# The Dynamics of One-on-One Teaching

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**Abstract.** A comprehensive model of the dynamics of one-on-one teaching is described. Adoption of specific teaching styles is influenced by the learning styles of students; the interest in faculty to build interpersonal relationships with learners; teacher need to control the task; the capability of students; and situational constraints. In clinical settings, thesis work, and other areas, faculty preferred the use of Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator teaching styles. Relative to classroom teaching, these styles were used more frequently and the Expert and Formal Authority Styles were less prominent. This is consistent with the goals of one-on-one teaching to develop the ability of learners to work independently.

The vast majority of research on college teaching processes has emphasized traditional classroom, cooperative learning, distance learning, and technology driven courses. In the main, studies examine the interplay among faculty and students in a group context. Although largely ignored in the literature, any college catalogue will reveal a considerable number of course listings described as independent study, guided readings, independent research projects, practicum experiences and internships, tutorials, and thesis and dissertation work. Meeting to answer questions after class or during office hours and having students working as teaching or research assistants also provide opportunities to work closely with students. Both undergraduate and graduate students have access to opportunities that personalize teaching and enhance the quality of their educational experience.

Outside of a few studies investigating mentoring relationships between students and faculty (e.g., Green and Bauer 1995; Jacobi 1991), relatively little research identifies factors in such relationships that contribute to their success. When close and professionally personal teaching processes are examined, the emphasis is typically on the ability of students to manage themselves (Fontenot 1997). Burke and Miller (2002) note that this is a rather limited focus and that the interplay between students and faculty and how they adapt to each other needs to be examined. Along similar lines, Hickcox (2002) suggests that opportunities for experiential learning provide a natural venue for studying the components of close faculty and student relationships. It also would be interesting to know whether the desire for an open, supportive, comfortable, respectful, and nonthreatening interpersonal climate observed in productive classrooms (Anderson and Carta-Falsa 2002) would be as desirable in one-on-one teaching. Clearly there is a lot to be learned by studying such relationships.

One problem, and perhaps a reason why the literature is so sparse, is that close and professionally personal interactions are complex. Depending on the setting and goals, they may function as teaching-learning encounters, mentoring opportunities, supervisory sessions, consultative relationships, or opportunities to motivate, coach, and guide students. It is usually the case that more than one of the latter elements will be involved. This makes it difficult to examine one-on-one teacher and learner interactions in the same way as faculty-student interactions in traditional classroom settings. In a classroom, the roles that teachers and students play are less diverse, easier to identify and categorize, and largely directed toward the acquisition and retention of course content.

The initial challenge in studying such relationships is to decide what will be examined. The emphasis in the research program is on (*a*) attributes of the instructional processes employed; (*b*) teaching and learning styles of the participants; and (*c*) personal and situational factors that promote the acquisition of knowledge and skills. All of this is accomplished with extensions of a general model of teacher and student interactions that was initially applied to instruction in more traditional arenas (Grasha 1994, 1996, 2002; Grasha and Yangarber-Hicks 2000). The result is a comprehensive model that outlines the underlying dynamics of faculty and students in close and professionally personal relationships (Grasha 1995, 1996, 2001a, 2001b; Montauk and Grasha 1995). Let us examine

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the components of this model and what it tells us about student-faculty interactions.

## Teaching Styles in One-on-One Teaching

Teaching style represents the enduring preferences that faculty display in the attitudes and behaviors they exhibit in their teaching and learning interactions with students. This approach echoes Reinsmith's (1992) observation that teaching style must involve an understanding of the teacher's presence as well as his or her "encounter" with students. Thus, style is reflected in how faculty present themselves to students, convey information, interact with learners, manage tasks, supervise work in process, and socialize learners to the field. Interviews and focus groups with faculty across disciplines, observations of their work with students, and outcomes of work employing the One-on-One Teaching Style Inventory (Grasha 1996) reveal five teaching styles. They include the Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator styles; each is described in appendix A.

