, respect, and trust in the TSR. De-identified student essays were used to answer this question. In their essays, the students described many ways that effective and ineffective teachers differ which were clearly based on care, respect, and trust. They also described several ways effective and ineffective teachers differ based on constructs that variously combined care, respect, and trust. Finally, and somewhat surprisingly, many of the students included aspects of authority or leadership in their descriptions of effective and ineffective teachers, with three students (i.e., Students 5, 10, and 12) referring specifically to teachers as authorities and leaders. This was surprising because initially the students were not made privy to the fact that the main portion of this study was on legitimate authority development. In the writing prompt, the students were only asked to write about effective and ineffective teachers in relation to care, respect, and trust. It was only after they had finished their essays and were invited to participate in the study that the students learned the study was over legitimate authority development in the TSR. In almost all

instances, students who wrote about authority or leadership skills did so when writing about respect in the TSR. Given that these students wrote about authority and leadership skills in their essays without being prompted to do so, it is apparent that even high school students recognize that a teacher's effectiveness or ineffectiveness in many ways is based on his or her authority in the classroom.

The students described care, respect, and trust in multiple ways and were very clear on how effective and ineffective teachers differ in these areas. All students (N=20) specifically wrote about care; while only a little more than half wrote specifically on respect (N=13) and trust (N=11) in the TSR. The total number of students who wrote about each individual relational element correlates directly with the volume written on each element by individual students. For example, all the students wrote about care; and on an individual basis, each student wrote the most about care. While students were highly descriptive of the aspects of care, their comments on respect, with few exceptions, were noticeably less numerous than care, and the students wrote even less about trust. Given that every student wrote about care, it is probably the most noticeable relational element for these students. Considering the total number of students who wrote about each element, combined with the actual amount written on each relational element, it appears that these may be good indicators of how salient these relational elements are for the students who participated in this study.

Student perceptions of care.

All the students wrote about their perceptions of how effective teachers show care and how ineffective teachers do not show care. For example, Student 1 wrote, "Effective teachers…care about what they are doing and about you," while Student 4 wrote, "Bad

teachers don't care about their job or their students." These quotes could be translated as: Effective teachers care about teaching and students, and ineffective teacher do not care about teaching and students. It is interesting that these two students paired care for teaching with care for students, as if one cannot exist without the other. This group of students identified multiple aspects of the care they perceived coming from effective teachers; a type of care which can predominantly be described as academic care. These aspects included:

1. Planning for student understanding using activities, pacing, and relevance;

2. Providing support for student understanding by checking students' comprehension, allowing questions, recognizing students' level of understanding, and providing further help, often by explaining again; and

3. Being available to students during class and especially outside of class.

Combining the many facets of care these students identified, care in the TSR may be best understood as the *willingness* to know and understand students and to spend the time and effort it takes to make sure students understand the academic lesson at hand.

These students were also very descriptive of how ineffective teachers caused them to be frustrated. Ineffective teachers did this by habitually moving through lessons too quickly and refusing to answer questions or spend any more time on the lesson. While Student 3 described effective teachers as, "willing to help you after school," the student countered with this scathing description of ineffective teachers: "No matter how many times you ask, they aren't willing to help even if your grades are slipping." These findings for both effective and ineffective teachers align with many other studies in the literature in which students from middle school through high school perceived teacher

care to be a form of interpersonal academic nurturance (Davis, 2006; Dolan & McCaslin, 2008; Hayes, Ryan, & Zseller, 1994; Wentzel, 1997; Wilson, & Corbett, 2001).

The students also noted that the perceived presence or absence of care from the teacher affected their ability to work in the classroom. Student 11 noted: "Students… learn more when their teachers care because they feel comfortable with the subject. Caring teachers spend some extra time with the kids who need it…an effective caring teacher makes you feel accomplished…wanting to learn more." Conversely, Student 6 wrote: "The teacher that doesn't show care is ineffective. They don't extend a helping hand, so the students can find no understanding in the topic. Eventually the students that don't understand will lose interest in the subject." These quotes and many others like them indicate that the academic care students receive from their teachers is motivational to them. Student 11 noted that a caring teacher motivates students by making them feel comfortable, accomplished, and wanting to learn more. Student 6 made the converse point; uncaring teachers demotivate students by not helping their students understand, resulting in the students losing interest.

These student responses match well with two related motivational theories: self-determination theory and autonomy supportive teaching (Reeve, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In self-determination theory three basic human needs must be met in order to motivate students: relatedness, competence, and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000); autonomy supportive teaching describes how teachers relate to students in a way that helps fulfill those three student needs (Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al., 2004). By academically caring for students and providing them multiple opportunities to understand and learn, caring teachers motivate students (i.e., Student 11's "wanting to learn more") when they

provide for relatedness (i.e., Student 11's "comfortable") and allow students to develop competence (i.e., Student 11's "accomplished") which can lead to autonomy (Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al., 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

So too, these student responses about the relationship between teacher academic care and motivation concur with findings on student receiver apprehension from the instructional communication literature. As noted earlier in Chapter 2, students who suffer from receiver apprehension perceive that they are unable to process incoming information fully or accurately, and that the apprehension itself impedes students' actual ability to comprehend incoming information, becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Ellis, 2000, 2004). Chesebro and McCroskey (2001) suggested that receiver apprehension may be considered a significant barrier to effective instruction. In their study Chesebro and McCroskey (2001) found that teachers who are immediate (i.e., caring) and provide students with clarity on the content (i.e., take the time to explain further) help alleviate receiver apprehension in their students, thus motivating them to engage in the teaching-learning process. The lack of receiver apprehension may be what Student 11 meant when he or she said that caring teachers help students "feel comfortable with the subject." Interestingly, Ellis (2000, 2004) also found that the presence or absence of teacher confirmation, the construct used to operationalize *respect* in Chapter 2, significantly and directly affected receiver apprehension. Chesebro and McCroskey (2001) also found the converse, teachers who were not immediate and did not provide clarity lowered students' motivation to learn as well as lowered the actual amount that the students learned. They also found that students of teachers who were low in immediacy and clarity were more likely to develop a dislike

for the teacher and the content (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). These findings from the literature mesh well with the students' comments on both teachers who show academic care and those who show a lack thereof.

It appears that a teacher's academic care, whether described as immediacy and clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001) in the instructional communication literature or as autonomy supportiveness (Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al., 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000) in the educational psychology literature, shares a direct relationship with motivation: academic care increases motivation and the absence of academic care decreases motivation. When a teacher academically cares for a student, this motivates the student to learn, thus making the teacher effective. The relationship between student motivation and effective teachers has been found by many other researchers (e.g., Anderman & Maehr, 1994; Davis, 2006; Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al., 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wentzel, 1997; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998). On the contrary, the teacher who does not provide academic care is ineffective, according to student 6 and many of the other students in the sample, because the refusal to help students develop understanding demotivates them from continued learning (i.e., Student 6's "lose interest in the subject"). Similar to the relationship between motivation and effective teachers, research has also shown that demotivation can be correlated with ineffective teachers (Christophel & Gorham, 1995).

Student perceptions of care: Summary and implications for teaching.

In general, students perceive the care they receive from teachers in academic terms. Effective teachers are those who put effort into planning and implementing lessons which help students develop an interest in and an academic understanding of subject areas in which students may not initially find attractive or relevant. These teachers are

effective because they are willing to spend the time and effort it takes to help their students find relevance and understand. Effective teachers show their students they care through their willingness to: checking for comprehension after initial instruction, allow students to ask questions, explain multiple times in multiple ways, and make themselves available to their students for individual help inside and outside of class. When teachers do not do these things, students apparently perceive this as a lack of care – regardless of whether the teacher actually cares for the students or not.

Student perceptions of respect.

Respect was apparently an important construct to these high school students. While they did not write as much about respect as they did about care, what they wrote was telling. Those students who wrote about respect wrote much more in relation to ineffective teachers than effective teachers; specifically about disrespect from ineffective teachers. This attention to the negative seems to indicate that the *lack* of respect is very salient to these students, and is similar to findings with secondary students in other studies (Hamill & Boyd, 2003; Pomeroy, 1999; Yelsma & Yelsma, 1998). Respect was described by the students in three main ways: as having the characteristic of reciprocalness and as taking two distinct forms of equality: teacher to student equality and student to student equality.

Reciprocalness.

Reciprocalness, as noted previously in Chapter 2, describes how certain relational constructs, like respect, function similar to a feedback loop (Pekrun, 2006) in that they move back and forth between the individuals in a dyad or relationship, with the extension of respect by one eliciting the return of respect by the other (Bell, 1979; Skinner &

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Belmont, 1993). Reciprocalness may also be understood as a defining characteristic of respect (Goodman, 2009). Less than 25% of the students who wrote about respect were able to operationalize how respect was given or shown; despite this, all who wrote about it were very aware of the reciprocal nature of respect, especially when it was *not* reciprocated the way they expected. Students identified effective teachers as those who freely gave respect to students. This is well-illustrated by Student 15 who wrote about a former teacher/coach: "He made a point of respecting all of the students that talked to him, whether they had him for class or not." The students also noted that effective teachers earned the respect they received. Student 18 noted: "Teachers get more respect when they give respect;" while Student 5 wrote, "Respect…should be mutual between the students and teacher…students do not enter the classroom with respect for the authority figure, *so the teacher must earn their respect. Leading by example and respecting the students is a good way to do this*" [emphasis added].

Ineffective teachers were the opposite of effective teachers. According to the students, ineffective teachers demanded respect from students often without reciprocating or giving respect in return; a lack of respect which appears to be understood by the students as disrespect. Student 18 described ineffective teachers as "greedy – expect respect without returning the favor." Student 15 wrote a much more causal statement: "Teachers that don't get the respect they feel they deserve are often ineffective teachers, due to the simple mindset that if they don't receive the amount of respect they deem necessary, they will not give it in return." A comment made by Student 11may shed light on how this particular teacher "mindset" and the behaviors that proceed from it render teachers ineffective. Student 11wrote that when teachers do not reciprocate respect to

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students it causes the students to, "not want to accomplish anything the teacher gives us to do." It appears that at least this student finds disrespect from a teacher to be demotivational. Student motivation and demotivation in relation to teacher effectiveness and ineffectiveness is an important point which will be discussed later in this chapter.

In regard to how teacher disrespect affects students, Stojanov's (2010) concluding philosophical response on respect in education is enlightening:

> [T]o respect a person means to recognise her as a distinctive centre of consciousness, that is, as a subject of intentions, as the holder of a particular point of view towards the world…Disrespect as a social pathology in education consists both in neglecting the distinctive worldviews and intentions of the students and treating individuals as culturally determined and culturally bound. These two forms of disrespect are not only morally unacceptable. They are also central obstacles in the success of educational practice in terms of the self-realisation and social inclusion of the individual. (p. 171)

In this commentary, Stojanov (2010) called disrespect in education a "social pathology," meaning disrespect is a "social phenomena…directly experienced by individuals as harms…to their social inclusion and to their identity development" (p. 163). Stojanov's view resonates with these students' responses. By refusing to reciprocate respect with students these teachers are, in effect, disrespecting students and causing them harm by demotivating them from learning and exploring in class; learning and explorations which could have helped the students learn about themselves and find common ground with others.

Equality: teacher to student.

Students also described respect as equality, both between teacher and student and between student and student. Student 5 described these dual facets of equality (i.e., teacher-student equality and student-student equality) when he or she wrote about ineffective teachers who show disrespect when they, "talk to me like I am stupid," and

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"give special treatment to certain kids." In reference to equality between teacher and student, effective teachers were described as those who treat students as equals by speaking to them as equals, perhaps doing so by asking for students' thoughts or opinions. Giesinger (2012) described this type of equality as a teacher's recognition that to respect a student, he or she "1) allows for the partial neglect of the child's present point of view, and 2) nevertheless grants the child absolute protection of his dignity" (p. 108). While this may sound counterintuitive, it means that the teacher maintains the student's dignity (i.e., respect for self) by listening to the student as an equal despite the fact that the student's logic may be faulty due to his or her lack of experience or maturity. Giesinger supports this interpretation of respect with the proposal that when one is disrespected, that person resents the disrespect and acts indignant. This aligns quite well with what the students had to say earlier about ineffective teachers who refuse to reciprocate respect back to students.

With regard to teacher-student equality, ineffective teachers were described as those who belittle or demean their students. Student 20 expressed disdain for being "treated like a baby," Student 4 described how "some ineffective teachers call students names" (e.g., dumb, stupid, or lazy), and Student 8 wrote of ineffective teachers who "seemed only to take notice of me when I was doing something wrong." In demeaning and belittling their students these ineffective teachers, knowingly or not, emphasized the power inequality between teacher and student. Pomeroy (1999) described a similar student perception of teachers in her study of British secondary students permanently expelled from school. In this study, the students described teachers they liked and disliked, noting that the teachers they disliked exerted their power in such way that they

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made the students feel like they were at the bottom of the school hierarchy and unworthy

to reach the top where these teachers resided (Pomeroy, 1999). Similarly, a secondary

student in Hamill and Boyd's (2003) study of equality, fairness, and rights from the

perspective of special education students agreed: "Bad teachers don't listen, treat you like

dirt, pick on you, think they are always right and boss you around all the time" (p. 115).

Equality: student to student.

The second form of equality-respect from the teacher, described earlier as student-

student equality, is maintained by effective teachers when they treat all the students fairly

or the same. Student 16 described an effective teacher who "respects her students and

treats them equally;" while Student 14 wrote that "interacting with each student" was

important to being effective. Ineffective teachers on the other hand apparently do not treat

all students the same, but instead may have class pets. Both Student 5 and Student 17

wrote about ineffective teachers who "play favorites" with students, and Student 5 noted

that this was one way ineffective teachers "quickly lose respect." While not used by any

of the students in this sample, the phrase "that's not fair" is regularly used by students in

the classroom to indicate that they have been treated in some way that is perceived to be

unequal. True fairness, however, is a difficult concept to grasp. While students say that

fairness is treating all students the same, this is not really possible given that all students

are different and come from different backgrounds. Most likely fairness, or student-

student equality, means that in preserving the dignity of all students, the teacher allows

all students the same opportunities, affordances, and exceptions, keeping in mind each

student's individual capacities, traits, and/or circumstances (Giesinger, 2012; Goodman,

2009; Stojanov, 2010).

Student perceptions of respect: Summary and implications for teaching.

Respect in the TSR appears to be important to students. Respect was certainly important to the high school students in this study; especially in light of the writings which highlighted the relationship between disrespect and demotivation. Most of the students who wrote about respect wrote about disrespect from ineffective teachers. It appears that the students found it easier to operationalize the disrespect they received from a teacher than the respect they received; indicating that disrespect was more salient than respect for these students. Most of the students who wrote about respect described its reciprocalness, often by discussing how ineffective teachers demand respect from students but do not give respect in return. This lack of reciprocalness was seen most often in teacher to student inequality, in which the teacher demeaned the student, often by stating his or her low expectations for the student or by calling the student derogatory names. Student to student inequality, or favoritism, was also cited by students as a form of disrespect; indicating that favoritism was perceived as demeaning to those students who did not hold favored status with the teacher. It appears that effective teachers show respect to their students by treating them all the same, while also treating them as individuals, a construct described earlier as fairness. It also appears, according to these students that effective teachers recognize the reciprocalness of respect and are willing to give respect to students – even to students whom the teacher does not know and who may not have earned respect in the first place. Finally, as noted by a couple of students, one of the best ways teachers can show respect to students is by using the "Golden Rule" or "leading by example;" that is, treating others the way you want to be treated.

Student perceptions of trust.

The students had very little to say about trust as compared to care and respect, indicating that, as a relational element, it was not very salient for many students. In most cases, the students simply described different ways that effective teachers earned student trust versus ways ineffective teachers lost student trust. Effective teachers earned their students' trust when they were prepared, kept their word, and gave students the opportunity to be responsible. Student 16 noted that effective teachers form a trust-bond with students and the, "foundation of trust kept the teacher and students accountable toward each other." Ineffective teachers, on the other hand, lost their students' trust when they were unprepared or confusing, changed assignments or due dates capriciously, or more telling, did not allow students the opportunity to be responsible. Ineffective teachers who were unprepared either pedagogically or content-wise were written about the most. Students 2, 4, 7, 12, 16, and 17 each wrote specifically about ineffective teachers who lost student trust because they did not know what they were teaching, could not adequately convey it in a manner that students could understand, or assigned work that was unrelated to the current topic.

Student perceptions of trust: Summary and implications for teaching.

Student 16's discussion of the trust-bond between teacher and student is very telling in its depiction of trust in the TSR as one of shared accountability and connection. Student 16 saw this bond of trust as very important. Including what several other students wrote about ineffective teachers and what makes them untrustworthy, it is relatively easy to see why Student 16 saw this bond of trust as important. If the student cannot trust that the information or assignments the teacher gives in class are correct; how can the student trust anything else the teacher says? It appears that the best way for a teacher to prove his

or her trustworthiness in the classroom is to be prepared for class, be clear and consistent with students during class, and to allow students to prove that they, too, can be trusted.

Newly emerged constructs.

While the students were asked specifically in their writing prompt (Appendix A) to "describe and compare effective and ineffective teachers specifically on the topics of *care, respect, and trust*" [original emphasis], many times they described effective and ineffective teachers in ways which did not clearly fit within care, respect and trust. Four constructs, which appear to combine care, respect, and trust in various ways, emerged during analysis: understanding, approachability, connection, and authority/leadership. Numerous students used these constructs to separate effective and ineffective teachers.

Understanding.

The students wrote quite a bit about understanding, but wrote more in regard to effective teachers than ineffective teachers. Student 2 wrote: "Teachers that are understanding and willing to listen to their students will be effective teachers." Understanding was chosen as an *in vivo* code because many of the students, like Student 2, used the term specifically when describing effective teachers. As the students operationalized the term understanding by describing the characteristics of effective teachers they used terms like "nonjudgmental," "patient," and "listens." Nonjudgmental may be an important aspect of understanding in that it appears to imply forgiveness, which is necessary for relationships to function properly (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Newberry, 2010). Student 7 wrote that effective teachers are "patient with students and remember that no one is perfect and we all deserve a second chance." This is a good description of how teachers extend understanding to their students and complete it with

forgiveness; and probably is what students actually perceive as understanding. While effective teachers were perceived as understanding by students when they listened, and remained patient and nonjudgmental; ineffective teachers were described as judgmental and impatient. Student 18 wrote that with an ineffective teacher, students feel, "discouraged…like they will be judged." The term discouraged may easily be construed as demotivation in this circumstance, indicating that teachers who do not understand and do not forgive (i.e., "judged") their students may demotivate them.

The understanding of which the students spoke well-matches the care described in the construct of teacher credibility, detailed earlier in chapter 2, with the exception that understanding in this study was found to include the relational element of respect. According to McCroskey and Teven (1997, 1999) teachers with credibility are perceived by students to show care through understanding, empathy, and responsiveness, with understanding and empathy seen as the ability to take another's perspective while responsiveness is recognized as the behaviors teachers perform that students actually perceive as care (i.e., paying attention to and listening to students). While McCroskey and Teven (1997, 1999) did not delineate respect in the construct of teacher credibility, it appears that, given the current definition of respect used in this study (i.e., value and appreciation for another's individuality), both empathy and understanding from the construct of teacher credibility may be the equivalent of respect since they both involve taking the other's perspective, which is necessary to appreciate and value it.

It is interesting to note the reciprocity of both listening and understanding between teachers and students, as if the two constructs are related. Student 8 wrote: "I was always eager to listen to her, because she took the time to listen to me…and tried

[her] best to understand." Several students noted it was easier to work with, listen to, and understand from an understanding teacher (i.e., effective teacher) while it was harder to work with and listen to a teacher who is *not* understanding (i.e., ineffective teacher). Perhaps this is what is meant by the saying: "They don't care how much you know until they know how much you care." From the students' essays, it appears that a teacher, who is perceived to be understanding, motivates students because they are more willing to listen and try to understand; while a teacher who is not understanding with students demotivates them because they do not want to listen and therefore find it harder to understand the teacher. As noted previously in the discussion of care in Chapter 2, Reeve (2006) found teacher understanding to be an autonomy supportive behavior that increases student motivation. Perhaps teacher understanding supports motivation because as the teacher *tries to listen to and understand* students, the students are naturally motivated to reciprocate by *trying to listen to and understand* the teacher, increasing their chances at academic success.

Student perceptions of understanding: Summary and implications for teaching.

According to the students in this study, understanding is very important in the TSR. Understanding appears to combine the elements of care and respect in academic and social situations; and from the way the students described it, more emphasis is placed on care than on respect. This means that because the teacher values and appreciates (i.e., respects) the individual student for his or her specific characteristics and circumstances, the teacher nurtures (i.e., cares for) the student in order to help the student improve or mature. Understanding appears to involve helping students move beyond mistakes, which enables them to move forward in their learning. Understanding

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teachers, who are nonjudgmental and forgiving, use care and respect to help students move beyond academic and social mistakes. They do this by letting students know that mistakes are a natural part of the learning process and that making a mistake does not mean one is dumb or a bad person.

*Approachability***.**

The students wrote extensively about characteristics that make teachers approachable. Foremost, the students described approachable teachers are friendly and involved. After that, they listed: kind, candid, happy, humorous, likeable personality, and emotionally stable. Student 5 operationalized friendly as "ask[ing] me about my activities outside of the classroom" while Student 8 said the teacher "took the time to converse." Several students described how they could trust effective teachers to give advice and support, and many wrote of teachers helping them with their problems. Student 9 wrote, "You know you're not alone and can go to them." Student 13 described approachable teachers this way: "Some of the teachers I've had have helped me in every way possible. They give me school help and help with just life in general. I wish more teachers would help and care about their students." From what these students said, approachability appears to be more personal than academic, and trust figures heavily into this construct.

There were notably fewer descriptors of ineffective teachers as far as their approachability was concerned. Student 8 described ineffective teachers as unapproachable because they are "distant …not open for questions or conversations…There is no companionship there, no connection. Instead of looking forward to their classes, I dreaded it." Student 4 and Student 7 described ineffective teachers as unapproachable because they can be openly angry. Student 14 noted:

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"students find them [ineffective teachers] to be intimidating;" and later continued, "Teachers should maybe participate in activities with the class and get to know each student." Student 12 described what ineffective teachers miss out on, due to their unapproachability: "If a teacher becomes unavailable to their students on a deeper level then they have just missed an opportunity to maybe inspire a doctor or the next president." Understandably, unlike approachable effective teachers, the students never wrote about trust with unapproachable ineffective teachers.

Given how the students described effective and ineffective teachers, it is not surprising that students either do or do not develop a trust with them. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) defined trust as a multidimensional construct that includes the "willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open" (p. 556). The affinity these students described with approachable effective teachers included synonyms for most of these characteristics, including: "likeable," "benevolent," "kind," "candid," "happy all the time," "emotionally and mentally secure," and "not ever let things get to them." In being approachable with students, effective teachers provide the students with the evidence they need to develop trust with the teacher; a trust which is necessary before students allow teachers to have authority over them (Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

Student perceptions of approachability: Summary and implications for teaching.

Being friendly (but "not a best friend") and involved in their students' lives outside the classroom helps effective teachers get to know their students. According to these students, it appears that effective teachers who are friendly and involved (i.e., show

care and respect) become approachable and trustworthy to students. This parallels the description of this process given in literature review, with the combination of care and respect in the TSR necessary for trust to develop. Oddly enough, the type of care the students described in relation to approachability is not the academic care described earlier; but rather is more personal in nature. Even though the care is perceived as personal, being approachable to students helps them both personally and academically; especially when one realizes that students' personal problems often impede their academic achievement in the classroom.

Connection.

Several students used the term "connection" to describe the relationship formed between teacher and student (i.e., the TSR), so the term "connection" was used as an *in vivo* code. Using descriptors such as "care," "love," "teach with heart and mind," "take pride in their students," and "they have a trust to help you with," the students described how teachers form connections with students by focusing on and relating to them as individuals. More importantly, the students spoke of how the connection helped them perform better in class, gave them confidence, and helped them succeed academically. As Goldstein (1999) noted: "the centrality of interpersonal relationships is readily apparent: The teacher and student must connect with each other in order to work together productively and successfully" (p. 650). Student 10 described this connection rather succinctly: "An effective teacher is a very patient individual…willing to make sacrifices for the students' well-being. An effective teacher must have certain qualities such as being stern, but easy-going. Trustworthy, but not a best friend." Given the various ways

the students described the connection it appears that it consists of a combination of care, respect, and trust.

When the students countered with descriptions of ineffective teachers, they said these teachers either did not try to make the connection with students or purposefully avoided making the connection. The students said these teachers did not care about them or take pride in their jobs, but rather focused on themselves, what other teachers thought of them, or test scores. The focus on test scores is probably closely tied to the teachers' focus on themselves and what other teachers think of them since teachers are evaluated in part based on their test scores. Noddings (1984) noted that teachers who primarily focus on their students' performance in class (i.e., test scores) make their students feel like "objects" rather than human beings. Of greater concern, many of the students, like Student 16, described ineffective teachers as those who do not "really care to be there except to get paid." This statement, and many more like it, indicates the students perceive these teachers as lacking in dedication or commitment to their students and their students' education. From their comments it sounds as if the students resent ineffective teachers who focus on things rather than them as human beings. In his treatise on respect in education, Giesinger (2012) had this to say about where a teacher's focus should lie: "Teachers have an obligation to take a special interest in their students…find out about the particular needs, points of view, capacities, and potentials of the students, and organize the processes of teaching and learning in accordance with these insights" (p. 106). As noted earlier in the discussion of respect, the students were probably resentful because the ineffective teacher's focus on them as students rather than as whole human

beings showed a serious lack of respect (Giesinger, 2012); this disrespect resulted in the students' indignation most likely because the students felt devalued or even rejected.

Student perceptions of connection: Summary and implications for teaching.

From the students' descriptions, it appears that connection may be the next step beyond approachable; for how can a connection be made if one of the two individuals in the relationship cannot approach the other? It appears that by focusing on students and being willing to spend extra time with students, effective teachers also convey that they are willing to make a connection with students. Similar to approachability, the type of care the students described in relation to connection was more personal in nature. Despite its personal nature, the connection made with students helps them both personally and academically.

Authority/leadership.

Students 5, 10, and 12 all specifically used either the term authority figure or leader to describe the role of effective teachers in the classroom. As noted before, this was surprising since the students were not asked to write about authority. In addition to those three students, several others described how effective teachers actually hold authority in their classrooms and ineffective teachers do not. Effective teachers apparently hold authority when they lead by example, give respect to students, effectively manage their classrooms, and prove that students can trust them to know how to teach and what to do. These exemplars match up with the constructs Steutel and Spiecker (2000) described which students need in order to give their consent for an authority to have power; belief that the authority cares for and respects those in subjugation and can be trusted to continue in this manner.

Another aspect of how effective teachers hold authority that was described by several students was balance. Student 8 described an effective teacher as, "One who can correct you and care about you in balance." Student 10 wrote, "An effective teacher must have certain qualities such as being stern, but easy going. Trustworthy, but not a best friend…It takes a very specific balance to make a great teacher." On the other hand, Student 15 described ineffective teachers as lacking in authority in the classroom because they are "too strict, too kind or…unable to communicate." These students' observations appear to describe, from their perspective, the reciprocal negotiations for legitimate authority, which appear to be predicated upon care, respect, and trust, that periodically take place between teacher and students (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Turman & Schrodt, 2006).

Student perceptions of authority/leadership: Summary and implications for teaching.

As these students recognized, teacher effectiveness is predicated upon the ability to hold authority in the classroom. These students also noted that earning and holding authority depends upon the teacher's ability to balance his or her approach to students or "negotiate" with them through the TSR. Students 8, 10, and 15 all described this balance in reference to the relational elements; so it appears that balance may be negotiated with students via care, respect, and trust as they reciprocate through the TSR. Finding balance with students appears to be necessary for them to be willing to submit to a teacher's authority, thus legitimizing it.

Summary: Student Responses to Research Question One.

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Research Question1: What teacher behaviors do high school students in a diversely-populated rural school perceive as characteristic of effective and ineffective teachers? In particular, what teacher behaviors do they identify as characteristic of care, respect, and trust in the teacher-student relationship, respectively?

