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List of abbreviations and acronyms

Abbreviation / acronym	Name
ARS	Audience Response System
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BATs	Behaviour alteration techniques
BELB	Belfast Educational Library Board
CCSs	Classroom Communication Systems
DI	Differentiated instruction
DoE	Department of Education
EFL	English First Language
EPD	Early Professional Development
FET	Further Education and Training
FL	First Language
GMIC	General Model of Instructional Communication
IC	Instructional Communication
IC&C	Instructional communication and competence
IELTS	International English Language Tests
IHE	Institution of Higher Education
L	Lecturer
LIC&C	Lecturers' instructional communication and competence
LT	Lecturer–talk
ND	National Diploma
NIS-OR	The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Observer Report
NIS-SR	The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Self Report
NVBs	Nonverbal behaviours
NVBIs	Nonverbal immediacy behaviour
NCI	Nonverbal immediacy
PBL	Problem-Based Learning
PP	PowerPoint
QUAL	Qualitative
QUAN	Quantitative
QDAS	Qualitative Data Analysis Software
RQ	Research Question
SA	South Africa

SCM	Source Credibility Measure
SGBs	School Governing Bodies
SM	Student motivation
SPSS	Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences
SRIB	The Self Report of Immediacy Behaviours
SRS	Student Response System
ST	Student-talk
TBL	Team-Based Learning
TCR	Teacher Clarity Report
TT	Teacher-talk
TTT	Teacher talking time

Declaration of authorship and copyright waiver

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SIGNATURE

DATE

1. Preview of the study

1.1. Introduction

This study took place influenced by events in higher education where in 2008 the then Department of Education (DoE) in South Africa (SA) identified as a priority the need to improve the quality of education. This led to the establishment of 'The Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign' launched by the then Minister of Education, Mrs Naledi Pandor, on 09 October 2008, in Tembisa (Department of Education, 2008a). One of the aims of the campaign was to improve the quality of education for all children through better learner achievements. This was reiterated by the President of South Africa, in his State of the Nation Address in 2009 (Zuma, 2009; Hindle, 2009), and later by the Minister of Higher Education in South Africa, Dr Blade Nzimande, at The Teacher Development Summit held in South Africa on 2 July 2009 and at a seminar at the University of Johannesburg on 14 August 2009 (Nzimande, 2009a). Minister Nzimande further highlighted challenges facing South African Higher Education such as: access, improving the quality of the learning experience, racism and other types of discrimination, under-preparedness and problems related to the medium of instruction (Nzimande, 2009b).

In the last decade, numerous reports internationally and nationally, have pointed to the poor performance of undergraduate students, academically. Reports nationally showed an increase in the low success rate and low retention rate of students in higher education in South Africa (Letseka & Maile, 2008; Cosser & Letseka, 2010). A report by Letseka and Maile (2008) indicated that in 2005, 30% of the students who enrolled in higher education in South Africa, dropped out in their first year of study, a further 20% dropped out during their second and third years and of the remaining students, 22% graduated within the specified three years duration for a generic Bachelor's degree. Another report by Cosser and Letseka (2010) revealed that South Africa's graduation rate was one of the lowest in the world at 15%. There appeared to be a high level of student drop-out (MacGregor, 2009), and concerns remain that the "Higher education sector is not meeting national needs in respect of economic growth, and ... social cohesion" (Pandor, 2007). This worrying decline in students' retention rate and eventual success is shared by employers who deem students ill-prepared for the labour market (Griesel & Parker, 2009; Korka, 2010;

Ranasinghe, 2011). Moleke (2006) contends that one of the reasons for this is that there is “the mismatch between the outputs of the higher education system and the type of qualification and skills required in the labour market” (p. 88). However, these challenges are not unique to South Africa as they are echoed in a report by the U.S. Department of Education that high schools are failing to prepare students for work and higher education (U.S Department of Education, 2008b). The concerns continue to grow.

Several factors have been identified in South Africa, as possibly contributing to students’ poor performance at institutions of higher education. These include the students’ inability to cope with the demands of higher education, students’ unpreparedness to deal with the content presented, difficulties with English as the language of teaching and learning, the poor quality of the learning experience and students’ lack of finances (Hersh & Merrow, 2005; Pandor, 2007; Department of Education, 2008b; Educator's voice, 2009). Several interventions such as student loans and bursaries, bridging/foundation courses and extended programmes have been put in place to address these concerns but with little evidence of improvement in the student’s academic performance.

At my own institution concerns about low throughput and retention rates of students have not abated as students continue to perform poorly in ‘soft’ modules like Basic Communication/English Skills courses, as reflected in Figure 1.1.

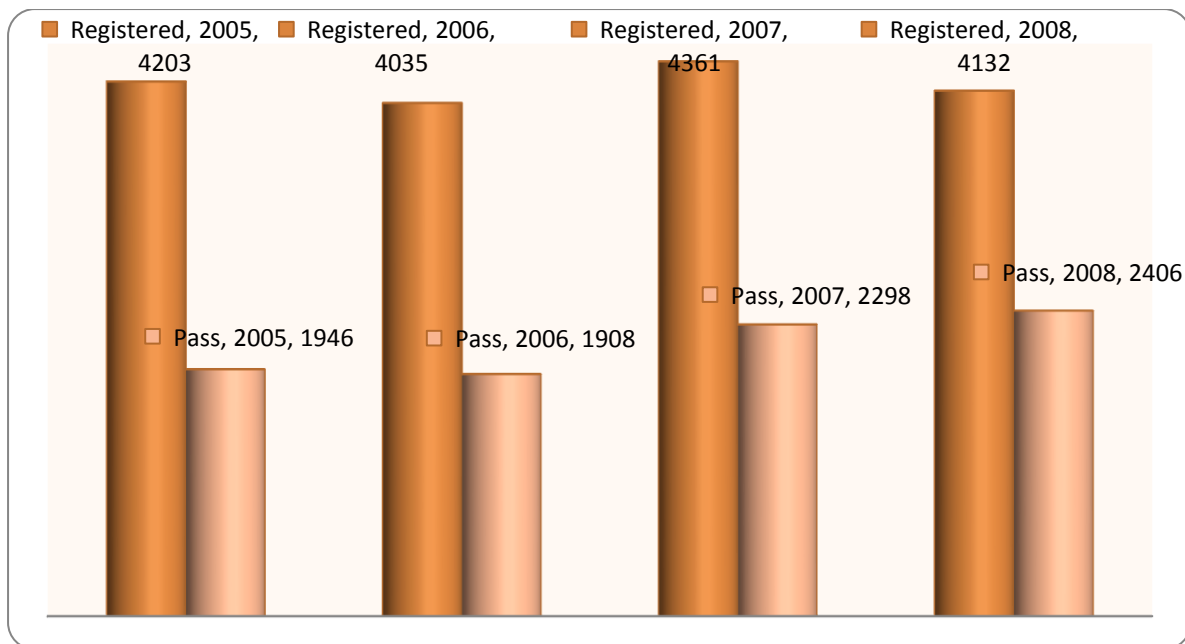


Figure 1.1: Institutional pass rate from 2005 to 2008

The data in Figure 1.1 indicate that most students did not succeed in the Communication1/English1 courses in this period. The number of students who passed the courses is far less than the number of students who registered for the courses, some of which repeated the course. Many researchers believe that competent instructors already have content knowledge of their subjects, know the appropriate teaching methods for their subject and curricular areas and the way learners learn (McBer, 2001). The question remains, how do lecturers translate these into instruction? I began to wonder to what extent the lecturers could also be contributing towards students' poor performance since lecturers are the main point of contact with the students who are grappling with new content – a process which the lecturers need to facilitate. Management, parents, the students and other stakeholders expect the lecturers to have expert knowledge in their fields and it is assumed that they are able to convey this knowledge using various means, oral communication as well as written (Haskins, 2000; Maclellan & Soden, 2003; Mottet, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006; Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Lane, 2009). I began to wonder how effectively this was happening during contact sessions between the lecturers and the students.

The primary outcome of instruction is universally considered to be behavioural change which manifests in cognitive and social learning as well as attitudinal change (Richmond, 2001; McCroskey et al., 2004; Choudhury, 2005; Ferreira, 2006;

Conners, 2007). The focus in many institutions of higher education, as they try to address the drop in student success and retention rates, is quite often on what students are either doing or not doing to succeed. Less attention, if any, is given to what lecturers are doing or not doing during instruction, to ensure that students learn successfully at the interface between communication and instruction. Even less attention is given to the biopsychosocial aspect of both students' and lecturers' perceptions during instructional experiences. I then decided to explore the perceptions held by the key role players in an instructional setting, the lecturers and the students. as a result, an attempt was made in this study to establish the perceptions that lecturers and students have and the researcher's observations of lecturers' communication and capture characteristics of lecturers' IC that reflect their instructional competence. These perceptions were explored according to the General Model of Instructional Communication by McCroskey, Valencic and Richmond (2004) as *immediacy*, *clarity* and *credibility*. My choice of this model is influenced by the reality that lecturer-student communication takes place within an instructional context and student apprehension, lecturers' instructional communication and competence, are inextricably entangled. The perceptions of students and lecturers were collected through interviews and questionnaires and by observing lecturers during lectures. However, because of the bias that is commonly associated with self-perception (lecturers) and others-perception (students), this study includes my own observations as researcher to provide a third data set of the lecturers' IC. However, it is not enough for lecturers to be good communicators in English during lectures, they also need to be competent in their instruction. Therefore, while this study explores the perceptions held by lecturers and students and the researchers' observations of lecturers' instructional communication in English, it also establishes the extent to which these perceptions and observations reflect lecturers' instructional competence.

In this chapter I briefly address the following: explain the rationale for the research, the research questions that the study attempted to answer, and the context of the study; clarify key concepts used within the context of this study; present the scope of the study, the research design and methodology, possible constraints and the organisation of the study.

1.2. Rationale

Teaching is seen as a communication process which is aimed at “establishing an effective and affective communication relationship with the learner so that the learner has the opportunity to achieve the optimum of success in the instructional environment (Richmond, Wrench, & Gorham, 2001, p. 14). In our daily social interaction, we communicate spontaneously and successfully with each other. At times, because of what we say and sometimes how we say things, misunderstanding and misinterpretation arise or there can be deliberate deception or misinformation. When such miscommunication happens, we are generally able to correct it as we strive to reach mutual understanding of meaning. However, in an educational setting, we need to limit barriers to communication, since complex cognitive processes related to learning need to take place. Instructors and learners interact with each other so that the learners can grapple with mastering the content material and acquire new knowledge. Communication barriers could affect learning negatively; they need to be managed appropriately and with the urgency they deserve. Lecturers need to know how to communicate efficaciously with their students, verbally and nonverbally through interpersonal (face-to-face), small-group, intercultural and organisational communication. The assumption is that effective teachers are also good communicators (Westwood, 2004).

As a lecturer at an institution of higher education, I have witnessed how students have failed to succeed, regardless of the efforts that the government, institutions and lecturers make to facilitate students' academic success. I am a trained lecturer and have been lecturing at institutions of higher education for 22 years. On that assumption I have confidence in the methods, approaches and strategies I have used during instruction, and knowledge of the content I have presented to the students. Although I would have class discussions with my students, use audio-visual materials and do practical exercises with them during instruction and get the impression that they had fully grasped the content of the lecture, their assessment would tell a different story. I began to wonder what it was that I was missing. Was I able to reach the kind of students we have at the institution? Am I clear enough in my speech, in the content I present and in the manner in which I present the content? Do the students trust and value the content that I present to them? These questions made me wonder about the quality of my teaching. My concerns escalated

when lecturers in other programmes expressed the same frustrations about their students. Although one might attribute students' failure to succeed to a range of different factors within higher education, this increased my curiosity about whether lecturers' communication during instruction through English was not a contributor to students' lack of academic success. This was because the questions I was asking myself suggested that, somehow as lecturers, we were not reaching the students as we should.

Numerous lecturer behaviours are believed to help students to comprehend new knowledge or expand what they already know. As such, key social emotions such as admiration and compassion play a big role in interpersonal relations and can bring about behavioural change. As Immordino-Yang, McColl, Damasio & Damasio (2009), say, "They motivate us to either reward (in the case of admiration) or remedy (in the case of compassion) the circumstances of another person" (p.1). Lecturers need to be approachable during instruction to facilitate interaction which should result in learning. They also need to be clear in the content they present and the way in which they present it (Hativa, 2000). In addition, for learning to take place effectively, they need to be credible in the eyes of the students. There should not be the sense of deceitfulness about expertise or intention. It is against this background that this study will explore lecturer immediacy, clarity and credibility according to the General Model of Instructional Communication which is commonly accepted by other researchers (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006; Mottet et al., 2006; Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Katt, McCroskey, Sivo, Richmond, & Valencic, 2009; Meyers, 2010; Waldeck, Plax, & Kearney, 2010) as an archetype in the field of instructional communication.

Studies have been conducted internationally on instructional communication with the focus on establishing relationships among variables of instructional communication. these included establishing a relationship between teacher behaviour and student motivation and demotivation (Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Simonds, 2001), a relationship between teacher clarity and student outcomes (Rodger, Murray, & Cummins, 2007), teacher clarity and nonverbal immediacy (Comadena, Hunt, & Simonds, 2007), source credibility and communication effectiveness (Hovland & Weiss, 1952), teacher immediacy and teacher credibility (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998). The gap in these studies is that they have been conducted abroad and as such research still need to be conducted in South Africa, to explore the extent to

which these perceptions indicate lecturers' instructional competence, hence this study. In South Africa, studies have been conducted on teacher communication, although their focus were not necessarily on instructional communication per se. Fraser and Killen (2005) conducted a study which explored the perceptions of factors influencing academic performance and effective communication appeared to be one of the factors, while Evans' study (2006) focused on the impact of presenter speech during televised instruction in schools. Machingambi and Wadesango (2011) conducted a study at a university where they explored lecturers' perceptions of student evaluations of their instructional practices and classroom encounters. It is in this context that, while my study is about a well-researched topic in other countries, there is still a need to explore lecturers' instructional communication at institutions of higher education in English in South Africa. In all of the research conducted internationally and nationally, none sought to establish the link between instructor communication and instructor competence. It is against this background that this study was conducted as both are known to affect student learning. This was achieved by attempts to answer the research questions discussed in the next paragraph.

1.3. Research questions

In this study, an attempt was made to gain a holistic view of perceptions of lecturers' communication skills during instruction in English held by lecturers themselves, and their students, and as observed by the researcher. The aim was to explore the extent to which perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication reflect lecturers' instructional competence. Students ought to find it easy to approach a lecturer when the need arises and this is referred to as lecturer immediacy which can be verbal or non-verbal. Lecturers need to be clear in the presentation of content - lecturer clarity. Lecturers in presenting their content, need to persuade their students that they are trustworthy and honest and do not seek to mislead or deceive students - which in the model is referred to as source credibility. These concepts have been well researched since the 1970s in IC research.