The latter styles represent several dimensions of the overall manner in which faculty approach close and professionally personal teacher-learner interactions. Each style is not a box into which faculty members fit. Rather, all of the dimensions shown are present in varying degrees within the attitudes and behaviors of teachers. The Expert and Formal Authority styles represent teacher-centered styles where the primary concern is transmitting information and ensuring that learners are well prepared. A Personal Model style reflects the need to guide and coach students as they work collaboratively with an instructor in developing a variety of skills (e.g., playing a musical instrument, learning to dance, solving math problem sets). A student-centered approach for developing a learner's capacity for self-direction and autonomy appears in the Facilitator and Delegator styles. Here instructors often find themselves acting as consultants and resource people while helping learners on a variety of tasks and projects (e.g., working with a patient, designing a thesis project, learning to paint a picture of a landscape).

Some of the styles described in appendix A, however, are more dominant among faculty than are other styles. Think of each one as representing a different color on an artist's palette. Thus the colors blend together in various ways with some combinations of styles or blends becoming dominant in teaching while others fall into the background. Four distinct combinations of styles been observed among the 378 cross-discipline faculty members who have participated in work completed to date. They include Expert-Formal Authority; Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority; Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert; Delegator-Facilitator-Expert.

The four combinations account for 77 percent of the teaching styles employed in one-on-one teaching in clinical settings, independent study, and master thesis and dissertation work examined thus far in the research program. (Montauk and Grasha 1995; Grasha 1996; Fitzgerald and Grasha 2002). The Expert-Formal Authority and the Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority blends were dominant in 6 percent and 25 percent of the teacher-student encounters respectively. The Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert and Delegator-Facilitator-Expert combinations were dominant in 22 percent and 24 percent of the interactions observed.

Within each set, the Expert teaching style is always present. Faculty members in close relationships with learners do not lose their expertise. They simply find additional ways of displaying it by integrating their expertise with other teaching styles. Thus, the Expert-Formal-Authority combination is not a dominant factor in such encounters. Rather, what emerges is an emphasis on their ability to guide, coach, consult, and to act as a resource person to facilitate student learning. Much less emphasis is placed on trying to transmit information in a didactic manner.

One problem here is that people tend to gravitate toward a preferred combination of styles and therefore are not as flexible in using a variety of approaches. For example, in their book *Adult HIV Outpatient Care: A Handbook for Clinical Teaching*, Montauk and Grasha (1995) discuss how the teaching styles of medical faculty or preceptors affect the quality of their two person interactions. In medical environments, preceptors tended to adopt favorite blends and to then apply them as if they were a panacea or master key. The quality of the learning encounter, however, demands that a faculty member effectively and seamlessly adopt a variety of styles.

## The Integration of Teaching Style, Faculty Roles, Behaviors, and Attitudes

In the classroom, various teaching styles are associated with specific instructional methods (e.g., a teacher-centered style and lecturing; a student-centered style and the use of small groups for discussion activities and projects). The equivalent of instructional methods in one-on-one teaching are the roles that faculty play and the corresponding behaviors and attitudes associated with each role. There are ten roles identified in the model and each is briefly described in appendix B. Work with the model shows that several roles are needed for the orderly execution of any given style. In turn, each of the roles is associated with particular attitudes and behaviors that faculty use when engaging in a particular role. This interrelationship of teaching style, roles, and corresponding attitudes and behaviors is illustrated in table 1.

In effect, when people adopt a particular teaching style, various roles, attitudes and behaviors "come along for the ride." This is true whether or not someone is aware of his or her style at the moment. An important issue is whether teachers are better off becoming aware of their teaching styles and their components. To use a car analogy, drivers of high-center-of-gravity SUVs would likely benefit from knowing the laws of physics associated with such vehicles. Those involved in accidents might have been able to prevent them if they knew beforehand that such vehicles tilt during hard turns. In much the same way, knowledge of style could help faculty to (*a*) better understand teaching, (*b*) make informed choices among alternative ways to teach, and (*c*) identify the parts of their teaching styles that are either helpful or problematic.