Even though only 20 students chose to provide their essays for analysis, the data captured was rich and deep. Most of the students agreed on their perceptions of what makes teachers effective or ineffective. It was interesting to note that their perceptual levels of care, respect, and trust varied; with all of them describing care in the TSR, almost two-thirds able to describe respect, and just over half writing on trust.

The analysis of student essays identified several key characteristics on which students perceive effective and ineffective teachers differ in the areas of care, respect, and trust. According to the students, effective teachers show care most by being willing to spend the time necessary to get to know their students and to help their students understand – mostly academically but also on a personal level. The students said effective teachers show respect by 1) giving respect to students without necessarily expecting it from them, 2) treating all students fairly by treating them as equal to each other, and 3) treating students as equal to themselves by treating students as mature individuals. More importantly, the students who wrote on ineffective teachers and the disrespect they show made the direct relationship between respect and motivation pretty clear – that respect was motivational and disrespect was demotivational. The students wrote little about trust, but noted that effective teachers showed trust by keeping their word and allowing students the opportunity to show they were responsible and trustworthy. Ineffective

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teachers on the other hand, often did not put forth the effort to show their students any of these things.

The students also wrote that effective and ineffective teachers differ in ways that do not clearly delineate into care, respect, and trust. The students wrote that effective and ineffective teachers differ in their understanding of students, in how approachable they are to students, in their willingness to form a connection with students, and also in their ability to hold authority and lead in their own classrooms. As described by the students, effective teachers tried to understand, be approachable to, and connect with students on a regular basis; while ineffective teachers did not, either because they did not know how or purposefully chose to not put forth the necessary effort. From what four students wrote, it appears that teachers who are willing to put forth the effort with students and who can balance the relational elements their TSRs earn legitimate authority from their students.

The student data collected to answer research question one was rich and thick. Given the amount of practical information collected, it seemed appropriate to provide potential implications the student data have for teaching. In the following teacher responses to research question two, a few points of comparison between the students' perceptions and the teachers' perceptions also have been made. It must be noted, however, that while these potential implications and points of comparison are important, they are not the primary reason for collecting the student data. The primary reason for the student data was to analyze it for content and then use the content analysis to produce the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) for the second stage of data collection.

Teacher Responses to Research Question Two

Research question two asked: How do teachers in a diversely-populated rural

school develop legitimate authority through the teacher-student relationship? In

particular, how do they perceive and experience care, respect, and trust, respectively? It is

important at this point to repeat the gist of one of the arguments made in Chapter 1 for

why this study holds significance. While a teacher is understood to be *in loco parentis* or

in place of the parent while at school (Pace & Hemmings, 2007), and uses a teaching-

authority style in the classroom that mirrors parenting-authority styles (Baumrind, 1971,

1973; Davis, 2003; Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 1997, 2002); the teacher is *not* the parent of

the students and does *not* have a long history with them to back up his or her claim to

authority over the students (Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Pomeroy, 1999). As such, teachers

initially hold authority with students in name only and must quickly develop an authority

relationship with their students if they want to be effective in the classroom (Horan et al.,

2011; Myers & Martin, 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000). It is

the rapid development of teacher authority that lies at the heart of this study (see Figure

5.1). While parents have years to develop authority with their children, elementary

teachers have only a few days to develop a similar dynamic with their students and

secondary teachers literally have only hours to do the same. Demystifying the process

through which legitimate authority is developed by effective teachers is important for the

increased future effectiveness of teacher candidates and veteran teachers alike.

To answer Research Question Two, interview and observational data collected

from 12 of the 15 classroom teachers randomly selected from a single diverse rural

school district were used (see Table 3.1). As described in Chapter 3, these 12 teachers

were categorized as legitimate authorities (Table 3.3) based on their interview and

observational data. Interview data were analyzed across the 12 participants categorized as legitimate authorities to identify what they perceived to be the process through which legitimate authority develops. Observational data from the 12 individual teachers were used to support the conclusions, pertinent quotes were employed to illustrate specific points, and relevant findings from the literature were drawn in to support conclusions.

Legitimate authority development.

Most of the teachers in this study (N=12) agreed during their interviews that they were legitimate authorities (i.e., Abby, Allie, Amber, Candy, Carl, Chris, Jessica, Kristy, Lacy, Lark, Sandra, and Tammy). When their observations were compared with their interviews, two of the 12 who identified themselves as legitimate authorities were re-categorized as laissez-faire authorities (i.e., Jessica and Lark), and the two who identified themselves as traditional authorities (i.e., Cathy and Jamie) were re-categorized as legitimate authorities (i.e., Abby, Allie, Amber, Candy, Carl, Cathy, Chris, Jamie, Kristy, Lacy, Sandra, and Tammy).

Of the 12 teachers finally categorized as legitimate authorities (see Table 3.3), eight of their interview accounts, which detailed how the teachers perceived their interactions with their students in class, corresponded closely with their observed in-class behaviors (Abby, Allie, Amber, Candy, Carl, Chris, Kristy, and Tammy). This indicates that these eight teachers were realistically aware of how they interacted with students, which lends credence to their descriptions of how legitimate authority is earned and maintained with students. As important, their interview accounts and observations corresponded well with the descriptions of legitimate authority found in the literature

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(Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011, 2012; McLaughlin, 1991; Macleod, MacAllister, & Pirrie, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

Even though these 12 teachers were all categorized as holding legitimate authority (Table 3.3), their individual approaches to earning or developing legitimate authority varied in the ways they viewed the balance of care, respect, and trust in their TSRs (see Figure 5.1); some varied much more than others. It is most likely these individual differences which resulted in the variations found in their levels of effectiveness in the classroom as noted from their observations and rankings. Despite these individual variations, the majority of the group followed a relatively general and balanced pattern as they developed relationships with their students; and in so doing, legitimized their authority with the students. It is interesting to note that none of these teachers had ever really thought about the development of authority in the context of their TSRs. Most of them simply realized that they needed to gain the cooperation of their students in order for learning to occur, and experience had shown them that getting to know their students (i.e., building TSRs) was the most effective and efficient way to gain student cooperation. Both Kristy and Carl admitted that their authority style had changed over the years from traditional to legitimate authority; each came to the realization that it was easier to gain student cooperation by using a legitimate authority style to earn authority than by using a traditional authority style and demanding authority.

The interviews were inductively analyzed to describe the general pattern of the development of legitimate authority across the 12 participants. As noted earlier, examples from individual observations and relevant quotes were used as suitable illustrations for specific findings; so too, conclusions from the research literature were used to support the

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identified pattern of legitimate authority development, specifically with regard to the roles of care, respect, and trust in the development of legitimate authority.

Legitimate authority development: Purposefulness.

One of the most common responses of all 12 participants, in terms of developing legitimate authority, was having purposefulness or being purposeful with students. Purposefulness appears to be a teacher's awareness of the future consequences of his or her interactions with students; especially in relation to individual students' future development. For example, Abby, an early childhood special education teacher who teaches young students with moderate to severe behavioral problems, spoke of being highly aware of and purposeful about her interactions with students; knowing that these interactions will have long-term social effects for her students which directly affect their future success as students. One of the first things Abby discussed about her TSRs was gaining compliance from her students, who are in her classroom because of their previous excessive non-compliance and misbehavior with other teachers (i.e., defiance and tantrums). Abby said, "I would rather go ahead and get the blow up, and then us realize what the rules are and get that over with, than to continue to enable a child to have really bad social skills." Having observed a student's blow up when Abby gave the student a directive, watching how Abby handled the blow up, and then how the student responded afterward (i.e., remorseful acceptance of the consequence followed by the student complying with her original request); it is apparent just how important it is that she be purposeful with her students. Rather than trying to avoid or prevent a blow up from any of her students, Abby let the tantrum happen. By allowing the tantrum to occur, this allows the student to move beyond it and calm down. Abby then can use the tantrum as a

teaching moment for the student. Abby helps the student better understand his or her behavior, what causes it, and how it needs to change. This helps the student grow and develop toward the goal of becoming a student who can succeed in the regular education classroom. Abby realizes that even though it may be unpleasant, the outcome of every "moment," especially a blow up moment, matters for the future development of her students and she is therefore very purposeful about the way she interacts with them.

While Abby did not use the term, what she described is the process of socialization (see Figure 5.1), which was discussed in Chapter 2. Socialization is the process whereby the thoughts, attitudes, and actions of a less developed individual are influenced and molded by a more developed individual (Grusec & Hastings, 2007; Harter, 1999; Maccoby, 1992, 2007). In the TSR, the process of socialization involves the teacher influencing and sometimes overtly helping the student modify or change his or her thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors to better fit the learning context (Davis, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Liable & Thompson, 2007; Lutfey & Mortimer, 2003; Noddings, 1988, 2005; Owens, 2003; Walker, 2008; Wentzel, 2002; Wentzel & Looney, 2007). In being purposeful about her interactions with her students, Abby is better able to regulate the socialization of each of her students toward the goal of regular student compliance in the classroom which can lead to greater chances for their academic success in the future.

Abby was not the only teacher who spoke of being aware of and purposeful about the way she approached students. Every teacher classified as a legitimate authority (Table 3.3) spoke of his or her awareness of the TSR and how students respond to it. In particular, their responses showed their mindfulness about the importance of the TSR and

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its impact on student well-being. For instance, in response to the first interview question, "What basic perceptions do you have about the teacher-student relationship," Candy, Jamie, and Sandra responded respectively with: "I think it's one of the most important relationships," "It's very valuable…very critical," and "I think it's very important." Goldstein (1999) agreed with these teachers: "Again, the centrality of interpersonal relationships is readily apparent: The teacher and the students must connect with each other in order to work together productively and successfully" (p. 650).

In relation to this, these teachers also discussed the amount of thought, effort, and time they devoted to creating and maintaining their TSRs. The amount of time it takes to create an effective TSR was a consistent theme across almost all of the teachers categorized as legitimate authorities. As Sandra noted: "…the longer I teach the longer it takes to build that trust is what I'm starting to see… I think it's societal." Awareness of the importance of TSRs and the amount of time and effort it takes to produce them appears to instill a purposefulness in these teachers, which guides the way they interact with their students.

Legitimate authority development: The first day of school.

Given the purposefulness of these 12 teachers, the first day of school is a big day for them because that is when their purposeful interactions with students begin. Ten of the 12 (i.e., exception: Candy and Chris, who, as first years, had only had one "first day of school") described how they set their plans into motion on the first day to set the tone for the entire year. Teachers who use legitimate authority seem to recognize that planting the seeds for student cooperation on that first day is critical to their students' academic success for the rest of the year and beyond.

For teachers who earn legitimate authority, the first day of school is a very busy day. All of the teachers in this group described how, on the first day, they initialize the reciprocation of the elements of their TSRs (i.e., care, respect, and trust) with students to start the development of their authority with students. These teachers' perception of the reciprocalness of the relational elements has also been noted in the literature, as was discussed earlier in Chapter 2 (Ellis, 2000; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Harjunen, 2011, 2012; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). To develop their authority, these 12 teachers use an approach with students which can best be described as authoritative; high in both demandingness or assertiveness, and responsiveness (Baumrind, 1971, 1973; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). All of the teachers in this group start their first day of school by staking their claim to authority; they go over and clarify their expectations, rules, and boundaries with students (i.e., demandingness or assertiveness), and most of them said they also model the behaviors they want to see from their students. Once the rules and expectations have been clarified and understood, all of these teachers then set about the business of legitimizing their authority by forming relationships with their students. It is through these relationships that teachers are able to show their students that they are caring and respectful (i.e. responsiveness), which indicates the teacher is worthy of trust. With this evidence in place, students become willing to cooperate with the teacher and allow him or her to hold legitimate authority in the classroom. All 12 teachers in this group explained, in one way or another, how care, respect, and in some cases, trust, were extended to students in order to elicit the return of these relational elements from the students.

   Legitimate authority development: Care.

All 12 of these teachers, who hold legitimate authority, discussed how they show students they care by learning about their students on a personal level and by meeting their needs (see Figure 5.1). Several also shared how their students respond to the care they are given. It is interesting to note that the two forms of care these teachers discussed, which could be described as attentiveness or relational knowing (Elbaz, 1992, Hollingsworth et al., 1993; Webb & Blond, 1995), are almost exclusively social or personal in nature and do not appear to be academic in any way. As such, teacher care appears to be a relational element that is communicated to students on an individual basis instead of communicated to students grouped as a class.

Care: Learning about students on a personal level.

The majority of teachers in this category discussed learning about their students on a personal level as a way to communicate care to their students. Amber described how she goes about this with her special education students: "…it's everything. It's showing that I do care about them so I ask them 'what did you do last night,' 'are you okay,' 'how was your softball game,' 'how was cheerleading try outs?'" Kristy took a slightly different tack with her answer:

> Uh…caring, uh, taking time to know them, not just 'you're in my
> classroom and shove a little math down your throat and get out of here.'
> Interest in other activities that they do… showing that there's more to a
> kid and some it's just surviving to get here.

During every observation, I witnessed Amber and Kristy, and every other teacher in this group asking questions and making small talk with their students before and after class.

Care: Meeting students' needs.

Many teachers spoke of caring for students by meeting their physical or emotional needs. Jamie admitted "a lot of Friday's I like to say, 'Love you' as they're heading out

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the door." I actually observed her doing this with her kindergarteners on a Thursday, so perhaps she does it more often than she was willing to admit. Kristy talked about meeting her junior high students' needs by hugging them or touching them on the shoulder when they needed support, and was observed doing this on more than one occasion. Kristy also spoke of going the extra mile to help a pair of siblings by "picking them up at the shelter and bringing them to school." Tammy, the high school vocational teacher, stated quite matter-of-factly: "One will come in here and say I need a hug, and I give them a hug, just like a parent would. And sometimes they just need that, so by golly I'm going to give them a hug." During Tammy's second observation, a student came in late, and in tears, and Tammy had the student sit in her office. Once Tammy had given the rest of the students their assignments, she went to her office and spoke quietly with the student, hugging her frequently. Later I found out the student had just found out that a close relative had been diagnosed with a terminal illness. Tammy comforted that student, just as if she were her mother. Noddings (1998, 2005) noted, as she described care as a relational ethic, that meeting needs is one of the first actions taken by the carer (i.e., teacher) within a caring dyad.

It is interesting to note that this last aspect of teacher care, meeting student needs, was commonly noted by many of the students in their essays. Student 1 described effective teachers as those who "…always make sure you are on track with what's going on." Interestingly, when the students wrote of teachers meeting their needs, they focused much more on academic help than the social or personal help of which the teachers spoke.

   Legitimate authority development: Respect.

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Unlike care, respect was much more difficult for these teachers who hold legitimate authority to explain. All of them were able to discuss respect in their TSRs but their comments were more general. All of them recognized the importance of respect to maintaining both their authority and the proper functioning of a classroom. Only after much thought and discussion of what *disrespect* looks like were seven of these teachers actually able to operationalize how they gave or showed respect to their students; and even then, it was usually only operationalized with a single example.

All of the teachers categorized as legitimate authorities (Table 3.3) discussed how they expected respect from their students. Eight of the 12 even described the reciprocal nature of respect (see Figure 5.1); that they had to give respect to students if they wanted respect in return. Allie put it this way, "…we have to earn one another's respect and even though I'm the teacher I have to show them respect, that I respect their opinions and their thoughts and their well-being in my classroom, before I'm going to receive it." Candy and Chris, the two first year teachers, and Jamie, Sandra, and Tammy all directly instruct their students on respect the first day of school and explain to the students that respect is earned. Chris, who teaches in junior high and also coaches, goes one step further with his students:

> I try to also make them understand that you have to respect yourself before
> you can get respect and I think that's something that's, I mean it's
> obviously not my job to teach that, it's not on the curriculum but it needs
> to be taught and there's so many kids that don't respect themselves and it
> really makes me sad. I guess I'm old fashioned, but I want to just grab up
> some of these kids and tell them "you know, if you would respect yourself
> so many other people would treat you so much better" because they treat
> themselves so poorly. So I try to preach that when I can, I try to show it, I
> try to show that if you respect yourself you'll receive respect.

Seven of the 12 also spoke of modeling respect so their students would know what was expected. Carl explained that he also models respect to show his students that the

expectation of treating others with respect held for him as well. He went so far as to allow his high school students to "correct" his behavior if he was ever disrespectful in class.

As noted earlier, five of the 12 teacher participants in this study were unable to operationalize respect beyond saying something like, "I treat them with respect." The rest of the 12 teachers (i.e., Abby, Amber, Carl, Cathy, Kristy, Lacy, and Sandra) were able to comment on how they show respect to their students. These teachers show their students respect by: 1) treating them as individuals, 2) valuing/recognizing their worth, and 3) allowing autonomy. Following is more detailed description of each aspect of respect reported by these seven teachers.

Respect: Treating students as individuals.

Six of the seven (i.e., exception: Cathy) spoke of *treating students as individuals*. Given that she is a special education teacher of students with behavioral problems, it was not surprising that Abby spoke extensively about treating her students as individuals: "…you literally have to give these kids the respect of treating them as an individual, understanding that there's good days and bad days." Sandra said, "I try to validate their feelings." Amber noted, "I tell them up front 'you're all different so therefore I will treat you as the individuals that you are.'" Lacy approached this from a slightly different angle, when she spoke of a student who "never wants to be serious" in class because his mother had a terminal illness, "if he'd be any other kid though he would be in the office probably. Any other kid wouldn't get the lee way." Lacy noted that the rest of the students in class seemed to understand that this student received leeway because of his particular situation and did not think it unfair. In each of these cases, the teachers appear

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willing to approach and accept students where they currently are, whether academically or emotionally, and choose to work with them.

Respect: Valuing/recognizing students' worth.

Kristy and Sandra both spoke of *valuing students and recognizing their worth*. Kristy's comment came as an additional comment she added when she member-checked the coding of her transcript. She had commented at the end of her interview that she was going to have to put more thought into the whole teacher-student relationship dynamic, which was interesting given that at the time she had been in the classroom for 18 years. Kristy added this to her coding: "Respect-is showing value to others, show appreciation for the worth of someone else. Respect shows consideration toward others. Disrespect – shows a lack of worth and value of others, lack of courtesy." Sandra, who teaches at the same grade-level as Kristy, eighth grade, was much more aware of valuing in her classroom. She spoke of asking her students about their views on things, "…a lot of them their viewpoints are not valued at home or in the world, and so I think it's important that they feel that their viewpoint is valued."

Respect: Allowing students autonomy.

Sandra and Abby both spoke of *allowing their students to have some level of autonomy*. Sandra said, "I don't talk down to them," and agreed later that what she meant by that was that she speaks to her eighth grade students as equals; allowing them to have and express their own thoughts and opinions in class as she would any other adult. Sandra sees this as important, "I think as human beings that's what we all desire is to be respected." For Abby's students, who have been told what to do for most of their young lives, without being told why they needed to do it, Abby clearly explains things so they

can make an informed decision on their own: "…if all we ever said was 'because I said so' then they never learn anything…we're teaching them dependence not independence…give them the opportunity to ask a question, reason with you why that's a good idea…have a discussion."

It is interesting to note that, even though some teachers had difficulty operationalizing how they gave or showed respect to their students, all of them knew exactly what disrespect from students looked like; so it appears that a lack of respect is much more noticeable and easier to describe than the presence of respect. It is also worth noting at this time that of the three categories of respect listed by the teachers, the students wrote about treating them as individuals and allowing them autonomy, but not about valuing/recognizing their worth.

Respect: Expectation of respect among students.

Besides the ways these teachers show respect to their students, several of them also discussed the importance of respect among students. For example, Amber, Cathy, and Sandra spoke of their expectations for students to treat each other with respect. All three directly instructed their students about respecting each other on the first day of class in order to start the development of a comfortable class climate. Amber said, "…that's the first thing I do is talk about 'you show the respect' and telling them 'you will never hear me say 'shut up'…I don't expect to hear those words from you to another student…respect the people around you.'" Cathy said she teaches her students to respect each other; that everyone is different and it is okay to be different, "…when you have that kind of a climate then they're not as afraid to try a little harder, because no one is going to make fun of me." When asked if respect among students was important to her, Sandra

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responded with, "Very much so and I state that at the very beginning, first day. You know, like I said it's one of my rules. It's basically the golden rule" (i.e., treat other's the way you want to be treated). These teachers expect their students to respect each other because allowing disrespect among them would, as Amber put it, "defeat everything I've worked for with these kids to have a safe environment." Maintaining a respectful environment, in which students can feel safe to risk reading aloud or being wrong in front of their teacher and classmates, is apparently important.

Legitimate authority development: Trust.

Trust appears to be very important to authority development. Allie noted that the TSR is "definitely a trust relationship;" while Jamie said that students "need to hear" that they are trusted and also need to "know, believe, trust that whatever you [teacher] say, you will follow through." All 12 of the teachers who hold legitimate authority (Table 3.3) spoke of some aspect of trust in the classroom. All the teachers in this group, except Candy and Lacy, stated that trust is a commodity that is either "earned" from or "built" with students. Each of these 10 teachers went on to describe, with varying detail, how they earn/build trust with students (see Figure 5.1), but most of them had to think and talk for a few minutes before they were able to operationalize trust. Only Abby, Allie, Amber, and Tammy were immediately able to describe how trust functions in their classrooms and how they go about developing trust with their students. Six of the teachers (i.e., Allie, Cathy, Chris, Kristy, Sandra, and Tammy) described the ways in which their students trust them as teachers and the results of that trust. Following are the ways the 10 teachers described how trust is earned or built with students: 1) balance, 2) being candid with students, 3) being involved with students, and 4) paying attention to students' futures.

Trust: Balance.

The *in vivo* code "balance" was borrowed from the student essay data in the first data collection set to name the category that included these teachers' descriptors of how they earn/build trust with students by using care and respect with their students in a balanced way. Allie, Amber, and Kristy spoke of how they develop trust with students by showing that they care; operationalizing care as being available to and willing to spend time with their students. Allie and Amber also said that giving respect to their students helps develop trust. As Allie noted, her students are willing to trust "when they know…they're in a caring environment and that I'm not going to put them down, you know, we're here for each other." Observations of these teachers bore out their claims. All three willingly spent time with individual students inside and outside of formal class time. All three were also observed treating their students with respect by speaking and interacting with them as reasoning individuals, despite the student's age, learning disability, or maturity level (i.e., while Kristy did not speak of respect given to develop trust, she embodied it). These observed behaviors and attitudes align with the theorized descriptions of care given from teacher to student (Elbaz, 1992; Goldstein, 1999; Newberry & Davis, 2008; Noddings, 1984, 1988, 2005) and respect given from teacher to student in the literature (Goodman, 2009; Stojanov, 2010).

Trust: Being candid with students.

Allie, Carl, Chris, Sandra, and Tammy all agreed that to develop trust with students the teacher needs to be candid, by being honest, genuine, and open with students. By this, these teachers appear to mean that they allow their students to see their true,

imperfect selves. They are willing to admit when they: 1) do not know something, 2)

make mistakes, or 3) are wrong. As Carl said:

> We've all seen teachers that…a student asks a question and they try to just make up something and just try to… are deceptive almost or try to act like nothing…if they ask me something and I'll say 'I have to check it out.' Or I've answered it and we go check it out and verify it. And when you say something and then back it up…whether it's academically or otherwise, then I think that develops a trust.

Chris' description of candidness paralleled Carl's description with the exception that

Chris, who was a first year science teacher as opposed to a veteran science teacher, was

much more willing to admit "I don't know."

These teachers are also willing to give advice to students who ask for it, because

the teacher wants the students to vicariously learn from his or her past mistakes and/or

successes. Tammy, who teaches eleventh and twelfth grade students, described giving

academic and non-academic advice, 'they come to me for advice and they listen to what I

have to say and for the most part I think they take my advice." Later Tammy elaborated

on the non-academic advice: [hypothetically speaking to a student] "'Well I lived your

life sometimes and I was stupid too. Been there done that, don't want to go back there

again'…you have to be [candid], they're teenagers and they can see right through you, if

you're not."

While not all the teachers who spoke of being candid were observed being candid,

Carl, Chris, and Tammy were; Carl and Tammy gave students advice on plans after

college and family issues, and Chris said, "I don't know" twice during a single

observation. Candidness, as evidenced by Tammy and Carl, fits well within the facets of

trust identified in the literature; trust can develop when the student realizes that the

teacher is benevolent, reliable, competent, *honest*, and *open* (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Trust: Being involved with students.

Candy, Chris, and Kristy all pointed out that it requires effort and involvement in students' lives to develop trust with them. Each described how they become involved in their students' personal lives; sometimes simply by asking about things the students are involved in outside the classroom. All three teachers were observed having personal conversations with students that regularly had little to do with that day's lesson; the rest of the teachers in this group, who did not discuss involvement in students' lives were also observed having such conversations with students. Candy, Chris, and Kristy also admitted that sometimes they learned things they did not want to know, but the information often helped them understand why that particular student was struggling. For example, Candy, one of the first year teachers, described a discussion she had with one of her students as they were making Mother's Day cards in class:

> [O]ne of my little girls…was telling me she couldn't say anything nice about momma…'lazy'…'stayed in bed'…she wasn't being negative on purpose, because she had something kind to say about everyone else…but when it went back to mom…'makes me get her cigarettes, does this, tells me this'…no matter how hard I tried to find something, she could not think of something positive to say.

While being involved with students is important as far as developing trust, it is possible to become too involved. Chris, the other first year teacher, wrestled with finding "the line." He discussed the advice he had been given by other teachers and how it made him feel:

> [I]t's hard to not get invested in the kids' lives…that's one thing I was told…don't get too attached… they'll either let you down or… affect you in ways that you have no control of so it's better to just kind of remove yourself…which is hard for me because…I do love all my kids even the

ones that don't love me back and I want them to do well and it's just – it can be tough sometimes."

If the two first year teachers are any indicator, it appears that becoming involved in students' lives is something teachers may do naturally, but they must learn to moderate their involvement or cut it off completely (i.e., finding the line) because becoming over-involved may prove to be emotionally overwhelming for the teacher.

Kristy, the third teacher in this trio who is a veteran teacher, discussed being personally involved in helping two students staying at the local shelter (e.g., she provided daily transportation for the students between the shelter and school), but did not appear to be overwrought by their plight. She described developing trust with the students: "those kids in the shelter, it's taken them awhile…to gain their's [trust]…because they don't see why someone would care for them… It's different now, especially me I think…I don't know why me in particular but that is what happened." In the process of getting involved, it appears that Kristy earned the trust of those two students. At the same time, she found her personal line and figured out how to negotiate it even in this tough circumstance.

Involvement in students' lives appears to be related to responsiveness, in that the teacher is sensitive to and recognizes the needs and desires of the student and actively works to make the student feel comfortable in communicating his or her needs (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). However, involvement sometimes goes beyond communication to actions that students perceive as benevolence, reliability, and competence (i.e., three of the facets of trust; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000), especially when the involvement steps into the non-academic realm. It is these forays into students' personal lives that sometimes cross the line and are highly likely to lead to the burden of care that Chris referred to (Goldstein & Lake, 2000). Identifying how effective teachers like Kristy and

Tammy find the line and develop the ability to emotionally involve themselves in their students' lives without being consumed by it is something that needs to be further studied.

Trust: Paying attention to students' futures.

Abby, Amber, Candy, Carl, Jamie, and Tammy all spoke of an awareness of how their current interactions with students could affect their students' futures. It appears that maintaining an awareness of a student's current situation with an eye to his or her future helps the student trust the teacher, because the teacher most likely has the student's best future interest in mind. Given each of the teachers' circumstances, it was not surprising that they would be future-oriented with their students.

Abby and Amber, both special education teachers, recognize the struggle their students may have to endure in their school career. As Amber said, "…I have to think about: what is my action going to cause for the rest of the school year, for the rest of this kid's life?" With that in mind, they approach their students in ways that will help their students be successful in the classroom for the long-term; even though it can sometimes be unpleasant, as observed when Abby endure multiple student blow ups in order to help her student learn to control himself.

Candy and Jamie, both kindergarten teachers, recognize that it is their job to socialize the young children in their classrooms into students who can be successful in the classroom for the next 12 years. As I observed, in this socialization process, Candy and Jamie help their young charges learn to: sit still, be quiet, work and play nicely with their peers, take turns, and respond when called; as well as teach them the alphabet, their numbers, how to write their names, and introductory reading, writing, and arithmetic

skills. Candy and Jamie recognize the importance of what they do, even though their students do not; Jamie even gives her young students short "empowerment speeches" to help them understand: "'I came to school today because I want you to learn and I care about you and you know… if you learn to read you can learn to become anything. There's nothing you can't do.'"