A review of literature and a pilot study helped to make the research questions more focused and specific, as the study attempted to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. What perceptions do the lecturers and the students hold of lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility, during instruction? Furthermore, data gathered in an attempt to answer this research question, was used to answer the following research question:

RQ2. To what extent do the lecturers' and the students' perceptions reflect lecturers' instructional competence?

1.4. Contextualising the study

This study takes place at an institution of higher education in South Africa on instructional communication (IC), an aspect that has been researched internationally, nationally and locally. The field of IC is well established (Meyers, 2010). Studies on IC have their foundations across three disciplines: educational psychology which emphasises how the learner learns affectively, behaviourally and cognitively; pedagogy which emphasises the instructor's skills and strategies required for effective teaching and communication which emphasises the meaning of messages, verbal and nonverbal, exchanged between and among instructors and their learners (Mottet & Beebe, 2006). The third discipline is communication studies (Myers, 2010). This study investigates, from a pedagogical interest, lecturers' communication skills during instruction in English, how students perceive them and how they perceive themselves, what those perceptions can say about both parties. Nussbaum and Friedrich (2005) made this call for further IC research. Waldeck et al. (2010) made suggestions in terms of future research efforts: After observing that much of current research has focused independently on teacher behaviours (e.g., teacher affinity-seeking) and student behaviours (e.g., communication competence), they suggested that more investigations should explore how teachers' and students' interactions influence learning (e.g. teacher clarity strategies interacting with student clarifying strategies) (p.580).

Internationally, early research on IC focused on individual differences in students (McCroskey & Young, 1981; Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998). More recent research has centred on teachers' orientations and behaviours related to communication during instruction (Mottet & Richmond, 2002; Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006; Richmond, Lane, & McCroskey, 2006); student-teacher interaction rose to prominence (Cooper, 2004; Dagarin, 2004; Choudhury, 2005); training and

development (Bulger, Mohr, & Wall, 2002; Huitt, 2011; Cole & Spence, 2012) and technology in learning (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Guthrie & Carlin, 2004; Berk, 2009; Schutt, 2010) have also been researched. These studies also investigated relationships among the components: immediacy, clarity and credibility and their impact on students' learning and motivation although mostly from a cause and effect perspective. They have shaped the conceptual framework of my study and have influenced the design of the measures used in the study, as outlined in Chapters Two and Three.

There are several studies conducted on instructional communication internationally and nationally. Internationally, most of the studies conducted are from a relationship and cause and effect perspective, showing a correlation between nonverbal immediacy and the socio-communicative style of the instructor. In the American university context, the impact of teacher immediacy and misbehaviours on teacher credibility among students was studied by Thweatt & McCroskey (1998). Baringer & McCroskey (2000) worked on for instance, student immediacy in the classroom relating it to professors and graduate teaching assistants through questionnaires. More on immediacy, in this case the relationship of teacher clarity and immediacy on students, who suffer receiver apprehension and how that impacts affective and cognitive learning, was aimed at students at an American university by Chesebro and McCroskey (2001). For Rocca (2004) the impact of instructor immediacy and verbal aggression on students was the subject at an American university. How teacher competence and trustworthiness were affected by perceived caring and teacher immediacy of students was examined by Tevin and Hanson (2004). Nonverbal immediacy and its development were examined by Richmond and associates (2006) and Poque and Ahyun (2006) researched the effect of teacher nonverbal immediacy and credibility on student motivation and effective learning. Banfield, Richmond, and McCroskey (2006) looked at the effect of teacher misbehaviours on teacher credibility and affect for the teacher. Rodger, Murray and Cummins (2007) researched the effects of teacher clarity and student anxiety on student outcome among students at a Canadian university. Teven (2007) worked in the United States on the relationships with student affect and their perceptions of teacher competence and trustworthiness. Identifying high school pupils' perceptions of teacher caring was studied by Garza, Ryser, and Lee (2009). Most these studeis

on instructional communication are based on the General Model of Instructional communication, which will be discussed in details in Chapter Two, attest to the need for instructors to be immediate, clear and credible in their instruction.

Most recently, research in the field of IC has emphasised the development of instruments to measure aspects of teacher behaviour. These include the measures reflected in Table 1.1 which were used in developing the instruments for this study:

Table 1.1: Measuring scales for the study

Variable	Scale	Source
Lecturer immediacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Self Report (NIS-SR) • The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Observer Report (NIS-OR) and • The Self Report of Immediacy Behaviours (SRIB) 	Richmond, McCroskey & Jonson, 2003
Lecturer clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher Clarity Report (TCR) • The expanded version of the Teacher Clarity Measure 	Simonds, 1997, Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997
Lecturer credibility	Source Credibility Measure	McCroskey & Teven, 1999

A detailed discussion of these instruments has been given in Chapter Three of this study.

Turning to the national context, Evans (2005) sought to explain low learner participation in interactive television instruction in a developing country context, South Africa, among Grade 12 learners, presenters (teachers) and the researcher, from the teachers' and the students' perspectives. Evans (2006) conducted another study in South Africa, in which she looked at the impact of presenter speech personality during televised instruction. De Jager and Evans (2013) conducted a study in South Africa in which they focused on misunderstandings during instruction as related to oral proficiency. Other studies in South Africa have focused on the medium of instruction – English or mother tongue (Nash, 2006; Uys, van der Walt, van der Berg, & Botha, 2007; Neethling, 2010; Dippenaar & Peyper, 2011). These studies have shown that, lecturers need to be aware of the importance of their

communication with their students during instruction and to be informed about how they might improve their communication to enhance classroom interaction and student success (Daly & Brown, 2007). Another IC school study was conducted by Hardman, Abd-Kadir, and Smith (2008) to explore how to improve the quality of classroom interaction in Nigerian primary schools, with teachers. These studies indicate how teachers' and learners' perceptions become a rich source of data on what is happening during instruction. Machingambi and Wadesango (2011) conducted a study about university lecturers' perceptions of students' evaluation of their instructional practice, in South Africa. Most closely aligned to my study was that conducted by Fraser and Killen (2005) at two universities in South Africa on the perceptions of students and lecturers of some factors that influence academic performance. They looked at factors that contributed to student success and failure. The study showed that both students and lecturers identified factors such as lecturers' effective written communication skills, understanding what lecturers expect, regular and comprehensive feedback on progress from lecturers, availability of high quality study resources, and study guides which clearly defined outcomes, as factors that contributed to success. Factors that were identified as contributing to failure were students' reluctance to approach lecturers/tutors for help, a perceived lack of relevance of course content, assignments without clear standards or uncertainty about lecturers' expectations, among others. All of the factors identified for success or failure, can be related to three components of IC – immediacy, clarity and credibility, presenting perceptions as a valuable source of data on lecturer communication during instruction.

While these studies were conducted at institutions of higher education in South Africa, on lecturer and teacher communication, they were not necessarily specific to instructional communication, and were not based on the specific components of the General Model of Instructional Communication, hence this study.

1.5. Key concepts clarification

In this section I present key concepts that have been used in this study, which might appear to be obvious in their meaning, and are explained in simplistic terms. In light of the fact that they might have different connotations in other contexts, it is therefore important that they be understood within the context of this study.

1.5.1. Instructional communication (IC)

Simonds (2001, p. 1) defines IC as “a field of study that informs educators of all disciplines about the communication skills necessary to function competently in the classroom”. These communication skills entail the instructors’ use of verbal and nonverbal behaviours which are meant to assist lecturers to be more approachable in the development of interpersonal relationships with students and to be clear in the content that they present. Lecturers need these skills to be able to impart the content of their subject, and students need these skills to grasp the content that the lecturers present. Therefore, in this study, IC refers to the lecturers’ communication behaviours as they interact with their students verbally and nonverbally, in a face-to-face, structured learning environment to facilitate learning.

1.5.2. Instructional competence

Instructional competence is quite often used in relation to concepts such as ‘teacher effectiveness’, ‘teacher competencies’ and ‘teacher qualities’, because it is a concept that describes the instructor/teacher according to what they need to have to do their jobs successfully. As a result there are several definitions of instructional competence but this study will use Hamilton-Ekeke’s (2013) definition as “... the right way of conveying knowledge of content, process, methods, and means of conveying content” (p15). This simply means the instructors’ abilities to convey the content knowledge in a way that their learners will understand.

1.5.3. Lecturer / educator / instructor / mediator/ teacher

These terms all pertain to the labels that different researchers have used to refer to the person presenting content to an audience during instruction. The noun ‘lecturer’ is derived from the verb ‘lecture’, which means “a teaching format characterised by the presentation of information by a teacher to a group of learners” (Collins & O’Brien, 2003, p. 203). Webster (“Webster’s New-World College Dictionary,” 2009) defines a ‘lecturer’ as “a person who gives lectures, especially by profession or in connection with lecture duties: sometimes used as an academic title for one who lectures at a college or university but does not have the rank or tenure of a regular faculty member” (p. 205). This definition differs from the previous one in that it specifically makes it clear that this person is at a college or university, and not at a school. In the South African context, a lecturer is a person who facilitates learning at a tertiary institution whereas a teacher is found in schools (Mothata, Lemmer, Mda, &

Pretorius, 2000). Some researchers use the concepts ‘facilitator’ or ‘mediator’ or ‘educator’ or ‘instructor’ to refer to a ‘teacher’ or ‘lecturer’ as the concepts describe the roles expected to be played, regardless of where the instruction is taking place (Ferreira, 2006; Fraser, 2006; Monyai, 2006; Nieman, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the concept ‘instructor’ will thus be used to refer to any person who facilitates learning regardless of the learning environment. The concept ‘lecturer’ will refer to an academically well qualified person who gives instruction, on a full-time or part-time basis, at an institution of higher education. A teacher will refer to any person who facilitates learning at schools and in some cases, as used by authors in the texts that I will refer to. The professional participants in this study will be referred to as lecturers. However, all these concepts will be used according to how researchers have used them in the studies I refer to.

1.5.4. Perceptions

There are a number of definitions of ‘perceptions’, especially from the fields of philosophy and psychology where perception is seen as “the conscious mental registration of a sensory stimulus that serves as a basis for understanding, learning, and knowing or for motivating a particular action or reaction” (Mosby, 2009, p. 1). Immordino-Yang et al. (2009), speaking from a neurobiological point of view say, “Visual perceptions correspond to external objects” (p. 91). In general, perception is the ability to see, hear, smell, taste or feel of something through the senses (Lewis, 2001; Hornby, 2013). Geddes (1995) adds that perceptions refer to how we view the self, and how others view us, through the five senses as we give meaning to communication encounters. Damasio et al (2004) remind us that “We react to most, perhaps all, objects with emotions, however weak, and subsequent feelings, however feeble” (p. 93). This is important when we report our perceptions because emotions and feelings are strongly subjective. In this study, perceptions will refer to two slightly different things: the lecturers’ apprehensions of themselves (the self) as communicators in the instructional context, and the students’ apprehensions of their lecturers (the other) as objects and as persons engaged in communication in a lecture hall.

1.5.5. Student / learner

Collins and O’Brien (2003, p. 338) make a distinction between a ‘learner’ and a ‘student’, where a ‘learner’ is a current term that reflects the ideal of lifelong learning

regardless of where instruction is taking place. A 'student' is someone who seeks knowledge regardless of age and setting. In the South African context, a student is a person who studies towards achieving a diploma or degree at an institution of higher education (college, university); and a learner is any person who receives formal and informal education anywhere (Mothata et al., 2000), ranging from early childhood development to adult education phase. Therefore, the respondents in this study will be referred to as students.

Now that it is clear how the concepts will be used within the context of this study, I present the scope of the study.

1.6. The scope of the study

Instructional communication (IC) can be viewed from the perspectives of student communication, instructor communication and instructor–student interaction (Waldeck et al., 2010). This study viewed IC from the instructor communication and instructional competence perspectives. This was to provide a possible indicator of lecturers' instructional competence. Like many studies on IC as a field of research (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006; Mottet et al., 2006; Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Katt et al., 2009; Meyers, 2010; Waldeck et al., 2010), this study was based on the General Model of Instructional Communication which originally had six essential components: teachers (teacher communication behaviours); students' perceptions of teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours, students' perceptions of teachers' source credibility and task attractiveness; instructional outcomes; students' (temperament, intelligence, experience) and the instructional environment (McCroskey et al., 2004). My study focused on exploring the nature of the IC used by lecturers using English, in respect only of perceptions of lecturer immediacy, clarity and credibility by both the lecturers and by the students. My focus was also on the emotions and consequent feelings which were expressed in the perceptions of both parties. The use of all the components of IC would have made this study too broad. Another reason is that I am interested in exploring only those components that manifest themselves during in-class lecturer-student interactions.

Although lecturer competence "can be approached either in terms of outcomes or in terms of input believed to contribute to positive outcomes" (Greenspan, 2012, p. 1), this study focused on lecturers' competence only in as far as input was concerned.

Much as several qualities are associated with competent lecturers, this study focused only on those that could be established during instruction.

1.7. Research design and methodology

The research design and methodology followed in this study are briefly indicated in this section; Chapter Three covers them in more detail. This study was guided by a pragmatic philosophy as I did not want to generate any theory or model which would belong to the 'epistemic' world, nor did I clarify any key concept according to 'metascience'. This was an exploratory study to examine the nature of the lecturers' IC and the lecturers' and the students' perceptions of it. My approach is interpretivist, meaning our reality cannot be understood as separate from our knowledge of that reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). My paradigm or worldview is based on constructivist ideas about learning where reality is a construct and each of us gives meaning to it in an idiosyncratic way according to biological, social and environmental factors impacting on us but in a social context. I followed the sociopsychological tradition in communication which is about interpersonal relationships focusing on attitudes and interaction, effects, individual behaviour, perceptions, personalities and traits and variables (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996; Craig, 1999; Littlejohn & Foss, 2008). This is because I wanted to establish individual lecturers' communication behaviour through the lectures' and the students' perceptions, during lecturer-student interactions. This will be discussed in more details in Chapter Two.

This is an empirical study in which primary textual data were gathered qualitatively through interviews and lecture observations and the primary numeric data were gathered quantitatively through questionnaires, at the same time in one study, in order to contrast and compare the different findings to produce well-validated conclusions (Ivankova, Creswell, & Plano Clark, 2009; Borrego, Douglas, & Amelink, 2009). This confined the study to mixed methods research, in which I followed a triangulation mixed methods design and data gathered through the two methods were mixed at the interpretation stage. I used this design because it is known to reduce the risk of chance associations and systematic bias, and relies on information collected from a diverse range of individuals, teams and settings, using a variety of methods (Maxwell, 1996 in Maree & van der Westhuizen, 2009). The use of WEFT QDAS, the eCOVE classroom observation software and SPSS facilitated the

organisation and storage of data for later analysis. The sample, the participants and the research sites of the main study are described in the next paragraphs.