## The Need for Self-Reflection in Developing Effective Teaching Styles

Self-knowledge is important to anyone wanting to become a reflective practitioner in any field (Schon 1984). Otherwise,

**TABLE 1.—The Relationship between Teaching Style, Roles, and Corresponding Attitudes and Behaviors**

| One-on-one teaching styles | Major faculty roles | Important attitudes and behaviors |
|---|---|---|
| Expert | Prescriptive adviser | Gives detailed explanations<br>Provides succinct answers<br>Provides details on what to do |
| | Questioner | Questions emphasize basic knowledge and comprehension of concepts |
| | Mini-lecturer | Gives an overview of issues involved with a problem and outlines ways to handle it |
| Formal authority | Provider of feedback [evaluative/summative] | Provides clear expectations and directs feedback to expectations<br>Sets high standards for project or task<br>Has clear goals and objectives for task or project<br>Believes in correct, acceptable, and standard ways of doing things |
| Personal model | Coach | Teaches by example<br>Able to work alongside learner to provide guidance and direction |
| | Role model | Perceives self as a worthy role model to follow |
| | Provider of feedback [nonevaluative/formative] | Gives feedback that helps learner enhance skills |
| Facilitator | Provider of feedback [nonevaluative/formative] | Provides feedback that helps learner enhance skills<br>Uses descriptive/nonjudgmental feedback |
| | Active listener | Listens well to learner's concerns before making interventions |
| | Discussion facilitator | Able to engage individuals in a discussion of issues<br>Strives to be an encouraging and supportive teacher |
| | Questioner [open-ended] | Asks broad questions designed to facilitate creative and critical thinking |
| Delegator | Consultant<br>Resource person | Encourages appropriate autonomy independence<br>Directs responses and questions to immediate needs of the learner<br>Helps learner to explore options for what to do<br>Willing to delegate tasks and responsibilities<br>Readily available to provide guidance, give advice, and suggest other resources for help |

instruction becomes an automatic activity when it should be an outcome of conscious thought, planning, and deliberation (Langer 1997). In one-on-one encounters, this is particularly important because it is much harder to hide problems in style. The effect of the teacher is immediate, focused on a single person, and there is no one else around to buffer or to absorb a miscue. Some thought about how a particular style or one of its components contributed to a problem is essential if improvement is to occur.

For example, a faculty member who micro-manages the work of a fifth-year graduate student may produce a conflict or at least some frustration in the relationship. The student may resent not being given credit for the knowledge acquired or the ability to work more independently. The faculty member may not recognize that the problem is partly embedded in a reliance on a Expert-Formal Authority style that needs to be modified in this case. A fifth-year graduate student is likely to be able to function much more independently compared with a first-year student. More of a facilitative and delegative mode of teaching and working together would likely lead to less frustration. Unless the problem is identified, reflected on, and analyzed using information about style, little change is going to occur.

Two actions are needed to accomplish the latter goal. One is to reflect on how we normally work with students one-on-one. "What is our style?" is an important question to ask and our answer will likely lead to issues we need to address in teaching. Identifying aspects of our teaching style can occur through personal reflection or by using a formal measure of teaching style (see Grasha 1996; 2002). In the process, we are likely to recognize that variations in our styles occur across different situations as well as with particular learners. The Expert-Formal Authority blend might be preferred when talking about the characteristics of a particular medication or laboratory procedure. On the other hand, the Expert-Personal Model-Formal Authority combination would be used when teaching a learner how to execute a skill. Similarly, an anxious and novice learner might benefit more from explicit direction, while a confident and advanced student might be encouraged to try different approaches to managing a learning task. The reality is that each teaching style has certain advantages and disadvantages and cannot be used as if it were a "master key." Each teaching style has pros and cons:

- Expert

*Advantages*: The information, knowledge, and skills possessed

*Disadvantages*: If overused, the amount of information, knowledge, and skill can be intimidating to less experienced students. May not always explain the underlying thought processes that produced the answers.

- Formal Authority

*Advantages*: The focus on clear expectations and acceptable ways of doing things

*Disadvantages:* A strong investment in this style can lead to rigid, standardized, and less flexible ways of learning. May overlook individual differences in student needs and goals as learners.

- Personal Model

*Advantages:* The hands-on nature of the approach; an emphasis on direct observation and showing people how to follow a role model

*Disadvantages:* Some teachers may believe their way is the best or only way to do things. Attempts are made to "clone" students into their own image or to avoid showing students the range of options available to them. Some students may feel inadequate if they cannot live up to the expectations and standards of the model.