Carl and Tammy are the two teachers who have eleventh and twelfth grade high school students. They realize that part of their job is to prepare their students for life beyond high school, and that some of the things their students need to learn are not academic. As Carl and Tammy both noted, their students seek their advice and often use it to make important decisions that will affect their future for the next several years (e.g., whether to attend college or technical school; whether getting married is a good idea right now; what to do now that I am pregnant). Carl, who teaches upper-level science, does his best to prepare students for college, because most of his students will attend college after high school. Tammy, who teaches a vocational course, does her best to prepare her students for the real world, because her students will leave her program with a certificate which will allow them to go into business for themselves. Tammy was observed providing her students with sound business advice during class, as well as sound personal advice on an individual basis. As noted earlier, their students often listen to these teachers' advice because they have come to trust that both of these teachers have their best interest at heart.

Being future-oriented with students and keeping their best interest at heart perhaps is a good definition for the benevolence facet of trust found by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000). When students can be confident that their well-being will be looked

after by the teacher, they can then trust that what the teacher has them do stems from his

or her good intentions and therefore must be for the students' own good.

It is significant that the majority of the teachers who spoke at length about trust

belong to the most effective group of teachers (i.e., Abby, Allie, Amber, Kristy, and

Tammy). Their awareness of trust and its development in the TSR (see Figure 5.1) is

most likely a contributing factor to their effectiveness in the classroom, a point which

will be discussed later in the section answering research question three. Before that

discussion however, the discussion of constructs which appear to be various

combinations of care, respect, and trust in the TSR must be held.

Legitimate authority development: Newly emerged constructs which variously

link care, respect, and trust.

During their interviews, every teacher was asked about care, respect, and trust in

the TSR, using a separate question for each relational element (i.e., Appendix D).

Approximately half of the teachers' responses, as revealed thus far in the discussion of

legitimate authority development, were specific to the relational element discussed at the

time in the interviews (e.g., meeting students' needs was a response for care only). From

the remaining teacher responses, several new constructs emerged in which care, respect,

and trust are linked in various combinations. This linkage became evident during analysis

when it was noted that different teachers responded with the same answer to two different

questions (e.g., listening to students was a response for both care and respect). The

construct links in the teacher data are similar to the construct overlap in the student data

from research question one, in which four of the student descriptors for teachers were

constructs which combined care, respect, and trust in different ways (i.e., understanding,

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approachability, connection, and authority/leadership). The four linked constructs which emerged from the teacher data were: 1) nonverbal communication with students (i.e., care and respect), 2) listening to students (i.e., care and trust), 3) being nonjudgmental and forgiving with students (i.e., respect and trust), and 4) being consistent and fair with students (i.e., respect and trust). Following, these four constructs will be described in detail.

Nonverbal communication with student: Showing care and respect.

During the separate discussions of care and respect, a number of teachers in this group spoke of using nonverbal means to convey both care and respect for students (see Figure 5.1). Several teachers spoke of how they try to be positive for their students by smiling or displaying a pleasant attitude. Sandra, who appeared to have a very sunny persona, said, "…they see that I care through my facial expressions, you know, I try to keep a smile." Amber noted that, even when she did not feel very positive, she worked to project positivity for her students: "…it doesn't matter how bad my day is I have to come in here and put a smile on my face and let these kids know they're important."

Many of the legitimate authority teachers also made statements like, "I treat my students with respect." Most likely what they meant by this was that they conveyed respect to their students using nonverbal means like speaking in a respectful tone or using respectful body language. Carl described this when I asked him how he treats his students with respect: "I think by the way that you communicate to each other and tone of voice…body language and things." Later, he clarified, "Someone can say the exact same words. 'Do we have any homework tomorrow?' can be said with a variety of respect or

disrespect." By using different vocal inflections, the nonverbal message conveyed by a phrase can display either respect or disrespect.

It is interesting to note that many of the students in this study described effective teachers using behavioral terms such as friendly, likeable, smiling, happy, warm, and inviting. All of these terms fall under the umbrella of nonverbal immediacy, which has been studied extensively in the field of instructional communication. As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, nonverbal immediacy is defined by behaviors such as: maintaining close proximity, making eye contact, smiling, using vocal variety (Frymier & Houser, 2000). Numerous studies have found that teacher immediacy behaviors, which help students feel a sense of closeness with the teacher, facilitate student learning by increasing students' motivation (Frymier & Houser, 2000). Research has also shown that teachers who are immediate are better able to gain student compliance and cooperation (Burroughs, 2007; Plax & Kearney, 1992); and that non-immediate teachers are more likely to face student demotivation and resistance in the classroom (Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Kearney & Plax, 1992; McPherson, Kearney, & Plax, 2006). Some researchers (e.g., Jensen, 1999; McCroskey & Richmond, 1992b; Plax & Kearney, 1992; Smith, 1979) have even suggested that teachers be trained to use immediacy behaviors to improve their classroom performance.

Listening to students: Conveying care develops trust.

Listening to students was a common response to the separate interview questions on care and trust in the TSR (see Figure 5.1). When asked how their students know they care, both first year teachers, Candy and Chris, spoke of listening to students as a way to show care. Candy, who was observed to be a very active listener, would often stop, bend

down, and look her kindergarten students in the face when they spoke to her. She explained that listening helped her students feel cared for and want to know to her, "just knowing about them, knowing their sibling's name, personal things…things like that, knowing what goes on seems to go a long way with them. Just that I'm interested …since they don't have that a lot." Chris, a junior high teacher who is also a very active listener, spoke of students who would come by outside of class, to talk to him, because he would listen: "there's some of them – I know their background and I understand…there are some things that are going on that they need to talk about so I try to make an extra effort to be around…if they need to talk."

Abby, Allie, Chris, and Kristy each discussed how listening helps students learn to trust the teacher. Listening was the very first thing that Abby said about developing trust: "They're so used to being told 'wait a minute…or not right now'…That if you just stop and let them tell you the story, that builds trust and then they'll come tell you something that's really important." Kristy described it like this: "they start sharing things with you, maybe more than you really want to know. That is what they have been looking for;" and agreed afterward that these students have been looking for someone to talk to, someone who will listen. I noted while observing that all four of these teachers were very active listeners; no matter the age of the student or what the student had to say, each of them looked the student in the face, focusing only on that student, and gave an earnest response.

Active listening is one of the hallmarks of a responsive teacher. Responsive teachers: 1) are sensitive to their students' communications, 2) are good listeners, 3) help students feel safe enough to communicate, and 4) recognize the needs and desires of their

students; the more responsive the teacher is, the more likely students are to trust the teacher (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Active listening also appears to be integral to attentiveness. Elbaz (1992) described attentiveness in teaching as "the ability to notice details, to watch for small signs of growth, [and] to remember important bits of information at the right moment" (p. 426). The significance of active listening lies in that it helps teachers stay attentive to the value and development of each individual student (Elbaz, 1992). By maintaining this attentiveness it makes it much easier to be responsive to students' needs (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996); which likely explains why students find attentive and responsive teachers trustworthy.

     Nonjudgmental and forgiving with students: Conveying respect develops trust.

     Being nonjudgmental and forgiving with students was a common response to the separate interview questions on respect and trust in the TSR (see Figure 5.1). Nonjudgmental and forgiving were grouped together because they appear to be interrelated. Carl, Cathy, and Abby all spoke of being non-judgmental with their students as a way to show respect to them. Carl said, "…the way you interact with someone…it shows that you're not being demeaning and that you…and shows that you respect them." Similarly, Cathy stated, "I try to give them respect…I try to not humiliate them…I try to not ever, um, tease." Abby used more descriptors, probably because she's had more experience with this. She said, "*not* being critical in front of them, you know 'you're such a bad kid'…or 'why can't you just do this?'… to *not* cut them down…*not* making fun of who's important to them" [no emphasis added].

     Abby, Amber, Kristy, and Sandra all noted that a teacher who is nonjudgmental and forgiving with students helps the students develop trust. Amber explained this as

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separating the student's undesirable behavior from the student: "I do still love you and I do still respect you but I do not like this behavior." Abby, the one who teaches children with behavioral problems, provided an example from the student's perspective that illustrates Amber's point and describes how being nonjudgmental and forgiving leads to trust, "…the trust that I [the student] can throw a fit in your classroom and then I can come out of there and everything's okay… I trust you're not going to keep bringing it up all day long." Abby appears to be well-practiced at being nonjudgmental and forgiving. During one of the observations and on the day of the interview, one little boy in her class threw multiple tantrums; afterward Abby interacted with the student as if none of the tantrums had occurred. Forgiveness and the nonjudgment that appears to result from the forgiveness are both evident in Abby's interview and observation.

It is interesting to note that Carl, Cathy, and Abby's comments, in the previous section on how nonjudgment shows respect to students, were phrased in terms of "not." This indicates that the words and phrases immediately following each "not" must be ways of passing judgment on students (i.e., demeaning, humiliate, tease, critical, cut them down, and making fun). Part of these words and phrases (i.e., demeaning, humiliate, and cut them down) indicate that the student, as the object of the judgment, has been figuratively reduced or lowered in value by the teacher, due to a previous undesirable behavior. The other words and phrases (i.e., tease, critical, making fun) indicate that the judgment and resulting lowered student value are a perpetual condition which likely results from a lack of forgiveness on the part of the teacher. This is evidenced as continued reminders of the past misbehaviors which are intended to make the student feel bad; a point that Abby made when she said, "I trust you're not going to keep bringing it

up." A teacher who recognizes that students should not defined by their misbehaviors, forgives them for such, and refrains from judgment, maintains the value of the students. As described, respect shown to students via forgiveness and remaining nonjudgmental, aligns very closely with the construct of teacher confirmation.

Teacher confirmation, as discussed in Chapter 2, is used synonymously with respect, in that the teacher confirms or respects a student by communicating to the student that he or she holds value as an individual (Goodboy & Myers, 2008). While confirmation predominantly conveys respect to students, Goodboy and Myers also noted that it appears to communicate care to students (2008). Given that the combination of care and respect produces trust in students (DeCremer & Tyler, 2005; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000); it stands to reason that trust may result from behavioral constructs which combine care and respect for students, such as teacher confirmation (Goodboy & Myers, 2008) and responsiveness (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). In support of this reasoning, teacher responsiveness has been shown to increase student trust for the teacher (Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). This may explain how these teachers perceive trust developing from the nonjudgmental and forgiving respect they give their students.

Consistent and fair with students: Conveying respect develops trust.

Being consistent and fair with students was a second common response to the separate the interview questions on respect and trust in the TSR (see Figure 5.1). Being consistent and fairness were grouped together due to their similarity. In general, fairness requires being consistent; but, it is quite possible to be consistent and unfair at the same time. Abby, Amber, and Kristy spoke of being consistent in their approach to students as

a way to show them respect. Abby explained it this way: "…consistency is respect I think…being consistent with their schedules and them, knowing that when this is supposed to happen it does. That's respect…because if I say, I need you to come to the table and they don't, that's disrespect." Amber said in reference to her consistent expectations, "I set high expectations academically, they know they are going to have to stay with that and so I think that helps their behavior." Kristy described it as: "You have to have…standards that are kept in your classroom, expectations…not just letting them slide by, but expecting more out of the student." Consistency in doing what is expected of you, whether teacher or student, shows respect to those who expect that consistency; being consistent with another person conveys that you value that person, and wish to maintain that relationship. Consistency is also a matter of fairness.

Respect was described by almost all of the legitimate authority teachers as a relational element that functioned on an individual basis with each student, but Amber, Cathy, and Chris also noted that respect was a matter of fairness. By fairness, these teachers meant they show respect to their students by treating them all the same. They do this by: 1) disciplining students in a consistent manner, 2) allowing all students the same affordances, and 3) having high expectations of all students, while also treating them as individuals. Chris said he has high expectations and "sometimes that means holding them accountable for the things that they do wrong… some of the best lessons are learned hard …because I respect them and I am just doing it to make them a better person." Having consistently high individualized expectations of all students, in essence tells students that they are all highly valued for being themselves.

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Allie, Chris, Jamie, Kristy, Lacy, and Sandra all noted that students learn to trust a teacher when the teacher is consistent and fair in the way he or she interacts with students. Being consistent mainly involved having high expectations of all students and follow-through with consequences. When asked if she has to be consistent to gain her students' trust, Allie responded, "Yes, very consistent. And that is one thing, I'm very consistent in…my treatment of them…in my discipline…You have to show them consistency, and if it means sometimes being a little bit more strict, you have to." Lacy pointed out that modeling matters, too; being consistent in your expectations of students and modeling those expectations by extending them to yourself helps students learn to trust. As Lacy said: "…you [students] have to follow these rules… And I [teacher] follow the sets of rules…maybe that helps, because I know not all teachers follow their sets of rules." Carl also discussed this in his interview, how the rules applied to him just as much as they do to his students; although he did not refer to consistency while speaking on this. Jamie noted that consistency is how students learn to "believe" (i.e., trust) a teacher. Jamie admitted she tells her kindergarteners, "'I say what I mean and I mean what I say,'" which lets the students know that she will follow-through with anything she tells them. Whether Jamie is speaking of classroom procedures, the daily schedule, or rules and discipline, she and her students will do it every time. Jamie was quite certain that consistency is the way she convinces students to trust or believe her and do what she says; as she explained, consistency is, "huge…one of the things I have probably improved on the most." Since she purposefully worked on becoming more consistent, she was most likely also looking for a behavioral change in her students to support her efforts to improve; hence the reason she was certain of the connection.

The construct of consistency is difficult to find in the education literature, but it appears to fit well with the facets of trust that Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) identified; specifically reliability and competence. In being consistent, the teacher becomes reliable, whether behaviorally, attitudinally, or emotionally, and this helps students learn to trust the teacher because they know what to expect (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Also, being consistent indicates to students that the teacher is competent to do his or her job, providing more support for the trustworthiness of the teacher (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

The construct of fairness is also difficult to find in the education literature, procedural fairness and procedural justice from social psychology, appear to be very similar constructs. Procedural fairness or procedural justice refers to the ways in which people interact in a group which are considered meaningful and fair to all, everyone is treated equally and interact as equally as possible; when procedural fairness characterizes the group interactions, group members can trust each other and cooperate (DeCremer & Tyler, 2007; Tyler & Blader, 2003). Research also has shown that procedural fairness leads to trust for authority (Van den Bos, Wilke, & Lind, 1998) and cooperation with authority (DeCremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002). The research, while not directly linked, appears to support these teachers' perceptions that respect given to their students through consistency and fairness results in trust from their students.

Summary: Teacher Responses to Research Question Two.

Research Question 2: How do teachers in a diversely-populated rural school develop legitimate authority through the teacher-student relationship? In particular, how do they perceive and experience care, respect, and trust, respectively? The 12 teachers

categorized as legitimate authorities (Table 3.3) had much to say about how legitimate authority develops through their TSRs, but not a single one of the 12 had a concrete plan for developing authority. Despite this, they were able to specifically discuss how care, respect, and trust function separately in the development of legitimate authority. They also provided several other constructs which variously linked care, respect, and trust and through which legitimate authority can develop in the TSR (see Figure 5.1).

It appears that for legitimate authority to develop, a teacher must be somewhat aware of and purposeful about his or her interactions with students, a purposefulness which begins on the first day of school. Legitimate authorities show care for their students by learning about them and meeting their needs, and respect their students in several ways. Respect is shown when they treat their students as individuals who each have worth. Legitimate authorities also show students respect by allowing them to be autonomous, and expecting their students to treat each other with respect. These teachers also discussed how care and respect are both shown to students using nonverbal communication. Smiling at students and being pleasant conveys care, while speaking in a polite or courteous tone conveys respect. Unlike care and respect which are given to students to elicit their reciprocation, trust is formed with students. Legitimate authorities form trust with their students by maintaining balance in the ways they interact with their students. Being candid and involved with students and maintaining the long-term view of their development also helps students learn to trust their teacher.

These teachers also noted how the giving of various forms of care and respect resulted specifically in the formation of trust with students. Listening to students shows care, but it also allows them an avenue through which to form a trust with the teacher.

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Being nonjudgmental and forgiving with students, and also consistent and fair with students conveys respect for them, but it also produces trust. Students trust a teacher who forgives and does not judge because the teacher makes them feel valued and worthy. So too, students trust a teacher who is consistent and fair because he or she is predictable in not only the treatment of individual students, but also the treatment of all students in the class in relation to each other. By giving care and respect to their students, legitimate authorities develop trust with their students. It is the trust which legitimates their authority because students are willing to cooperate with a teacher who is trustworthy.

Teacher Group Comparison for Research Question Three

Research question three asked: How does the development of legitimate authority differ between the teachers considered most and least effective? In particular, how do their perceptions and experiences differ in relation to care, respect, and trust, respectively? As with research question two, teacher data from the second data set of the study was used to answer research question three. Specifically, observation and interview data collected from the teacher participants were used to answer this question. Relevant quotes and germane observations were used to illustrate specific points in the findings, and research from the literature was drawn in to support conclusions.

Most vs. least effective teachers: Teacher effectiveness and teacher authority style.

To determine which teachers were the most and least effective, as noted earlier in Chapter 3, both observers independently ranked all 15 teachers based on what the observers perceived to be their observed effectiveness. These independent rankings were then combined (Appendix H) with rankings produced from a cross analysis of the

Teacher Observation Inventory and Teacher Authority Log (Appendix C). As a result, Tammy, Amber, Allie, Kristy, and Abby were ranked as the most effective teachers in the sample and Lacy, Jessica, Cathy, Connie, and Lark were ranked the least effective teachers (Table 3.2). As the general perspectives and behaviors of the most effective teachers were discussed earlier in response to Research Question 2, this section will highlight the perspectives and behaviors of the least effective teachers. In particular, the individual uniqueness of each of the five least effective teachers will be described, while focusing on their authority style in TSR. After that, I will compare the differences between the most effective teachers (i.e., Tammy, Amber, Allie, Kristy, and Abby) and the least effective teachers (i.e., Lacy, Jessica, Cathy, Connie, and Lark) in terms of care, respect, and trust.

It is important to start the discussion of teacher effectiveness with the comparison of the authority styles of the most and least effective teachers (Table 3.2 and Table 3.3), for the style of authority they use should dictate how they develop authority with their students. From the inception of this study, only legitimate authority and traditional authority styles were considered and used in the interview questions (Appendix D), but a third authority style, laissez-faire authority, emerged early in the data analysis.

Laissez-faire authority.

During data analysis, the authority style observed to be used by three of the teachers (i.e., Connie, Jessica, and Lark) did not fit either the legitimate or traditional authority styles originally posited in this study (Table 3.3). While these three teachers were directive with their students, their students seldom fully complied. This form of

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authority, evidenced by the authority exerting or holding little actual power in the authority-subordinate dyad, is known as "laissez-faire authority" (Goodnight, 2004).

Connie.

Connie has been a teacher for a long time and has taught middle school age students specifically for over 15 years. Despite being a veteran teacher, she sounded unsure of the authority she held in her classroom during her interview. Connie described her authority this way:

> The one that's supposed to be in charge…*supposed to be*…I like to think that I am, that I am the one in charge. Now of course there's going to be days that they [students] take over. Yeah, and then I think, oh I just lost complete control of this classroom. But that's what I feel like, you know, authority, it's the one that's supposed to be running the situation. [I responded, "So, it's…sometimes it [your authority] just doesn't happen or sometimes it devolves?"] That's right. It starts out that way, but it's like oh… I've lost it. Now I just have to keep it down to a low roar. Don't disturb the other classes. [no emphasis added]

Connie's opening statement on authority and continued discussion during the interview raised questions about how efficacious she felt about her own authority. In retrospect, it was significant that, unlike all the other participants, Connie choose neither the legitimate or traditional authority style to describe her own authority when I described them during her interview. This was most likely because neither description matched the pattern of her authority us in the classroom. I never observed Connie's authority disintegrate as quickly as she described in the previous quote, but it was evident during both observations that her students questioned her authority as much as she did in her interview. The precariousness of Connie's authority was apparent in that her students seldom fully complied or remained in compliance with any of her directives, whether they were phrased as requests or demands. For almost half of her students, Connie's

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authority held only so long as she paid direct attention to them, as noted by the number of times off-task students glanced up at Connie to make sure she remained inattentive.

During one observation, Connie assigned her students to work independently, but many students were regularly off-task because she was engrossed in grading papers. Periodically Connie would circulate around the room helping a few students and redirecting several others, but as soon as she moved out of line-of-sight the redirected students returned to their off-task behaviors. It appeared the students had learned that once Connie moved on she would go back to grading papers and leave them alone until the next time she circulated the room. Connie's permissiveness was quite evident because she redirected the same students for the same misbehaviors with each circuit of the room, yet never held any of them accountable for their misbehavior. So too, Connie never noticed that while she was grading, the group of students directly behind her was cheating on the individual assignment.

Several factors noted during this observation indicate that Connie is a laissez-faire authority: 1) her apparent lack of awareness of student misbehavior, 2) her unwillingness to mete out discipline once the misbehavior had been repeated, 3) allowing herself to become completely occupied with grading papers, and 3) her students' indifference to her redirections (Frischer, 2006; Harjunen, 2012). The first and third factors (i.e., lack of awareness and becoming occupied with grading) appear to be related. While a lack of awareness of student misbehavior may be due simply to obliviousness; that is unlikely in a veteran teacher. Since Connie not only allowed herself to become engrossed in grading, but also situated herself with her back to her students, it is likely that she was purposefully ignoring her students' misbehavior (Frischer, 2006). This type of behavior is

common for laissez-faire authorities and usually is a result of the authority either not wanting to confront or discipline those under his or her command (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Frischer, 2006; Harjunen, 2012). Given that Connie continued to redirect (i.e., confronted) her students, it appears that she does not want to mete out discipline.

In her other observation, Connie led a review activity that lasted the entire class time. While all her students cooperated as the activity began, many became disengaged and went off-task. Connie had to work to recapture their attention and toward the end it was obvious she had become frustrated in her effort to maintain her authority and keep those particular students on task. She had given "the look" so many times that by the end it became a permanent fixture on her face. So too, her redirection of the off-task students eventually became nagging that turned to sarcasm and humiliation in the final minutes of class. By the time the bell rang, Connie had the compliance of less than half of her students; the "trouble-makers," who were spread-out across the classroom, only complied when she looked directly at them. As in the previous observation, Connie never applied any consequences for the students' misbehavior, but simply redirected them.

In this observation, Connie's laissez-faire authority was more evident in her inability to maintain student compliance with her directives for more than a few seconds and her use of verbal aggression. Often, as was observed with Connie, the authority exertions of a laissez-faire teacher are ineffective and turn into power struggles with students. When a laissez-faire teacher does not regularly or consistently control student behavior, students may assume the teacher has relinquished control to them (Harjunen, 2012); as a result, when the teacher attempts to exert his or her authority and take control back from students, several things may occur. The students may: 1) fail to submit on the

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first few attempts, simply not realizing the teacher is serious (Pace, 2003); 2) initially

submit but then return to the misbehavior, recognizing the teacher will not follow-

through with consequences (Harjunen, 2012; Sanford & Evertson, 1981); 3) attempt to

manipulate or convince the teacher (i.e., bargaining) to change his or her mind (Allen,

1986; Deluga, 1990; Harjunen, 2012); 4) become annoyed at the teacher's capricious

enforcement of rules, initially submitting but then purposefully escalating their

disobedience when the teacher turns away (Harjunen, 2012); or 5) become angry at what

they see as an usurpation of their control and outwardly reject the authority which may

result in a confrontation with the teacher (Harjunen, 2012). During Connie's

observations, several of the above student behaviors were observed.

In using verbal aggression to "make" her students comply, Connie followed one

of the common patterns that laissez-faire authorities use when having to interact directly

with their subordinates. Laissez-faire teachers often use one or more of the following: 1)

bargain with students (Manke, 1997), 2) threaten with consequences, but not follow-

through (Harjunen, 2012), or 3) become verbally or physically aggressive (Einarsen et al.,

2007; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). Connie's use of

sarcasm and humiliation (i.e., verbal aggression) is considered to be a destructive

leadership behavior and one of the worst means through which laissez-faire authorities

attempt to motivate students (Einarsen et al., 2007; Skogstad et al., 2007).

During her interview, Connie discussed quite matter-of-factly the times when she

confronted students in class and literally told them she was in charge, "I will say, 'You

know what? You can roll your eyes, you can…throw your book down, and you can try to

argue with me, but I'm going to win. This is *my* classroom, and I *will win*,'" [no emphasis

added]. Research has shown that reliance upon power-assertive techniques, such as the one exemplified in Connie's quote, tend to produce line-of-site compliance in children but not out-of-sight compliance (Einarsen et al., 2007; Harjunen, 2012; Maccoby, 1992). This pattern of line-of-sight student compliance, where students did as they were told so long as Connie was paying attention to them, was observed in both of her observations. It appears that Connie's students' were indifferent to her laissez-faire authority because, even though she redirected their misbehaviors, she never followed through with consequences for them (Harjunen, 2012). This was something that Jessica, another laissez-faire teacher, spoke of in her interview. "They can get away with lots of things if they don't respect you, and I don't think you have much classroom management if they don't respect you." By "respect you," Jessica most likely meant "respect your authority." Students who do not respect a teacher's authority get away with lots of things because the teacher cannot watch them at all times to control their behavior, leading to poor classroom management due to student misbehavior.

> *Jessica and Lark.*

Observations of Jessica and Lark showed that these teachers used a laissez-faire authority style (Table 3.3) because they were very permissive with their students. Lark and Jessica were two of the teachers whose authority styles were re-categorized during data analysis because their personal recollections of their in-class behaviors during their interviews differed sharply from their observations. Unlike Connie, who was completely permissive during one observation but became aggressive when she tried to exert her authority in the other observation; both Lark and Jessica were simply permissive,

regularly allowing students to continue in behaviors they had specifically told them *not* to do.

During one of Jessica's observations, her students were to work on an individual project that required each student to complete something by the end of the class period. As Jessica instructed the students, she had to stop to shush students, answer questions, and re-explain for students who were not listening. Once she finished with the instructions, Jessica told the students they may work together, but they "*must work*." As the students worked, Jessica walked around, stopping to comment on each student's work. One small group of students began to talk and Jessica joined their conversation. Within minutes the talking spread to the whole class, becoming louder. As Jessica moved on, she noticed that several students were talking and no longer working. She announced to the whole group that it was acceptable to talk so long as they were quiet and worked, but if they did not work, the talkers would have to move. For the rest of the class period, Jessica worked to maintain discipline; she walked around, spoke with students, regularly shushed students, and reminded them that if they were not working they would have to move. Jessica even told a couple of students that it was their last warning. Despite her multiple shushes and threats, often to the same students, Jessica never followed through and made anyone move. At the end of class, less than half of the students had completed their projects, many left without cleaning up their area, and I could tell that Jessica was annoyed with her students.

Lark's class was more difficult to observe than Jessica's class because there was so much going on. The second observer and I observed Lark's class during their reading block. Lark began story time by reading a book to the students from the front of the

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classroom. Periodically she turned the book around so the students could see the pictures. As Lark read, she asked comprehension questions to keep the students engaged. Many students yelled out answers to her questions or asked completely unrelated questions. During the 10 minutes it took to read the story: 1) Lark shushed the class eight times and stopped to tell one little girl that she (i.e., Lark) would not read over her; 2) over half of the students were turned around in their seats whispering, laying on their desks, or had crawled under their desks; 3) several students wandered around the classroom; 4) a student pulled a book out of her desk and started to look at it with her neighbor; 5) two students on the back row threw pencils to each other, and 6) all the students on the back row whispered to each other and got into a whispered argument. Lark redirected a few students, mostly those talking, but never seemed to notice the rest of the events going on while she read. Free reading took up the rest of the observation. Students were assigned to read through their books two times and take an Accelerated Reader test on the book in the computer lab down the hall. If the student passed the AR test, he or she could go to the library to check out another book, but if the student did not pass the test, they were to return to the classroom and read the book again. As with story time, most students were off-task during free reading time and many of them did not follow Lark's directions. The second observer and I only saw three of Lark's 20+ students actually reading. While the students were involved in free reading, Lark worked individually with one student. During that time, Lark redirected a few students; usually whoever made the most noise or caused someone else to tattle. She either did not notice the rest or did not care to put forth the effort to correct their behavior and no consequences were ever meted out that we observed. One student was an exception; Lark seemed to focus on redirecting that student

in particular, doing so several times during both observations. When Lark did this, however, the student simply stopped and looked at her without ever attempting to comply, then continued what she was doing once Lark turned away. When I asked Lark about this particular student later, she admitted that she had been in a power struggle with that child all year. As to the general waywardness of her students, Lark said, "they can't stay in their seat all day long, they're not capable of it at this point." This surprised me because earlier I had observed a class of students younger than Lark's who sat for longer periods of time and complied with their teacher the first time she gave a directive.