1.7.1. The sample, participants and research site

The sample of the qualitative part of the study was a non-probability, convenient sample of seven lecturers (four full-time and three part-time, four black - one male and three females, and three white - one male and two females, from different age groups and different campuses) who offer Basic Communication Skills courses at a South African institution of higher education. I conducted this study with this sample as I needed to attract participants who had some knowledge of communications skills and also volunteer information with honesty. Another reason for settling for this small sample was because qualitative research is known to involve smaller sample sizes than quantitative research (Babbie, Mouton, Voster, & Prozesky, 2006; Migiro & Maganyi, 2011), for it is neither feasible nor possible to draw large samples (Mouton, 2009) and include the whole population in a qualitative study, thanks to time and costs restrictions (Creswell, 2009; Maree & Pieterse, 2009a). Quantitative studies are known for their large sample and so the respondents in the quantitative part of the study were 252 first year students (43% males and 57% females, from the ages 16 years to 41 years, all black), registered for Basic Communication Skills courses offered by the target lecturers.

The main study was conducted at an institution of higher education in South Africa, which has six campuses and eight faculties spread across three provinces, but data for this study were gathered at four campuses. The university has more than 2 700 permanent staff members and approximately 60 000 students enrolled across the different campuses. The research site offers accredited programmes ranging from certificates to PhD degrees, predominantly through 'contact' mode and a few through distant learning modes.

1.7.2. Ethical considerations

Researchers need to anticipate ethical issues that might arise during their study (Creswell, 2009). As a result, I needed to be aware of my perceptions or expectations that might interfere with my observation of important subtle aspects of character and speech (Hittleman & Simon, 2006). The fact that I am a lecturer means that I have my own perceptions of lecturing at an institution of higher learning.

Creswell (2009, p.87) adds that researchers "need to protect their participants; develop trust; promote the integrity of the research;" In addition, I had to consider issues such as: informed consent; confidentiality; anonymity; trust and I had to inform participants of their rights (Graziano, 2004; Babbie et al., 2006; Hittleman & Simon, 2006; Creswell et al., 2009; Pietersen & Maree, 2009b). I sent letters to the participants in this study inviting them to participate (Addendum 4). In the letters was information about the research, the purpose of the study, what their roles and activities would be during the research, to make them aware of their rights in this study and to help them make informed decisions about their participation. They were made aware that participation in the study was voluntary and that they might withdraw from further participation when they chose. I gave them consent forms to sign before they participated in the study as an indication that they had not been coerced into participating in the study but were doing so voluntarily. I did the same with the respondents through the cover page of the questionnaire (Addendum 10). With the purpose of the face-to-face interviews clarified beforehand, I sought permission to record the interviews so that I could listen to them at a later stage, and make transcripts for data analysis purposes (Nieuwenhuis, 2009b). I assured the participants of confidentiality by explaining to them the value of the data they would give to me, that it would be used solely for the study, that no other person would have access to it and this I secured by signing a confidentiality clause (Addendum 6). I assured them that their identities would be kept anonymous by using numbers to identify them, when collecting and recording data and that their faces would be hidden from the cameras when video recordings were made and shared. If by any chance their faces were captured, they would be blanked out so that nobody could identify them during presentations, to protect their identities. The student assistant also signed a confidentiality clause (Addendum 7) to ensure that they would keep all information they came across, confidential.

Since research in this study was conducted at an institution of higher learning in South Africa, this institution, like many other institutions, has rules and regulations and one of them is to request permission for any research to be conducted. I requested permission to conduct research for my study (Addenda 1 and 3) at both the primary (main study) and secondary (pilot) research sites through their appropriate ethics committees, and was given permission (Addenda 2 and 3).

1.7.3. Data gathering

Data were gathered through both qualitative and quantitative methods. For part of the qualitative section of this study, I conducted one session of semi-structured, face-to-face, individual, 30 minute interviews in English, with each of the seven participants (the lecturers) in the study. The interviews were held in the lecturers' offices to ensure privacy and to minimise disturbances, and were later transcribed using the Dictate Express software, for data analysis. The purpose of these interviews was to establish the lecturers' perceptions of their own instructional communication as they interacted with their students. Qualitative data were also gathered through classroom observations held with eight participants (one during the pilot and seven during the main study) without direct interaction with them and their students. I recorded descriptions of what was observed, and reflections on what happened, using an observation schedule (Addendum 9), modified from Evans (2005) to suit my study. The observations were done in two sessions; eCOVE classroom observations and video observations, to answer the first research question (RQ1). The rationale behind using the two methods of classroom observation was to be able to validate the data that would be gathered. This method of recording the observations is supported by Jones and LeBaron (2002) who recommend that research on IC should be supported by video-taped data in all studies of face-to-face investigations.

Quantitative data were gathered through structured, paper-based, questionnaires on a four-point Likert-type scale (from 1: almost never to 4: almost always). A research assistant and I administered the questionnaires to the target lecturers' students, during special lectures that were arranged. The questionnaires were pre-tested with one lecturer and her students in a pilot study, to identify errors, ambiguity in questions or violations of rules (Babbie et al., 2006). In the main study, 252 questionnaires were administered to students, by a trained research assistant. Data gathered through the questionnaires were prepared, stored and explored through the SPSS with the guidance of a statistician to ensure validity and reliability. The questions asked during both the interviews and the survey, which also shaped the lecture observations, were derived from the following existing, tried and tested measures which were selected to suit South African culture;

- The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Self-Report (NIS-SR); the Nonverbal Immediacy Scale observer Report (NIS –OR) and the Self Report of Immediacy Behaviours (SRIB) (Richmond, McCroskey, & Johnson, 2003)
- Teacher Clarity Report (TCR) by Simonds (1997), the expanded version of the Teacher Clarity Measure by Sidelinger & McCroskey (1997) and the Teacher Clarity Short Inventory (TCSI) by Chesebro and McCroskey (1998)
- Source Credibility Measure developed by McCroskey and Teven (1999)

Data were recorded through interview schedules (Addendum 8) which were later transcribed through the Express Dictate software (Addendum 11); video observation schedules (Addendum 23) and eCOVE reports (Addendum 13) and comments (Addendum 22). These were subsequently organised and stored through the WEFT software and retrieved for later analysis. Data from the questionnaires were prepared, organised and stored through the SPSS QDAS, for later retrieval and analysis. A brief discussion of each data collection tool used in my study is given in Chapter Three. The study was validated as follows:

1.7.4. Validating the data

Qualitative data were validated by looking at credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. The credibility of the data gathered was done through member checks (my supervisor, research expert) and triangulation of the four data sets. Since this was an exploratory study, transferability was not applicable. The data were supported further by relying more on what the literature said about the data to be analysed, and I kept a confirmation audit through interview schedules, transcripts, audio and video recordings. I addressed researcher effects of affiliation by clarifying the purpose of the study and my role in the research. The fact that the participants already knew me reduced the distance between us. I assured the participants in writing (Addendum 5), that the information they gave would be confidential and that they would remain anonymous in the study. I also gave them as much information as possible so that they could give me informed consent to participate in the study.

The participants were motivated to participate because they saw the study as within their field of interest (communication). I was a non-participant observer in the study and this reduced intrusion on my part. The bias associated with being observed was

reduced by the fact that there were other participants (students) in the lecture hall, with the lecturer being observed, and this reduced attention on both the lecturers and the students. Reliability was ensured by the fact that data were gathered at the end of the academic year, when students had been with the lecturers long enough to give reliable information about how they perceived their communication during instruction. The external validity of the study was increased by researching the unit of analysis, lecturers' instructional communication, from different data sources; lecturers, students and researcher. Face validity was increased by testing the data gathering instruments through a pilot study before the main study was conducted. Content validity was increased by using experts (statistician, supervisor, research expert) for comments and input on the items of the measures. Construct validity was increased by using constructs from previously developed, tried and tested measuring scales.

1.8. Data analysis

Data analysis was done from a mixed methods design data analysis approach although qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods were used. I followed a reiterative process of analysing the data as I had to move back and forth between the literature review, methodology section, analysis and report writing stages, guided by the research questions to be answered. I prepared the data gathered from the interviews by first transcribing the interviews using the Express Dictate Software (Addendum11) for analysis. The transcripts were then organised, stored and explored for analysis through the WEFT QDAS (Addendum19), where three themes; immediacy, clarity and credibility were generated guided by the General Model of Instructional Communication and literature on instructional communication. A coding manual (Addendum12) with codes and themes was developed which became the guiding principle upon which the survey and observations were analysed. I employed content data analysis strategies for the qualitative data gathered and inferential and statistical analysis for the quantitative data.

1.9. Possible constraints of the study

Possible constraints in the study needed to be identified early and addressed so as not to interfere with the investigation. I identified the following constraints in this study and addressed them accordingly:

- Emphatic neutrality in fulfilling the role of observer and not participant, with the possibility of influencing the participants' behaviours. The fact that there were other people present in the lecture hall minimised this constraint as attention was distributed among the people in the room.
- The possibility of face-to-face interviews being both subjective and personal was counteracted by using other methods of data gathering such as lecture observations and questionnaires, through different sources – the researcher and the students.
- The time of collecting data may have been a constraint which could have influenced the data that would be given and so I liaised with the participants for a 'safe' period of data gathering which appeared to be after lectures had ceased.
- If the researcher is not immersed in the situation, he/she might be seen not to understand what they are observing. My experience as a lecturer in Basic Communication Skills and English courses suggested to the participants that I knew what I was doing.
- Other constraints included seating arrangements, most of which were U-shaped and therefore, made hiding the faces of the students during videotaping, difficult to protect their identity. Their faces would be blurred during viewing. Lecturer availability might have been another constraint and this meant that I scheduled my activities around their schedules, fortunately, all lecturers availed themselves. The history between the participants and I as both a researcher and a colleague to them meant that I had to clarify my role to them from the outset. A detailed discussion of these constraints is given in Chapter Three.

1.10. Organisation of the study

The outline of the study is in three sections, front matter, interrogation and back matter. The front matter presents dedications, acknowledgements, an abstract of the study, table of contents, lists of abbreviations and acronyms, tables, figures, and addenda, used in the study, and the statement of declaration of authorship and waiver. The interrogation follows the structure of the study chapters. The first chapter gives the background, which presents the rationale of the study, introduces the research questions, contextualisation of the study, clarifies key concepts to be used

in the study, the scope of the study, research design and methodology, data analysis, possible constraints and the organisation of the study. In the second chapter, I review literature on lecturers' instructional communication, by explaining the General Model of Instructional Communication, perceptions in education, and the components: immediacy, clarity and credibility in IC in English. The third chapter explains the selected research philosophy and methodology followed in the investigation. It also presents a detailed description of the research design according to the steps followed in mixed method research. The chapter concludes with an explanation of how ethical considerations were addressed and validation of the instruments was done. In the fourth chapter I present an analysis and interpretation of the data gathered, by presenting the lecturers' and the students' perceptions and the researcher's observations, with examples to enrich the presentation of my study and relate the findings to the literature review. Chapter Four ends with a discussion of the findings and speaks to the nature of lecturers' IC in English and how the perceptions of lecturers' IC suggests lecturers' instructional competence, in higher education, with recommendations. Chapter Five presents an overview of the study and the conclusions arrived at (methodological and the research questions). The final chapter, Chapter Six discusses the implications and limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research. The back matter includes references and addenda for additional information on the study.

1.11. Conclusion

Instructional communication (IC) is a field of research that has been studied since the 1970s but predominantly outside South Africa. This study sought to explore the constructs of IC, within the South African context since IC is at the core of students' behavioural, cognitive and social learning. There is a need to establish what the situation is within lecture halls as lecturers and students interact with each other because this information might indicate how lecturers communicate with their students and whether they are competent in their instruction or not. Care needs to be taken in how lecturer-student communication interactions manifest themselves. This is so because lecturers need to be at the forefront in modelling and guiding students in their communication process. Each interaction has the potential to either build a relationship or destroy it. Ineffective lecturer-student communication presents with it the possibility of reduced student academic success and ruptured academic

progress. Now that this chapter has outlined the plan for this research report in terms of the rationale for this study, the research questions to be answered and the methodology followed in the investigation, the next chapter will review what other researchers say about the field of IC by defining it and clarifying the components: immediacy, clarity and credibility during teaching and learning.

2. Review of literature

2.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented an overview of the study, on exploring the nature of lecturers' IC in English through the lecturers' and the students' perceptions of it. Instruction and communication are key factors in facilitating students' behavioural, cognitive and social learning, which ought to lead to positive attitudinal change (Richmond, 2001; McCroskey et al., 2004; Choudhury, 2005; Ferreira, 2006; Conners, 2007). As Simonds (1997, p. 279) asserts a teacher can have expert knowledge in the subject, but if that is not communicated in an understandable way, learning will not be achieved effectively. This puts communication at the centre of any classroom context; the classroom is a place where both the instructor and the students mutually influence learning (Simonds, 1997; Waldeck et al., 2010). Evans (2005) defines communication as "a functional, dynamic process whereby two or more participants conveniently share meaning" (p.34). In a social setting, communication is a process that keeps evolving depending on the participants, the message, the medium used to convey the message and the context within which it is taking place, hence the different models of communication as action, interaction and transaction (Mottet & Beebe, 2006; West & Turner, 2010). Communication in a social setting is often less demanding; it can be done for conversational, persuasive, narrative, descriptive and even imperative purposes. However, an instructional setting puts great demands on both parties involved. This is because, effective instructional communication is expository and it should lead to increased learning with positive evaluation of what has been learned. Understanding the need to decode in an instructional context, the anticipated primary outcome of any instructional communication becomes learning, whether cognitive, affective or both (McCroskey et al., 2004). As such, lecturers are expected to be good communicators, competent in their instruction and expert in their field.

In this chapter, I present a thematic review of the research undertaken in the field of IC. The General Model of Instructional Communication is examined in more depth. Immediacy, clarity and credibility are examined according to the literature pertaining to them. Instructional competences as pedagogical and professional skills are reviewed from the perspective of the literature on those topics. There is a brief

discussion of perceptions in terms of the latest research so that the act of perception (in relation to both lecturers and students of the IC of lecturers) is contextualised from its biological base. But what is instructional communication?