- Facilitator

*Advantages:* The personal flexibility, focus on student needs and goals, and the willingness to explore options and alternative courses of action

*Disadvantages:* This style is time consuming and is sometimes employed when a more direct approach is needed. It can make learners uncomfortable if it is not employed in a positive and affirming manner.

- Delegator

*Advantages:* Contributes to students' learning that they have skills and knowledge that they can independently employ. The knowledge that students gain about their skills, and that someone in authority trusts them to think and act competently with a minimum level of supervision contributes to their vision of themselves as becoming professionals in the field.

*Disadvantages:* The level and ability of learners may be misjudged and students may not possess the ability to think and behave in a more autonomous manner. Some learners may become anxious about not having closer supervision or may not know to how to interact with a faculty member who functions as a consultant and resource person.

Various blends of the above styles would have several of the advantages and disadvantages of each style. Because there are pros and cons to each, combining teaching styles, or changing styles while working with a learner needs to be done with care. There are no equivalents of a "master key" among any of the popular combinations of teaching style mentioned earlier. As a general rule, characteristics of the learner and the situations in which learning occurs must be considered.

## Factors That Influence the Selection of Teaching Style

There are five factors that are important for selecting a teaching style in close and professionally personal teaching encounters. Three of them—capability of the learner, building and maintaining relationships, and the teacher's need to maintain control over the task—are grounded in the leadership and management literature applied to education (see Hersey, Angelini, and Caracuhansky 1982). The fourth—learning style of the student—is an important component of all teacher-student encounters (see Grasha 1983, 1990a, 1990b, 1996; Grasha and Riechmann 1975). Students have different needs and preferences for how they like to learn that need to be accommodated. A fifth factor that influences the choice of style is the demands of the situation. This one acknowledges the important role that particular situations play in decisions about how to teach. Faculty teaching one-on-one must become sensitive to critical issues in each of the latter domains. Let us briefly examine the factors and the constraints they place on teaching styles.

### *Capability of the Learner*

Students vary in their ability to handle tasks and problems. Their competence is typically related to their year in school but also to specific issues they face. For example, a second-year medical resident may be very capable in conducting a medical exam, taking a patient's history, and managing infections such as the common cold and influenza. On the other hand, that individual may lack experience in dealing with patients who have AIDS or other serious medical problems. Similarly, the writing skills of a first-year college student majoring in English are unlikely to match those of a senior in the program. Thus, an appropriate writing assignment is one that recognizes and takes into account relative levels of experience, knowledge, and skill.

More is involved, however, than the knowledge and skills a learner possesses. Capability also is related to a learner's ability to work independently, and the capacity to take initiative and accept responsibility. Although estimating capability is a somewhat subjective enterprise, teachers can make sure that they do not misread students' skills by obtaining information about their previous training and experience. Teachers are advised to interview students in detail about their prior knowledge and experiences before embarking on an independent study, clinical placement, or other one-on-one teaching project.

Learners who are judged to be less capable along the dimensions described above would likely benefit from a more structured and directive approach from a faculty member. Thus, a blend of the Expert-Formal Authority style is recommended. For more experienced learners, a Facilitator-Delegator-Expert blend of teaching styles is likely to be better received. Of course, as novice learners become more competent, faculty are advised to use teaching processes that are less controlling and directive. Otherwise, students are likely to feel that they have not received credit for acquiring new skills and competencies. Such thoughts may lead to tension and frustration in the relationship.

### *Interest in Developing Productive Interpersonal Relationships*

Rapport with students is a critical factor for developing and maintaining productive relationships for learning. To build and maintain interpersonal relationships, teachers must do the following: (*a*) work hard to keep communication channels open, (*b*) listen carefully to learners and the concerns they have with tasks, (*c*)

become sensitive to conflicts when they arise and be willing to work to resolve them, (*d*) provide positive feedback and encouragement, and (*e*) use good interpersonal communication skills including active listening, checking assumptions, appropriately asking open and closed questions, and summarizing and paraphrasing what people say.