One might question whether the two observations described were isolated incidents, but all observations on these two teachers produced similar patterns; permissiveness with no follow-through on consequences. The main difference between these two was that when Jessica finally noticed student misbehaviors, she redirected the majority of them; Lark, on the other hand, ignored the majority of her students' misbehaviors and only redirected the most obvious ones. For both teachers, their students' compliance was fleeting. The students would initially comply with the redirection or threat of consequence, but once the teacher's attention was busy elsewhere, many students returned to their misbehavior. As may be expected, Lark's students were much less likely to comply than Jessica's. As noted earlier with Connie, permissiveness and avoiding confrontation by not applying consequences are classic signs of a laissez-faire authority (Frischer, 2006; Harjunen, 2012); the observations of both Jessica and Lark are illustrative of both permissiveness and avoidance behaviors.

Weak legitimate authority.

Holding legitimate authority has been correlated with highly effective teaching (Horan et al., 2011; Myers & Martin, 2006; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000), but it is apparent that teachers who hold legitimate authority (Table 3.3) can range greatly in their individual effectiveness (Table 3.2). Cathy and Lacy are two good examples of this. Unlike those with laissez-faire authority, Cathy and Lacy noticed and addressed almost all student misbehaviors and followed through with consequences, but only after several warnings. Unlike the most effective legitimate authorities, Cathy and Lacy (i.e., during one of her observations) appeared to work much harder to gain student cooperation. Both teachers directed student behavior and corrected student misbehavior many more times during their observations, which is one of the reasons they were ranked among the least effective teachers. Two main differences were noted between Cathy and Lacy. Even though Cathy was very directive (i.e., more directive than even the kindergarten teachers), her students usually cooperated with her the first time. Lacy on the other hand often had to repeat her directives and used aggressive communication tactics, especially sarcasm which was identified on the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C) as an ineffective teacher behavior, to gain full cooperation of the students in one of her classes. Given these differences, a separate discussion of each teacher follows.

Cathy.

Cathy's approach to her students was very much like Jessica and Lark's, two of the laissez-fair authorities (Table 3.3). Like them, Cathy was quite soft with her students. Despite her softness, Cathy's students cooperated much more than Jessica's and Lark's students because she recognized and redirected the majority of student misbehaviors in

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her room in a timely manner. While Cathy appeared to have good classroom management during her observation, it became apparent during analysis that she directly managed her students much more than the most effective teachers. For example, during the reading lesson observed in Cathy's class, she told her students exactly what to do during the entire lesson; from "open your books" to "put your pencils away so you won't be tempted to work on spelling." While this amount of direction on procedural tasks would have been expected with younger students or perhaps at the start of the school year, it seemed excessive given that these were second grade students and it was half-way through the second semester of school. In addition, it was apparent that many of Cathy's students were not engaged in the reading lesson because many of them were fidgeting in their seats. During the 24 minutes it took for all the students to read aloud, Cathy said "pay attention" five times and called out the page number four times to alert many students they needed to turn the page. Cathy also corrected multiple minor student misbehaviors during the entire observation; addressing students who: talked out of turn, dawdled during class transitions, did not pay attention, and fidgeted. Cathy's other observation was similar to this one in the lack of student engagement and the number of directives she gave, but she corrected student misbehavior many more times than Jessica or Lark.

Lacy.

While both observations of Cathy and her students were very similar, the two observations of Lacy and her students were almost polar opposites. This simply could have been a result of observing Lacy with two different groups of students (i.e., seventh grade science and high school band), but the observations of four of the five most effective teachers (i.e., Abby, Amber, Kristy, and Tammy) were also of those teachers

working with two different groups of students; so that is not likely the reason. Of all the teachers in the sample, Lacy had the second lowest average number of effective teacher behaviors, just ahead of Connie (Appendix H).

During our observation of band, the second observer and I watched Lacy as she effectively directed 50 or more eighth through twelfth grade students, for the entire period. Lacy joked with her students the first couple of minutes of class, but once she stepped on her podium, things became much more serious. Lacy was highly directive with her students both verbally and nonverbally, but this was understandable due to the nature of directing orchestral music. Lacy's band students were very responsive to her directions and cooperated the first time she spoke or gestured. Every once in a while Lacy would joke or make a sarcastic remark to a band member or even a whole section as a reminder to focus, but the students did not seem to mind. During this observation, it appeared obvious that Lacy was an effective legitimate authority. Lacy's other observation, which was conducted earlier in the week in her seventh grade science class, was not like this at all.

In Lacy's seventh grade science class, which had approximately 15 students, she wrestled with her students for control of the room the entire class period and by the end of class she appeared quite angry. Lacy's approach to her science students was very similar to the way she approached her band students, starting the class period in a rather laid-back manner by joking with her students; the science student's responses, however, were very different from the band students' responses. The science students regularly misbehaved by speaking out of turn, rolling around in their chairs, and arguing or bargaining with Lacy when she redirected or threatened with a consequence. They often

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ignored Lacy's first directive and only cooperated after she redirected and became sarcastic (i.e., verbally aggressive). To gain student cooperation with some of her redirects, Lacy threatened with consequences. She followed through on at least two of them, although her second follow-through was capricious and punished the whole class for the misbehavior of a group of students who talked out of turn the whole class period (i.e., Lacy changed the assignment due date from the next day to the end of the class period, even though most students would not have enough time to complete the assignment in the seven minutes left of class).

Lacy and I discussed the differences between these two classes in her interview, but Lacy spent much more time discussing band than science. It was obvious that Lacy preferred band. Given the difference in her students' behavior in those classes, that was not surprising; most people would rather talk about their perceived successes. When I asked about science, Lacy discussed the two students who caused problems and argued in class. She noted that one was having difficulties at home, so she cut him slack on his behavior in class; about the other student though, she simply said that he liked to "push everybody's buttons and he knows that." Lacy then turned the conversation to back to band, apparently not wanting to discuss it further.

As we discussed the band observation, Lacy agreed that the students were very focused and cooperative, but admitted that they had a District Band Contest later in the week and their high level of cooperativeness was partially due to that. Since they wanted to go to contest and do well, the students put forth their best effort during practice and fully cooperated with her. We then discussed the differences between the authority that teachers hold in elective classes like band and core academic classes like science. Lacy

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noted that as a band teacher, she works on compliance and cooperation with her students for years:

> We work on that from day one of sixth grade. It takes a lot of years to actually get there, but the sixth graders are pretty good. [Lacy pretends to whisper to someone next to her.] 'She's on her podium, look everybody, she's on her podium.' Then the junior high kids they don't take it as seriously, but then the high schoolers have embraced it.

That her band students may spend up to seven years with her was one major difference she noted between teachers of elective classes and teachers of core academic classes. Given that amount of time, it is not difficult to see how Lacy could develop the type of authority we observed during band. In response, I suggested that perhaps in elective classes, like band, students may also cooperate more since it was their choice; they like the class and identify with the subject matter, so they will do whatever is asked or demanded of them in order to play and be part of the group (i.e., band). On the other hand, in core academic classes, like science, students may be less cooperative because it is a required class and many students do not like nor identify with it. Lacy agreed with this and went on to describe this as a power issue. As a band teacher, she has power over students because they *want* to play with the band; "if you don't show up you don't play…we have afterschool practice and if you don't come…you don't play in the concert, so there is a little bit of that." Lacy said that this threat was usually punitive enough to convince most students to cooperate. She also admitted to another form of power: "Well, there is a little bribing involved, that always helps…we have a big trip." So it appears that, to a certain extent, Lacy relies on the power she holds as a band teacher to help her gain cooperation from her band students.

Perhaps the power Lacy uses to maintain authority in band has something to do with her difficulties in maintaining her authority in her science class. Power, as discussed

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in Chapter 2, is the ability to motivate others and is closely related to authority, but the two terms are not synonymous; despite this distinction, an authority with weak power is able to accomplish little (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992; Berger, 1994). It appears that Lacy may hold two forms of power: coercive and referent power. Coercive power is the power to reward or punish (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992). Lacy uses both forms of coercive power. When students fail to make it to practice, she punishes them by not allowing them to play with the band; and when students do what is expected of them throughout the year, she rewards them by allowing them to go on the band trip at the end of the year. Referent power is the power given to an authority by subordinates because the subordinates identify with the authority (Barraclough & Stewart, 1992). For Lacy, her referent power appears to come from at least two areas: 1) as the band teacher, Lacy's students identify with her because they share music as a common interest, and 2) Lacy forms long-term TSRs with her students. Admittedly, Lacy spends much more time with her band students than she does with her science students and probably puts much more effort into her band TSRs than her science TSRs. During the band observation, the second observer and I could tell that Lacy had a "fan club" – her students really liked her. Even though, as Lacy confessed, her sarcasm with band students sometimes cut to the bone, they readily forgave her and liked her anyway. In science, though, Lacy had no fans. The majority of Lacy's science students appeared to be ambivalent toward her and the "button-pusher" appeared to dislike her altogether. It is easy to understand why; Lacy's sarcasm, which became more biting as the hour wore on, and unfair punishment meted out at the end would convince almost any group of seventh graders to dislike the person in charge. Even though Lacy approached the students in both classes the same

way at the start of class (i.e., laid-back, joking, mild sarcasm), she received very different student responses by the end. Lacy's legitimate authority, which was very effective in band, was weakened and much less effective in science because the referent power she relies on from her TSRs was missing with her science students and all she had to fall back on was coercive power.

Cathy was ranked among the least effective due to her overly directive teaching style; Lacy shared a similar ranking for the same reason plus the multitude of ineffective teacher behaviors she displayed in class. Despite their less than effective authority, Lacy and Cathy both added to the conversation of legitimate authority in Research Question 2. Compared to the rest of the teachers categorized as legitimate authorities, though, Lacy and Cathy's perspectives were somewhat unbalanced. They focused much more on specific aspects of authority development and seemed to have almost nothing to say about specific aspects of the TSR. The perspectives of the laissez-faire teachers were also unbalanced in comparison to the most effective teachers. Discussion of the differences between the perspectives of the most and least effective teachers, in terms of care, respect, and trust follows.

Differences between most and least effective teachers.

The five teachers considered most effective, Tammy, Amber, Allie, Kristy, and Abby (Table, 3.2) are quite similar in their perspectives on the relational elements of care, respect and trust. Their perspectives align with the discussion in Research Question Two on how care, respect, and trust help with the development of legitimate authority. As such, discussion of the most effective teachers' perspectives on care, respect, and trust will be kept to a minimum since, for the most part, it has already been discussed. The five

teachers considered least effective, Lacy, Jessica, Cathy, Connie, and Lark (Table 3.2), are much less cohesive in their perspectives on care, respect, and trust. As noted earlier, some of these teachers had almost nothing to say about certain relational elements. In the following discussion of the differences between the most and least effective teachers on their perspectives on care, respect, and trust, I will begin with the perspective of the most effective teachers and conclude with the predominant perspective or perspectives of the least effective teachers.

Care.

From the perspective of the most effective teachers, care in the TSR tends to focus on the student as a whole (see Figure 5.1). These teachers listen to their students and learn about their likes, dislikes, and lives outside of the classroom. They want their students to feel safe and comfortable with them, so they work to be approachable. They are friendly with their students, willing to listen or converse at appropriate times, yet are also mindful that their main purpose in the classroom is to help students learn. The most effective teachers recognize that students make mistakes which they must be held accountable for, but that forgiveness and nonjudgment on their part as teachers, is necessary to help their students develop and mature both academically and socially. Most of these teachers noted that when they showed care for their students their students responded with motivation and cooperation on academic activities in the classroom.

The perspective of four of the least effective teachers (i.e., except Connie who was unable to operationalize care in her interview) is similar to the most effective teachers in that care in their TSRs also focuses on the student as a whole; they listen to and learn about their students. However, the least effective teachers diverged from the

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most effective in the amount of care and attention they paid to their students. A major way these teachers showed care was by conversing with their students on a personal level. All of them were observed conversing like this with students during class; often at a time when their students were supposed to be working. It appears the line between social time and academic time is blurry for these teachers, and explains why a major disciplinary issue these teachers have with their students is talking. When they converse in class, these teachers are modeling for their students that it is acceptable to talk during class.

In addition, through these conversations, the ineffective teachers appear to have moved from friendly to friend with at least some of their students. This provides two more reasons for their lowered effectiveness as teachers: 1) in relationships, authority is hierarchical and friendship is non-hierarchical, so the two cannot easily coexist in the same relationship (Boyd, 1998; Laursen & Bukowski, 1997; Pace & Hemmings, 2007), and 2) being friends with some students and not with others usually translates into unfair treatment of students in the classroom (DeCremer & Tyler, 2007; Peter & Dalbert, 2010; Tyler & Blader, 2003). Returning to Frischer's (2006) definition of laissez-faire authority, the phrase "stay on good terms with everyone" (p. 1) may be the key reason behind why some teachers choose to use laissez-faire authority despite it's short-comings. Since students are involuntary members of the classroom (Pace & Hemmings, 2007), it is important that students "like" being in class so they will engage and cooperate. It may be that laissez-faire teachers confuse "like being in class" with "like the teacher." This may be the reason laissez-faire teachers avoid confronting and disciplining their students; because they want their student "friends" to continue liking them.

With the exception of Cathy, who noted that caring for students helped them feel loved and accepted, the rest of the least effective teachers made no connection between the care they gave their students and any long-term outcomes for those students. Unlike the most effective teachers who saw increased motivation and cooperation in response to their care, the least effective teachers did not note this. It is possible that the least effective teachers did not see increased motivation and cooperation because the care they gave their students led to increased talking which lowered the students' motivation for and cooperation with academic activities.

Respect.

Every one of the most effective teachers (Table 3.2) noted the importance of respect to working relationships (see Figure 5.1). They discussed the reciprocalness of respect in the classroom; and all noted specifically that the teacher must give respect to students if the teacher wants to receive respect from them. One way these teachers show respect to their students is by having appropriately high expectations of all students, which indicates to students that the teacher understands each of them individually and sees valuable potential in every one of them. These teachers also believe that being consistent with students is another way to show respect for students. They do their best to be consistent in what their students expect of them as teachers by remaining consistent in 1) maintaining a positive emotional tone and 2) their fair treatment of students (i.e., including expectations, discipline, and consequences) both on an individual basis and as a class. Being consistent may show students they are valued and that their expectations matter to you as a teacher.

While there is little direct support in the literature for the assertion that consistent behavior shows respect, there is indirect support for this idea in the literature on trust. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000), stated in their in-depth analysis of trust: "At its most basic level, trust has to do with predictability, that is, consistency of behavior and knowing what to expect from others…Reliability combines a sense of predictability with benevolence" (p. 557). As argued earlier in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.1 and Figure 5.1), the combination of care (i.e., benevolence) and respect (i.e., predictability/consistency of behavior) leads to trust (i.e. reliability). Given this understanding, it may be reasonable to accept the most effective teachers' assertion that their consistent behavior shows respect to their students because this in combination with the care they described earlier appears to build trust with students.

From what the most effective teachers said, it appears there may be a relationship between high expectations and being consistent; a relationship predicated upon the reciprocalness of respect (Ellis, 2000; Harjunen, 2011; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Schrodt et al., 2009; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). Given that you must give respect to receive it in return (Cothran, Kulinna, & Garrahy, 2003), it is reasonable to assume that other forms of respect also function in this reciprocal manner. The most effective teachers recognize their students have high expectations of them and these teachers try to consistently meet those expectations; probably with the understanding that if they consistently meet their students' expectations, ideally their students will reciprocate by consistently meeting their high expectations. This may also pertain to respect as fairness with these teachers (Cothran et al., 2003); perhaps they recognize that if they, as teachers expect much of

their students that it is only fair that their students be allowed to expect much of them as teachers in return (Giesinger, 2012; Goodman, 2009; Stojanov, 2010). In his philosophical treatise on respect in education, Giesinger (2012) identified this particular dynamic as a special form of educational respect. In this dynamic, teachers see students as developing individuals endowed with dignity, and show respect for them by allowing students to have the right to make claims (i.e., have expectations) of the teacher which equal those claims the teacher has of the students (Giesinger, 2012).

As a group, the least effective teachers were less aware of respect than the most effective teachers (Table 3.2). Only three of the five, Cathy, Jessica, and Lark, spoke of the reciprocalness of respect. In discussing this, these three said they try to model respectful behavior so their students will learn how to be respectful in return. It is worth noting that Connie and Lacy, the two teachers who treated students in a disrespectful manner during their observations (i.e., used sarcasm and humiliation on students), had very little to say about respect and were the two that did not speak of respect as being reciprocal. Treating students as individuals was the only other thing that stood out with the ineffective teachers. Given this group's earlier focus on conversations as a way to show care to students, it makes sense that they would be more aware of and focus on the individuality aspect of respect.

It is telling that none of the least effective teachers discussed high expectations or being consistent in relation to respect for students. Both of these aspects of respect embody fairness; knowing your students individually and treating them as such, but counterbalancing that focus on the individual with focus on all the individuals together as a class. The most effective teachers appear to use the individual knowledge of students to

develop appropriate expectations for each student; this enables the teachers to treat all their students in a fair and consistent, yet individualized manner, and results in their students respecting them as teachers.

Trust.

Of the most effective teachers (Table 3.2), Abby, Allie, Amber, and Tammy were very cognizant of the development of trust in their classrooms (see Figure 5.1). Kristy was not immediately able to describe the development of trust, as the others did, but with time was able to articulate how trust develops with her students. As noted earlier, the discussion of trust in the development of legitimate authority in research question two was based predominantly on the interviews of these five teachers. However, as a group unto itself, the most effective teachers spent a large portion of their discussions of trust describing how trust develops through listening to students and the consistent balance of care and respect in the TSR. The following discussion parses out the different perspectives of the most effective from the least effective (Table 3.2).

Building trust versus earning trust.

Overall, the development of trust in the classroom was described in two ways: building trust and earning trust (see Figure 5.1). Four of the five most effective teachers (i.e., Amber, Allie, Kristy, and Abby) used the term "build trust," and four of the five least effective teachers (i.e., Jessica, Cathy, Connie, and Lark) used the term "earn trust." This is an important distinction because building trust implies a proactive and collaborative effort toward developing trust, whereas earning trust implies a one-sided effort. The terms "earn" and "build" used here are similar to the terms "earn" and "negotiate" used in Chapter 2 to describe the two ways teachers develop legitimate

authority in the classroom; with teachers one-sidedly earning authority on their own, but also negotiating for authority in a reciprocal fashion with their students. This distinction between earning and building was also noted in Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2000) in-depth analysis of trust as a construct; the authors consistently used "build" to describe the process of developing trust between two or more people, and used "earn" to describe the process one must go through to repair a broken trust with another. All five of the most effective teachers (Table 3.2) specified that teachers build trust with students. In contrast, four of the least effective teachers spoke of earning trust, but only one of them (i.e., Jessica) actually referred to the teacher earning trust with students; the other three ineffective teachers (i.e., Cathy, Connie, and Lark) spoke of students having to earn the trust of the teacher.

Two of the ineffective teachers (i.e., Cathy and Lark), described trust as a reciprocal construct that can be broken and must be earned back in order for reciprocation to occur again (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). After describing that students had to earn trust, Cathy and Lark both spoke at length about students who had broken their trust and how they confronted those students, telling them "I can no longer trust you." From their comments, though, it sounded like it was going to be very difficult for those students to earn back the trust they had broken.

Unlike Cathy and Lark, Connie did not see trust as reciprocal. When she spoke of earning trust, she meant that students had to earn it from the start: "You have to prove yourself to me before I trust you…prove it over and over…I'll give you a break the first time….but…the third, fourth, fifth, then it's like…sorry…it's a lot easier to say zero than to grade a paper." For Connie, every late paper appears to be a breach of trust. Later in

this discussion, Connie described a student who did not even attempt to turn in a project because it would have been a day late and he had already lost her trust as far as late work was concerned. From this example, it appears that Connie's refusal to allow students to repair their broken trust may lead to demotivation in those students. Trust is extremely important to creating and maintaining a positive class climate and both trust and positive class climates have been linked to increased student achievement; on the other hand, distrust *or trust that the teacher or other students will <u>not</u> be benevolent*, leads to lowered student achievement because students are more concerned about self-protection (Peter & Dalbert, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). It appears that the least effective teachers' focus on earning trust rather than building trust may negatively affect their class climate and be a contributing factor in their lowered effectiveness.

In sharp contrast to the least effective teachers, three of the five most effective teachers (i.e., Amber, Kristy, and Abby; Table 3.2) discussed being nonjudgmental and forgiving with students as a major way to build trust with them (see Figure 5.1). As noted earlier in research question two, these teachers appear to recognize that students are a work in progress and are likely to make mistakes. Forgiving students for their mistakes and refraining from judging them for those mistakes allows students the freedom to learn from their mistakes and develop in a TSR and classroom context focused on the student's well-being.

Forgiveness from the teacher rebuilds trust and reinstates balance in the TSR (see Figure 5.1)because the victim (i.e., teacher) restores trust almost immediately rather than the perpetrator (i.e., student) having to slowly earn it back (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). So too, by remaining nonjudgmental, teachers allow students who make mistakes

to maintain their dignity and allow them to remain part of the class or group (DeCremer & Tyler, 2005), which is important because group membership is predicated upon the trustworthiness of the group member (DeCremer, 2002). By not judging an errant student, the teacher, in effect, is telling that student and the rest of the students in the class that he or she is still trustworthy despite having made a mistake.

Listening to students builds trust.

Four of the most effective teachers (i.e., Tammy, Allie, Kristy, and Abby; Table 3.2) also spoke of listening as a major way they build trust with students (see Figure 5.1). None of the least effective teachers identified listening as a way to develop trust with students. These teachers may not recognize listening as important because, as discussed earlier, they are more focused on conversing with students, which involves much more talking on the teacher's part. Listening tends to be a common descriptor of teachers whom students find caring, nurturing, responsive, and autonomy supportive (e.g., Bieg, Backes, & Mittag, 2011; Goldstein, 1999; Hayes et al., 1994; Reeve, 2006; Reeve et al., 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1997; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). The most effective teachers described one aspect of their care as getting to know their students, which must involve listening, but they were also certain that listening helped build trust (see Figure 5.1). Abby described it this way: "They're so used to being told wait a minute…if you just stop and let them tell you the story, that builds trust and then they'll come tell you something that's really important…something that's meaningful… that's trust." In agreement with these teachers, a few studies have noted that trustworthiness is more easily built with authorities who listen (DeCremer & Tyler, 2007; Harjunen, 2012; Tyler & Blader, 2003).

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Consistent teacher behavior with students develops trust.

It is interesting that four of the most effective teachers (i.e., Abby, Allie, Kristy, and Tammy) and two of the least effective teachers (i.e., Connie and Jessica) agreed that being consistent with students was another way to develop trust with them. Observations identified two major differences in how the most and least effective teachers differed on being consistent: 1) follow-through with consequences and 2) emotional tone.

During observations in the most effective teachers' classes, if a student misbehaved and was given a warning, the teacher followed-through with a consequence if the student repeated the misbehavior (e.g., timeout or detention). While handling the misbehavior, all of the most effective teachers remained calm and did not appear to be annoyed or flustered; once they assigned the consequence, they continued on with little interruption to the lesson.

As a group, the least effective teachers (Table 3.2) were inconsistent with follow-through on verbal warnings. Unfortunately, they were very consistent in this behavior over the three observations. While Lacy and Cathy were observed following-through on a couple of their threats; they issued many more threats than consequences. Jessica, Connie, and Lark, on the other hand, were never observed following-through on any of their threatened consequences. Given this, Jessica made a surprising statement during her interview: "…this is what I said, this is what I'm doing… one more time, well you're moving…It's not something that she's [referring to herself] going to say over and over and over and never follow through with it…be consistent." This statement was in complete opposition to what had actually occurred during her previous observation. During the entire 45 minute class time, Jessica repeatedly threatened to separate students

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who talked, but never did. It is curious that Jessica referred to herself in third person at the end of the quote. It is almost as if she was unconsciously distancing herself from it, because what she said was the exact opposite of what she did. Since Connie and Jessica did not follow-through with consequences, their students continued to repeat the misbehaviors for which they had already been warned. It appeared that continually having to warn students for the same misbehaviors irritated Jessica and angered Connie. This change in emotional tone made their behavior with students inconsistent. In all observations of these two, as class time progressed, both teachers increased in their number of verbal warnings with students and both teachers became harsher looking and sounding with students to convince them to comply for the moment. Connie was much harsher than Jessica, but the emotional tone of both teachers changed with time. The rest of the least effective teachers were observed to behave in a similar manner as Connie and Jessica with their students. They were inconsistent in their follow-through and, with the exception of Lark, became flustered with their students' continued misbehavior and lack of cooperation.

Being consistent with students helps them learn what to expect from the teacher; as expectations are reaffirmed through daily interactions with the teacher, they develop with time into trust (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). In the case of the most effective teachers (Table 3.2), their consistent behavior on following-through with consequences has led to their students trusting that this will happen, so the students comply with the teacher's warning and behave appropriately. Unfortunately, students also can learn to trust teacher behavior that is somewhat negative in nature. In the case of the least effective teachers, their consistent behavior on *not following-through with consequences*

has led to their students trusting that no threatened consequence will ever follow a warning. As a result, the students have learned that they need only comply with a directive for the moment because when they return to the inappropriate behavior, the only consequence will be that the teacher will warn them again using a slightly angrier tone. It appears that the trust which emanates from the teacher's consistent behavior, directly affects his or her authority in the classroom. Consistent follow-through leads to high student cooperation and high legitimate authority. Consistent lack of follow-through leads to low student cooperation and low authority, whether legitimate or laissez-faire.

Trust affects class climate.

Only two of the most effective teachers, Allie and Kristy, discussed how the development of trust with students (see Figure 5.1) produces the class climate, but they were very clear on the causality. Both teachers described how trust developed with students is necessary to the development of a "safe" class environment (i.e., positive class climate). Allie, the third grade teacher who spoke the most about her class climate, said this:

> The beginning few weeks of school is really not about, you know, pure education, it's not academics. It's about gaining their trust, knowing that when they walk through those doors this is a safe classroom. They can trust me as their teacher, they can trust this environment…we have to trust one another, not only the teacher but they have to trust their fellow students, to feel comfortable, to relax enough and to be able to learn properly. If they're not at ease, if they're not trusting then they're not going to come in and be comfortable and learn.

Kristy described the development of her class climate this way:

> [I]t's a caring, safe environment…They don't feel threatened…knowing that trust coming in here, knowing that they're not going to be torn down or criticized because they don't know what they're doing. I think that has something to do with trust. They can come in here and they can feel okay. 'I can trust the teacher, trust that I can participate and not be laughed at.'

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> Because I've been in or I've had some math teachers, when I was working on my math degree, that I hated going to because I felt like an idiot when I left.…no one should ever feel that way.

From what Allie and Kristy said, a safe class environment or climate is based on trust; trust between teacher and student and trust among students. With this trust in place, students feel safe enough in their rooms to risk being wrong in front of their peers. Allie even went so far as to say that trust and a safe environment are necessary for students to learn properly.

As to the least effective teachers (Table 3.2), none of them ever discussed how trust affects their class climate. Of the five, Cathy was the only one that even used the word climate or environment. She spoke of her class climate in relation to respect: "[W]e talk about that we're not all good at everything and that's okay…We need to respect everybody…when you have that kind of a climate then they're not as afraid to try a little harder, because no one is going to make fun of me." Cathy understood that the acceptance that comes from respect helps support her class climate, but never made the connection with trust. It is worth noting that during observations of Cathy's class, her students cooperated with her and participated when asked to do so, but their participation was subdued, few students voluntarily spoke, and there was little class discussion.