2.2. Instructional communication (IC)

This study was guided by three key definitions of IC. The first is Simonds' (2001) definition of IC as "a field of study that informs educators of all disciplines about the communication skills necessary to function competently in the classroom" (p.1). This definition, acknowledges the primacy of good communication skills during instruction, but leaves out other elements related to instruction that more than just communication is needed, for "students' affective learning (i.e., learning related to positive attitude and liking toward the course) and cognitive learning (i.e., learning related to the knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of course material)" (Waldeck et al., 2010, p. 2), to occur. Communication and competence are linked as essential for successful classroom discourse. The second is by Wrench and associates (2009) which says that IC is "a process in which the teacher selects and arranges what the students are to learn (the content), decides how best to help them learn (the instructional strategy) and determine how success in learning would be determined and how students' progress would be communicated to them (evaluation/feedback)" (p.4). This definition expands that of Simonds' and speaks to the practical issue of clarity by including the skill of selecting and arranging the content, deciding on the best instructional strategy and the crucial matter of measuring students' success and progress in learning. This last is achieved by giving student feedback. It confirms that successful instruction needs to be intentional, well thought out and planned and the feedback and evaluation component has to be similarly developed. Richmond and associates (2001) present the third definition of IC as a process of establishing both effective (focusing on what is communicated, how it is 'packaged' and how teachers and students let each other know how they are doing) and affective (focusing on how teachers and students feel about each other, about the communication process and about what is being taught and learned) communication relationships. The definitions extend IC to entail competence in both communication and instruction to facilitate both effective and affective learning.

The emergence of studies on IC during the 1970s set the scene for the development of a new research area not limited to the teaching of communication alone, but to communication as integral to teaching in any discipline. Up until the 1980s the focus was on communication in the instructional context based in logical empiricism. One example of such a study is that of Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) on communication correlates of teacher clarity, conducted at an American university. Myers (2010), reminds readers that "instructional communication is considered to be a unique area of study rooted in the tripartite field of research conducted among educational psychology, pedagogy, and communication studies scholars" (p.149). What was believed to be crucial was " particular communicative behaviours, traits, or attributes used by instructors with their students; these behaviours were believed to be linked to students' reports of their affective, behavioural, or cognitive learning; students' assessments of their instructors' positive teaching practices; and students' perceptions of effective classroom communication management practices" (Myers, 2010, p. 150). These studies point towards the role of instructor communication in facilitating learning, across disciplines.

Three trajectories of research have continued to be prominent according to Myers (2010) and they are "instructor nonverbal immediacy ... communication apprehension ... instructor credibility" (p.152). These topics have been examined in relation to students and school pupils, lecturers, professors, research assistants, student affect, receiver apprehension, misbehaviours, verbal aggression, among others, internationally. I now provide a brief review of the most prominent streams of research (1998-2009) as a summary both in the American context and in other countries.

2.3. The General Model of Instructional Communication (conceptual framework)

Instructional communication has been viewed from two general approaches – the 'relational approach' which relates to the transactional model of interpersonal communication, where teachers and students mutually exchange information for shared understanding (McCroskey et al., 2004; Eadie, 2009b; Hybels & Weaver, 2012). Mottet and Beebe (2006) argue that, "The rhetorical approach to instructional communication ... is derived from classical rhetorical theory and contemporary

scholarship relating to influence via person-to-group communication” (p. 198). This approach assumes that in instruction teachers are the primary source of information (along with teacher-selected reading matter and other instructional aids) and that the students are the receivers/learners. In this approach, instructional communication is seen as a teacher- controlled, linear process where the teacher is the person primarily responsible for creating messages which will stimulate teacher-selected meanings in students' minds (learning)" (Ibid, p.158). It was only in 2004 that McCroskey, Valencic and Richmond proposed The General Model of Instructional Communication (GMIC) which is rhetorical in origin, and has since become the foundation of studies in instructional communication (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006; Montalvo & Mansfield, 2007; Elliot, 2008; Katt et al., 2009; Burgoon, Floyd, & Guerrero, 2010), which is the conceptual framework of this study. This study too, has the GMIC as its conceptual framework. The model has six essential components: teachers, students' perceptions (of teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours), students' perceptions (of teachers' source credibility and task attractiveness), instructional outcomes, students' temperament (intelligence, experience), and the instructional environment. These are illustrated in Figure 2.1.

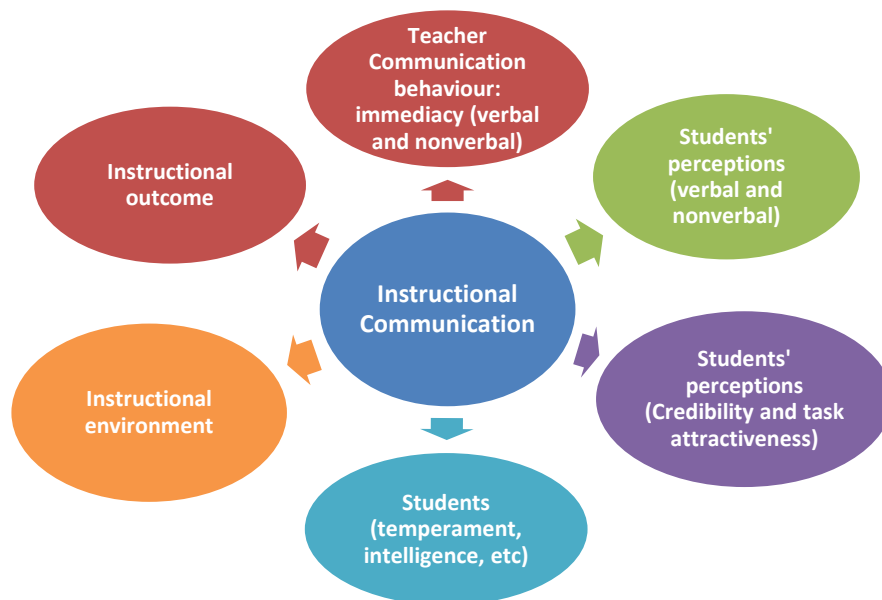


Figure 2.1: The General Model of Instructional Communication

According to the model, teachers' communication behaviours (verbal and nonverbal) are associated with assertiveness, responsiveness and impact the meanings stimulated in the students' minds (Katt et al., 2009). Student perceptions of the

lecturer are generated primarily on the basis of the teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours – what the teacher says and how he/she says it. Student perceptions are of the source's (lecturer's) credibility which includes hers/his competence, trustworthiness and goodwill or caring attitude. The attractiveness of the task is also one of the measures of interpersonal attraction (Katt et al., 2009). The model also acknowledges that students are the recipients of instructional communication and they bring to it intelligence, personality and temperament, prior learning, socio-economic status, religion and many more elements, emotions and feelings, that impact the way students perceive their teachers and teachers' communication behaviours (Ibid). Katt et al. (2009), state that teachers are obviously as important as students in an instructional context, but they bring different things to the instructional context. Much depends on their knowledge of content, knowledge of methodology, level of intelligence, experience, communication competence, education, personality, temperament. McCroskey and associates (2004) point out that teachers have their own perceptions of how they communicate with their students. In addition, each student or lecturer creates perceptions of the other either before, during or after an instructional interaction. In the model, the instructional environment includes the nature of the institution hosting the instruction, the nature of the classrooms, the culture of the institution, the level of instruction among others (Ibid). The primary outcome for instructional according to McCroskey, and his associates is concerned with learning which might be cognitive, affective and in some classrooms, psychomotor and for teachers student evaluations. This has not been included in my study as the focus was on the lecturers. That becomes a study on its own.

My study explored only three components of the model; teacher communication behaviours (immediacy), students' perceptions of their teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours and students' perceptions of teacher clarity and credibility. The choice to forgo the other components of the model was motivated by the need to explore what happens during instruction as lecturers and students interacted with each other and not before or after instruction. The components I chose to focus on are the ones which would best provide well-validated data to explore how approachable the lecturers are during instruction, how clear they are when they present content to their students and how believable they

are so that students can learn effectively from them. Lastly, I see these components as setting the stage for attaining the other components during instruction because students need to be relaxed in the company of a lecturer that they understand and find believable if they are to participate in any task that the lecturers introduces, achieve any outcomes that the lecturer sets out, and find the environment conducive for effective learning.

I now review literature on the components of IC to be considered in this study in terms the key findings; presenting a critical evaluation of the research and the gaps in the research, culminating in the implications of the literature.

2.4. Instructor immediacy

Immediacy as a concept in sociology, introduced by Merhabian in 1969/1971 (Richmond, 2001), and has since formed the basis of a number of studies in instructional communication (IC) (Edwards & Edwards, 2002; Brophy, 2004; Zhang, Oetzel, Gao, Wilcox, & Takai, 2007). Researchers (Richmond et al., 2001; Mottet & Richmond, 2002; McLean, 2007; Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2007), agree that immediacy is the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between instructors and learners. IC has made fruitful use of the concept since antiquity: "Scholars have made use of the approach–avoidance distinction for well over 2000 years. It first appeared in the writing of the ancient Greek philosopher Democritus of Abdera (460–370 B.C.E.)" (Elliot, 2008, p. 4). The connection between approach-avoidance theory and instructor/lecturer immediacy derives from the belief that students are drawn to lecturers they trust and perceive as competent and caring (Merhabian, 1981 in Witt, 2001; Mottet & Richmond, 2002; Brophy, 2004). However, immediacy as a concept is deeply rooted in our biological selves - related as it is to approach-avoidance behaviour which operates at protozoan level. Elliot (2008) asserts that "Approach motivation may be defined as the energization of behavior by, or the direction of behavior toward, positive stimuli (objects, events, possibilities), whereas avoidance motivation may be defined as the energization of behavior by, or the direction of behavior away from, negative stimuli (objects, events, possibilities)" (p.8). Further, the energisation can be physical or psychological and the thing approached or avoided can exist externally or it can be an internal representation. Another significant factor is explained by Elliot (2008), " ... approach motivation not

only encompasses promoting new positive situations, but also maintaining and sustaining existing positive situations, and avoidance motivation not only encompasses preventing new negative situations, but also escaping from and rectifying existing negative situations" (p.8). Burgoon, Floyd and Guerrero (2010) ground their research on immediacy directly on approach-avoidance theory. Richmond's (2001) research led him to the conclusion that "the more communicators employ immediate behaviours, the more others will like them, evaluate highly and prefer" (p.68). Similarly, the less communicators employ immediate behaviours, the more others will dislike, evaluate negatively and reject such communicators (Ibid).

2.4.1. Liking/affiliation

Liking and affiliation are based on the assumption that "if teachers create a positive affect towards the school, the subject, and the teacher, then the students will spend more time on the task, leading to higher achievements in both the cognitive and psychomotor domains" (Sorensen & Christophel, 1992, p. 38). Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) assert that when immediacy is enhanced in interpersonal relationships, liking, affiliation and affect will be increased. Montalvo and Mansfield (2007) suggest that when students like a teacher, they experience motivational and achievement benefits. Therefore, instructors need to be proficient verbal and nonverbal communicators to interact with the students effectively but also to model these communication behaviours. They need to become more aware of their verbal and nonverbal communication during instruction, so that they become better receivers of students' messages and also that they are better positioned to send positive signals that reinforce students' learning (Santilli, Miller, & Katt, 2011). Instructors' verbal and nonverbal behaviours differ from one teacher to another, bringing variables into the instructional context and these in turn are taken in by the students. As a result, the more instructors communicate with their students, the more they develop communication behaviours, which students observe and form opinions/impressions about, learning by observation. However, instructor verbal and nonverbal behaviours can send conflicting messages.

2.4.2. Conflicting messages

Babad (2009) warns that although human communication integrates verbal and nonverbal dimensions, it is important that verbal and nonverbal messages are in agreement because if not the conflicting messages will cause confusion, leading to

negative students' attitude, affects and learning. This is also related to cognitive dissonance in that people feel discomfort as a result of inconsistent attitudes, thoughts and behaviours (Evans, 2006; West & Turner, 2010). Verbal and nonverbal behaviours also communicate the sender or the receiver's power in the communication context.

2.4.3. Power

Immediacy behaviours determine the amount of power and affect a teacher has on his/her students (Richmond, 2001). According to Waldeck and associates (2010), speaking of behaviour alteration techniques (BATs), it is a fact that "According to instructional communication researchers, we can strategically and positively influence student behavior by communicating our power in a prosocial manner versus an anti-social manner" (p.3). Prosocial behaviour such as reward or praise works well, and anti-social behaviour such as punishment does not work well. Much as power is an issue in the lecture hall, immediacy is not without drawbacks and as Richmond (2001) suggests, immediate teachers might be perceived to be not having control over their classrooms, might be seen to be 'pushovers' to some students and that not everyone can be immediate in the same way.

Immediacy has two forms; verbal and nonverbal (Wrench et al., 2009) which are critical for instructional communication (IC) and communication competence (Worley, Titsworth, Worley, & Cornett-DeVito, 2007). The use of verbal and nonverbal immediacy is known to increase the willingness of the audience to engage in contexts even outside the classroom (Albers, 2001). I now discuss the two aspects of immediacy.

2.4.4. Verbal immediacy

Verbal immediacy, which refers to oral interactions such as speech, asking and answering questions and discussions are only some of the instructional communication (IC) activities (Tuan & Nhu, 2010). Moreno and Mayer (2007) refer to this as *multimodal learning environment*, where students are presented with a verbal representation of the content and a corresponding visual representation of the content. Immediacy through the use of words in terms of approach-avoidance theory would have the effect that what lecturers say can either draw their students to them or create a distance. The use of a range of important verbal techniques is necessary

to sustain the attention and benevolence of an audience. These techniques are to do with elementary successful speech behaviours - appropriate pause, changing pace and rate of delivery, modulating the voice through change of pitch, use of emphasis and attention to tone and volume (Payne, 2004). If an Instructional communicator uses expressions of proximity (this versus that); sustains the audience's and their own attention for the lecture (duration of attention); exhibits humour/friendliness; demonstrates willingness to become involved in a conversation with students/allows for small talk; engages in self-disclosure/openness; asks questions that solicit students' opinion; follows up on students' initiated topics of discussion; meets with students outside the classroom, uses personal example/ownership statements - 'our' instead of 'my'; uses syntactic expressions of present or past tense verbs; makes probability statements – 'will' versus 'might'; uses inclusive references – 'we' versus 'I', and calls students by name (Richmond, 2001; Rocca, 2007; Wrench et al., 2009; Witt, Schrodtt, & Turman, 2010), they are exhibiting verbal immediacy. A further point about verbal immediacy which (Stronge, 2007) points out is that students taught by teachers with greater verbal ability were found to learn more than those taught by teachers with lower verbal ability.