Not all faculty, however, have an interest in building strong professional relationships with students. Students may only work with them for a short period of time, or the faculty member may prefer a more formal relationship. For those faculty working with someone over a relatively long period (e.g., advising on a senior thesis, dissertation, clinical supervision practicum), building rapport and good communication are helpful for producing good outcomes. To build good relationships, less reliance on an Expert-Formal Authority style is needed, and more of the Personal Model, Facilitative, and Delegator teaching styles need to enter the ongoing interactions of teachers and students. The latter styles encourage close and professionally personal interactions because they take the teacher out of a didactic mode and into one where guiding, encouraging, and consulting with learners become the norm.

### *Teachers' Need to Control the Learning Task*

Faculty typically organize and define the parameters of a learning task, and some teachers believe they must maintain control over what happens. For example, medical faculty or preceptors are legally and professionally responsible for the treatment a medical resident provides. When preceptors directly control the course of medical treatment provided, they typically allow residents very little latitude in patient care decisions. Furthermore, the expectation exists that residents will follow their instructions precisely as given. Such things are in some cases necessary, particularly for novice learners. However, to learn skills in medicine and in other professional areas, learners need gradually to discover how to make appropriate decisions. This is important not only in patient care but in research, consulting, writing, and other endeavors. Faculty need to know when it is time to let go, but for some this is extremely difficult to do. As a result they "micromanage" a student's work beyond the point in a student's development when tighter control is necessary. This typically represents the need of the teacher to maintain control over what happens rather than the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the learner.

On the other hand, taking less direct control often means using problem-based approaches to teaching and supervision. In medicine, for example, this would allow a resident to make suggestions about patient care and other tasks and progressively empower the resident to take initiative and responsibility for the care of patients. In the latter case, a faculty member would rely more on his or her ability to use aspects of the Facilitator and Delegator styles. Some faculty are willing to teach in such ways as they see the capability of a learner increase. Conflict and frustration in one-on-one interactions occur when more capable students find themselves with a faculty member who is not willing to relinquish control.

### *Learning Style*

Learning styles are preferences for how people prefer to learn, and those in this model are described in appendix C (see Grasha 1996, 2002). Like the teaching styles described earlier, each plays a role in how learners approach a task. To use the analogy again of an artist's palette, some blends of learning styles are more dominant than others. This occurs for two reasons. One reason is that students' learning experiences have encouraged the development of attitudes and behaviors associated with specific learning styles.

The second reason is that the teaching styles of faculty encourage and reinforce certain learning styles. In this regard, a one-on-one teaching encounter is like a dance. A faculty member employs a particular style (i.e., leads a "partner" in a certain direction), and the student either follows or offers resistance. This engagement of teaching and learning style eventually produces an equilibrium point where both partners are able to function effectively. In the model, four primary patterns have been observed in the interplay of teaching and learning styles:

Pattern 1

- *Faculty member's style:* Expert-Formal Authority
- *Learner's style:* Dependent-Participant-Competitive

Pattern 2

- *Faculty member's style:* Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority
- *Learner's style:* Participant-Dependent-Collaborative

Pattern 3

- *Faculty member's style:* Facilitator-Personal Model-Expert
- *Learner's style:* Collaborative-Participant-Independent

Pattern 4

- *Faculty member's style:* Facilitator-Delegator-Expert
- *Learner's style:* Independent-Collaborative-Participant

A general indication of the contribution of each individual teaching and learning style within each pattern is reflected in the order in which each style is listed. This rank ordering is based on observations of such interactions involving faculty and learners in a variety of settings. Additional work is needed on the specific nature of such patterns. However, the general principle here is that there is a transaction among faculty and learners that contributes to the patterns that emerge.

What faculty members say and do helps to shape and reinforce the specific learning styles students adopt. Thus, a faculty member could encourage a dependent learner to become more independent by adopting a more facilitative style and assuming roles, attitudes, and behaviors associated with that style (see appendix B and table 1). Faculty might use open-ended questions (i.e., "What do you think should be done?"), give learners an appropriate independent task to accomplish (e.g., setting up a piece of laboratory equipment), and provide feedback on the outcomes of their efforts that is designed to help them improve (e.g., "You did a good job in setting up the equipment. Next time be sure to check first that the electrical circuits needed for power are not overloaded"). However, to do so, teachers must value providing stu-

dents options for how to learn. They also must be flexible and willing to adopt styles, attitudes, and behaviors that would be compatible with encouraging alternative learning styles.