As noted earlier, trust is integral to the production of a positive class climate and both trust and a positive class climate have been shown to increase student achievement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Observations of both Allie and Kristy bear out that they have very healthy class climates. During all observations of Allie and Kristy, almost all students in both classes actively participated and appeared to enjoy working together in class. Class discussion was quiet, polite, and on task; even reluctant students

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participated when asked. When Allie was not directly instructing her third grade students, they worked actively but quietly in groups. In Kristy's class, much more time was spent in direct instruction because of the nature of the material, but even that was conducted as teacher-led classroom discussions with a large amount of student input. Kristy described student participation in her discussions this way: "you can see a difference from the beginning of the year how few people participate and at the end…there are so many of them wanting to give me an answer and be the first before anybody else." When students gave incorrect responses, Kristy handled them in a deft manner, treating them no differently than a correct response. She would dissect the incorrect answer just as she did the correct ones, but this time to help the students see where their thinking went off track. It appears that Allie and Kristy are aware of the relationship between trust and class climate and purposefully set out on the first day to develop trust with their students in order to produce a healthy class climate.

Summary: Teacher Group Comparison for Research Question Three.

Research Question 3: How does the development of legitimate authority differ between the teachers considered most and least effective? In particular, how do their perceptions and experiences differ in relation to care, respect, and trust, respectively? There were definite differences between the most effective teachers (i.e., Tammy, Amber, Allie, Kristy, and Abby) and the least effective teachers (i.e., Lacy, Jessica, Cathy, Connie, and Lark). One major difference was their authority styles. All five of the most effective teachers were legitimate authorities while only two of the least effective teachers were legitimate authorities; the other three least effective teachers were laissez-faire authorities. Their authority styles led to a second major difference: the amount of

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cooperation these teachers received from their students. The most effective teachers had much higher levels of student cooperation than the least effective teachers. This was most likely because the most effective teachers followed through with consequences, while the least effective almost never meted out consequences despite giving ample warnings.

As to the differences between care, respect, and trust, one of the major differences between the most and least effective was in their differing emphases on specific relational elements. The most effective teachers tried to maintain balance in their relationships by focusing on care and respect evenly in order to develop trust with their students. Each of the least effective teachers, on the other hand, tended to lean more toward either care or respect. This appears to have affected their understanding of the development of trust and their ability to develop trust and authority with students. While the most effective teachers' main focus was on building trust with their students to gain their cooperation; the least effective teachers' main focus was on their leadership role with students. By focusing on themselves rather than the relational dynamic they are in with their students, the least effective teachers appear to have missed out on information necessary to the development of their authority: namely the reciprocal nature of the TSR and the trust that must be built with students through it. This lack of information has most likely led to the broad lack of understanding the least effective teachers have about many things in their classrooms: how their TSRs function, how authority develops through their TSRs, how they actually enact authority within their classrooms, and, most importantly, the role they play in the long-term socialization of their students through the authority they hold in their TSRs.

Chapter 5: Discussions and Implications

The intent of this study was to better understand how the relationship a teacher forms with individual students, functions in the development of the teacher's legitimate authority. Three research questions were posed to focus this investigation, and multiple forms of qualitative data (i.e., student essays and teacher observations and interviews) were collected and analyzed in order to answer them:

1. What teacher behaviors do high school students in a diversely-populated rural school perceive as characteristic of effective and ineffective teachers? In particular, what teacher behaviors do they identify as characteristic of care, respect, and trust in the teacher-student relationship, respectively?

2. How do teachers in a diversely-populated rural school develop legitimate authority through the teacher-student relationship? In particular, how do they perceive and experience care, respect, and trust, respectively?

3. How does the development of legitimate authority differ between the teachers considered most and least effective? In particular, how do their perceptions and experiences differ in relation to care, respect, and trust, respectively?

To respond to Research Question 1, student essays, on how effective and ineffective teachers differ with regard to care, respect, and trust, were collected and analyzed (see Table 3.1 for summary of data collection and data analysis procedures). The analysis results were used to create a teacher observation inventory, to be used later in the analysis and coding of the teacher observations. The student essays provided thick descriptions of effective and ineffective teacher behaviors which were coded and categorized as representing: care, respect, trust, understanding, availability, connection,

and authority/leadership. Within each category student descriptors were used to provide specific behavioral indicators that represented each teacher behavior category on the Teacher Observation Inventory (Appendix C).

To respond to Research Questions 2 and 3 (Table 3.1), observation and interview data were collected on 15 teachers randomly selected from the same school district. The data collected centered on the teachers' in-class authority use and teacher-student interactions, specifically with regard to care, respect, and trust. For Research Question 2, of the 15 total teacher participants, only data from the 12 teachers classified as legitimate authorities (i.e., Abby, Allie, Amber, Candy, Carl, Cathy, Chris, Jamie, Kristy, Lacy, Sandra, and Tammy) was used. These 12 teachers indicated that the development of legitimate authority through the TSR involved the teacher giving care and respect to students in order to help the students develop trust with the teacher. In the process of developing trust, the teacher develops legitimate authority with the students as they become willing to cooperate with the teacher based on that trust (see Figure 5.1). These teachers also noted specifically that: 1) caring for students by listening to them develops trust, 2) respecting students by forgiving them and remaining nonjudgmental toward them develops trust, and 3) respecting students by remaining fair and consistent with them also develops trust.

For Research Question 3, data from the five teachers ranked as most effective (i.e., Tammy, Amber, Allie, Kristy, and Abby) and five teachers ranked as least effective (i.e., Lacy, Jessica, Cathy, Connie, and Lark) indicated that there were definite perceptual, behavioral, and experiential differences between these two groups on how authority is developed in the classroom. The most effective teachers were all strong

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legitimate authorities (Table 3.3) and were very aware of their interactions with students and how those interactions affected students. In contrast, two of the least effective teachers were weak legitimate authorities and the other three were permissive laissez-faire authorities. The least effective teachers as a group were lacking in awareness of their interactions with students and how those interactions affected students. Both the most and least effective groups recognized that care, respect, and trust were involved in the development of authority (see Figure 5.1), but their perceptions of the function of these relational elements varied. Both groups were quite aware of the care they gave to students, but differed on how they enacted care in the classroom. The most effective teachers were more aware of the nature and function of respect in their TSRs; they also focused much more on the development of trust with their students than the least effective teachers. Finally, the most effective teachers recognized that the development of trust was crucial to the development of a positive class climate, while the least effective teachers did not mention this at all. From these findings, it appears that teachers who lack authority in the classroom are ineffective because they struggle to gain student cooperation in the classroom. Their ineffectiveness, in turn, has a detrimental effect on student learning in two ways: 1) instructional time is wasted during the struggle for cooperation, so students learn less (Harjunen, 2011, 2012), and 2) consistently struggling with an authority figure (i.e. teacher) most likely socializes students to be less likely to cooperate with authority figures (e.g., teachers and employers) later on in life (Arnett, 2007; Birch & Ladd, 1998; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008).

Overall, the differences between effective and ineffective teachers appear to extend from an overarching understanding, or lack of understanding, of how their

interactions with students produce two long-term effects: 1) legitimate teacher authority, which directly affects their ability or inability to teach effectively, and more importantly 2) student socialization, which not only affects their students' current abilities to learn but also affects their long-term growth and development as learners (see Figure 5.1).

The differences between effective and ineffective teachers apparently are important, for teacher effectiveness has been researched for decades (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003; Medley & Mitzel, 1959; White, 1993). Yet, despite years of research and the recent focus on national standards for teacher competency, teacher evaluation, and student testing, it appears that many are still unsatisfied with the performance indicators currently used to identify teacher effectiveness (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003; Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008). Perhaps this is because something is still missing from teacher performance indicators. From this study, it appears that the missing component may center on how effective teachers enact their authority in the classroom through the TSR.

With this in mind, I will discuss the theoretical implications this study has for current educational theory. Following that, I will discuss this study's practical implications for preservice and in-service teacher evaluation and training; as well as the practical implications for the development and remediation of parental authority.

Theoretical Implications

The results of this study hold theoretical implications for the literature in relation to the development of legitimate teacher authority, student socialization, and teacher effectiveness.

Development of legitimate teacher authority.

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As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, teacher effectiveness and teacher authority are intertwined (see Figure 2.1 and Figure 5.1). Effective teachers are those whose students recognize their authority and legitimize it by cooperating with them. Several studies have looked at teacher authority via the characteristics and behaviors of authoritative teachers and student responses to teacher authority (e.g., Harjunen, 2011, 2012; McLaughlin, 1991; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000), but few studies have looked at how the relationship between teacher and student affects the development of the teacher's authority (e.g., Harjunen, 2009), and none have focused specifically on the relational elements inherent in the TSR and how those relational elements function together to produce legitimate teacher authority.

In Chapter 2, I suggested that care, respect, and trust function together in the TSR to help the teacher develop legitimate authority (see Figure 2.1). By specifically comparing the educational communications literature on credibility and confirmation, and the educational literature on authority and trust, I proposed a reciprocal process by which teachers develop legitimate authority using care, respect, and trust. This process is reciprocal because the relational elements that define relationships are reciprocal and it is through that reciprocal give and take between teacher and student that authority develops and is maintained. This process has three somewhat distinct steps: 1) students develop trust with a teacher when they see consistent evidence that the teacher cares for and respects them (Cornelius-White, 2007; Ellis, 2000; Goodboy & Myers, 2008; Gregory & Ripski, 2008; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Myers & Martin, 2006; Schrodt et al., 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2000; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996), 2) students are willing to cooperate with a teacher (i.e., authority) once trust develops (DeCremer &

Tyler, 2007; Schrodt et al., 2009; Teven & Herring, 2007), and 3) teacher authority is given by students and legitimized when they willingly choose to cooperate with the teacher in class (Harjunen, 2011, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007). Once the teacher has established his or her authority, it is maintained by negotiating with students using the same reciprocal process (Elliott, 2009; Harjunen, 2011; McLaughlin, 1991; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Steutel & Spiecker, 2000).

In this study, the most effective teachers (Table 3.2), who are most aware of their interactions with students and the results of those interactions, describe specific forms of care (i.e., listening to students) and respect (i.e., being forgiving/nonjudgmental and being fair/consistent) that lead to the development of: 1) trust with students, 2) student cooperation, and 3) legitimate authority to which students willingly respond. As described in Chapter 4, the interview data supports the idea that care, respect, and trust are necessary to the process of authority development (see Figure 5.1).

The empirical findings of this study support the conceptual model of authority development (Figure 2.1) proposed at the end of Chapter 2, with minor modifications. The arrow indicating *student trust for the teacher* was made heavier given the central role it plays in cooperation and authority. Also, the boxes for *legitimate authority* and *student cooperation* were rearranged to better indicate the order in which they occur. The modified conceptual model of the development of legitimate teacher authority in the TSR and how that leads to teacher effectiveness can be seen in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Development of Legitimate Teacher Authority in the TSR Leading to Teacher
Effectiveness (modified)
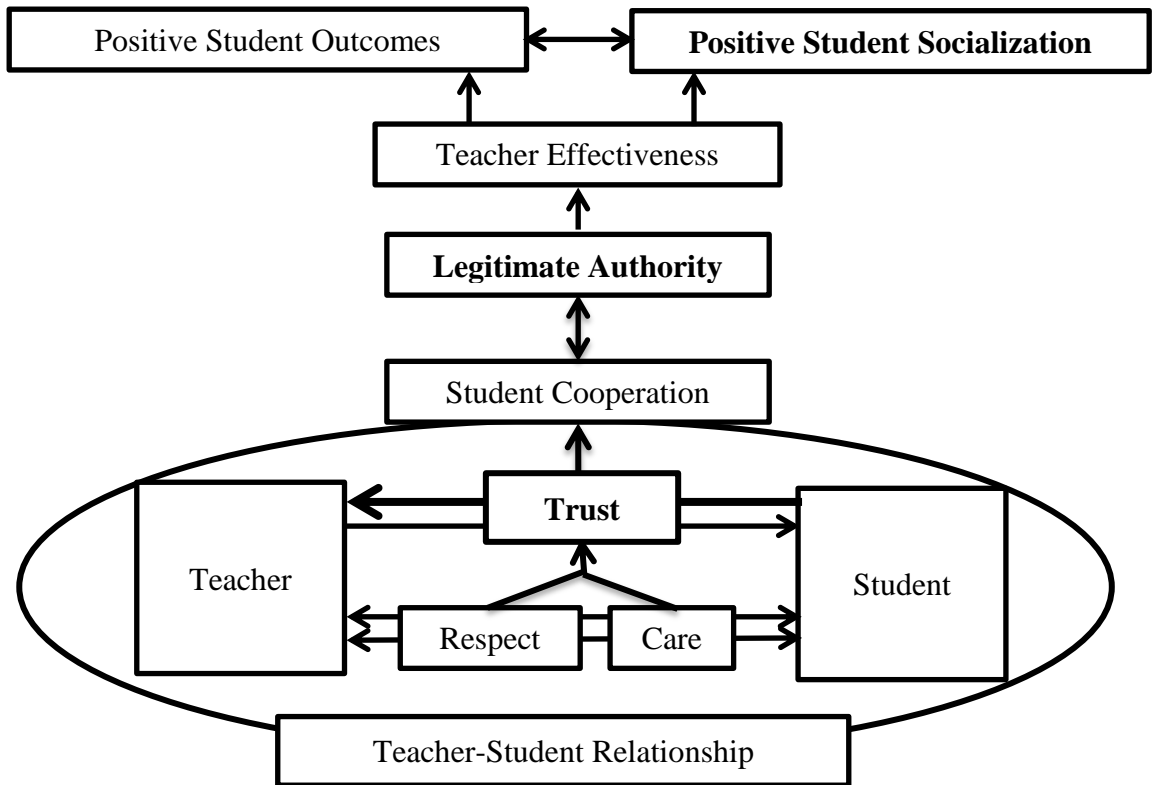
Given the number and configuration of factors involved in the process of authority

development through the TSR, this conceptual model provides additional clarity by

illustrating the interactions inherent in the process.

Authority is necessary to becoming an effective teacher, but today's teachers are

no longer automatically given the traditional authority once held by teachers (Elliott,

2009). Recognizing this, it becomes extremely important that today's teachers learn

how to develop legitimate authority in the classroom so they can become effective

teachers. Despite the need to learn how teacher authority develops, a practical

understanding of the authority development process has thus far remained elusive (Pace

& Hemmings, 2007), most likely because authority development is learned by trial-and-

error making it a tacit process (Elliott, 2009). This study fills a theoretical gap in the

literature by elucidating how care, respect, and trust function in the TSR to produce legitimate teacher authority.

Student socialization.

The findings of this study also highlighted the importance of student socialization, as emphasized in the model (Figure 5.1). In varying degrees, all the teachers in the sample understood that the development of the TSR was important to the development of legitimate teacher authority, and ultimately to the success of their classrooms. The most effective teachers, however, took this understanding to a higher level and discussed how the TSR, legitimate authority, and classroom success affect the future of each student by helping those students develop and mature in the process of student socialization (Giesinger, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007; Wentzel, 1998, 2003, 2004, 2010; Wentzel & Looney, 2007). Socialization was discussed earlier in Chapter 2 as one of the reasons effective teachers and the TSR needed to be studied.

While none of the teachers in this study used the term "socialization," the process they described is the same. As discussed in Chapter 2, socialization is the process by which those who are more developed or mature teach the accepted ways of the predominant social group to those who are less developed or mature (Grusec & Hastings, 2007). In this process, the more developed or mature individuals (i.e., teachers) shape the character and resulting actions of those less developed or mature (i.e., students) by implicitly and explicitly teaching them the thoughts, emotions, and behaviors that align with the accepted rules, values, and mores of their culture (Grusec & Hastings, 2007). For socialization to occur, however, the teachings of the more developed or mature must be

conveyed in such a way that the less developed or mature are willing to accept the teachings and adopt them as their own (Grusec & Hastings, 2007).

The teachers in this study, who hold legitimate authority (Table 3.3), understand that their interactions with students shape their students' behavior (Figure 5.1) and that as teachers they have a huge impact on whether their students like or dislike the process of learning (Wentzel, 2003, 2004, 2010). They also recognize that developing legitimate authority with students plays a large part in their students' current and future success inside and outside the classroom (Giesinger, 2012; Pace & Hemmings, 2007); and most likely see their role as an authority as part of their moral or social responsibility as a teacher (Weinstein, 1998). By learning to cooperate with an authority in class (i.e., socialization), students are able to learn and be more successful in the classroom (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). This, in turn, likely helps students learn to like, enjoy, and gain satisfaction from the process of learning (Wentzel, 2004, 2009; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998), socializing them toward becoming self-regulated learners (Wentzel, 2004, 2009) and perhaps even to becoming life-long learners. Learning to cooperate with an authority in the classroom also socializes students for later on in life, when they will enter the workforce and get a job, which invariably involves working under the authority of a manager (Arnett, 2007; Birch & Ladd, 1998; Jennings & Greenberg, 2008; Pace & Hemmings, 2007). By socializing students to cooperate with a legitimate authority in school (Figure 5.1), these teachers are also helping their students learn how to identify and cooperate with other legitimate authorities which should help them gain and maintain employment in the future.

Student socialization occurs on a daily basis in the classroom, whether teachers are aware of it or not. In the classrooms of effective, authoritative teachers, students are socialized to become successful students of today and successful citizens of tomorrow. Effective teachers appear to recognize this and do their best to make sure that the long-term effects they have on their students are toward this positive end. Unfortunately, ineffective teachers do not appear to understand this; and as a result, tend to produce negative results in their students with long-term effects such as lowered levels of learning and dropout (Hanushek, 2008; Hattie, 2003; Menuey, 2005; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Value-added models, which longitudinally track outcomes for specific students and groups of students and correlate these long-term student outcomes with the students' past teachers, indicate that the long-term effects produced by effective and ineffective teachers can last well into adulthood and affect students in many ways, including academic, social, and economic outcomes (Chetty, Friedman, & Rockoff, 2011; Hanushek et. al., 2004; Jensen, 2010; Rockoff, 2004).

Differences between effective and ineffective teachers: Awareness, understanding, and classroom management.

Although it is not described in the model, one of the most important underlying differences between effective and ineffective teachers (Table 3.2) seemed to be their level of awareness and understanding of: 1) legitimate authority and 2) student socialization. This lack of awareness and understanding appeared to result in a lack of classroom management skills. Following are specific points of comparison upon which the most and least effective teachers diverged in 1) their understanding of authority and socialization and 2) implementation of classroom management.

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All of the most effective teachers: 1) could explain how the TSR functions in authority development, 2) recognized the importance of their role in the socialization of students, 3) recognized the importance of trust in the classroom and focused on developing it with students, and 4) were highly aware of their interactions with students and the results of those interactions. For example, Tammy, the teacher ranked most effective, made the connection between a teacher's use of authority in the classroom and the long-term socialization of students into productive adults (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). The least effective teachers on the other hand: 1) were generally unable to articulate how legitimate authority develops in the TSR, 2) never discussed their roles as socializers in the TSR, 3) had little to say about trust or its importance in the classroom, and 4) were generally unaware of their interactions with students and the results of those interactions.

The fourth point most likely explains the first three. A lack of awareness of their interactions with students would make it difficult to connect those interactions with student results. This would hamper the teachers' ability to understand how trust and authority develop (Figure 5.1), and also prevent their ability to see short-range outcomes like classroom management and long-range outcomes like socialization. For example, several of the ineffective teachers were overly friendly and permissive with their students because they wanted their students to have fun and not be afraid of school. The least effective teachers did not realize that in doing this, they seriously weakened their authority and their ability to manage their students' behavior. The least effective teachers' permissiveness socialized their students into non-regulated learners who came to expect that the teacher would not discipline them; thus resulting in the

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students' failure to recognize and respond to the teacher as an authority. It appears their lack of understanding of authority development and student socialization most likely led to their lack of classroom management and ineffectiveness in the classroom. Given the least effective teachers' general lack of awareness of their own behavior in the classroom and how it affected their students, it appears that a lack of self-reflection has probably led to their lack of understanding (Beach & Pearson, 1998; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Giovannelli, 2003; Shoffner, 2009).

In relation to the ineffective teachers (Table 3.2) and their lack of awareness and understanding, two notable questions became evident. Of the five teachers in this group, two were Nationally Board Certified Teachers (i.e., Cathy and Jessica) and two were able to describe in detail how to develop legitimate authority (i.e., Jessica and Lark). These somewhat confounding details raised two questions: 1) why does a teacher who earns National Board Certification, which requires a large amount of written self-reflection and self-analysis, not use the skills developed during the certification process to improve his or her performance in the classroom, and 2) why does a teacher who can well-describe legitimate authority development not implement that knowledge in the classroom? I would speculate that in both instances, these teachers' awareness has led to an imperfect understanding of the TSR and authority development (Figure 5.1). As noted in Chapter 4, the least effective teachers tended to over-emphasize care in their relationships. One of the main ways these three teachers showed care to their students was by holding non-academic conversations with students during class time. These conversations, which helped the teachers get to know their students, often interfered with instructional time. By not distinguishing between academic learning time and non-

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academic social time, these teachers socialized their students into being "a talkative bunch" (i.e., the phrase Jessica and Lark used to describe their students); and this most likely led to one of their main classroom management problems: inappropriate student talking. None of these teachers seemed to recognize that their efforts to show care to students through conversation led to their inability to manage their students' talkativeness. In addition to this over-emphasis of care, none of the least effective teachers seemed to recognize their role as socializers. These teachers' strong focus on care may lead to a myopic focus on the present that produces a lack of understanding of the long-term effects of their enactment of weak authority with students.

Practical Implications

From this study, several practical implications become evident which mirror the theoretical implications. These practical implications have the potential to have a large impact on teacher effectiveness in the classroom and authoritative parenting. Following is a discussion of the practical implications for the evaluation and training of both preservice and in-service teachers; as well as the practical implications for parenting.

>**Preservice teacher evaluation and training.**

Student learning is generally considered to be the most important outcome of teaching. To this end, teacher education programs are designed to help preservice teachers become knowledgeable of content, pedagogy, student development, and classroom management; the intent of this training is to produce new teachers who are capable of developmentally appropriate teaching and student management, which should result in student achievement in the classroom (Cochran-Smith et al., 2012; Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002; Melnick & Meister, 2008; Meister & Melnick, 2003;

Ripski, LoCasale-Crouch, & Decker, 2011). This study presents two areas of practical consideration for preservice teacher programs: 1) evaluation of preservice teachers in regard to their professional dispositions and 2) training in classroom management.

Evaluating preservice teachers' dispositions.

Teacher educators have long understood that preservice teachers need to develop a specific set of dispositions in order to be successful in the teaching profession. A person's dispositions are composed of habits of mind which are exhibited through regular voluntary behavioral patterns; theses dispositions extend from the individual's developing system of beliefs, values, and ethics (Almerico, 2011; Dottin, 2009). In the last decade or so, a greater emphasis has been placed on preservice teacher dispositions; enough so, that teacher preparation programs are required to implement a valid and reliable form of disposition evaluation of their preservice teachers in order to gain and maintain state and national accreditation (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation [CAEP], 2013; Diez, 2007; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE], 2008). To this end, accredited teacher education programs regularly evaluate the dispositions of each preservice teacher, often including faculty evaluations and student self-evaluations, in order to determine if the student is maturing into an accomplished, responsible adult, capable of managing him or herself and 25 or so students while also implementing instruction in the way he or she was trained (Almerico, 2011; Jamil, Downer, & Pianta, 2012).

For over a decade, National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE; 2008) has been the national accrediting body for teacher preparation programs. To define the teacher behaviors and dispositions necessary for effective teaching and

accreditation, NCATE used the performance-based standards produced by the Interstate

Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC; 2011), a subsidiary of the

Council of Chief State School Officers' (CCSSO, http://www.ccsso.org/). According to

NCATE (2008), teacher dispositions were defined as, "professional attitudes, values, and

beliefs demonstrated through both verbal and non-verbal behaviors as educators interact

with students, families, colleagues, and communities" (pp. 89-90). In 2013, NCATE and

the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (http://www.teac.org/), another national

educational accrediting body, were consolidated into the Council for the Accreditation of

Educator Preparation (CAEP; n.d.). As the new national accrediting body, CAEP chose to

continue using the InTASC standards, which were updated in 2011 (see Appendix K).

These updated standards now refer to teacher dispositions as "critical dispositions" to

indicate the importance a teacher's dispositions have in relation to his or her ability to

teach effectively. The current InTASC (2011) standards used by CAEP (2013) define

critical dispositions as "habits of professional action and moral commitments that

underlie [teacher] performance" (p. 6) and note that these dispositions are crucial to

effective teacher practice. To emphasize how critical these dispositions are, the InTASC

writers purposefully chose to include behavioral indicators of specific teacher

dispositions with each standard.

Despite the recognition that a teacher's professional dispositions are important to

success in the classroom, and the increased emphasis on them, preservice teacher

dispositions have proven difficult to define and therefore difficult to evaluate (Almerico,

2011; Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2007; Diez, 2007). While the new InTASC (2011)

standards have improved in that they now delineate specific critical dispositions in

relation to each standard, the language used remains somewhat ambiguous. A number of the verbs used to operationalize different dispositions are quite tacit for most individuals (e.g., respect, appreciate, value). When a word is tacit, it means that most people have a vague understanding of the concept conveyed by the term, and they cannot articulate or operationalize their understanding of it (Ambrosini & Bowman, 2001; Elliott et. al., 2011).

For example, under InTASC (2011) Standard #1: Learner Development, the first critical disposition sub-standard uses the verb "respects" to operationalize its meaning: "1(h) The teacher respects learners' differing strengths and needs and is committed to using this information to further each learner's development" (p.10; Appendix K). As noted in Chapter 4, the term "respect" is difficult to define, even for veteran teachers. By using a tacitly understood term like respect to operationalize critical disposition sub-standards, this effectively places those sub-standards outside the sphere of most individual's conscious understanding. The verb "respect" is used in five of the InTASC dispositional sub-standards; and the terms, "appreciate" and "value," two more tacitly understood verbs which generally mean respect, are used in 10 other sub-standards. To ensure that the standards and dispositions used by their programs align with the InTASC standards, sub-standards and dispositions, teacher preparation programs often adopt the actionable language of the InTASC standards and use it verbatim in their own program standards and dispositions (e.g. East Central University Teacher Education Program, Ada, Oklahoma; Northwestern Oklahoma State University Teacher Education Program, Alva, Oklahoma; University of Oklahoma Teacher Education Program, Norman, Oklahoma). Since this is the case, it means that at least 15 of the 43 dispositional sub-

standards from the new InTASC standards need to be further operationalized beyond the original actionable wording on new pre-service teacher disposition evaluation forms, in order for pre-service teachers to be evaluated in a reliable manner. Findings from this study can better operationalize the expected dispositional behaviors of preservice teachers by defining tacit terms such as respect, appreciate, and value, using more salient behavioral terms and examples that emerged from this study. For example, sub-standard 1(h), stated above, could be reworded, "The teacher treats learners as individuals (i.e., respects) by accepting (i.e., respect) their differing strengths and needs without judging the learners, and is committed to using this information to further each learner's development."

Training preservice teachers in classroom management.

Another area of preservice teacher preparation that the findings of this study have practical implications for is classroom management training. Classroom management training has been a part of preservice teacher programs for years. It is designed to inform preservice teachers of the best practices which research has shown should lead to a healthy and well-functioning classroom environment (Burden, 2013); yet, classroom management is still a major concern for new teachers (Melnick & Meister, 2008; Morton, Vesco, Williams, & Awender, 1997). At some level, new teachers seem to recognize the need for authority in their classroom; yet do not know how to go about developing that authority because neither their training in classroom management nor student teaching explicated the full process for them. Authority development in the classroom involves multiple variables and learning how to balance those variables in order to develop authority has almost always been accomplished through trial-and-error learning; a

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process often described as "sink-or-swim" and "trial-by-fire" learning. Both descriptions clearly illustrate the all-encompassing nature and difficulty of the process, which often leaves little time for reflection. Those descriptions also help explain why this type of learning produces a tacit knowledge that is often difficult to clearly communicate to others, for rather than learning *what to do*, new teachers learn *what not to do* (Elliott, 2009; Elliott et al., 2011). It is likely that, due to the tacit nature of their knowledge of authority development, most veteran teachers are unable articulate the process of authority development. This tacitness explains two common pieces of advice regularly given to novice teachers: 1) "You cannot crack a smile until Christmas," and 2) "It is better to start off the year hard/mean, and then ease up as the year progresses." Advice like this is intended to illustrate that novice teachers must balance the care or responsiveness they feel for their students with respect in the form of demandingness and high expectations; a balance which is necessary to develop trust and authority with students. This advice is understandable, as many preservice and new teachers enter this field, at least in part, because they care deeply for children; and their over-emphasis on care can lead to a serious lack of classroom management (Goldstein & Lake, 2000; Weinstein, 1998). Unfortunately, advice like this is seldom further explained, so it is often taken literally. Rather than finding a balance between care and respect, the preservice or novice teacher is more likely to treat students in an uncaring manner which also may be perceived by students as disrespectful. Rather than helping the preservice or novice teacher develop authority, this advice is more likely to adversely affect class climate and authority development; because as students perceive the teacher as uncaring and disrespectful, they do not develop trust with the teacher, are not willing to cooperate

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with him or her, and are reluctant to give, or refuse to give, the teacher authority over them.