2.4.4.1. Proxemics, references and ownership statements and verbal immediacy

Kamio (2001) defines proxemics as the "general space perceived by the speaker based on his general cognitive capacity" (p. 1113). Kamio adds that the space can be divided into two levels: distal signified by the use of 'that' in sentences, which suggests that the referent is away from the speaker and proximal, signified by the use of 'this' which suggests that the referent is closer to the speaker. These levels will be observed during lectures to establish the closeness between the lecturers and the students in their conversation as a component of lecturers' verbal immediacy. Therefore, in an educational setting, an instructor who uses a lot of the distal demonstrative 'that' and less of the proximal demonstrative 'this' will be perceived to be removed from the conversation. The use of personal pronouns is known to be central to face-to-face interaction as they define impersonal relationships between the speakers and the levels of involvement, creating rapport in a learning environment (Fortanet, 2004). Bluestein (2003) makes a distinction between I-messages or I-statements and You-messages and You-statements in that the 'I' focuses on the speaker while the 'you' focuses on the other person. She adds that

the 'I' emphasises the first person pronoun and is usually used to express assertiveness and ownership for one's feelings while the 'You' emphasises the second person pronoun and is used to blame or accuse the other person of one's feelings. Fortanet adds another personal pronoun 'we' which he asserts expresses positive politeness while he views 'you' and 'I' to be distancing, causing negative politeness. Therefore the use of the pronoun 'you' and 'I' are seen to be "psychologically very distant" in a conversation while 'we' is seen to reflect the highest closeness (Kamio, 2001). It is important that instructors use the pronouns correctly to create rapport during instruction and thereby facilitate interaction.

2.4.4.2. *Humour*

Instructors' use of humour, is seen as a type of verbal immediacy behaviour which contributes towards building student-teacher relationships (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006). Humour can be positive as in teacher's use of jokes, riddles, pun, funny stories and funny comments or negative as in sarcasm, sexual humour, ethnic humour, aggressive humour or hostile humour (Frymier, Wanzer, & Wojtaszczyk, 2008). Another type of positive humour is "language play" which Bell (2005) found might "result in deeper processing of lexical items making them more memorable, thus helpful in the acquisition of vocabulary and semantic fields" (p. 193). Frymier and associates differentiate between appropriate and inappropriate humour. They found that students are more likely to view instructor humour as inappropriate when it is perceived as offensive and when it demeans students as a group or individually. In another study Wanzer, Frymier and Irwin (2010) found that humour was positively associated with student learning and should be used appropriately (Worley et al., 2007). Humour is known to create a positive atmosphere, keep learners' attention and can reduce stress in both the learner and the teacher (Domizio, 2008). Humour, if used properly is known to allow shy or timid students to participate and feel part of the class without losing face, feeling exposed or vulnerable (Chiasson, 2002). Azizinezhad and Hashemi (2011) add that humour helps to keep students interested and motivated during instruction, by reducing tension, improving classroom atmosphere and increasing enjoyment. Lecturers are perceived as communicating to their students that they care about them when they do use humour, laughing with them or allowing them to laugh during instruction. However, Chiasson (2002) points out that humour appears to be less used by many educators because they claim to

lack knowledge on how to use it effectively in class and is often associated with non-productivity.

2.4.4.3. *Verbal cues and verbal tics*

Instructor verbal immediacy includes verbal cues (Gorham & Christophel, 1992), verbal tics and teacher-talk (TT) in IC discourse (Conners, 2007). Verbal cues are filler words, sometimes referred to as ‘discourse markers’, which are viewed as apparent meaningless, syntax-independent words, phrases, or sounds that mark a pause or hesitation in speech, such as *um, uh, er, ah, like, okay, right, and you know* (Fichten, Tagalakis, Judd, Wright, & Amsel, 1992). However, Hybels and Weaver (2012) warn that hesitation forms like ‘*uh*’ and ‘*you know*’ make speakers sound uncertain and if used by teachers, they might be perceived by students as lack of confidence or content knowledge. Verbal tics can be simple noises that a person makes, i.e. sniffing, throat clearing, snorting, squeaking, humming and coughing or meaningful utterances sometimes phrases repeated unnecessarily, outbursts and swear words (Conners, 2007). Paralinguistic cues as nonverbal elements of speech are used to modify or nuance meaning, or convey emotion, such as pitch of voice, tone, inflection, tempo and filler words” (Hybels & Weaver, 2012)¹.

2.4.4.4. *Teacher-talk*

Teacher-talk is viewed as another element of verbal immediacy. It entails lecturing, explanations, giving instructions, asking questions or simply directing the whole class discussion (Kyriacou, 1998). According to Krashen’s theory of Comprehensible Input (as he explains the natural method of second language acquisition), teacher-talk is essential when both the teacher and the students negotiate input (Krashen, 1982). When input happens during those moments that students go into ‘silent periods’ teacher-talk is essential but it must be comprehensible to produce learning. Choudhury (2005) says that teacher-talk “is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive” (p.79). In the case of this study English. It is therefore not surprising that it is regarded as one of the important aspects of effective teaching (Kyriacou, 1998). Hybels and Weaver (2012) refer to this as ‘Powerful Talk’ and point out that people who engage in it are

¹ Paralinguistic refers to *how* we say something as opposed to *what* we say and should not be confused with ‘Tourette Syndrome’ which Conners (2007) believes is involuntary and caused by a chemical imbalance in the brain.

found to be more credible, more attractive, and more persuasive than those who do not. This is supported by a study conducted by Walsh (2002), where he investigated to what extent teacher-talk, which he refers to as teacher talking time (TTT), becomes a construction or obstruction. Walsh found that teacher interruptions are less desirable as a feature of classroom discourse as they limit the frequency and quality of student contributions, and minimises learning opportunities; and that teacher echoing, was found to simplify a student's contributions so that other learners could hear, but was also found to be possibly obstructive in that it disrupted the flow of the discourse. In a study Evans (2006), found that teachers did not pause sufficiently, or were inclined to give instructions and then fill in the silence with repetitive comments and distracting remarks and this is a concern in instruction. Therefore the question is not how much teacher-talk there is in a lesson, but what kind of teacher-talk there is quality versus quantity, both of which need to be monitored (Peppard, 2009; Silver & Kogut, 2009; Power, 2013).

While TTT has its benefits, it is also important that it does not dominate instruction but students are also able to talk (Student-talk, ST). This will lead to "Student-centred learning" as suggested by Froyd and Simpson (2008), when they describe a shift from an 'Instructional Paradigm' (transfer knowledge from lecturer to students) at universities to a "Learning Paradigm" in which universities produce learning through students discovering and constructing knowledge. As a result instructors/lecturers need to give up some authority to encourage students to participate (Lei, 2009). There is therefore, a need for lecturers to maintain a balance between TT and ST if they are to facilitate effective learning.

The purpose of teachers talking generally is to stimulate cognitive learning (Choudhury, 2005; Conners, 2007). If TT is characterised by teacher-learner or learner-learner interactions which are unbalanced learning does not necessarily happen. Traditional teacher-learner interactions are characterised by the teacher asking students questions and students answering the questions and vice versa with students spending time sitting, listening and taking notes passively (Tuan & Nhu, 2010). This is not an optimal learning method. When lecturers ask students questions, and the students are encouraged to talk, this reduces the psychological distance between the lecturers and the students (Richmond, 2001; Rocca, 2007; Stronge, 2007; Wrench et al., 2009; Witt et al., 2010). In a classroom context both

the teacher and the students need to take turns to talk and their roles change - at one stage the teacher becomes the sender of the message with the students as the recipients and at another stage the teacher becomes the recipient when the students become the sender(s) as they negotiate meaning (Walsh, 2002 ; Power, 2013).

2.4.4.5. *Self-disclosure*

In a study by Lannutti & Strauman (2006), instructional self-disclosure when perceived as honest, positive, and intentional was associated with more positive evaluations of the instructor. In a study conducted by Cayanus, Martin and Goodboy (2009) the results indicated that when lecturers disclose information that is viewed as being relevant, students are more likely to participate actively in class and to ask questions that directly relate to the course. However, this was contradicted in a study by Zhai (2012) where it was found that there was no significant relationship between amount of instructor self-disclosure and positive evaluations of the instructor. Many factors can influence this situation (Clayson & Haley, 2011).

2.4.5. Nonverbal immediacy behaviours

Instructional communication (IC) research has determined that behaviours such as student and teacher body language – facial expressions, kinesics/movement, eye contact, proximity, haptic, space, gestures, vocal variety, relaxed body posture, looking very little at the board/notes, professional but more casual dress code - constitute immediacy (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Richmond, 2001; Rocca, 2007; Worley et al., 2007; Witt et al., 2010), and are highly affective teaching and communication behaviours (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Hybels & Weaver, 2012). Early researchers labelled these behaviours as “teacher enthusiasm” or “teacher expressiveness” while communication researchers labelled them as “immediacy behaviours” (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). Dagarin (2004) and Hybels and Weaver (2012) suggest that 95% of communication is nonverbal with 57% through facial expression, posture and gesture and 38% through tone of voice. This shows how most of our communication is dominated by nonverbal behaviours. In instructional communication, just as in interpersonal communication, these nonverbal messages might express meaning, modify/expand, complement, accent, repeat, substitute or contradict verbal messages or regulate the flow of interaction (Hybels & Weaver, 2012), encode and decode messages, define communicative competence,

serve as teaching strategies and in classroom management and as part of the foreign language culture to facilitate comprehension (Allen, 1999).

2.4.5.1. Impact of nonverbal behaviours

In a social context, people use nonverbal communication to coordinate and approach or avoid interaction with others (Burgoon et al., 2010) which is the same during interactions between the instructor and the students. Instructors need to be aware of their Nonverbal behaviours (NVBs) in the classroom because this will allow them to become better receivers of their students' messages, and better senders of signals that reinforce learning and increase the degree of perceived psychological closeness between them and their students (Ginsberg, 2007). It is important that instructors are always conscious of their movements and nonverbal expressions as they tell the learners much about their attitude, sincerity, expectations and interest in their well-being and give the students the assurance that the teacher likes them and has their best interest at heart (Nieman, 2006).

Teacher NBVs in the classroom help to improve affect or liking for the subject matter and to increase the desire to learn more about the subject matter (Allen, 1999; Babad, 2009). This is because students are more likely to listen more, learn more and have a more positive attitude about school/university when the teacher improves affect through appropriate nonverbal immediacy (Richmond, 2001). (Quinlisk, 2008) found that NVBs send powerful messages about emotions and feelings, attitudes and relationships and thereby shape the mood and direction for interaction; they also increase impressions of likeability, trust, warmth and approachability. Because this is so, NBVs signal power and immediacy in teacher-student relationships. Instructors who maintain eye-contact, are perceived to be relaxed and those who use gestures, smile, move around during instruction, share space with their students and employ vocal expressions, are regarded as being immediate by their learners (Teven & Hanson, 2004; Okon, 2011). Lecturers who send verbal messages that conflict with nonverbal messages, can confuse students and this might impact learning negatively (Santilli et al., 2011).

Boyd (2000) conducted a study in which he investigated NVBs of effective teachers of at-risk African-American male middle school. Teachers who were perceived to be effective were frequently in close proximity, changed their voice inflections,

established eye-contact, invaded students' territories and gestured to students. Another study conducted by Pribyl, Sakamoto and Keaton (2004) showed a positive relationship between reported levels of teacher nonverbal immediacy and student motivation, a negative relationship between reported levels of teacher nonverbal immediacy and perceived learning loss, and a negative relationship between student motivation (SM) and perceived learning loss.

Teacher nonverbal immediacy was identified to have both direct and indirect effects on students' interest in persisting with their studies (Wheeless, Witt, Maresh, Bryand, & Schrod, 2011), contributing towards increasing student retention rate. These studies attest to the importance of instructor nonverbal immediacy during instruction in terms of what the students value, and as to how it facilitates learning.

Liando (2010) conducted a study in Indonesia, in which he compared students' and teachers' perspectives on best teacher character in EFL classrooms. Despite some differences in the degree of responses towards NVBs, both teachers and students agreed that teachers should look at the whole class while teaching, smile at the whole class and have a relaxed body positioning when talking to the students. The study further showed that students valued it when teachers changed vocal behaviours, addressed students by name, used personal examples or talked about personal experiences. The students preferred teachers who were friendly and 'nice' to those who made the course interesting, challenging the students academically. All the teachers in the study agreed that a teacher should be able to explain things well, enthusiastic, fair, friendly, humorous, nice, and, patient.

Other nonverbal behaviours (NBVs) are related to a range of different things such as lecturer appearance, gesture, facial expression, eye contact, vocal issues, movement, touch and time management, which I will now discuss.

2.4.5.2. Lecturer appearance

Physical appearance such as clothing, make-up, cosmetics, jewellery, adornment, and body shape amongst others, plays a role in inviting students to interact with the lecturer, or not. These things impact on the communicator's perceived credibility, trustworthiness and likeability and influence patterns of communication (De Vito, O'Rourke, & O'Neill, 2000; Cunny & Wilde, 2004; Quinlisk, 2008; Lightstone, Francis, & Kocum, 2011; Peng, 2011; Hybels & Weaver, 2012; Dunbar & Segrin, 2012).

Learners might perceive instructors differently depending on their appearance and as a result instructors need to be mindful of how they appear before their learners.

2.4.5.3. *Gestures*

Cunneely and Wilde (2004) call the NBVs of gestures 'adapters', which instructors and learners use to adapt to their environment, for example, when students are anxious or if the teacher is boring (Richmond, 2001). These adapters however, can be distracting and are often related to speaker aggressiveness (Cunneely & Wilde, 2004). Where teachers and students show very little gesturing or none at all, they might be perceived to be boring and unanimated or receptive and immediate or non-immediate and unreceptive (Richmond, 2001). Therefore, instructors need to use gestures appropriately so as to communicate messages effectively.

2.4.5.4. *Facial expressions*

Gaze is one of the most significant mammalian NBVs as Shepherd, Klein, Deaner and Platt (2009) explain, "People naturally and intuitively share attention with each other. In a laboratory setting, people respond more quickly to targets that are the object of another's attention, even when this social cuing is brief or consistently misleading", (p. 9489). In the lecture hall the students gaze at the lecturer as she/he speaks. The face is one of the most important parts of the body for reading meaning. Babies who are new-born look longer at happy faces than fearful ones (Farroni, Menon, Rigato, & Johnson, 2007). Facial expressions remain some of the most powerful of all NBVs (Izard, 1994). Richmond (2001) points out that "teachers' facial expressions can affect how students feel about the classroom environment" (p.72). Students can perceive a teacher with a dull, boring facial expression as uninterested in the subject matter and in them. Similarly, a teacher with a pleasing facial expression is perceived to be interested in both the subject matter and the students (Cunneely & Wilde, 2004; Quinlisk, 2008; Hybels & Weaver, 2012). An instructor's facial expression goes a long way towards encouraging learners to approach the instructor or not.