*Situational Demands*

Close and professionally personal modes of teaching occur in a variety of learning environments. Demands within any situation vary and can influence the choice of teaching style. Emergencies and unexpected demands on learners, for example, often dictate a particular style. In medicine, a sudden clinical emergency may lead a preceptor to become more directive and to adopt a strong Expert-Formal Authority style. The less experienced resident may be asked to step aside with the preceptor taking charge of the situation. Significant learning is still possible, and the experienced faculty member might adopt a Personal Model-Expert-Formal Authority style and say, "Pay close attention and watch how I handle this. We'll discuss it later."

On other occasions, time may be a critical factor in how the interplay between teacher and student occurs. Thus, as the deadline for completing a master's thesis nears, a faculty member may decide to step back from facilitator and delegator modes of interacting and simply tell a student what to do next. Finally, the physical environment may not be conducive to certain teacher-student interactions. For example, seats bolted to the floor in a traditional classroom may discourage small group discussions. In much the same manner, overly hot and cold physical environments, no privacy for discussions, noise, frequent interruptions, a lack of comfortable seating, and other adverse environmental factors affect the quality of teacher-student interactions. Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator teaching styles, for example, are particularly more difficult under such conditions. They require a physical environment where people can observe each other, talk, be heard, and discuss issues.

## Selecting an Appropriate Teaching Style

Deciding how to teach one-on-one is like a juggling act. A number of factors must be attended to simultaneously. The choice of teaching style demands that attention is paid to the capability of the learner, interest in developing relationships, the need faculty have to control the task, the styles of learners, and situational demands. It is difficult to identify and weigh all of the five factors when making a decision. Instead of making an optimal decision using all of the information possible, interviews with faculty suggest they make choices based on those factors they consider most important at the moment. For some, the capability of the learner and the need to control the task are critical. Others focus on their need to build relationships, the learning styles of students, and situational demands. When done deliberately and consciously, the final choices represent a subjective balance among the factors considered, with some emphasized more than others.

More work is needed on how teachers make choices about what teaching styles to employ. It is clear, however, at this point in the development of the model, that one or more of the five factors listed explicitly or implicitly contribute to those decisions. That is, the choice can be deliberate, or it may emerge automatically without apparent conscious deliberation. Reflecting on teacher-student interactions afterwards can yield important data about what factors were used or ignored. Thus, self-reflection using the model as a lens to highlight the variables involved is a useful professional development activity. Teachers grow in their ability to manage close and professionally personal encounters with students as they learn more about what guides and directs their actions.

## Highlights of Research Outcomes Using the Model

Observations, interviews, focus groups, teaching and learning style instruments appropriate for one-on-one teaching, and other psychosocial measures have been employed in studying the dynamics of such interactions. Some of this work has been reported elsewhere (see Grasha and Gardner 1991; Salzmann and Grasha 1991; Grasha 1995, 2001b; Montauk and Grasha 1995), while other findings are relatively new and currently being prepared for a more extensive presentation (Fitzgerald and Grasha 2002). Thus, the following are highlights of findings to date using the model and their implications for the dynamics of one-on-one teaching. I wish to briefly illustrate the complexity and range of variables associated with such encounters, and in the process, to encourage more research in this area. The following observations are important in this regard:

The patterns observed in teaching and learning styles in one-on-one situations are similar to those found in traditional and technology driven classrooms (Grasha 1994; Grasha and Yangarber-Hicks 2000). One difference is that the four blends of styles described here accounted for 77 percent of the interactions observed among teachers and students. In classrooms, they account for 92 percent of the interactions. Also, the Expert-Formal Authority combination is much more prevalent in classrooms (i.e., it occurs as a major component of the teaching style of faculty in 38 percent of the classrooms studied), while it only appeared as a major component in 6 percent of the one-on-one interactions. Faculty members apparently have less need to engage students in a didactic manner in close and professionally personal interactions.