The tacitness of the TSR and authority development also appears to have a large effect on the curriculum taught in the classroom management courses. Since the authors of classroom management texts and the instructors that use those texts in classroom management courses tend to use research collected from veteran teachers, the TSR and authority development are either left out of the curriculum or visited only briefly, most likely due to the nebulous understanding the experts in this field have in these two areas (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). As such, classroom management courses and textbooks often take a very practical approach to the management of students; stressing that effective classroom management involves: 1) extensive planning, organization, and preparation in relation to instructional time and the classroom environment, 2) knowing one's students and 3) awareness of and consistent regulation of student behavior (e.g., Burden, 2013; Jones & Jones, 2013; Levin & Nolan, 2014; Manning & Bucher, 2013; Scott, Anderson, & Alter, 2012; Shea & Bauer, 2012). The presence or absence of positive TSRs and teacher authority can have a drastic effect on classroom management; yet, seldom do the terms "teacher authority" or "teacher-student relationship" appear in classroom management texts even though they are intimately related to classroom management. Fortunately, each of the latest editions of classroom management textbooks produced by Levin and Nolan (2014), Jones and Jones (2013) and Burden (2013) included a chapter on the relationship teachers have with students and the effect this has on student behavior and classroom management. Of these three, only Levin and Nolan (2014) and Jones and Jones (2013) included discussions of teacher authority. Of these two, only Levin and

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Nolan (2014) produced a chapter (i.e. Chapter 7: Building Relationships) which discusses the TSR, that care, respect, and trust are integral to the TSR, and how authority relates to the TSR. However, even though Levin and Nolan (2014) articulated this much, they still did not articulate: 1) how care and respect function together to produce trust in the TSR, or 2) how care, respect, and trust work together to develop the teacher's authority in the classroom. Findings from this study should provide the practical knowledge necessary to add to classroom management courses to help preservice teachers learn how to develop authority.

While it appears that the TSR and teacher authority are beginning to be recognized as important to classroom management, enough so that they have been added as chapters to some classroom management texts (e.g., Burden, 2013; Jones & Jones, 2013; Levin & Nolan, 2014), these two constructs should actually take a central role in the study of classroom management. All classroom management is conducted through the interactions between teacher and student in the TSR. This places the TSR at the center of the management process. If the teacher relates to his or her students in a manner that they perceive balances between care and respect, the students will come to trust the teacher. Trust leads to student compliance and cooperation, thus endowing the teacher with legitimate authority and making him or her more effective in the classroom. For example, teachers are much more likely to develop legitimate authority with their students and have good classroom management if they: 1) are friendly and approachable with students (i.e., care), 2) know their students well enough to know what to expect of them, how to help them, and what they can do autonomously (i.e., respect), and 3) can balance their care and respect for individual students in a way that all students perceive as fair (i.e.,

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trust). By learning how to be aware of and purposefully interact with students in a caring and respectful manner that is balanced, preservice teachers will be able to develop the trust and cooperation with students necessary for the development of their own legitimate authority.

In-service teacher evaluation and professional development training.

Similar to the evaluation and training process preservice teachers undergo, in-service teachers are also evaluated and required to go through professional development training. This is most likely due to two different considerations. First, if one takes an incremental and mastery approach to knowledge and skill development (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), then it makes sense to evaluate teachers and provide professional development for them in order that they may develop mastery in teaching and be more effective in the classroom. Second, of all in-service teachers, anywhere from 2% to 20% are considered either low or completely lacking in teacher effectiveness (Menuey, 2005). This statistic alone merits the need for regular professional development in order to help ineffective teachers learn to be more effective. In a fashion similar to the training of preservice, the findings of this study also have practical implications for the evaluation and training of in-service teachers.

Evaluating in-service teacher performance.

Recently, public school districts in the state of Oklahoma, similar to school districts in other states, adopted new teacher effectiveness evaluation models. The two models approved by the Oklahoma State Department of Education were the Tulsa Framework (n.d.) and the Marzano Protocol (Marzano, 2011a, 2011b). Each model provides 1) a checklist of multiple areas of research-based behavioral indicators of

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effective teaching and 2) a rubric of performance level indicators for each behavioral

indicator to evaluate the teacher's progress on that component. Both frameworks include

short sections on relationships with students that align with InTASC (2011) Standard 3,

which reads: "The teacher works with others to create environments that support

individual and collaborative learning, and that encourage positive social interaction,

active engagement in learning, and self motivation" (Appendix K). As noted before, the

verbs used to operationalize the InTASC standard into sub-standards can be difficult for

many people to articulate and the Tulsa Framework (n.d.) and Marzano Protocol (2011a,

2011b) use similar verbiage in their sections on student relations in order to align with

this standard.

The Tulsa Framework (n.d.) is used to evaluate teacher effectiveness by collecting

observational evidence from teachers and students during periodic visits by the

administrator. The Tulsa Framework lists five Domains of effective teacher behavior,

which are divided into 20 Dimensions; each dimension is defined using a rubric with

performance-level behavioral indicators. Dimension 6 (Appendix L) of the Tulsa

Framework is used to evaluate the TSR: "Teacher optimizes the learning environment

through respectful and appropriate interactions with students; conveying high

expectations for students and an enthusiasm for the curriculum" (p. 6). In the rubric for

this dimension, a teacher evaluated as "Superior" is described in this way, "Oral, written,

and nonverbal communication with students is considerate and positive…abundant

evidence of mutual respect and trust between teacher and student...Students appear to

have internalized the value of the content as well as the teacher's high expectations for

them" (p. 6). While the rubric does not include care, it does include respect and trust, but

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provides no behavioral examples to illustrate these tacit constructs. For example, "voluntary student compliance and cooperation" could be used to operationalize trust, and "teacher listens to and accepts student comments without judgment" could be used to operationalize respect. Interestingly, the rubric description for the Ineffective performance level on Dimension 6 is behaviorally well-defined in terms of respect, as it uses words which are clearly understood to represent disrespect (i.e., "insensitivity," "demeaning," and "condescension"). Trust, however, is not evident in this performance level and could have been operationalized with: "students ignore, argue with, and/or do not voluntarily comply with the teacher."

The Marzano Protocol (Marzano, 2011a, 2011b), like the Tulsa Framework (n.d.,), is used to evaluate teacher effectiveness by collecting observational evidence from teachers and students during periodic administrator visits; unlike the Tulsa Framework (n.d.), the Marzano Protocol (Marzano, 2011a, 2011b) is also used to collect interview data from students to be used in the teacher evaluations. The Marzano Protocol uses Design Questions to populate its checklist of effective teacher behaviors. These questions are then delineated into specific indicators which use additional checklists and a rubric to define and clarify the indicator. To evaluate the TSR, the Marzano Protocol uses four indicators to respond to Design Question 8: "What will I do to establish and maintain effective relationships with students?" These indicators include: 1) "Understanding Students' Interests and Backgrounds," 2) "Using Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors that Indicate Affection for Students," 3) "Displaying Objectivity and Control," and 4) "Student Interviews" (pp. 13-15; see Appendix M). Each indicator uses two checklists and a rubric. The two checklists include teacher behaviors and student responses, each of

which is comprised of three to five evidences. While the Tulsa Framework (n.d.), used

respect and trust among its evidences for the TSR, the Marzano Protocol (Marzano,

2011a, 2011b) uses care among its evidences for Indicator 2, but only defines care in

terms of the verbal and nonverbal interactions between teacher and student. According to

the majority of the teachers in this study, the main way they show care to students is

represented by Indicator 1, "Understanding Students' Interests and Backgrounds;" which

does not use care among its evidences. So too, even though the Marzano Protocol does

not use the term "trust" to describe the TSR, the language used in the third indicator,

being objective or nonjudgmental , is understood by the participants of this study to

represent trust.

Interestingly, the Marzano Protocol (2011a, 2011b) introduces respect specifically

in the next question. Design Question 9 reads: "What will I do to communicate high

expectations for all students?"; and the first indicator responds with: "Demonstrating

Value and Respect for Low Expectancy Students" (Marzano, 2011a, 2011b; p. 16-19;

Appendix M). While most of the participants from this study agree that high expectations

express respect for all students, the indicators for this question focus on high expectations

for low expectancy students. It appears that the indicators for Design Question 9 are

intended to ensure that low expectancy students are treated with respect and fairness in

relation to higher expectancy students. This is evaluated specifically in relation to holding

all student accountable for answering questions in class, whether they are a high

expectancy student or low expectancy student. Unfortunately, the teacher evidences

provided for Indicators 2 and 3, which are specifically about questioning low expectancy

students in class, do not include relational terms to indicate that the questioning should be

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done in a manner that conveys care and respect to the students. Without using

relationally-oriented behavioral terms, like "positive," "accepting," or "nonjudgmental,"

to modify the evidences, the questioning of low-expectancy students could be conveyed

in a manner that could easily be perceived as disrespectful badgering, yet still be in line

with the teacher descriptors. Unlike the highly effective teachers in this study who noted

that 1) knowing students as individuals (Indicator 1 from Design Question 8) and 2)

valuing students (Indicator 1 from Design Question 9) were forms of respect, it appears

that in the Marzano Protocol (2011a, 2011b), these are understood to be three separate

constructs, which makes it more difficult to operationalize the term "respect."

The Tulsa Framework (n.d.) and the Marzano Protocol (2011a, 2011b) are both

detailed, research-based, teacher effectiveness evaluation models which are a marked

improvement over the short behavioral checklist used over a decade ago. These models

attempt to look at teacher effectiveness in a holistic fashion that accounts for student

responses to the teacher; both models, however, are still lacking. As noted earlier, the

TSR is central to classroom management and teacher effectiveness. Neither model truly

clarifies care, respect, or trust; nor are they able to delineate how care, respect and trust

function together in the TSR. By failing to do this, these models inadvertently de-

emphasize the importance of the TSR and its effect on the classroom. In both models the

TSR should be evaluated in a much more in-depth fashion using more salient terms and

examples.

In addition, neither model uses the term "authority" or looks for the hallmark of

legitimate authority: voluntary student cooperation. Both frameworks need to include

"Legitimate Authority" as a major indicator of teacher effectiveness and specifically

should use "voluntary student cooperation" as the evidence. This phrase should require no further clarification since the words used are quite salient to most people. Findings from this study could be used to provide a more robust understanding of care, respect, and trust, and how they interact together to produce student cooperation, teacher authority, and teacher effectiveness. As noted, salient behavioral indicators could also be provided which would help produce more reliable teacher evaluations.

Improving in-service teacher performance through professional development training.

The last practical implication this study has for teachers is through professional development training. No matter their experience level, all teachers are expected to engage in professional development training on an annual basis. This is based on the understanding that teachers should be life-long learners who look to master the skill of teaching and thus should continually seek out experiences that enable them to hone their teaching skills. Research has also shown that increased years of teaching experience seldom translates into increased teaching effectiveness (Hattie, 2002, 2003).

One thing that remains elusive to teachers in general is authority development which, as noted before, is a very tacit process (Elliott, 2009; Elliott et al., 2011). A survey of the professional development options available to teachers, whether in a face to face setting or online, shows that there is no professional development offered which is specifically designed to help teachers develop authority in the classroom. Several organizations in the state of Oklahoma provide professional development workshops for school districts within the state. These organizations include: the Oklahoma State Department of Education, (http://ok.gov/sde/advanced-placement-professional-

development), Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education (https://www.okhighered.org/teachers/prof-dev.shtml), the Oklahoma Education Association (http://okea.org/teaching-learning/professional-development), the Professional Oklahoma Educators Association (http://www.professionaloklahomaeducators.org/resources/professional_development), and the Oklahoma Foundation for Excellence (http://www.ofe.org/tspd/conferences.htm). An examination of the professional development each organization offers on its website showed that these organizations predominantly focus on curriculum development and Common Core, but also include a few classroom management seminars. In a slightly different vein, the Oklahoma Education Association and Professional Oklahoma Educators Association also offer professional development designed to help teachers relieve stress and focus on the positive in the classroom.

There are a number of online teacher professional development sites, such as: the Professional Development Institute (http://www.webteaching.com/), the Annenberg Learner Teacher Resources and Professional Development website (http://www.learner.org/workshops/workshop_list.html), the Intel Teach Elements website (http://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/ education/k12/teach-elements.html), PD360 (https://www.pd360.com/pd360.cfm#), and the ASCD Teach. Learn. Lead website (http://www.ascd.org/professional-development/pd-online.aspx). These online sites provide little more variety in their professional development than the face to face sights. One notable exception is the ASCD Teach. Learn. Lead site which has a single professional development course in their classroom management section entitled, "Classroom Management: Building Effective Relationships." Given the limited information listed on the web page, though, it is unclear exactly what this course entails.

Findings from this study could be used to provide essential professional development training for in-service teachers on both legitimate authority development and teacher-student relational development and repair. This training also would be especially useful for teacher remediation training. Several components would be included in the outline of this training. First, in-service teachers would complete a questionnaire on their general understanding of the development of TSRs and legitimate authority. Then they would be introduced to the TSR and we would learn how care and respect interact to produce trust. We would then learn how trust produces cooperation which "gives" teachers authority. As we learn about the relational elements, it seems appropriate to use role play as a way to illustrate care/lack of care and respect/disrespect. Role-playing and the focus group discussions that follow would help in-service teachers learn to empathize and understand how students feel when treated in these manners; they would also develop a better understanding of why students react with cooperation or non-cooperation given each circumstance. The focus groups would be led by trained facilitators with a list of questions designed to help participants reflect on their past experiences as students and their current experiences as teachers. Separate and more in-depth training would be offered for in-service teachers who require remediation due to poor teacher evaluations. In order for them to be willing to open up and be honest with themselves and others, their professional development will have to be separate from their colleagues.

Authority in parenting.

While this study was over the development of authority through the teacher-student relationship, it also holds significant practical implications for the development of authority in the parent-child relationship. The parallels between teacher authority and

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parental authority are not difficult to see given that a few researchers have conducted

studies using Baumrind's parental authority styles (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, and

permissive; 1971, 1973) to describe teacher authority styles (e.g., Walker, 2008; Wentzel,

2002). One of the teachers in the study, Abby, even used Baumrind's parenting authority

styles (1971, 1973) to describe the teaching styles of her colleagues (i.e., traditional,

legitimate, and laissez-faire, respectively). Whether between parent and child or teacher

and student, the dynamic is very similar; an adult holds the superior position in a

hierarchical relationship with a child and has been bestowed with the mission of

socializing the child into a successful adult. In order to be effective in that effort, both the

teacher and the parent need to use care and respect to develop trust with the child, in

order to hold legitimate authority in the relationship with the child.

I would venture to say that the bulk of the findings from Chapter 4 on Research

Question 1 and Research Question 2 are relevant and would provide perspectives on

authority development from both students and teachers (i.e., adolescents and adults).

While the majority of today's parents know how to show care to their children (Figure

5.1); I would daresay that many parents would like more information on how to gain

respect from their children, especially as their children enter adolescence and they must

begin to negotiate such things with their children (Kuhn & Laird, 20111; Nucci, Hasebe,

& Lins-Dyer, 2005; Smetana, Crean, & Campione-Barr, 2005; Wang, Dishion,

Stormshak, & Willett, 2011). So too, many parents probably would appreciate having a

better understanding of how to build trust and maintain authority with their children

through the parent-child relationship. The findings from Research Question 2, especially

those that relate being consistent and having high expectations of children with the

socialization of children and the long-term view of the relationship, should be very helpful to parents in general.

Study Limitations

While this study has the potential to be significant relative to the study of teacher authority, student socialization, and teacher effectiveness, it has limitations. First, since this study took place in a single moderately-sized school district in Oklahoma, the reader should use caution in generalizing the findings to other school contexts. Precautions were taken to modify this limitation, such as choosing a school district with a high level of student diversity and randomly selecting the teachers, but even with these checks in place, the findings still may be limited.

The second limitation to this study lies with the amount of   data collected and the participants. While essays collected from 20 students, 15 individual teacher interviews, and 30 in-class observations comprise a relatively large amount of data for a qualitative study; it still falls short of the amount of data necessary to reach the point of data saturation. So too, the teacher participants in this study were demographically homogeneous. These two limitations may make it difficult for the findings to generalize to other settings.

The third limitation to this study is research subjectivity. As a former teacher and insider in the school district within which this study took place, it is possible that my personal experiences in the classroom may have biased my perceptions of the data and the analysis results. To alleviate this particular limitation, I used multiple forms of data triangulation in an effort to remain objective, including: collecting multiple forms of data, employing a second observer, member-checking of interview transcripts and coding,

maintaining a research log, and developing reflexivity by writing a subjectivity statement (Appendix J). Perhaps the most important way I attempted to hold my bias in check was to regularly ask reflexive questions of myself during analysis, "Is that really what he/she said, or is that coming from me?" Given these limitations, caution is advised in generalizing these findings much beyond the scope of the present study.

Future Research

While this study provides a first glimpse into the teacher-student relationship and how it produces legitimate teacher authority in the classroom, there is still much more to be understood. There are several future studies which would be natural extensions of this investigation. First, it is important to repeat this study in more diverse school environments in order to determine if these findings will generalize beyond moderately-sized schools in the state of Oklahoma. Second, it is important to develop a more in-depth understanding of respect as a relational element in the TSR from the perspectives of both teachers and students. Beyond educational philosophy, there is very little in the literature on respect in education and while the findings of the current study provide a basic understanding, respect in all its nuanced forms needs to be mapped out. Third, it is also important to develop a better understanding of how trust functions in the TSR, especially in relation to teachers and students who, for various reasons, struggle to trust others inside the classroom. Fourth, fairness in the classroom needs to be investigated. This study was about the relationship a teacher forms with individual students. Out of the study of the TSR, fairness emerged and was identified as one of the main forms of respect teachers give in the classroom. Since fairness involves the balance of all individual TSRs in relation to each other, it is extremely important that we understand

how teachers balance their individual TSRs with the relationship they have with the entire class. Fifth, a study needs to be done in order to understand the class as it functions as a single organism. This study most likely should precede the study on fairness in order to understand how the relationship a teacher has with an individual student differs from the relationship the teacher has with the class as a whole. Finally, the question of why certain teachers, who understand how to develop legitimate authority, do not enact that understanding in the classroom.

To conclude, the findings of this study should make a significant contribution to the teacher education and educational psychology literature, as well as provide practical implications to preservice preparation and in-service training on the teacher-student relationship as it relates to the development of teacher authority and teacher effectiveness. As a qualitative study, it has provided thick, rich descriptions of how the teacher-student relationship enables teachers to become effective by developing legitimate authority in the classroom.

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Appendix A

Student Essay Prompt

In this essay, you will describe and compare effective and ineffective teachers specifically on the topics of *care, respect, and trust*. Effective teachers should be understood as: teachers that students like, want to cooperate with, and want to work for. Ineffective teachers should be understood as: teachers that students dislike, do not want to cooperate with, and do not want to work for. As you write, please <u>do</u> <u>not</u> name any specific teachers and <u>do</u> <u>not</u> describe any specific interactions you have had with a teacher.

As you compare effective and ineffective teachers, describe how they *do or do not* show care and respect to students, and how they *do or do not* help students learn to trust them.

Appendix B

Teacher Observation Field Note Protocol

Participant: **Date:**   /   /   **a.m. or p.m. (circle one)**

Observer: **Lesson:**

Time

8:25

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Note: Times used are examples. Start time will be when the observation begins.

Teacher Observation Inventory

Participant: **Observer:**

Relational Elements	Example Effective Behaviors The Teacher:	Observed Y	Lesson: Date: / / Time: : a.m. or p.m. *(circle one)* Descriptive Field Notes/Examples	Observed Y	Example Ineffective Behaviors The Teacher:
Care	Uses interactive activities				Lectures or reads from textbook then students do seatwork
	Uses student paced instruction				Uses fast paced instruction
	Tries to provide personal relevance for student				Does not try to provide personal relevance for student
	Attempts to make class fun/interesting				Does not attempt to make class fun/interesting
	Makes sure students understand				Moves on
	Allows questions				Does not allow questions
	Can see student understanding				Does not see student understanding
	Explains again				Does not explain again
	Gives help				Does not give help
	Is available outside class				Is not available outside of class
Respect	Treats students equal to him or herself				Belittles student
	Treats students as equal to each other (fair)				Has class favorites/pets
	Freely gives respect to students				Demands respect from students
Trust	Is prepared academically: Knows the content				Is unprepared academically: does not know the content

	Is prepared pedagogically: explains well			Is unprepared pedagogically: is confusing, cannot explain well
	Allows students to do things			Does not allow students to do things
	Expresses positive expectations of students			Expresses negative or no expectations of students
	Keeps his or her word; is accountable to students			Does not keep his or her word; is unaccountable to students
Understanding/Approachable	Is nonjudgmental, tries to be understanding/ forgiving			Is judgmental, does not try to be understanding/ forgiving
	Is patient			Is impatient
	Listens to student			Does not listen to students
	Encourages students			Discourages students
	Inspires students			Is uninspiring
	Makes students feel good			Makes students feel bad
Connection	Focuses on students			Does not focus on students
	Is friendly: warm, kind, happy/smile			Is unfriendly: cold, unkind, angry/grumpy
	Is involved in/knows about students' lives outside of class			Is not involved in/ does not know about students' lives outside of class
	Is candid: shares personal stories			Is uncandid: does not share personal stories
	Is humorous			Is not humorous
	Is emotionally level: easy going			Is moody: becomes easily irritated
	Varies vocal pitch and inflection			Speaks in a monotone
	Has a warm/inviting classroom			Has a cold/uninviting classroom

Leadership/ Authority				
	Acts like an authority; is confident			Is too strict or lenient with students
	Leads by example			Does not lead by example; says one thing and does another
	Maintains discipline/ keep control of class			Is over disciplined (*too quiet*) or under disciplined (*too loud/no work)*
	Is an expert: Students do not question teacher's knowledge, assignments, or decisions			Is not an expert: Students question teacher's knowledge, assignments, or decisions
	Gently corrects students			Harshly corrects students

Note: Enter unlisted but observed behaviors in the blank spaces in correct categories

Teacher Authority Log

Reason to Exert Authority Indicate if individual student (S), small group (G), or class(C)	**No. Tries (tally)**	**Teacher Give In?**	**Full Student Cooperation***	
			Yes	**No /Part**

* Full cooperation: Individual, small group, or 90-95% of class does all requested within a reasonable time (no more than 30 seconds) & with little complaint.
Note: More rows may be added

Appendix D

Teacher Interview Protocol

Introduction.

Thank you for time and willingness to participate. As you know, I am interested in the teacher-student relationship. Particularly, I am trying to understand and explore how teachers perceive their own teacher-student relationships. I specifically would like to understand how teachers perceive the role of care, respect, and trust in their teacher-student relationships and how those three elements help the teacher develop authority in the classroom.

If the following questions seem general and abstract, you may offer any detail that you think will help answer the question. Also, depending on your answer, I may ask probing questions for clarification or to follow a new line of inquiry. Since this is voluntary, you also have the option to pass on any question. Before we start, do you have any questions?

Interview questions.

[Demographic Questions]

1. How old are you? You may give an approximation if you prefer.

2. What ethnic group or groups do you identify with?

3. What is your highest level of educational experience, including in-progress degrees or certifications?

4. How long have you been teaching in total, and only at this school district?

5. At which school site do you spend the majority of your time teaching?

6. What grade level or levels do you currently teach?

7. What is your major discipline, the one for which you received a degree?

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8. What is your current teaching assignment?

9. How long have you been in this current position?

[Teacher Perceptions and Experiences about the Teacher-Student Relationship]

1. What basic perceptions do you have about the teacher-student relationship?

2. How do you perceive and experience care in your teacher-student relationships?

3. How do you perceive and experience respect in your teacher-student relationships?

4. How do you perceive and experience trust in your teacher-student relationships?

5. Besides, care, respect, and trust, do you perceive any other relational elements involved in the teacher-student relationship, and if so, will you please describe your perceptions and experiences with them?

6. How do you perceive and experience your teacher-student relationships as they develop?

7. How do you perceive and experience the authority that you hold in your classroom?

8. How do you perceive and experience the development of legitimate authority through your teacher-student relationships?

9. As you perceive it, how do care, respect, and trust work together in your teacher-student relationships to produce the authority that you hold in the classroom? What experiences inform that perception?

Closing.

Now that we are done, do you have any questions you'd like to ask me about this research project? If you want to contact me later, here is my contact information. I may

need to contact you later for additional questions or clarification. May I do so? Thank

you for your time and willing participation.

Appendix E

Script - Invitation to Students to Participate in Qualitative Study

I am asking you to volunteer for a qualitative research study being conducted at [Name omitted] Public Schools. Up to 95 students and teachers will take part in this study. You were selected for this study because you are enrolled in a regular English II class.

The purpose of this study is to determine how the teacher-student relationship develops and how teacher authority is derived from that relationship.

If you agree to take part in this study, you give the researcher permission to use the Effective/Ineffective Teacher comparative essay which you have already written and received a grade for. Your name and grade will be completely blacked out with a marker before I will be allowed access to your essay.

I would appreciate your help in this study. There is almost no empirical data on the particular behaviors students see as characteristic of effective and ineffective teachers. These behaviors are important because they most likely affect the teacher-student relationship and the teacher authority that develops within that relationship.

Do you have any questions? Thank you for your time and consideration.

Appendix F

Script - Invitation to Teachers to Participate in Qualitative Study

I am asking you to volunteer for a qualitative research study being conducted at [Name omitted] Public Schools. Up to 80 students and 15 teachers will take part in this study (95 total participants). You were randomly selected to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to determine how the teacher-student relationship develops and how teacher authority is derived from that relationship.

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

- Provide the researcher with your contact information in order to set up meeting times (i.e., cell phone number and email)

- Allow the researcher and a second observer to observe and record on an observation form your interactions with students during two class periods (a.m. and p.m.)

- Allow the researcher to take photographs of your classroom while it is empty of students

- Provide the researcher with a copy of your class rules or syllabus

- Answer questions during one or more interview sessions which will be audio recorded.

The two observations will be conducted on a morning and afternoon class period (approximately 45 minutes each). The interview(s) will be conducted in your classroom and will be audio recorded. Interviews will take at least 45 minutes and may take up to 2 hours 15 minutes. Interviews will be conducted either during your planning period(s) or after school at your convenience. I would appreciate your help in this study because

there is very little information on the teacher-student relationships or the development of teacher authority. Do you have any questions? [Provide informed consent form, if teacher volunteers.] Thank you for your time and consideration.