2.4.5.5. *Eye behaviour*

Eye behaviour of both students and instructors plays an important role during instruction. Eyes and gaze patterns and length of eye contact have increasingly been the subject of neuroscientific studies. The connection between emotions, feelings

and eyes is explained by Roseman (2008) "The eyes and the muscles immediately around them are central to the facial expression of most emotions Humans, unlike other primates, have evolved very white scleras that make the eyes more visible. The greater contrast between the eye and the rest of the face makes it easier to discern emotion expressions, and also to divine where the other person is directing their attention. Both of these become increasingly valuable in complex social groups ... "(p.375). Eye behaviour is a powerful means of affecting behaviour and interactions between the lecturers and students, from direct eye contact to scanning the classroom (De Vito et al., 2000; Richmond, 2001; Ledbury, White, & Darn, 2004; Cunny & Wilde, 2004; Nieman & Monyai, 2006; Gregersen, 2007). This includes information conveyed by the eyes in eye contact - honesty, credibility, warmth and involvement (Hybels & Weaver, 2012), or threat, contempt, disapproval, dismissal (Izard, 1994; Roseman, 2008). Instructor's use of their eyes communicates much more than just sight.

2.4.5.6. Vocal behaviour

Tone of voice plays a very important role during instruction in that "students learn less, are less interested in the subject matter, like the class less when teachers use a monotone voice" (Richmond, 2001, p. 74). Richmond adds that students prefer lively, animated voices while good teachers laugh and allow students to laugh as a way to release tension and to relax. This view is supported by other studies (Simonds, Meyer, Quinlan, & Hunt, 2006; Patrick, Hisley, & Kempler, 2007; Peng, 2011; Hsu, 2011).

2.4.5.7. Movement and space

How space is shared in an instructional environment can be affective in that instructors who stand behind the podium, or in one place throughout instruction and rarely approach the students or allow the students to approach them, create a nonverbal barrier between them and their students and are perceived to be unfriendly and unreceptive, unapproachable, non-immediate and hamper student-teacher relationships (Richmond, 2001; Nieman, 2006; McArthur, 2008). Other studies (Cunny & Wilde, 2004; Georgakopoulos & Guerrero, 2010; West & Turner, 2010; Peng, 2011; Hybels & Weaver, 2012) confirm this. Similarly, poor student posture can be perceived as being bored or not interested in the course material.

2.4.7.8. *Touch*

Stamatis (2011) asserts that this is the most important of all senses as it ‘turns on’ sight, hearing, smell and taste, stimulates language and communication, promotes bond and attachment, among other functions. Touch is known to convey emotional communication, attachment, body compliance, intimacy and liking (Hertenstein, Verkamp, Kerestes, & Holmes, 2006), encouragement and caring (Quinlisk, 2008), support, appreciation, inclusiveness, immediacy and trust (De Vito et al., 2000; Richmond, 2001; Guéguen, 2004; Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Worley et al., 2007; Hybels & Weaver, 2012).

2.4.5.8. *Time*

The instructor’s time of arrival for instruction is an important immediacy aspect in that students will not take kindly to the instructor arriving late and might even perceive him/her not to be serious about the material to be presented. Management of time is important in immediacy. Immediacy can be enhanced by setting time aside for previews of the material to be covered and reviews of what was covered in the previous lessons or as a way to sum up a lesson (Cunneen & Wilde, 2004).

2.4.5.9. *Culture and nonverbal behaviours (NVBs)*

Nonverbal communication presents a potential barrier in classroom teaching and learning because nonverbal messages differ from culture to culture and from context to context (McCroskey, Sallinen, Fayer, Richmond, & Barraclough, 1996; Witt et al., 2010; Hybels & Weaver, 2012). In a classroom interaction, both lecturers and students bring with them the values and attitudes of their own cultures, which they will use to interpret others’ NVBs (Choudhury, 2005), and thus could lead to misinterpretation and misunderstanding. A study conducted by Georgakopoulos and Guerrero (2010) researched how cultures differ in many ways - low versus high power distance cultures; contact versus noncontact cultures; collectivist versus individualistic cultures and low versus high context cultures. However, Özmen’s study (2011) in Japan, Turkey and the USA revealed that while the perception of nonverbal immediacy varies across cultures, the student teachers from these cultures found its use in influencing teaching to be indispensable. A consequence of this is that instruments used to measure immediacy should be developed with care so as not to be biased towards the students from other cultural backgrounds.

2.4.5.10. Positive classroom outcomes

Several studies confirm that immediacy behaviours are associated with more positive classroom outcomes such as student motivation, student satisfaction, increased cognitive learning and student evaluations (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Richmond, 2001; Allen, Witt, & Wheelless, 2006; Zeki, 2009; Witt et al., 2010); more positive affect towards course and instructors, greater motivation to learn, greater achievement and greater perceptions of control (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Velez & Cano, 2008; Babad, 2009) and are positively related to student attendance in class (Rocca, 2004). Positive relationships were also identified between verbal immediacy, credibility and cognitive learning for students in both the US and Kenya, further supporting research in other contexts which suggest that higher immediacy teachers are perceived as being more effective and credible (Johnson & Miller, 2002). This is supported by Meyers (2009) who asserts that research on teacher immediacy provides a firm foundation that caring makes a difference in students' educational experiences. Poque and Ahyun (2006) found significant interactions between teacher nonverbal immediacy and credibility on both students' state motivation and affective learning. Other studies have also been conducted on immediacy in higher education although their focus was on online learning (Melrose & Bergeron, 2007; Baker, 2010; Schutt, 2010), which is not part of this study.

2.5. Instructor clarity

Some researchers define instructor clarity as the ability of the teacher to present information in an understandable (Simonds, 1997) and organised manner (Hybels & Weaver, 2012), using relevant examples, pointing out practical applications, repeating ideas and stressing important points (Rodger et al., 2007; Comadena et al., 2007), among other things. This definition puts emphasis on understanding and organisation of information which is crucial if effective teaching and learning is to take place. The learners need to understand the information presented and this might be done if presented in an organised way. Other researchers define clarity as "a variable which represents the process by which an instructor is able to effectively stimulate the desired meaning of course content and processes in the minds of students through the use of appropriately structured verbal and nonverbal messages" (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001, p. 3). This definition emphasises the importance of both the content to be presented and the process to be followed if

information is to be well understood. It also acknowledges that information can be both verbal and nonverbal. However, these definitions complement each other in that they are based on two theories of teacher clarity: information processing, which views teachers as dispensers of information and students as information processors; and adaptive instruction which posits that instructors need to adapt their clarity behaviours to students as they communicate with them (Titsworth & Mazer, 2010).

Although, these definitions focus on clarity only in as far as the teacher is concerned, Simonds (1997) maintains that both teachers and students share in the responsibility and abilities to clarify content, which is in line with the thinking that clarity is a relational variable (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). Simonds (1997) says “teacher clarity is a relational variable, viewed in relationship to teacher knowledge; seen as a connecting element between content and pedagogy” (p. 280). Both the instructor(s) and the student(s) are partners in negotiating meaning, as instructors plan and present messages, clarify their explanations and students react to the messages while they seek clarifications of the teachers’ explanations, answer questions, comment on the messages. From these definitions, instructor clarity can be viewed as the lecturers’ ability to present both content and the process followed in a manner that is understandable to the students, using different strategies.

Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) state that teacher clarity is central to effective teaching; as teacher clarity increases, so does student learning and teacher evaluations. A study conducted by Ribera, Brckalorenz, Cole and Liard (2012) during which a survey was conducted to establish the importance of teacher clarity within a faculty, revealed that lecturers reported they found all teaching clarity behaviours to be important in their courses. These included behaviours such as explaining course goals and requirements clearly; teaching course sessions in an organised way; using examples or illustrations to explain different points or providing prompt and written feedback. For Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) clarity includes expressiveness, message clarity, explaining effectiveness, teacher explanations, structuring, direct instruction, explicit teaching, teacher elaboration, message fidelity, task structuring, coaching and scaffolding. The focus here is on what instructors need to do in order to convey expressive messages.

Effective teachers and high clarity teachers have been found to be unambiguous in their presentations and organisation of content, they preview topics, provide affective transitions so that students are able to integrate lecture material into their schemata effectively, speak fluently, stay on task and explain information comprehensibly (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Westwood, 2004; Evans, 2006; Comadena et al., 2007). They also adjust their lessons based on the needs and abilities of their students (Adams & Pierce, 2004) and as a result a teacher who presents knowledge in a way that students understand is perceived as lucid (Lane, 2009). A study conducted by Toale (2001) showed that teachers who were higher in clarity behaviours would produce more positive outcomes as evidenced by students' perceptions of teacher competence, caring, and trustworthiness among other relationships. Comadena (2007) concluded that the more effective behaviours a teacher display in the classroom, the more favourable the effect on students. Lack of clarity by teachers might confuse the learners, and lead to misunderstandings, misinterpretations and communication breakdown. As a result clarity is regarded as one of the 'four aces' of effective teaching; outcomes, clarity, enthusiasm and engagement (Bulger et al., 2002). As students' reports of teacher clarity increased, reports of attributional confidence also increased (Avtgis, 2001). Students' perceptions of teacher clarity and nonverbal immediacy were found to enhance students' perceived learning, making instructor clarity 'additive' (Finn & Schrodtt, 2012).

Several studies have examined the relationship between verbal immediacy and teacher clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001), affect (Comadena et al., 2007) and credibility (Santilli et al., 2011). Research shows that there is a relationship between these components but there seems to be no consistency in defining instructor clarity because of the different perspectives that researchers have. Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) report that several studies conducted on teacher clarity showed it was positively correlated with perceived nonverbal immediacy and socio-communicative style in the instructor; an added benefit was enhanced student affect towards the instructor and the course. The opposite effect, negative 'student state receiver apprehension' could be caused by lecturers' lack of clarity (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). Achievement amongst students and their heightened motivation were also associated with high teacher clarity (Rodger et al., 2007). In a study

conducted by Houter and Frymier (2009), teacher clarity was found to be the primary predictor of student empowerment and learning.

Research on teacher clarity can be divided into four elements: oral clarity, written clarity, content clarity and process clarity (Chilcoat, 1989; Simonds, 1997; Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997).

2.5.1. Oral clarity

Oral clarity in instructional communication entails lecturers' clarity in the use of course lectures, content examples, teacher feedback from students' questions (Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997), verbal tics like 'uhs' and "ums" (Wrench et al., 2009), fluency and proficiency (Daly & Brown, 2007) which manifest themselves in teacher explanations which are interpretive, descriptive and reason-giving (Lane, 2009). The Norms and Standards for Educators in South Africa (Department of Education, 2000) lay down that instructors should use strategies like exploring, understanding, explaining, analysing and utilising knowledge and exploit the skills and values underpinning education to be clear during instruction.

2.5.1.1. Questions

From the time of Socrates (470/469 BC – 399 BC), the ancient Athenian philosopher, questioning has had a great importance in the western philosophical approach to pedagogy. An element of teacher oral clarity can manifest itself in teacher questions which vary according to the subject matter presented and the participants involved (Simonds, 1997). Questions can initiate conversations and help students to make up independent statements (Dagarin, 2004); questions can challenge students' fast held ideas. To gain a wider range of student responses informed by own thinking and reflection questions are invaluable as a structuring feature of course content (Sahin, Bullock, & Stables, 2002; Westwood, 2004; Vogler, 2005a; Erdogan & Campbell, 2008). McComas and Abraham (2004) maintain that questions can play a critical role in the way instruction is structured in the class environment and also serve as an organising element of the content of the course. When questions are used, focusing on understanding the subject matter from a critical point of view, students are able to argue better and express their own ideas (Adams & Pierce, 2004).

Asking questions and leading discussions can have a positive impact on student learning because the questions can be used to monitor student comprehension,

helping them to make connections to prior knowledge; this stimulates cognitive growth (Sahin et al., 2002; Vogler, 2005a). Revising, recalling and renewing existing knowledge can be done through questioning; assessing whether students can apply theory learned to practical situations can be achieved by questioning (Monyai, 2006). Or as Westwood (2004) puts it questions can be used to instruct and to motivate learners and diagnose their levels of understanding and reasoning.

Students are also expected to ask questions to seek clarification, present an argument and request help. However, there has been little research on students asking questions, which Bowker (2010) refers to as ‘Question-centred Pedagogy’. Bowker points out that requiring students “to create their own questions about the course material helps them understand how the answers [that are accepted] are connected, contingent and contextual, how they rely on, imply and beg additional questions” (p. 130). In a South African study conducted by Evans (2006) on instruction during televised support lessons, learners did not ask questions even though they were afforded opportunities to do so, although in some instances, presenters did not create opportunities for them to ask questions. The students indicated that they did not need to ask questions as the presenters explained everything well. One conclusion might be that when instructors are clear in their presentations, students will have fewer questions to ask for clarification and will grasp the content presented; however there will be no development in critical thinking skills if they cannot formulate their own questions, despite clarity on the part of the lecturers. Beatty (2005) warns that in traditional lectures, students tend to ignore questions and comments by other students and only pay attention to the lecturer.

2.5.1.2. Proficiency in the language of learning and teaching

Richards (2010) states that “there appears to be a threshold language proficiency level a teacher need to reach in the target language in order to teach effectively” (p. 354). Although Richards’ focus was on language teaching, this applies to instruction across the curriculum. Instructors need to be proficient in the medium of instruction for effective learning to take place. In The Norms and Standards for Educators in South Africa (Department of Education, 2000), that particular topic is stressed as the multilingual nature of the country makes it especially problematic. Award winning teachers in a study by Worley and associates (2007), underscored the importance of

teachers adapting their language use in order to be clear and facilitate immediacy. Contrary to this, Carpenter, Wilford, Kornell and Mullaney (2013) found that, although students rated the language fluency of their instructors significantly higher, in the context of traditional instructor evaluation questions such as preparedness and effectiveness, lecturer fluency did not significantly affect the amount of information learned. However, other researchers (Nel & Muller, 2010; Yilmaz, 2011; Dippenaar & Peyper, 2011) found the significance of lecturers' proficiency in English as a medium of instruction to be vital in facilitating teaching and learning. Therefore, instructor fluency in the medium of instruction needs to be ensured in facilitating learning.