Among thesis and dissertation advisers, graduate students evaluated their faculty as using the Delegator and Facilitator styles more often than any of the others, including the Personal Model style (Fitzgerald and Grasha 2002). However, the Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator Styles were used almost as often in clinical teaching, appearing in 25 percent, 22 percent, and 24 percent respectively of the faculty member-learner interactions studied (Montauk and Grasha 1995).

In graduate thesis work, and in clinical settings, faculty were able to employ styles more appropriate for teaching the details of research and clinical skills. Relative to clinical work, however, thesis work does not demand as much of the Personal Model Style. And in both cases, teachers appeared to be able to keep the outward expression of the Expert-Formal Authority Style in the background to help develop the capability of students as independent professionals.

Male and female students rated the emotional climate with a teacher differently depending on whether the teacher

was a man or woman. For male students, there were no significant differences in their positive or negative thoughts and feelings toward male and female teachers. Female students, on the other hand, reported the interpersonal emotional climate in their relationship with a female teacher as more positive and warm (Grasha and Gardner 1991). Compared to social science majors, mathematics and engineering majors reported more interpersonal distance in their relationships with faculty. By their senior year, however, the social science majors and the mathematics and engineering majors perceived themselves as equally close to their teachers. The faculty who tended to enjoy professionally close and personal relationships with students were (*a*) more sensitive to interpersonal interaction concerns and (*b*) able to stimulate the intellectual curiosity of students. They also (*c*) displayed self-confidence and (*d*) were energetic and perceived by students as enjoying teaching (Grasha 1996; 2002, 12–17).

People in authority (e.g., teachers, supervisors) typically perceive themselves as having more knowledge, status, and expertise than their students or subordinates have. However, subordinates perceived supervisors as possessing less knowledge, status, and expertise than the supervisors ascribed to themselves (Salzmann and Grasha 1991).

Among the preceptors or clinical supervisors of medical residents, those who were judged to be ineffective had significantly lower scores on all of the attitude and behavior dimensions illustrated in table 1 in this article (Montauk and Grasha 1995). Preceptors in the latter study also gave themselves higher ratings of effectiveness than did the residents on their ability to provide feedback, to focus on learner needs, to ask good questions, and to show concern and respect.

The model described in this article illustrates that close and professionally personal relationships with students are complex. A variety of factors affect the ability of faculty and students to interact successfully in such encounters. The information presented highlighted several of the important aspects of those dynamics. Additional work is needed. The study of one-on-one teaching has taken a backseat to the research on more traditional classroom and teacher-student interactions. Yet it is an extremely important aspect of the interplay of faculty and learners and a part of teaching that we need to learn more about. The model presented in this article provides a lens for studying such interactions and suggests specific factors that can be used to begin the exploration. There is much to learn, and the effort should yield information containing practical and theoretical implications.

*Key words: faculty development, learner needs, learning styles, mentoring, one-on-one teaching, personalizing teaching*

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## APPENDIX A

## DESCRIPTIONS OF ONE-ON-ONE TEACHING STYLES

**Expert**

Possesses knowledge and expertise that learners need and that they are actively seeking. Oversees, guides, and directs students with frequent references to information and facts. Strives to maintain status as an expert among learners by displaying detailed knowledge and by implicitly or explicitly challenging learners to enhance their levels of competence.

**Formal Authority**

Gains status among learners because of knowledge, position as a more senior person in the field, and whatever formal organizational roles might be held. Concerned with providing positive and negative feedback, establishing expectations and rules of conduct, and insuring that the traditions of the field are maintained. Oversees, guides, and directs by referencing the correct, acceptable, and standard ways to do something. Closely supervises with a critical eye towards how well standard practices and procedures are employed.

**Personal Model**

Believes in leading by personal example and thus establishes a prototype for appropriate behaviors. Oversees, guides, and directs by showing learners how to do things, by encouraging them to observe, and then to emulate the teacher's approach. This goal is often achieved by working alongside learners, and by coaching and otherwise influencing them to follow the example the teacher has established.