Codebook for Content Analysis of Student Essays

Individual Relational Elements	Thematic Categories	Effective Teachers	Ineffective Teachers
Care	**Student academic understanding** •**Lesson activities**	**Use multiple activities** -Talk about things instead of reading about them or doing work over them -Teaching a lesson in a style that is easily understood (lots of examples, class discussion, trial and debate, hands on activities, group activities) -Have us take notes -More likely to use hands on activities -More likely to get children involved in class activities	**Lecture or read textbook then work** -Taught, then left us on our own -They just want to teach you the lesson and you are supposed to get it then -Reads out of a textbook everyday -Give worksheets or assignments that haven't been taught to the students -Assigning homework -Assign long worksheets or packets
	•**Pace**		**Too fast** -They also move too fast [academically] -Felt like I would never fully learn anything because she went through lessons so fast
	•**Relevance**	**Personal: Relate it to students** -Teacher must carefully approach everything they do to attach to the student on	**Not relate it to students** -[Do not] connect the students to the subject

		a subconscious level	
		Affective:	
		Fun/Interesting	**Not fun**
		-Want kids to somewhat enjoy school	-No fun
		-Interesting to listen to…[so student will] connect to the subject	
		-Far more interesting [allow more fun]	
		-Make learning fun	
		Taught us well, but she made it fun	
		Have fun every day	
	•**Check for understanding**	**Make sure**	**Move on**
		-Making sure we understand our work	-Lecture and move on
		-Wants students to understand the subject material	-Don't make sure that the students understand the assignment
		-Make sure we are on track with what's going on	
		-Take extra time to make sure you understand the subject	
		-Students…feel comfortable with the subject	
		-Made sure I felt confident in what I was learning	
		-Meet certain students to make sure their grades stay up	
	•**Allow questions**		**Not open for questions**
			-Every day she would yell at us for asking questions
			-I couldn't ask him questions on the material for he

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			wouldn't even try to answer them -Never answered the questions I had -Don't usually make time for questions over an assignment or lesson -Not open for questions
	•**Recognize level of student's understanding**	**Teacher knows** -Know when to push you -Know when you're struggling -Realize when they're struggling	**Teacher frustrates** -Cause great frustration -It's hard for a student to understand their work when a teacher doesn't care. When a teacher knows a student is struggling, they should be there and help
	•**Help with understanding**	**Explain again** -When teachers care to explain what they are teaching to us if we don't get it the first couple of times -Personally explained things to me -Prepare students for each test and spend time reviewing **Give help** -Always willing to help even if it is not a subject they really teach -So helpful -Will help them to the extent of her abilities -Helping us -Give you a fair amount of help -Helpful	 **No help** -No matter how many times you ask, they aren't willing to help even if your grades are slipping -It's hard for a student to understand their work when a teacher doesn't care. When a teacher knows a student is struggling,

		-Goes that extra mile to help you -Helped me greatly Helped me in every way possible	they should be there and help -Not the type who feel the need to help you as much -[Do not] offer much help -They don't extend a helping hand -Won't give you the help you need
	Availability	**Willing to spend time** -Taking time from their day to help the students -Spend some extra time with the kids who need it -Will do one-on-one time -The teacher doesn't mind spending [time] -Whenever a student needed help, the teacher was always there -Willing to help you after school -Spend extra time with students -Will help the students before and after school in tutoring -Offer after school tutoring -Always be available to their students	**Not willing to spend time** -Some teachers aren't there for us
	As a sacrifice	-Willing to make sacrifices for the students' well being	
Respect	**Equality** • **Teacher and student**	**Equal speech** -Talk to students as equals	**Belittling** -Singling me out -Treated like a baby

			-Talk to me like I am stupid -Call students' names -Makes me feel stupid -Embarrasses me -Only took notice of me when I was doing something wrong
	• **Students**	**Treat them equally** -Respects her students and treats them equally -Interacting with each student -Made a point of respecting all of the students that talked to him, whether they had him for a class or not	**Favorites** -Play favorites -Play favorites -Give special treatment to certain kids
	Reciprocal	**Show respect to students** -By showing respect, she is developing her student's respect towards others -She gives her students her respect -Show respect	**Take respect but not give** -If they don't receive the amount of respect they deem necessary they will not give it in return -Receive the respect from you, but do not give it in return -Don't give us their full attention or time, like we do for them -Lacked respect for her students -Greedy – expect respect without returning the favor
Trust	**Earn trust**	**Earn students' trust** -Earn their students trust -Actually keep their word -Never caught off guard [prepared] -Trusted their students	**Lose students' trust** -Confusing -Having the bare minimum amount required to teach a subject -Didn't know the material

		so much he/she'd let them do what they needed to do -Very dependable which means they depend on students to finish their work -Gives her student an opportunity and trusts he will follow through -Kept the teacher and students accountable towards each other [reciprocal]	-Need to work harder -Not know what you're doing [as a teacher] -Caught off guard [unprepared] -Ways of teaching aren't adequate -Doesn't give the student the opportunity -Assign things, then on the day they're due decide that they're not going to be a grade or extend the time to work on it. -Never let our class take anything out of the classroom
Understanding	**Nonjudgmental**	**Nonjudgmental** -Nonjudgmental -Are understanding -Tries their best to understand them -Remember that no one is perfect -We all deserve a second change	**Judgmental** -Judgmental -Understanding for students is not [adequate] -Don't understand how to communicate with their students -Probably thought we were demons -Doesn't give her student consideration
	Patient	**Patient** -Patient individual -Patience -Patient -Patient -Give us time to talk to get our excitement out before class started	**Impatient** -Ready to jump on anyone who opposed them
	Listens	**Listens** -Listens to their students -Willing to listen to their students	

		-Took the time for me	
	Results in	**Positive student results** -[Helps] students get comfortable when they are respected -[Help students feel] comfortable -[Teacher is] easier to understand from	**Negative student results** -[Teacher is] harder to listen to -Hard to work with
Approachability	**Friendly**	**Friendly** -Make themselves appear to be approachable and friendly -Approachable -Friendly -Ability to be a friend -Teachers that ask me about my activities outside of the classroom -Took the time to converse	**Unfriendly** -[Not open for] conversations -No companionship
	Involved	**Involved** -You know you're not alone and can go to them -Counsel students who are having a bad day -Having a trust bond with your teacher is a good thing, because they help you understand what is going on -Go to a teacher for help is easy when they have trust to help you with -Talk with us if we have personal problems -Easier to talk to	**Uninvolved** -Teacher becomes unavailable to their students on a deeper level -Try to stay as distant from their students as possible -Do not get involved in students' lives -Seem unapproachable because often times students find them intimidating

		-Give the advice and support that they need to grow -Give advice -Helped me with all my problems -You can go to a teacher for anything because you can trust them -Give me school help and help with just life in general -Help students with their problems	
	Teacher Descriptors	**Effective teachers** -Likeable personality -Benevolent -Sweet -Kindness -Kind -Be kind in helping them -Candid -Have a smile on their face or smile at you every day -Happy all the time -Humorous – can draw your attention -Make jokes -Emotionally and mentally secure in a way that every day will be a good day -Must not ever let things get to them -Have warm inviting rooms to match their personalities -Take pride in how their room looks	**Ineffective teachers** -Angry -Super angry -Super grumpy -Monotone -Spoke monotone (*monotone perceived by students as lack of excitement)
Connection	**Teacher Focus**	**Focus on students** -Connecting with students	**Not focus on students** -No connection -Don't care about their

		-Cared about her students and their grades -They really care about their students and want them to succeed -Love for students -They care about what they are doing and about you -Care for students -Take pride in their students -Teach with your heart and mind	job or students -Some teachers just see it [teaching] as a job -Show up only when they have to -Probably doesn't take pride in their job -[Only care about] how they're perceived by other colleagues -Didn't really care to be there except to get paid -Tend to just worry about their own lives -Puts test scores above students and their minds -Don't care about their students
Leadership/ Authority	**Embody authority**	**Leader types** -Act like an authority figure -Ethical leader -Moral leader	
	How to lead	**How to lead** -Leading by example and respecting students -Causes the student to not only pay attention to the teacher but also take what they say as a definitive fact -Very disciplinary -Can keep control of a class -Command a certain level of respect and able to receive it	**How not to lead** -Assign a ton of homework just because they have the power to do so -Assign things that don't have anything to do with what your trying to teach -Too lenient -Teacher who was very easy going…students considered her a pushover and never really did what she said
	Balance	**Balance of**	**Lack of balance**

		care/respect/ trust	-Too strict and don't
		-One that can correct you and care about you in balance	have fun [care]
			-Teachers that are too
		-Being stern but easygoing	strict might get respect, but they are
		-Best way to earn a student's respect is by being a caring and trusting teacher	hardly able to gain the trust of their students…some students might not respect them for it, and in turn could lead to trust issues
		-Very strict but was able to gain the respect of the students by showing that she cared about her students and their grades	
		-Trustworthy, but not a friend	

Note: Descriptors in Effective Teachers and Ineffective Teachers columns are verbatim from student essays.

Teacher Ranking Worksheet

TEACHER	Average Number of Tries (authority exertions) **	Average Teacher Give In? **	Average No/ Partial Student Cooperation**	Authority Log Total (addition of columns 1, 2, & 3)	Authority Log Rank (lowest total ranked 1)	Observation Inventory Average (average of effective minus ineffective teacher behaviors**)	Observation Inventory Rank (highest average ranked 1)	Average of Authority Log Rank and Observation Inventory Rank (average of columns 5 & 7)	Rank from Average of Observation Instruments (Log and Inventory; lowest average ranked 1)	First Observer Ranking Based on Observations	Second Observer Ranking Based on Observations	Average of Observer Rankings (columns 10 & 11)	Rank from Observer Averages (lowest average ranked 1)	Average of Observation Instrument Rank and Observer Rank (columns 9 & 13)	Final Teacher Effectiveness Rank
Column	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Abby	20	0	0	20	9	31	3*	6	6	3	6	4.5	4	5	**5**
Allie	5	0	0	5	4	30	5*	4. 5	5	2	5	3.5	2	3.5	**3***
Amber	3	0	0	3	2	34	2	2	1	1	9	5	5	3	**2**
Candy	21	2	3	26	12	29	7	9.5	9	11	7	9	10*	9.5	8*
Carl	1	0	0	1	1	30	5*	3	2*	6	12	9	10*	6	6
Cathy	33	0	0	33	13	26	8*	10.5	11*	12	11	11.5	12	11.5	*13*
Chris	9	1	1	11	7	26	8*	7.5	7	7	10	8.5	9	8	7
Connie	11	0	0	11	5	7	15	10	10	14	14	14	14	12	*14*
Jamie	21	0	0	21	10	24	11*	10.5	11*	8	8	8	8	9.5	8*
Jessica	14	1	1	16	8	26	8*	8	8	13	13	13	13	10.5	*12*
Kristy	10	0	1	11	6	36	1	3.5	4	4	4	4	3	3.5	**3***
Lacy	34	0	1	35	14	10.5	14	14	14*	10	2	6	6*	10	*11*
Lark	45	7	7	59	15	11	13	14	14*	15	15	15	15	14.5	*15*
Sandra	24	0	0	24	11	24	11*	11	13	9	3	6	6*	9.5	8*
Tammy	4	0	0	4	3	31	3*	3	2*	5	1	3	1	1. 5	**1**

*Tied rankings; **Averaged across three observations

Ranked most effective teachers; *Ranked least effective teachers*

Appendix I

Codebook for Analysis of Teacher Interviews

Gist of Interview Question			Results In
4 Basic perceptions of TSR			
Teacher relates to student	Connection: Builds relationship with students [similar to parenting]		
	Important to student development		
	Start of school	Begin building relationships/learning about students from first day	
	Consistent (teacher) in the following:	Consistent results in:	builds trust, reciprocal care, reciprocal respect, compliance /cooperation
		Trust: (w/teacher, peers, content) Teacher is authentic/ genuine Students feel safety, comfortable, at ease, relaxed	Being able to do something; learning; compliance and cooperation; more productive; commitment

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			Care: Teacher not friend but friendly	Reciprocation from students Develops with time
			Respect	Reciprocation from students
			Non-judgmental understand/ forgiving	Result: builds trust
			Expectations/rules with consequences	Builds trust, compliance and cooperation
			Build student's confidence; self-esteem	Results in: student willing to try in class
			Future-orientation (developmental view?)	Result: teacher maintains proximal and distal views of the student Distal view moderates how teacher views/ approaches students; recognizes that what is being done now will affect student in the long-term
Teacher relates to class	Leadership	Professionalism/ balance; the line	Balance the above elements;	Results in respect; authority

			high expectations but fun	
	Class climate	Family/environment/ classmates	Purposeful development of reciprocal care, respect, and trust among students	Open atmosphere in which students are willing to take academic risks
		Fairness	Balance of consistent expectations for whole class with treating students as individuals	Trust and respect for teacher; sense of community among students because all feel equally valued

5 Care

Nurturing	Parent-like care Teacher shows care to student(s) – mostly one-on-one			
	Future/Developmental Orientation	Teacher is aware of how current situation with student will affect student's future		
	Modeling	Teacher shares stories of her home-life with SPED students to show them		

		what loving/nurturing family life looks like
	Discipline student misbehavior	So they will learn – learning is important to future success
Get to know students/become close to student	Active listener(even when it's difficult – students have hard lives)	
	Non-judgmental	Forgive bad behavior in class Not judge students based on parents/family life
	Spend time with students	inside class
		outside class at school events
	Talks to students	small-talk with students to find things in common
		Show interest in/ask about students' lives outside of class
	Reaches out	Physical

	personally	touch	
		Greet students outside of classroom	
		Write cards to students	
		pray for students	
	Fulfill/meet/tend to student needs	often for students struggling at home	feed students
			attend to hygiene
			provide school supplies
			done without other students knowing to avoid embarrassment
		Care about students' comfort in class [trust]	
	Love (individual thoughts)	Emotionally comforts	
		Tells students she loves them	
		Fill in for parents who do not show care to child	
		Love students even when not	

			reciprocated
			Holds students (hug, sit on lap?)
			does little things for students (not filling needs, but extra things to show care/love)
			facial expression shows care/love (smiles a lot)
	The Line	Chris First year teacher Must balance caring too much with caring too little	Told to not care too much, but feels students need the care so is finding balance between emotional health of students and own emotional health
Odd items that did not fit elsewhere	Respect	Abby SpEd Early Childhood teacher of students with emotional and behavioral problems	Students respond to respect because they have never had it, but are highly suspect of care

			because they have been hurt by it, so teacher gives respect to show care	
		Connie 6th grade teacher	Could not explain how she showed care to students other than giving them respect	[Oddly enough, could not operationalize respect when asked later other than treating all the same]
	Academic	Chris Plans great lessons	Puts lots of effort in to lesson planning to make learning fun for students	[Oddly, his is the only description of teacher care that somewhat corresponds with what the students thought in their essays]
Results of teacher care shown to students	Students:			
	Feel	Better about self	Accepted	
			Happy	
			Loved	
		Like feeling comfortable in class	(SpEd students – new thing for many of them)	
		Eager to be at school		

Respond to teacher (with)	Respect	Show it		
	Care reciprocated	give gifts to teacher		
		Visit teacher after graduation		
		Greet teacher in public		
		Write cards/notes to teacher		
		Physical touch	Give teacher hugs	
			Lay head against teacher	
	Trust	Become comfortable in class		
		Open up about self to teacher		
	Academically	Increased effort		
		SpEd willing to try in front of strangers		
		Excited to learn/ Want to learn more		
		Willing to work		
		show interest		
		participate in class		
	Comply/Cooperate with Teacher's	students behave/ follow		

	Authority	rules/do not have to be disciplined
		accept disciplinary measures from teacher
		Few discipline problems which are easily resolved

6 Respect

Teacher earns respect	Reciprocal – give respect to get it from students (N=10) Vs Model/show/ earn respect: prove to students he or she (teacher) can be respected (N=9)	6 participants describe using both reciprocation and modeling There is a nuanced difference between the two, locus of control in reciprocal seems to be with the teacher while it seems to be more with the student in modeling/earning Perhaps reciprocation is for those students who are more willing to give respect and modeling/earning is for students who must be convinced. Connie, Jamie, and Lacy do not discuss respect as reciprocal or modeling/earning – perhaps do not see connection between their behavior and students' behavior Jamie quote: "I don't feel like there's anything that I necessarily have to do to earn their respect…."
	More difficult	with students who have previously known the teacher from a different context – students expect special treatment
	Respect given to students	First day/week

Operationaliz ed as	One-on-one		
	Consistent from teacher to student		
	Valuing/recognizing the worth of students		
	Teacher forgives student/is non-judgmental		
	Shown using care for young students		
	Shown using non-verbals Voice, facial expression, behavior, demeanor		
	Allowing students to have autonomy		
Through the year			
Operationaliz ed as	Student vs class		
	Expectation: respect among students		
	Teacher consistent in Fairness: balance between:	Expectations (academic and behavioral) – high for all students	Students held accountable when do not meet expectations: helps student become better person *Future oriented*

			Treat as individual – make temporary exceptions for student due to current circumstances beyond control	Students see these type of exceptions as care for the individual – and understand them – see them as fair
Results of teacher treating student with respect				
	Treat students with respect	Respect from students	Classroom management (students can/will do a lot of stuff if they don't respect you – you can't be all places at all times) Jessica	
	Consistent	Student compliance		
	Expectation of respect among students	Class climate - positive		
	Fairness	Class climate – positive – everyone is valued equally		
		Students understand when teachers make certain exceptions	Probably a combination of compassion for the student and	

	for other students – especially when the circumstance that prompted the exception/mercy is beyond the student's control and the exception helps the student be/do better	hope that the teacher would show mercy to them in similar circumstances	
Noted during data collection that elementary teachers, as opposed to junior high and high school teachers, are more likely to have a difficult time separating care from respect. Discussed it with several teachers and determined that respect is not an issue for elementary age students, but becomes an important relational element for students who are entering middle school (approaching puberty, developing identity) and on through high school. One exception was the PK-1 SpEd teacher of students with emotional/behavioral problems. Respect is pre-eminent for her students.			
7 Trust			
Developing trust	Trust is necessary for a working relationship		
	Teacher builds trust	more purposeful – this you do internal locus of control	Abby, Allie, Amber, Carl, Cathy, Chris, Kristy
	Vs Teacher models trust to earn trust	vs more passive – character, who you are, how you relate/react – allow student to decide	Vs Amber, Cathy, Chris, Connie, Jamie, Jessica, Lark,

	external locus of control	Sandra *Connie actually spoke of students earning her trust, not the other way around		
How to earn/build trust	Be professional – balance: friendly…	Care for students	Be available to students – spend time	
		Respect students		
		Care/ respect both	*Listen* to students	*Italicized = student in vivo code*
			Be *nonjudgment al/ forgiving*	
			Candid: Be honest & genuine – share self	
			Involved: Put effort in to relationship – not always easy, hard emotionally	
	…but not friend	Be consistent in way approach students	Have high expectations – Pygmalion effect	
			Follow-through with consequences	
		Future oriented: aware of how current situation may affect		

		student's future	
	Start of school: begins on first day		
Results of trust	Students test teacher to see if can continue trusting		
	Young students automatically trust based on previous trusting TSRs		
	Non-academic trust		
	Open boy language: safe - comfortable		
	Students mind teacher	Listen to teacher	
		Follow rules	
		Consistently do what they are told to do	
	Believe teacher		
	Reciprocal	Love	
		trust	
	Class climate	Students trust each other and teacher	Feel safe, comfortable Students participate	Learning occurs
Student mistrusts	Why	Student has prior broken	

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teacher		trusts with other adults (parents, family, teachers)	
		Teacher academically "hurts" student: Puts student on the spot in front of class (ask question they cannot answer)	
	Results	Teacher cannot fully regain trust he/she broke	
		Negatively affects student's school experience long-term	Student scared
			Student has difficulty trusting other teachers
			student sees teacher as uncaring
			Student stops believing teacher's encouragement
			Student behavior worsens
			Student gives up, no longer cares/pays attention in class
Teacher mistrusts student	Why	Student does not do as teacher has told them when is sent to do something and out of teacher's presence	
		Student lies to teacher	

	Result	Student loses teacher's trust	Loses privileges		
		Student must work hard to earn trust again			

9 TSR Development

TSR foundational to students' education	Kindergarten teacher				
Time	Relatively consistent theme	Teachers often say it takes time to build relationships	Students appreciate time spent on them and do not like teachers who refuse to spend it – especially during class		
	Teacher is Purposeful/ planful	Future-oriented	Many recognize that what they are doing affects students for the long-term		
		Start of school: first day to first week	Establish authority	Teacher shows he/she is in charge	Makes expectations and boundaries known
					Try to gain respect of students – often by showing respect to students (reciprocal)
					Model behavior want to see in students – lead by example
					Changed approach: early in career started out trying to establish traditional authority, now start out trying to establish legitimate authority
			Show care	Non-verbal communication: Smile, eye contact	Teacher is approachable and emotionally positive
				Learn about	Plan for flexibility

		students	with students
		Listen to students	
		Fulfill student needs	
	Show respect	Be nonjudgmental/ forgiving	
		Equality	Treat all students the same
			Teacher gets down on student's level in order to communicate
	Build trust	Genuineness: Teacher tells students about him/herself	
		Build community among class	
		Consistent in treatment of students	Care Respect Expectations/ consequences Routines
Results of first day exertions by teacher	Students:	Develop trust	Feel safe
			Positive class climate develops
		Reciprocate care and respect to teacher	
		Connect with teacher	
		Like the teacher	
	Teacher:	Endures emotional labor due to students' problems	
10 Authority development			
General thoughts	Authority is the person in control	*Person in charge *Adult standing up in front of the classroom *The one they tattle to *You have to feel like you're in control	

	Authority used varies	From Class to class student to student moment to moment	
Start of year	Future oriented	Recognizing how the way teacher interacts with the student will affect the student for the rest of his/her life	
	Purposeful/ planful	Thought out how would interact to develop authority to attain classroom success	Usually more about balance of teacher being in charge with student comfort/ happiness
Traditional authority	Does not have to be earned	Similar to Authoritarian parenting style	
	High expectations		
	Power hierarchy	Somewhat unapproachable "I bark."	
		Principals Hands out traditional types of disciplinary measures	
		Coaches fit this category, as do any teachers of electives in which students get to perform (band, vocal music, drama, ag..)	
		Early elementary teachers usually, because younger children recognize that adults are supposed to be in charge	
	Responses to traditional authority	Some students do not work well with strict authority/ do not listen or comply	
		If a high school	

		teacher tries to use traditional authority "it's gonna be a tough road for you."			
Laissez-Faire authority	Low expectations	Similar to Permissive parenting style			
	External locus of control?				
	Responses to non-authority	Student continues to have poor social skills/ be poorly self-disciplined			
		Class out of control/loud/rowdy			
		Students do not listen to/comply with teacher			
Legitimate authority	Earns authority from students	Similar to Authoritative parenting style	Consistent in and models many of the following	High expectations	
			Consequences		
				Care	Time Willing to spend the time it takes with students to produce a TSR
					Learn about students
					Teacher shows positive emotions – friendly/ approachable
					Teacher is reflective/tries to improve – wants to do better for students
				Respect	Value shown/given to another
					Give respect to students to reciprocate it OR Show respect to

			students to earn students respect
			Nonjudgmental/ forgiving
			Equality: treat all same, teacher allows students to question him/her and have some say in how things are done
			Fairness: expect same of all but make exceptions for those who have no control over the situation – other students hope that mercy would be shown on them
			The Look – low impact consequence that chastises student without embarrassing him/her
Responses to legitimate authority	Students reciprocate	Care respect	
	Students develop trust	Believe teacher Trust classmates	
	Students respect teacher's authority	Show respect by:	Compliance Submit Do what they're supposed to do Do what is asked of them Do what they're told Follow rules
			Don't push hard against teacher's wishes/cause problems in class
		Teacher does not have issues with students	
		Student defends teacher's reputation with	

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other students

	Students develop self discipline	Combination of consistent high expectations and consequences teaches students to discipline their own behavior	

Appendix J

Subjectivity Statement

As social beings, humans are greatly affected by their social relationships, for it is within these relationships that we develop and mature into healthy adults. The most influential relationship in almost every individual's life is the one they have with their parent(s); this is the crucible within which children learn many of the social patterns and skills required for successful integration into society later in life (Maccoby, 1992). The relationship that exists between a teacher and student, no matter the age of the student or grade-level of the teacher, may have the potential to be as influential as the parent-child relationship – especially when considering that "teachers represent one of the last stable sources of nonparental role models for adolescents" (Eccles & Roeser, 2011). Recognizing the importance of the teacher-student relationship to the academic and social development of students, the purpose of this study is to delve into the lives of practicing teachers and gather their experiences and perceptions about the teacher-student relationship, how it works, and how legitimate authority develops through it.

As a second generation teacher, I first became aware of the teacher-student relationship while watching and helping my mother as she taught her second-graders the three R's, manners, and compassion. As a public school teacher who taught first graders through seniors in four different schools over the span of a decade, I developed a keen awareness of the importance of the individual relationships I had with my students. As a teacher, I made it my personal goal to be 'the difference' that convinced at-risk students to stay in school and graduate.

As a former public school teacher, I believe that the teacher-student relationship is the core of students' academic learning experience as well as a large contributor to students' social development, and that this relationship affects students' current and future academic and relational experiences. As a former teacher, I have brought a number of assumptions to this study. I assume that teachers want to improve their classroom interactions with students and are willing to do whatever is necessary to make that happen. This assumption is broad and encompasses these ideas: (1) teachers are aware of and reflect on their interactions with students; (2) teachers are aware that their interactions with students affect student academic and social development, behavior, and motivation; (3) teachers are aware that they can cultivate relationships with their students and actively do so; and (4) teachers can learn how to improve in their cultivation of relationships with students.

In the process of developing this area of study, I realized that if I wanted to see why some teachers are truly effective, I would need to interview and observe those teachers in addition to collecting survey data. Teacher effectiveness can never be fully encompassed by numbers. I have realized along the way that my emphasis on the teacher-student relationship biases my outlook on teaching and teachers. I will have to pay close attention when wording my interview questions and while interviewing, that my biases do not filter out authentic experiences which do not parallel my own thinking. Recognizing this, I still believe that the teacher-student relationship is pivotal. Having observed the changes in my own relationships with students and how those changes affected them, as well as observing the teacher-student relationships of other teachers, I cannot believe otherwise. As a teacher, knowing your content is important,

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but knowing how to relate to all the different students in your classroom is more important because when you are teaching, that is the lens through which your content is focused.

At the time of this writing, I have two Master's degrees in Education and plan to complete my PhD in Educational Psychology in May 2014. In my career as a doctoral student, the teacher-student relationship has remained my focused research interest. This last academic year, I achieved one of my life-long dreams. As an instructor of Educational Psychology at Northwestern Oklahoma State University, I am finally a teacher of teachers.

Appendix K

InTASC (2011) Standards, pp. 10-19

Standard #1: Learner Development

The teacher understands how learners grow and develop, recognizing that patterns of learning and development vary individually within and across the cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical areas, and designs and implements developmentally appropriate and challenging learning experiences.

PERFORMANCES

1(a) The teacher regularly assesses individual and group performance in order to design and modify instruction to meet learners' needs in each area of development (cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical) and scaffolds the next level of development.

1(b) The teacher creates developmentally appropriate instruction that takes into account individual learners' strengths, interests, and needs and that enables each learner to advance and accelerate his/her learning.

1(c) The teacher collaborates with families, communities, colleagues, and other professionals to promote learner growth and development.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

1(d) The teacher understands how learning occurs-- how learners construct knowledge, acquire skills, and develop disciplined thinking processes--and knows how to use instructional strategies that promote student learning.

1(e) The teacher understands that each learner's cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical development influences learning and knows how to make instructional decisions that build on learners' strengths and needs.

1(f) The teacher identifies readiness for learning, and understands how development in any one area may affect performance in others.

1(g) The teacher understands the role of language and culture in learning and knows how to modify instruction to make language comprehensible and instruction relevant, accessible, and challenging.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

1(h) The teacher respects learners' differing strengths and needs and is committed to using this information to further each learner's development.

1(i) The teacher is committed to using learners' strengths as a basis for growth, and their misconceptions as opportunities for learning.

1(j) The teacher takes responsibility for promoting learners' growth and development.

1(k) The teacher values the input and contributions of families, colleagues, and other professionals in understanding and supporting each learner's development.

Standard #2: Learning Differences

The teacher uses understanding of individual differences and diverse cultures and communities to ensure inclusive learning environments that enable each learner to meet high standards.

PERFORMANCES

2(a) The teacher designs, adapts, and delivers instruction to address each student's diverse learning strengths and needs and creates opportunities for students to demonstrate their learning in different ways.

2(b) The teacher makes appropriate and timely provisions (e.g., pacing for individual rates of growth, task demands, communication, assessment, and response modes) for individual students with particular learning differences or needs.

2(c) The teacher designs instruction to build on learners' prior knowledge and experiences, allowing learners to accelerate as they demonstrate their understandings.

2(d) The teacher brings multiple perspectives to the discussion of content, including attention to learners' personal, family, and community experiences and cultural norms.