❖ The South African context

Section 6 of the South African Schools Act (SASA) (RSA, 1996b), Guided by the Constitution of South Africa, confers powers on School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to determine the language policy of a school

(Department of Basic Education in South Africa, 2010). Furthermore, the "the underlying principle of the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) is to maintain the use of home language as the LOLT (especially in the early years of learning), while providing access to an additional language(s)" (Ibid. p 6). The language policy framework for South African Higher Education is based on: The constitutional provisions in respect of language in education, especially Sections 6; 29(2); 30; and 31(1)(a) of Act 108 of 1996, and The South African Languages Draft Bill, Government Notice (No. 383, Vol. 17797) on language policy in (school) education of 14 July 1997, The legislation guaranteeing the academic autonomy of Higher Education institutions (The Higher Education Act, 1997 (No. 101 of 1997), especially Sections 26-33) and the recommendations concerning language policy in Higher Education as contained in the Organisation of African Unity's Language Plan of Action for Africa of 1986 and in the Harare Declaration of March 1997 (Council on Higher Education (CHE), 2001). "Of the 21 universities, 16 use English as the language of tuition. In the other five institutions, English-medium tuition is steadily and often rapidly increasing alongside, and perhaps at the expense of, Afrikaans-medium tuition" (Ibid. p 4). The language of learning and teaching at the research site is English; as a result it is important to establish how fluent the lecturers are in English so as to be clear in their instruction.

❖ Language proficiency measures

Several measures of language proficiency exist for both instructors and learners which vary from country to country and state to state, such as: the International English Language Tests (IELTS), the Language Assessment Scales—Oral, the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey, and the IDEA Proficiency Test (Pray, 2005); the Language Assessment Scales (LAS), the IDEA Language Proficiency Tests (IPT), the Language Assessment Battery, and the Basic Inventory of Natural Language (Esquinca, Yaden, & Rueda, 2005), among others. Some institutions of higher education in South Africa use The National Benchmark Tests Project (NBTP) (Higher Education South Africa (HESA), 2006) to measure students' language proficiency. However, none of these measures are mandatory in South Africa and so both instructors and learners enter institutions of higher education without any assessment of their proficiency in the medium of instruction. Since this study focuses mainly on exploring lecturers' communication behaviours during instruction, I will explore lecturers' language proficiency only in as far as their oral fluency is concerned.

2.5.1.3. *Clarity and verbal codes*

Instructor clarity in verbal codes used during formal instruction has been investigated by a number of researchers who found it to positively correlate with perceived nonverbal immediacy and socio-communicative style also associated with enhanced student affect towards the instructor and the course (Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997; Richmond et al., 2003). Chesebro and McCroskey's (2001) study found that teacher clarity positively related to increased student state motivation to learn, positive affect, and perceived cognitive learning, although their focus was predominantly on teacher and student talk. Previous studies focused on oral clarity to the exclusion of written clarity but Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) point out that students' perceptions of teacher clarity are impacted by both oral and written messages in the instructional context.

2.5.2. Written clarity

Written clarity relates to written communication, which includes clarity in examination questions, the course syllabus, outlines of class projects and course objectives (Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997), which in this study were explored from the perspective of written instructions. Chesebro and Wanzer (2006) assert that teacher

clarity can be enhanced by lecture cues and note taking, which might be provided by writing ideas on the chalkboard, overhead projector and transparencies, or PowerPoint presentations. Kiewra (2002) supports this by adding that teachers can help students to learn better by providing them with note-taking skills, detailed sets of notes to review, provide skeletal notes during the lectures and provide lecture cues signalling important ideas.

Much as writing on the chalkboard might seem outdated with the introduction of technology, there is still room for it in teaching and learning although in some lecture halls, it has been replaced by whiteboards and smart boards, which offer more functions than traditional chalkboards. In an experiment conducted by Conway (2013) after battling with PowerPoint presentations (PP), he decided to give the chalkboard more time and discovered the following benefits: using the chalkboard freed him to be more responsive to the needs of the students; encouraged him to package or process information for his students in more versatile ways through the use of bullet points, while interacting with his students, proceeded to add notes with symbols such as asterisks, arrows, underlining, diagram and flow charts. Conway found the chalkboard to be dynamic, changeable, sensitive, and immediate and completely 'in classroom moment'.

The introduction of the use of technologies such as e-learning, blackboard, SMART board/interactive board and virtual classroom, sometimes referred to as Classroom Communication Systems (CCSs), has impacted the traditional writing activities in classrooms (Duhaney, 2000). These are a combination of hardware and software designed to support communication and interactivity in classrooms (Dufresne, Gerace, Leonard, Mestre, & Wenk, 1996). They are known to allow teachers to create lessons, or access thousands of pre-made lessons, write or draw on them, move images, show videos, do a presentation or surf the internet (Bartsch & Cobern, 2003; Palbom, 2009). Obermiller, Ruppert and Atwood (2012) point out that communication interactions between instructors and students have broadened with technology. However, Duhaney cautions that technology in teaching and learning should be driven by specific objectives related to instruction and learning with direct linkages to the curriculum. Several studies confirm the students' readiness to learn through the use of technology (Dufresne et al., 1996; Guthrie & Carlin, 2004; Trimble, 2008; Boyer, Briggeman, & Norwood, 2009; Crews, Ducate, Rathel, Heid, &

Bishoff, 2011) although Trimble's (2008) experience was mixed because her large group of students appeared allergic to interaction but excited about the use of new technologies in the class while her small group who welcomed interaction seemed allergic to technology. The question is whether the lecturers are also ready to meet the needs of the students in this regard.

Electronic slide shows which are part of the lecturers' written messages, are known to provide clarity of content and structure (Nicholson, 2002), if well designed.

Nicholson's study to investigate staff and students' perspectives of lecture delivery using PP indicated that students preferred tutors to use PP while staff, much as they were aware of its benefit, did not use it because of what Nicholson calls "the fear factor". However, contrary to this, a study conducted by Susskind (2005) reported that students' motivation declined after a PowerPoint presentation (PP) stopped, but, the student motivation for another class did not increase after a PowerPoint presentation was added. This confirms Szabo and Hastings' (2000) study that the efficacy of PP might be case specific rather than universal. However, technological limitations and inadequate technician support might contribute to lower levels of interaction (Evans, 2006), making it important that where technology it is operational and that there is adequate support given to instructors during instruction.

2.5.3. Content clarity

Pedagogic content knowledge – the concepts, methods and disciplinary rules – of a particular learning area being taught and appropriate use of key teaching strategies needs to inform lecturers' attempts at content clarity (Government Gazette, 2000).

Instructors need to employ deliberate means to make content clear if effective learning is to take place.

2.5.3.1. *Means to make content clear*

Monyai (2006) suggests that teachers can clarify their explanations by using examples, illustrations and stories, to facilitate learning. This well-known technique is reported by researchers in instructional communication (IC) who assert that content clarity is reflected by the behaviour of the teacher, such as: explains content of material, stresses important aspects of content and responds to perceived deficiencies in understanding content material (Simonds, 1997; Hativa, 2000; Toale, 2001; Rodger et al., 2007; Titsworth & Mazer, 2010). Witt and associates (2010)

extended this to include the use of technologies, such as videos, blogs, wikis, YouTube, video documentary, iPhones and other mobile devices which support the transmission of teacher nonverbal immediacy cues (Ferreira, 2006).

2.5.3.2. *Content clarity and questions*

Effective lecturers ought to ask questions, as an interactive technique, periodically during instruction to make their content clear, to check if students have understood the information being presented and to probe students' thinking on content (Snell, 1999). However, it is not enough, for teachers to ask questions, they also need to vary the types and levels of questions to facilitate cognitive learning. Hence the concept of 'questioning purposefully' which Eison (2010) sees as "an extremely effective approach to increasing student engagement as well as fostering critical/creative thinking" (p. 8). Initially Bloom developed a taxonomy which continues to be used to formulate various questions. What the instructors want their students to know can be arranged in a hierarchical order from less to more complex, ordered as knowledge (of specifics, ways and means of dealing with specifics, universals and abstractions), comprehension (translation, interpretation and extrapolation), application, analysis (of elements, relationships and principles), synthesis (of unique communication, productions of a plan, derivation of a set of abstract relations) and evaluation (of internal evidence and judgements in terms of external criteria) (Krathwohl, 2002; Anderson, 2002; Huitt, 2011). Knowledge was further reviewed as factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge and metacognition knowledge. Questions might be exploratory, procedural, recall/process and closed/open questions, all fundamental and important means of class interaction (Fichten et al., 1992; Vogler, 2005b; Tuan & Nhu, 2010). The levels of questions can be differentiated as lower-order questions which elicit responses that require direct recalling from or explanations cited explicitly in text and higher-order questions aimed at assessing higher cognitive skills such as analysing, synthesising and evaluation (Erdogan & Campbell, 2008). In this study, I followed Tenny's (2007) summary of Bloom's taxonomy of questions as used in the eCOVE observation tool as: knowledge (Recalling facts of observations), comprehension (stating main ideas, comparing and contrasting), application (applying techniques and rules to solve problems that have a single correct answer), analysis (identifying motives and cause, making inferences, finding evidence to support generalisations),

synthesis (producing an original communication, developing solutions to problems, making predictions) and evaluation (making value judgements about an issue).

Erdogan and Campbell (2008) add that questions can also be categorised as ‘convergent’ or ‘divergent’: convergent questions refer to closed questions that are information seeking, do not require critical reflection and are generally short, devised to recall previously memorised information but require lower order thinking; divergent questions refer to open questions that require application of knowledge and higher order thinking. This study focused on Vogler’s (2005a) and Tenny’s (2007) classification of the types of questions as: elaboration questions which asks the student to build onto a basic idea by the addition of supporting details, forced association questions which asks the student to find similarities between things that appear to have few, if any, similarities, non-divergent questions which are thinking type questions, pretend questions which asks the student to imagine and reason from a situation that could not exist, quantity questions which asks the student to provide as many relevant ideas as possible and view point questions which asks the student to view a situation and react as he/she believes another person or object would.

2.5.3.3. *Visual support for content clarity*

As was reported under 2.6.2, instructors can use visual support to make the content of their presentations clear because students are able to take more from the lecture when they are able to both see and hear content (Wrench et al., 2009). These “teaching aids”, “learning aids”, and “learning resources” or “instructional media” (Ferreira, 2006) are required according to The Norms and Standards for Educators in South Africa (Department of Education, 2000). To clarify content any of the traditional or technological aids already discussed can be useful. Visual support helps the students to remember what the lecturer has said, adds an attention-grasping element to the speech, and offers assistance to speakers in remembering their information (Hybels & Weaver, 2012). Visual support during lecturers reinforces and expands the message, focuses learner attention on key ideas and clarify meaning (Hybels & Weaver, 2012), especially where students show limited language proficiency (Moore & Hansen, 2012). It has also been found to help learners to relate new learning experiences to what they already know, arouse learners’ interest, stimulate enthusiasm and help to bring in instructional variety during a lecture

(Ferreira, 2006). However, it is important that instructors vary the media that they use so as to accommodate students' different learning styles (Prozesky, 2000).

2.5.3.4. Content clarity and teaching strategies

Effective instructors are versatile in their teaching and use different teaching strategies such as; inductive and deductive teaching (Monyai, 2006), pair work and group work to explain the content of their subjects and thereby help students accomplish different levels of learning (Choudhury, 2005; Wrench et al., 2009; Raja & Saeed, 2012). This is supported by The Norms and Standards for Educators in South Africa (Department of Education, 2000). Hillyard, Gillespie and Littig (2010) argue that successful group work is no longer a matter of instructional effort but requires instructor motivation and interdependent coordination if students are to understand and experience the benefits of learning in small groups, such as solving problems, completing a task or creating a product (Froyd & Simpson, 2008). Group work is known to give individual learners an opportunity to air their views, it reduces group pressure as individuals are far more willing to express their ideas and it forces learners to depend less on the instructor (Monyai, 2006). Instructors need to make professional judgements about whether to assign students roles (such as group leader, the reporter/note taker/scribe, observer, research runner, time keeper, presenter) or whether to leave this to the group (Belfast Educational Library Board (BELB), 2009). Rocca (2010) points out that breaking students into smaller groups increases participation and to achieve this instructors can use laboratory settings, clickers systems, or response cards. Choudhury (2005) adds that the effective teacher should circulate among the groups, listen to students, offer suggestions and criticism. However, instructors need to adjust teaching strategies to cater for different learning styles and preferences, as prescribed by The Norms and Standards for Educators in South Africa (Department of Education, 2000). Adams and Pierce (2004) support this by adding an effective teacher strategy to make content clear is to encourage students to work together outside and within a discussion in the classroom but retain a structure where individuals are responsible for their work.

2.5.3.5. Differentiated Instruction (DI)

Current research shows a move in instruction from whole-class teaching to 'differentiated instruction' (DI) which is a teaching strategy to address the diversity of students' needs while clarifying content (Schonwetter, Clifton, & Perry, 2002; Hall,

2002; Smith & Throne, 2007; Rock, Gregg, Ellis, & Gable, 2008; Moore & Hansen, 2012). By addressing student diversity through modifying instruction not only is content clarified, but there can be student accountability for learning as teaching will be tailor made to meet their needs, high levels of participation and group-driven tasks. This kind of instruction compels the lecturer to be clear about content. DI is usually divided into alternate time periods for whole class (used to introduce content), modelling expectations (review previously taught content) and small group teacher-led lessons (providing opportunities for more student engagement in experience, skills-focused instruction with constructive feedback) (Gibson & Hasbrouck, 2008).

Although instructors are expected to be clear in the content that they present, if the instructor is unclear, students are expected to request for help, specific information and additional material that will help them to reduce the uncertainty. They also need to be helped to build on their prior knowledge.

2.5.3.6. *Building on prior knowledge*

Domizio (2008) believes that good teachers take into account how much the students already know about the subject they are to teach and structure their teaching accordingly. Chilcoat (1989) argues that it is important that lecture presentations start with simple, familiar and concrete information and progress to increasingly complex, abstract and unfamiliar information. According to The Norms and Standards for Educators in South Africa (Department of Education, 2000), educators are expected to reflect on the extent to which the objectives of the learning experience have been achieved and decide on adaptations where required.

2.5.4. Process clarity

Process clarity refers to the teacher's ability to make his/her presentations clear in terms of the process by which she/he is going to facilitate student learning (Simonds, 1997). Wrench and associates (2009) say it plainly: it is the instructors' ability to inform students about the structure of the lesson, before, during and after the presentation. Lecturers can achieve management of the class by having a clear structure for each lesson, making full use of planned time, using a brisk pace and allocating their time fairly among students (McBer, 2001). Chilcoat (1989) divides process into: preview information, organise in step-by-step sequence, assess

student learning, signal transitions, use multiple examples, stress important points, provide for brief pauses, eliminate additional unexplained content and review information. Chilcoat further argues that ‘Previews’ entail ‘the overview’ which serves to “familiarise students with what is to be learned in an explanation” (p. 299).