**Facilitator**

Tries to focus on meeting the needs and goals of learners in a flexible manner and emphasizes the personal nature of teacher-student interactions. Oversees, guides, and directs learners by asking questions, exploring options, suggesting alternatives, and helping them to develop criteria to make informed choices about courses of action. Takes time to listen to students concerns and tries not to make assumptions about what would be helpful before getting all of the facts. Interested in developing competence of learners in a positive and affirming manner. Overall goal is to develop a capacity for independent action, initiative, and responsibility.

**Delegator**

Concerned with encouraging students to take responsibility and initiative while developing their capacity to function in an autonomous fashion. Teacher is available, at the initiation of the student, as a resource person, to answer questions, and to periodically review the progress on a task.

## APPENDIX B

## TEN TEACHING ROLES IN ONE-ON-ONE TEACHING ENCOUNTERS

**Prescriptive Adviser**

Provides quick and direct advice to address the immediate questions and needs of a learner.

**Questioner**

Uses questions to encourage critical thinking and further exploration of a problem or concern. Questions may be closed-ended (i.e., directed towards specific facts, concepts, or parts of procedures) or open-ended (i.e., general question designed to elicit a variety of responses or to obtain an integrative and broad-based answer).

**Mini-Lecturer**

Gives short (usually 2–5 minute) presentations directed towards a particular question or problem, or because of recurring content issue that occurs in a clinical setting or other learning task.

**Discussion Facilitator**

Uses a discussion of issues to review important information or to explore the implications of information or procedures used.

**Role Model**

Sets an example for appropriate thoughts and behaviors the learner is expected to emulate.

**Coach**

Directly observes and gives the learner advice, encouragement, and specific feedback and directions on how to become more effective, productive, or efficient at a task.

**Consultant**

Helps learners to explore appropriate ways to resolve a problem. The consultant role demands that the tendency to offer direct advice be set aside in favor of giving information and suggesting options. The learner is encouraged to make an informed choice to resolve a concern or issue.

**Resource Person**

Employed when the teacher does not have the necessary information or skills or when it is clear that exploring other resources would enhance students' base of knowledge. Learners are referred to the literature, to other people, or additional sources of information that could be helpful.

**Active Listener**

Listens to the content and feelings behind what is said to lead a broader or more in-depth conversation on issues raised by a task. Often used to identify content issues that are beneath the surface or difficult to grasp and apply. Active listening is also employed to identify and deal with issues in the working relationship between the instructor and student.

**Provider of Feedback**

Gives information to assist students with changing their behaviors and to become sensitive to the advantages and disadvantages of their approach to content and other issues associated with learning task or clinical problem. Feedback may be evaluative, nonevaluative, or directed towards formative issues (i.e., personal development) or summative issues (used to make comparisons with other people).

## APPENDIX C

## LEARNING STYLES IN ONE-ON-ONE TEACHING

**Competitive**

Acquires knowledge and skill in part to perform better than others. Wants to be recognized as the best student. At the extreme, this style can lead to attempts to one-up or top others by displaying superior knowledge to impress others. Generally, the competitive learner is motivated by the rewards of recognition and strives to do better than others.

**Collaborative**

Appreciates sharing ideas with others and in working closely with peers and the faculty member. Particularly enjoys discussions, problem based learning, and intellectual enterprises where all concerned are striving to find an appropriate solution to an issue.

**Avoidant**

Tends to be either uninterested or overwhelmed by what is going on. Components of this style include, a fear of failure, anxiety over receiving unfavorable evaluations from others, and feeling inadequate about one's knowledge and skills. Tries to cope by maintaining as little contact as possible with peers and the teacher.

**Participant**

Finds learning enjoyable and takes responsibility for getting the most out of any learning situation. Approaches the opportunity to learn with enthusiasm and attends as many meetings, conferences, rounds, and other learning opportunities as possible. A good citizen in any learning environment and is able to take initiative and accept responsibility for learning tasks.

**Dependent**

Relies on authority and guidelines for how to perform. Wants a faculty member to provide structure and parameters for what to do. Tends to seek specific answers and direction rather than formulating independent ideas and approaches to problems.

**Independent**

Has strong needs to learn alone rather than relying on a teacher for answers. Often goes beyond what is required to learn and is willing to explore content and practice skills alone. Self-exploration tends to develop an in-depth and broad-based knowledge about the components of learning tasks that students with other preferred styles do not acquire.