2(e) The teacher incorporates tools of language development into planning and instruction, including strategies for making content accessible to English language learners and for evaluating and supporting their development of English proficiency.

2(f) The teacher accesses resources, supports, and specialized assistance and services to meet particular learning differences or needs.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

2(g) The teacher understands and identifies differences in approaches to learning and performance and knows how to design instruction that uses each learner's strengths to promote growth.

2(h) The teacher understands students with exceptional needs, including those associated with disabilities and giftedness, and knows how to use strategies and resources to address these needs.

2(i) The teacher knows about second language acquisition processes and knows how to incorporate instructional strategies and resources to support language acquisition.

2(j) The teacher understands that learners bring assets for learning based on their individual experiences, abilities, talents, prior learning, and peer and social group interactions, as well as language, culture, family, and community values.

2(k) The teacher knows how to access information about the values of diverse cultures and communities and how to incorporate learners' experiences, cultures, and community resources into instruction.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

2(l) The teacher believes that all learners can achieve at high levels and persists in helping each learner reach his/her full potential.

2(m) The teacher respects learners as individuals with differing personal and family backgrounds and various skills, abilities, perspectives, talents, and interests.

2(n) The teacher makes learners feel valued and helps them learn to value each other.

2(o) The teacher values diverse languages and dialects and seeks to integrate them into his/her instructional practice to engage students in learning.

Standard #3: Learning Environments

The teacher works with others to create environments that support individual and collaborative learning, and that encourage positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self motivation.

PERFORMANCES

3(a) The teacher collaborates with learners, families, and colleagues to build a safe, positive learning climate of openness, mutual respect, support, and inquiry.

3(b) The teacher develops learning experiences that engage learners in collaborative and self-directed learning and that extend learner interaction with ideas and people locally and globally.

3(c) The teacher collaborates with learners and colleagues to develop shared values and expectations for respectful interactions, rigorous academic discussions, and individual and group responsibility for quality work.

3(d) The teacher manages the learning environment to actively and equitably engage learners by organizing, allocating, and coordinating the resources of time, space, and learners' attention.

3(e) The teacher uses a variety of methods to engage learners in evaluating the learning environment and collaborates with learners to make appropriate adjustments.

3(f) The teacher communicates verbally and nonverbally in ways that demonstrate respect for and responsiveness to the cultural backgrounds and differing perspectives learners bring to the learning environment.

3(g) The teacher promotes responsible learner use of interactive technologies to extend the possibilities for learning locally and globally.

3(h) The teacher intentionally builds learner capacity to collaborate in face-to-face and virtual environments through applying effective interpersonal communication skills.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

3(i) The teacher understands the relationship between motivation and engagement and knows how to design learning experiences using strategies that build learner self-direction and ownership of learning.

3(j) The teacher knows how to help learners work productively and cooperatively with each other to achieve learning goals.

3(k) The teacher knows how to collaborate with learners to establish and monitor elements of a safe and productive learning environment including norms, expectations, routines, and organizational structures.

3(l) The teacher understands how learner diversity can affect communication and knows how to communicate effectively in differing environments.

3(m) The teacher knows how to use technologies and how to guide learners to apply them in appropriate, safe, and effective ways.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

3(n) The teacher is committed to working with learners, colleagues, families, and communities to establish positive and supportive learning environments.

3(o) The teacher values the role of learners in promoting each other's learning and recognizes the importance of peer relationships in establishing a climate of learning.

3(p) The teacher is committed to supporting learners as they participate in decision making, engage in exploration and invention, work collaboratively and independently, and engage in purposeful learning.

3(q) The teacher seeks to foster respectful communication among all members of the learning community.

3(r) The teacher is a thoughtful and responsive listener and observer.

Standard #4: Content Knowledge

The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the discipline(s) he or she teaches and creates learning experiences that make these aspects of the discipline accessible and meaningful for learners to assure mastery of the content.

PERFORMANCES

4(a) The teacher effectively uses multiple representations and explanations that capture key ideas in the discipline, guide learners through learning progressions, and promote each learner's achievement of content standards.

4(b) The teacher engages students in learning experiences in the discipline(s) that encourage learners to understand, question, and analyze ideas from diverse perspectives so that they master the content.

4(c) The teacher engages learners in applying methods of inquiry and standards of evidence used in the discipline.

4(d) The teacher stimulates learner reflection on prior content knowledge, links new concepts to familiar concepts, and makes connections to learners' experiences.

4(e) The teacher recognizes learner misconceptions in a discipline that interfere with learning, and creates experiences to build accurate conceptual understanding.

4(f) The teacher evaluates and modifies instructional resources and curriculum materials for their comprehensiveness, accuracy for representing particular concepts in the discipline, and appropriateness for his/her learners.

4(g) The teacher uses supplementary resources and technologies effectively to ensure accessibility and relevance for all learners.

4(h) The teacher creates opportunities for students to learn, practice, and master academic language in their content.

4(i) The teacher accesses school and/or district-based resources to evaluate the learner's content knowledge in their primary language.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

4(j) The teacher understands major concepts, assumptions, debates, processes of inquiry, and ways of knowing that are central to the discipline(s) s/he teaches.

4(k) The teacher understands common misconceptions in learning the discipline and how to guide learners to accurate conceptual understanding.

4(l) The teacher knows and uses the academic language of the discipline and knows how to make it accessible to learners.

4(m) The teacher knows how to integrate culturally relevant content to build on learners' background knowledge.

4(n) The teacher has a deep knowledge of student content standards and learning progressions in the discipline(s) s/he teaches.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

4(o) The teacher realizes that content knowledge is not a fixed body of facts but is complex, culturally situated, and ever evolving. S/he keeps abreast of new ideas and understandings in the field.

4(p) The teacher appreciates multiple perspectives within the discipline and facilitates learners' critical analysis of these perspectives.

4(q) The teacher recognizes the potential of bias in his/her representation of the discipline and seeks to appropriately address problems of bias.

4(r) The teacher is committed to work toward each learner's mastery of disciplinary content and skills.

Standard #5: Application of Content

The teacher understands how to connect concepts and use differing perspectives to engage learners in critical thinking, creativity, and collaborative problem solving related to authentic local and global issues.

PERFORMANCES

5(a) The teacher develops and implements projects that guide learners in analyzing the complexities of an issue or question using perspectives from varied disciplines and cross-disciplinary skills (e.g., a water quality study that draws upon biology and chemistry to look at factual information and social studies to examine policy implications).

5(b) The teacher engages learners in applying content knowledge to real world problems through the lens of interdisciplinary themes (e.g., financial literacy, environmental literacy).

5(c) The teacher facilitates learners' use of current tools and resources to maximize content learning in varied contexts.

5(d) The teacher engages learners in questioning and challenging assumptions and approaches in order to foster innovation and problem solving in local and global contexts.

5(e) The teacher develops learners' communication skills in disciplinary and interdisciplinary contexts by creating meaningful opportunities to employ a variety of forms of communication that address varied audiences and purposes.

5(f) The teacher engages learners in generating and evaluating new ideas and novel approaches, seeking inventive solutions to problems, and developing original work.

5(g) The teacher facilitates learners' ability to develop diverse social and cultural perspectives that expand their understanding of local and global issues and create novel approaches to solving problems.

5(h) The teacher develops and implements supports for learner literacy development across content areas.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

5(i) The teacher understands the ways of knowing in his/her discipline, how it relates to other disciplinary approaches to inquiry, and the strengths and limitations of each approach in addressing problems, issues, and concerns.

5(j) The teacher understands how current interdisciplinary themes (e.g., civic literacy, health literacy, global awareness) connect to the core subjects and knows how to weave those themes into meaningful learning experiences.

5(k) The teacher understands the demands of accessing and managing information as well as how to evaluate issues of ethics and quality related to information and its use.

5(l) The teacher understands how to use digital and interactive technologies for efficiently and effectively achieving specific learning goals.

5(m) The teacher understands critical thinking processes and knows how to help learners develop high level questioning skills to promote their independent learning.

5(n) The teacher understands communication modes and skills as vehicles for learning (e.g., information gathering and processing) across disciplines as well as vehicles for expressing learning.

5(o) The teacher understands creative thinking processes and how to engage learners in producing original work.

5(p) The teacher knows where and how to access resources to build global awareness and understanding, and how to integrate them into the curriculum.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

5(q) The teacher is constantly exploring how to use disciplinary knowledge as a lens to address local and global issues.

5(r) The teacher values knowledge outside his/her own content area and how such knowledge enhances student learning.

5(s) The teacher values flexible learning environments that encourage learner exploration, discovery, and expression across content areas.

Standard #6: Assessment

The teacher understands and uses multiple methods of assessment to engage learners in their own growth, to monitor learner progress, and to guide the teacher's and learner's decision making.

PERFORMANCES

6(a) The teacher balances the use of formative and summative assessment as appropriate to support, verify, and document learning.

6(b) The teacher designs assessments that match learning objectives with assessment methods and minimizes sources of bias that can distort assessment results.

6(c) The teacher works independently and collaboratively to examine test and other performance data to understand each learner's progress and to guide planning.

6(d) The teacher engages learners in understanding and identifying quality work and provides them with effective descriptive feedback to guide their progress toward that work.

6(e) The teacher engages learners in multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge and skill as part of the assessment process.

6(f) The teacher models and structures processes that guide learners in examining their own thinking and learning as well as the performance of others.

6(g) The teacher effectively uses multiple and appropriate types of assessment data to identify each student's learning needs and to develop differentiated learning experiences.

6(h) The teacher prepares all learners for the demands of particular assessment formats and makes appropriate accommodations in assessments or testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

6(i) The teacher continually seeks appropriate ways to employ technology to support assessment practice both to engage learners more fully and to assess and address learner needs.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

6(j) The teacher understands the differences between formative and summative applications of assessment and knows how and when to use each.

6(k) The teacher understands the range of types and multiple purposes of assessment and how to design, adapt, or select appropriate assessments to address specific learning goals and individual differences, and to minimize sources of bias.

6(l) The teacher knows how to analyze assessment data to understand patterns and gaps in learning, to guide planning and instruction, and to provide meaningful feedback to all learners.

6(m) The teacher knows when and how to engage learners in analyzing their own assessment results and in helping to set goals for their own learning.

6(n) The teacher understands the positive impact of effective descriptive feedback for learners and knows a variety of strategies for communicating this feedback.

6(o) The teacher knows when and how to evaluate and report learner progress against standards.

6(p) The teacher understands how to prepare learners for assessments and how to make accommodations in assessments and testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

6(q) The teacher is committed to engaging learners actively in assessment processes and to developing each learner's capacity to review and communicate about their own progress and learning.

6(r) The teacher takes responsibility for aligning instruction and assessment with learning goals.

6(s) The teacher is committed to providing timely and effective descriptive feedback to learners on their progress.

6(t) The teacher is committed to using multiple types of assessment processes to support, verify, and document learning.

6(u) The teacher is committed to making accommodations in assessments and testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

6(v) The teacher is committed to the ethical use of various assessments and assessment data to identify learner strengths and needs to promote learner growth.

Standard #7: Planning for Instruction

The teacher plans instruction that supports every student in meeting rigorous learning goals by drawing upon knowledge of content areas, curriculum, cross-disciplinary skills, and pedagogy, as well as knowledge of learners and the community context.

PERFORMANCES	ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE
7(a) The teacher individually and collaboratively selects and creates learning experiences that are appropriate for curriculum goals and content standards, and are relevant to learners.	7(g) The teacher understands content and content standards and how these are organized in the curriculum.
7(b) The teacher plans how to achieve each student's learning goals, choosing appropriate strategies and accommodations, resources, and materials to differentiate instruction for individuals and groups of learners.	7(h) The teacher understands how integrating cross-disciplinary skills in instruction engages learners purposefully in applying content knowledge.
7(c) The teacher develops appropriate sequencing of learning experiences and provides multiple ways to demonstrate knowledge and skill.	7(i) The teacher understands learning theory, human development, cultural diversity, and individual differences and how these impact ongoing planning.
7(d) The teacher plans for instruction based on formative and summative assessment data, prior learner knowledge, and learner interest.	7(j) The teacher understands the strengths and needs of individual learners and how to plan instruction that is responsive to these strengths and needs.
7(e) The teacher plans collaboratively with professionals who have specialized expertise (e.g., special educators, related service providers, language learning specialists, librarians, media specialists) to design and jointly deliver as appropriate learning experiences to meet unique learning needs.	7(k) The teacher knows a range of evidence-based instructional strategies, resources, and technological tools and how to use them effectively to plan instruction that meets diverse learning needs.
7(f) The teacher evaluates plans in relation to short- and long-range goals and systematically adjusts plans to meet each student's learning needs and enhance learning.	7(l) The teacher knows when and how to adjust plans based on assessment information and learner responses.
	7(m) The teacher knows when and how to access resources and collaborate with others to support student learning (e.g., special educators, related service providers, language learner specialists, librarians, media specialists, community organizations).

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

7(n) The teacher respects learners' diverse strengths and needs and is committed to using this information to plan effective instruction.

7(o) The teacher values planning as a collegial activity that takes into consideration the input of learners, colleagues, families, and the larger community.

7(p) The teacher takes professional responsibility to use short- and long-term planning as a means of assuring student learning.

7(q) The teacher believes that plans must always be open to adjustment and revision based on learner needs and changing circumstances.

Standard #8: Instructional Strategies

The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage learners to develop deep understanding of content areas and their connections, and to build skills to apply knowledge in meaningful ways.

PERFORMANCES

8(a) The teacher uses appropriate strategies and resources to adapt instruction to the needs of individuals and groups of learners.

8(b) The teacher continuously monitors student learning, engages learners in assessing their progress, and adjusts instruction in response to student learning needs.

8(c) The teacher collaborates with learners to design and implement relevant learning experiences, identify their strengths, and access family and community resources to develop their areas of interest.

8(d) The teacher varies his/her role in the instructional process (e.g., instructor, facilitator, coach, audience) in relation to the content and purposes of instruction and the needs of learners.

8(e) The teacher provides multiple models and representations of concepts and skills with opportunities for learners to demonstrate their knowledge through a variety of products and performances.

8(f) The teacher engages all learners in developing higher order questioning skills and metacognitive processes.

8(g) The teacher engages learners in using a range of learning skills and technology tools to access, interpret, evaluate, and apply information.

8(h) The teacher uses a variety of instructional strategies to support and expand learners' communication through speaking, listening, reading, writing, and other modes.

8(i) The teacher asks questions to stimulate discussion that serves different purposes (e.g., probing for learner understanding, helping learners articulate their ideas and thinking processes, stimulating curiosity, and helping learners to question).

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

8(j) The teacher understands the cognitive processes associated with various kinds of learning (e.g., critical and creative thinking, problem framing and problem solving, invention, memorization and recall) and how these processes can be stimulated.

8(k) The teacher knows how to apply a range of developmentally, culturally, and linguistically appropriate instructional strategies to achieve learning goals.

8(l) The teacher knows when and how to use appropriate strategies to differentiate instruction and engage all learners in complex thinking and meaningful tasks.

8(m) The teacher understands how multiple forms of communication (oral, written, nonverbal, digital, visual) convey ideas, foster self expression, and build relationships.

8(n) The teacher knows how to use a wide variety of resources, including human and technological, to engage students in learning.

8(o) The teacher understands how content and skill development can be supported by media and technology and knows how to evaluate these resources for quality, accuracy, and effectiveness.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

8(p) The teacher is committed to deepening awareness and understanding the strengths and needs of diverse learners when planning and adjusting instruction.

8(q) The teacher values the variety of ways people communicate and encourages learners to develop and use multiple forms of communication.

8(r) The teacher is committed to exploring how the use of new and emerging technologies can support and promote student learning.

8(s) The teacher values flexibility and reciprocity in the teaching process as necessary for adapting instruction to learner responses, ideas, and needs.

Standard #9: Professional Learning and Ethical Practice

The teacher engages in ongoing professional learning and uses evidence to continually evaluate his/her practice, particularly the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (learners, families, other professionals, and the community), and adapts practice to meet the needs of each learner.

PERFORMANCES

9(a) The teacher engages in ongoing learning opportunities to develop knowledge and skills in order to provide all learners with engaging curriculum and learning experiences based on local and state standards.

9(b) The teacher engages in meaningful and appropriate professional learning experiences aligned with his/her own needs and the needs of the learners, school, and system.

9(c) Independently and in collaboration with colleagues, the teacher uses a variety of data (e.g., systematic observation, information about learners, research) to evaluate the outcomes of teaching and learning and to adapt planning and practice.

9(d) The teacher actively seeks professional, community, and technological resources, within and outside the school, as supports for analysis, reflection, and problem-solving.

9(e) The teacher reflects on his/her personal biases and accesses resources to deepen his/her own understanding of cultural, ethnic, gender, and learning differences to build stronger relationships and create more relevant learning experiences.

9(f) The teacher advocates, models, and teaches safe, legal, and ethical use of information and technology including appropriate documentation of sources and respect for others in the use of social media.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

9(g) The teacher understands and knows how to use a variety of self-assessment and problem-solving strategies to analyze and reflect on his/her practice and to plan for adaptations/adjustments.

9(h) The teacher knows how to use learner data to analyze practice and differentiate instruction accordingly.

9(i) The teacher understands how personal identity, worldview, and prior experience affect perceptions and expectations, and recognizes how they may bias behaviors and interactions with others.

9(j) The teacher understands laws related to learners' rights and teacher responsibilities (e.g., for educational equity, appropriate education for learners with disabilities, confidentiality, privacy, appropriate treatment of learners, reporting in situations related to possible child abuse).

9(k) The teacher knows how to build and implement a plan for professional growth directly aligned with his/her needs as a growing professional using feedback from teacher evaluations and observations, data on learner performance, and school- and system-wide priorities.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

9(l) The teacher takes responsibility for student learning and uses ongoing analysis and reflection to improve planning and practice.

9(m) The teacher is committed to deepening understanding of his/her own frames of reference (e.g., culture, gender, language, abilities, ways of knowing), the potential biases in these frames, and their impact on expectations for and relationships with learners and their families.

9(n) The teacher sees him/herself as a learner, continuously seeking opportunities to draw upon current education policy and research as sources of analysis and reflection to improve practice.

9(o) The teacher understands the expectations of the profession including codes of ethics, professional standards of practice, and relevant law and policy.

Standard #10: Leadership and Collaboration

The teacher seeks appropriate leadership roles and opportunities to take responsibility for student learning, to collaborate with learners, families, colleagues, other school professionals, and community members to ensure learner growth, and to advance the profession.

PERFORMANCES

10(a) The teacher takes an active role on the instructional team, giving and receiving feedback on practice, examining learner work, analyzing data from multiple sources, and sharing responsibility for decision making and accountability for each student's learning.

10(b) The teacher works with other school professionals to plan and jointly facilitate learning on how to meet diverse needs of learners.

10(c) The teacher engages collaboratively in the school-wide effort to build a shared vision and supportive culture, identify common goals, and monitor and evaluate progress toward those goals.

10(d) The teacher works collaboratively with learners and their families to establish mutual expectations and ongoing communication to support learner development and achievement.

10(e) Working with school colleagues, the teacher builds ongoing connections with community resources to enhance student learning and well being.

10(f) The teacher engages in professional learning, contributes to the knowledge and skill of others, and works collaboratively to advance professional practice.

10(g) The teacher uses technological tools and a variety of communication strategies to build local and global learning communities that engage learners, families, and colleagues.

10(h) The teacher uses and generates meaningful research on education issues and policies.

10(i) The teacher seeks appropriate opportunities to model effective practice for colleagues, to lead professional learning activities, and to serve in other leadership roles.

10(j) The teacher advocates to meet the needs of learners, to strengthen the learning environment, and to enact system change.

10(k) The teacher takes on leadership roles at the school, district, state, and/or national level and advocates for learners, the school, the community, and the profession.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

10(l) The teacher understands schools as organizations within a historical, cultural, political, and social context and knows how to work with others across the system to support learners.

10(m) The teacher understands that alignment of family, school, and community spheres of influence enhances student learning and that discontinuity in these spheres of influence interferes with learning.

10(n) The teacher knows how to work with other adults and has developed skills in collaborative interaction appropriate for both face-to-face and virtual contexts.

10(o) The teacher knows how to contribute to a common culture that supports high expectations for student learning.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

10(p) The teacher actively shares responsibility for shaping and supporting the mission of his/her school as one of advocacy for learners and accountability for their success.

10(q) The teacher respects families' beliefs, norms, and expectations and seeks to work collaboratively with learners and families in setting and meeting challenging goals.

10(r) The teacher takes initiative to grow and develop with colleagues through interactions that enhance practice and support student learning.

10(s) The teacher takes responsibility for contributing to and advancing the profession.

10(t) The teacher embraces the challenge of continuous improvement and change.

Appendix L

Tulsa Teacher Leader Effectiveness Framework: Dimension 6

6 Domain**: Classroom Management**		Dimension**: Student Relations**		
Teacher optimizes the learning environment through respectful and appropriate interactions with students, conveying high expectations for students and an enthusiasm for the curriculum.				
1 Ineffective	2 Needs Improvement	3 Effective	4 Highly Effective	5 Superior
• Oral, written and nonverbal communication with students is inconsiderate, as characterized by insensitivity, demeaning language and condescension. • Does not consistently display an interest in the curriculum or high expectations for most students.	• Oral, written, and nonverbal communication may not be considerate or respectful. • Does not consistently display an interest in the curriculum or high expectations for most students.	• Oral, written and nonverbal communications with students are considerate and respectful. • Consistently conveys a generally positive view of learning and of the curriculum, demonstrating high expectations for most students.	• Oral, written, and nonverbal communications with students are considerate and positive, demonstrating genuine respect for individual students and the class as a whole. • Consistently displays a genuine enthusiasm for the curriculum and high expectations for all students.	• Oral, written, and nonverbal communication with students is considerate and positive. There is abundant evidence of mutual respect and trust between teacher and student, as well as between students. • Exudes a passion for the content and actively exploring the curriculum with students. • Students appear to have internalized the value of the content as well as the teacher's high expectations for them.

Appendix M

Marzano Protocol: Design Questions #8 and #9

Design Question #8
What will I do to establish and maintain effective relationships with students?

1. Understanding Students' Interests and Background
The teacher uses students' interests and background to produce a climate of acceptance and community.
Teacher Evidence ☐ Teacher has side discussions with students about events in their lives ☐ Teacher has discussions with students about topics in which they are interested ☐ Teacher builds student interests into lessons
Student Evidence ☐ When asked, students describe the teacher as someone who knows them and/or is interested in them ☐ Students respond when teacher demonstrates understanding of their interests and background ☐ When asked students say they feel accepted

Innovating	Applying	Developing	Beginning	Not Using
Adapts and creates new strategies for unique student needs and situations.	Uses students' interests and background during interactions with students and monitors the sense of community in the classroom.	Uses students' interests and background during interactions with students.	Uses strategy incorrectly or with parts missing.	Strategy was called for but not exhibited.

2. Using Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors that Indicate Affection for Students
When appropriate, the teacher uses verbal and nonverbal behavior that indicates caring for students.
Teacher Evidence ☐ Teacher compliments students regarding academic and personal accomplishments ☐ Teacher engages in informal conversations with students that are not related to academics ☐ Teacher uses humor with students when appropriate ☐ Teacher smiles, nods, (etc) at students when appropriate ☐ Teacher puts hand on students' shoulders when appropriate
Student Evidence ☐ When asked, students describe teacher as someone who cares for them ☐ Students respond to teachers verbal interactions ☐ Students respond to teachers nonverbal interactions

Innovating	Applying	Developing	Beginning	Not Using
Adapts and creates new strategies for unique student needs and situations.	Uses verbal and nonverbal behaviors that indicate caring for students and monitors the quality of relationships in the classroom.	Uses verbal and nonverbal behaviors that indicate caring for students.	Uses strategy incorrectly or with parts missing.	Strategy was called for but not exhibited.

3. Displaying Objectivity and Control

The teacher behaves in an objective and controlled manner.

Teacher Evidence
☐ Teacher does not exhibit extremes in positive or negative emotions
☐ Teacher addresses inflammatory issues and events in a calm and controlled manner
☐ Teacher interacts with all students in the same calm and controlled fashion
☐ Teacher does not demonstrate personal offense at student misbehavior

Student Evidence
☐ Students are settled by the teacher's calm demeanor
☐ When asked, the students describe the teacher as in control of himself/herself and in control of the class
☐ When asked, students say that the teacher does not hold grudges or take things personally

Innovating	Applying	Developing	Beginning	Not Using
Adapts and creates new strategies for unique student needs and situations.	Behaves in an objective and controlled manner and monitors the effect on the classroom climate.	Behaves in an objective and controlled manner.	Uses strategy incorrectly or with parts missing.	Strategy was called for but not exhibited.

4. Student Interviews

Student Questions:
☐ How much did you feel accepted and welcomed in the class today?
☐ What are some things that made you feel accepted and welcomed?
☐ What are some things that did not make you feel accepted and welcomed?

Design Question #9
What will I do to communicate high expectations for all students?

1. Demonstrating Value and Respect for Low Expectancy Students

The teacher exhibits behaviors that demonstrate value and respect for low expectancy students.

Teacher Evidence
☐ When asked, the teacher can identify the students for whom there have been low expectations and the various ways in which these students have been treated differently

from high expectancy students
☐ The teacher provides low expectancy with nonverbal indications that they are valued and respected:
☐ Makes eye contact
☐ Smiles
☐ Makes appropriate physical contact
☐ The teacher proves low expectancy students with verbal indications that they are valued and respected:
☐ Playful dialogue
☐ Addressing students in a manner they view as respectful
☐ Teacher does not allow negative comments about low expectancy students

Student Evidence
☐ When asked, students say that the teacher cares for all students
☐ Students treat each other with respect

Innovating	Applying	Developing	Beginning	Not Using
Adapts and creates new strategies for unique student needs and situations.	Exhibits behaviors that demonstrate value and respect for low expectancy students and monitors the impact on low expectancy students.	Exhibits behaviors that demonstrate value and respect for low expectancy students.	Uses strategy incorrectly or with parts missing.	Strategy was called for but not exhibited.

2. Asking Questions of Low Expectancy Students

The teacher asks questions of low expectancy students with the same frequency and depth as with high expectancy students.

Teacher Evidence
☐ Teacher makes sure low expectancy students are asked questions at the same rate as high expectancy students
☐ Teacher makes sure low expectancy students are asked complex questions at the same rate as high expectancy students

Student Evidence
☐ When asked, students say the teacher expects everyone to participate
☐ When asked, students say the teacher asks difficult questions of every student

Innovating	Applying	Developing	Beginning	Not Using
Adapts and creates new strategies for unique student needs and situations.	Asks questions of low expectancy students with the same frequency and depth with high expectancy	Asks questions of low expectancy students with the same frequency and depth as with high	Uses strategy incorrectly or with parts missing.	Strategy was called for but not exhibited.

| | students and monitors the quality of participation of low expectancy students. | expectancy students. | | |

3. Probing Incorrect Answers with Low Expectancy Students

The teacher probes incorrect answers of low expectancy students in the same manner as he/she does with high expectancy students.

Teacher Evidence
☐ Teacher asks low expectancy students to further explain their answers when they are incorrect
☐ Teacher rephrases questions for low expectancy students when they provide an incorrect answer
☐ Teacher breaks a question into smaller and simpler parts when a low expectancy student answers a question incorrectly
☐ When low expectancy students demonstrate frustration, the teacher allows them to collect their thoughts but goes back to them at a later point in time

Student Evidence
☐ When asked, students say that the teacher won't "let you off the hook"
☐ When asked, students say that the teacher "won't give up on you"
☐ When asked, students say the teacher helps them answer questions successfully

Innovating	Applying	Developing	Beginning	Not Using
Adapts and creates new strategies for unique student needs and situations.	Probes incorrect answers of low expectancy students in the same manner as with high expectancy students and monitors the level and quality responses of low expectancy students.	Probes incorrect answers of low expectancy students in the same manner as with high expectancy students.	Uses strategy incorrectly or with parts missing.	Strategy was called for but not exhibited.

4. Student Interviews

Student Questions:
☐ How does your teacher demonstrate that they care and respect you?
☐ How does your teacher communicate that everyone is expected to participate and answer difficult questions?
☐ What are some ways that your teacher helps you answer questions successfully?