Researchers (Rosenshine, 2008; Huitt, Monetti, & Hummel, 2010) agree on the teacher-directed instruction approach outlined below, although using different terminology:

- State learning objectives and orientate students to lesson
- Review pre-requisites
- Present new material
- Conduct learning probes
- Provide independent practice
- Assess performance and provide feedback
- Provide distributed practice and review

The process that lecturer follow to present their content need to reflect these stages if content is to be logical and meaningful to their students. Making clear the process one is to follow during lectures helps a lecturer to be clear to students and so stating instructional objectives is viewed as a key in planning classroom activities (Worley et al., 2007). However, it is not enough for instructors to follow certain steps in presenting the content, they also need to review and summarise important points of information given during instruction, which provides a second opportunity for learning in that reviews help students to extend basic learning and associations, clarify the content, link topics and themes, fill in missing information, facilitate transfer of information, synthesise and consolidate what has been learnt and acquire possible new meaning.

Each of the different modes used by instructors to clarify process might be different, from group work to tutorials, for instance. Nevertheless, it remains important to make the process clear for students as it facilitates learning. White and associates (2005) list some of the ways to present material to learners, depending on what they want to teach, who they teach and the level of competence. These include: lectures (provide a broad-brush overview, cognitive framework for organising material); Audience Response System (ARS) (technology that provides additional ways for the instructor

and learners to interact during a presentation); Team-Based Learning (TBL) (bridges large group and small group approaches); case method (students are given a case to analyse or solve outside the class); demonstrations (valuable to teach and critique many skills and examine attitudes and values); and Active Learning Systems (games, quizzes where learners are separated and compete with each other). Process clarification will be dependent on the mode the lecturer is using to offer the content. Kumar (2003) argues that the introduction of technology has meant that “conventional lectures are replaced by “structured interactive sessions” (SIS) ... involves increased interchange between teachers, students, and lecture content by proper planning and organized efforts.” (p. 1). Both the lecturers and the students create meaning.

In terms of process clarification, Charlton (2006) found that lectures were effective because “they: exploit the spontaneous human aptitude for spoken communications ... are real-time, human-presence social events ... a formally-structured social event ... a mutually beneficial collusion between class and lecturer ... delivered by an actually-present individual” (p. 2). Beatty (2005) indicates that lecturers at institutions of higher education have resorted to lecturing due to large classes. This is supported by a study conducted by Sajjad (2011), where instruction was through the lecture method and students rated the lecture method as the best teaching method because teachers provided all the knowledge related to the topic, it was time saving, students could listen attentively and take notes. Informed comparisons and judgements about different modes of teaching with school as the only comparable experience might make Sajjad's findings less applicable for South African students. Van Dijk and Jochems (2002) suggest the traditional teaching approach in lectures could be usefully metamorphosed into an interactive lecture approach - they showed it positively influenced student motivation because the presentations, demonstrations, discussions, assignment practice sessions with feedback and peer instruction empowered students.

Effective lecturer IC ought lead to active observable student participation (Choudhury, 2005), which current researchers refer to as “student engagement” (Gibson, 2011; Taylor & Pearsons, 2011; Cole & Spence, 2012; Rassuli, 2012). Until recently Taylor and Parsons (2011) assert that student engagement has primarily focused on increasing achievement, positive behaviour and a sense of belonging in

students so that they might remain in school. Several strategies can be used to encourage students to participate during instruction such as: using continuous assessment (Cole & Spence, 2012), incentives through bonus credit for extrinsically motivated students (Rassuli, 2012) and through interaction, exploration, relevancy, multimedia and instruction (Taylor & Pearsons, 2011). However, no study suggests that student engagement is dependent on the lecturer being clear in indicating what process he/she is using in the lecture.

2.6. Instructor credibility

Instructor credibility has its foundations in the history of 'ethos' which means moral character or disposition according to Aristotle's (384-322 BCE) 'Rhetoric' (McCroskey & Young, 1981). Other researchers refer to it as 'source credibility' (Hovland & Weiss, 1952; McCroskey & Young, 1981; McCroskey & Teven, 1999). Credibility refers to the attitude of the receiver towards the source based on the image that a particular instructor presents in class, being perceived as caring, competent and/or trustworthy (Teven & Herring, 2005), or perceived to be believable (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998). Obermiller and associates (2012) assert that instructor credibility is "the extent to which instructors know the part, act the part, and look the part" (p. 153). Therefore, an instructor who is credible in the eyes of the students is likely to be perceived as having content knowledge. However, some instructors might present themselves as credible in the eyes of the students but lacking content knowledge, such instructors might lose their credibility, once exposed. Both definitions agree that students will make a judgement based on their perception of the instructor according to how believable the person is. Instructor credibility is about the students' perceptions of whether their instructors are trustworthy in their instructional context, whether they seem to be caring about the students and whether they should be believed to be competent in what they are teaching. When instructors are credible, students are able to evaluate them highly and positively. Whether the students are conscious of it or not, their perception of the instructor's ethos or credibility has an impact on how they will react to the instructor and consequently how effective the instructor will be in the classroom (Haskins, 2000). Students' perceptions of an instructor, therefore, are generated by what and how an instructor says and does instructional things (McCroskey et al., 2004). Speakers who are highly credible are perceived to be more persuasive, organised

and skilled in responding to questions (Eadie, 2009a). If students do not perceive an instructor to be credible, they will less likely listen and learn from that instructor, rendering the instructor non-immediate.

McCroskey and Young (1981) define instructor credibility as “a composite of character, sociability, composure, extroversion, and competence, determined by caring, competence, and trustworthiness” (p.17). These are essential in a classroom context as Taylor and Pearsons (2011) add that students want stronger relationships with their instructors, other students through social engagement such as caring and supporting actions, respect, fairness, trust and a strong climate of discipline.

2.6.1. Audience attitude and credibility

The attitude of an audience, which is a component of perceptions of communicators, is seen as an important factor in the effectiveness of communication (Hovland & Weiss, 1952; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998), regardless of “whether the goal is persuasion or the generation of understanding” (McCroskey & Young, 1981). One of the goals of instructors in the classroom is to facilitate student understanding and develop positive affect towards the instructors themselves and the subject matter being studied (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998), so it is in the interest of the lecturer to relate credibly to the audience of students. Thweatt and McCroskey say that affective learning involves attitudes; beliefs, likes/dislikes and values, and these are components of IC.

Studies on instructor credibility have a long history (Hovland & Weiss, 1952; McCroskey & Young, 1981; McCroskey & Teven, 1999), with research in the early years seeking to show that instructor credibility has a strong influence on communication effectiveness (Hovland & Weiss, 1952) and is impacted by instructor immediacy and misbehaviours (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998; Banfield, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006). Most researchers view instructor or source credibility as composed of three dimensions: caring/ goodwill, trustworthiness and competence (McCroskey & Young, 1981; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998; Teven & Herring, 2005; Banfield et al., 2006; Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2007; Comadena et al., 2007; Obermiller et al., 2012), which I will now discuss.

2.6.2. Caring / goodwill

Goodwill is the extent to which an instructor is perceived to care about the student's best interest (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988; Myers, 2010). Aultman, Williams-Johnson and Schutz (2009) point out that caring relationships are characterised by time, talking, sensitivity, respect, acting in the best interest of the other, being there, and caring as a feeling of doing and mutual exchange. In instructional communication (IC), as McCroskey and Teven (1999) put it, caring is directly associated with goodwill and has a positive impact on affective learning, cognitive learning and the students' instructor evaluation. Davis (2011) adds that students who perceive their instructors to be caring tend to engage more with the content, take intellectual risks, persist in the face of failure and are less likely to drop out of school. Stronge (2007) adds that effective instructors care about their students and demonstrate that they care in such a way that their students are aware of it, through listening, gentleness, understanding, knowledge of students as individuals, nurturing, warmth, encouragement. In a study conducted by O'Connor (2008), teachers reported that caring for and caring about students was an important part of their work and frequently acted as motivation to continue teaching. McCroskey and Teven (1999) point that caring, "consisted of empathy which is the teacher's ability to see a situation from a student's view; understanding, which refers to the teacher's ability to comprehend a student's ideas, feelings, and needs; and responsiveness, which refers to the teacher's ability to recognise and react appropriately to students in a timely manner" (Ibid, p. 519). This is supported by a study conducted by McAllister and Irvine (2002) which reported that teachers noted the important role of empathy in helping them to become more effective teachers with all their students as it led to more positive interactions with their students, supportive classroom climates and student-centred pedagogy.

2.6.2.1. *In the classroom*

In a study conducted by Garza, Ryser and Lee (2009) in identifying high school students' perceptions of teacher caring, they "identified caring as an intervention to support, listen, value, relate, affirm, and engage students in the classroom" (p.6). Burnside (2012) found that empathy plays a role in developing kindness and peaceful conflict resolution and decreases disruptive classroom behaviour. The

results of her study reported that where empathy was practised; students became more kind and respectful to each other and were found to help each other.

A way of ensuring that instructors care about their students is by creating rapport, a warm classroom climate, to promote enthusiasm, motivation and an interactive teacher-student relationship (Rubio, 2009). Frisby and Martin (2010) point out that teacher rapport, student rapport and classroom connectedness can enhance student participation. This is because an instructor who exhibits enthusiasm and tries to engage the students in the material presented would likely be perceived as credible (Allen et al., 2006). Meyers (2009) supports this by pointing out that rapport impacts students' attitude towards the class, their academic behaviour and the extent of their learning. This he adds can be achieved by communicating respect, interest and warmth towards the students even outside of the class and focusing on students' feelings.

2.6.2.2. *Caring and immediacy*

Caring instructors are known to be clear in their teaching, use humour and self-disclosure (Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). In a study conducted by Teven (2001), students' perception of teacher caring was found to be positively related to their perception of their teacher's immediacy, responsiveness and assertiveness while negatively related to teacher verbal aggressiveness. Another study by Teven (2007) reported that teacher caring was positively related to students' affect towards the course and the teacher. These support a study conducted by Muller (2001) in which it was found that social capital was especially high for at-risk students who felt that their teachers were interested, expected them to succeed, listened to them and proved that they cared. However, Stipek (2006) argues that being a caring and supportive teacher also means holding students accountable while providing the support they need to succeed..

However, much as instructors are expected to be caring, Cooper (2004) found that teachers were continually constrained in their caring for their students by shortage of time, the fragmented and rigid curriculum, poor nature of the working conditions, the bureaucracy of modern education, the large number of pupils and low frequency of content. To overcome such obstacles it is even more important that an ethical, honest and credible persona is exhibited by the lecturer.

2.6.3. Character / trustworthiness

Meyers (2010) uses the concept character as an instructional communication (IC) construct which refers to the extent to which the instructor is regarded as honest and trustworthy, which Hybels and Weaver (2012) refer to as ethical communication. Chesebro and McCroskey (1998) see trustworthiness as “the degree to which a teacher is perceived to be honest” (p.65) while Teven and Hanson (2004) see it as the degree to which students trust a teacher. These researchers agree that honesty, be it of the lecturer or student, is key in IC because both the lecturer and the students need to operate in a climate of trust (Haskins, 2000). Curzon-Hobson (2002) argue that trust is not simply a students’ confidence that the content of a programme is ‘up to date’ and the assessment is ‘fair’ or ‘valid’, but a “practice that seeks to reveal one’s existential freedom and the ensuing responsibilities to the other, and rewards individual insight and the mark of uniqueness” (p.268). In a study by Gibbs (2004), lack of honesty and truthfulness were identified as some of the actions by university teachers that might erode student trust. Haskins adds that this trust must be earned through the pedagogical communication process that teachers display with their students. Thweat and McCroskey(1998) indicate that teacher trustworthiness is the essence of teacher character, which is in turn related to teacher competence. Effective instructors are consistent and fair, creating trust with their students because they honour their commitments (McBer, 2001). If students perceive the instructor to be untrustworthy or incompetent in the subject matter, they are less likely to have a positive attitude towards the instructor and therefore learning would be negatively affected. As Gibbs (Gibbs, 2004) puts it lack of trust has negative economic, social and ethical implications for the university.

2.6.3.1. *Fairness*

Students and lecturers differ in their evaluation of fairness which can be classified as interactional fairness (respect, concern, impartiality, integrity), procedural fairness (policies) and outcomes fairness (distribution of grades) (Whitley, Perkins, Balogh, Keith-Spiegel, & Wittig, 2000; Educator's voice, 2009). Fairness includes justice and in Ozeer and Demirtas’ (2010) study it was revealed that students’ perceptions of justice are of great importance with regard to improving a productive teacher-student communication and enhancing student attention, motivation and achievement. It is important that in a classroom, both instructors and students operate in a climate of

trust and believe in the fairness of their interactions and each can place confidence in the other (Haskins, 2000).

2.6.3.2. *Respect*

Martinez-Egger and Powers (2007) introduced 'respect' as another aspect of credibility, closely related to trustworthiness. They define respect as "the degree of regard held by a student for an instructor engaged in the teaching profession" (p.147). Martinez-Egger and Powers add that knowledge of student respect enables lecturers to predict potential behaviour as well as related evaluations that might have an influence upon the learning process. They further argue that a student's respect for a teacher would logically have an impact upon a student's behaviour towards and communication with the teacher during interactions. This is possible because if a student disrespects the instructor, that student will not value the knowledge that the instructor brings to the lecture hall, and this would be evident in the student's verbal and nonverbal behaviour. However, respect is a two-way process in that much as students are expected to respect their instructors, good instructors have respect for their students by taking time and effort to prepare for their lectures and mark assessments (Domizio, 2008). Gibbs (2004) supports this by asserting that while students can overcome their lecturers' poor teaching through their own efforts, they cannot do the same with poor assessment. Assessment needs to be fair, consistent and valid.

Hattie (2003) points out that expert instructors have high respect for their students and are passionate about teaching and learning. Previous research focused on measuring respect by looking at a student's behaviour (Yelsma and Yelsma, 1998 in Martinez-Egger and Powers, 2007). However, current research (Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2007) focuses on developing measurement of respect by looking at students' cognitions. Martinez-Egger and Powers believe that cognitions representing student respect for an instructor can be measured within the context of the educational system. This is consistent with the measurements of instructor credibility because respect does not confine itself to student behaviour towards instructors but also respect in what the instructor offers, cognitively. Similarly, studies on respect often focus on student behaviour to the exclusion of instructor behaviour that also shows instructor respect for the students or lack thereof. If instructors perceive students to be misbehaving, the students' behaviour is interpreted as lack

of respect. Similarly, if students perceive the lecturer to be misbehaving, they too will interpret the lecturer's behaviour as showing disrespectful behaviour towards them. Respect is a give and take situation where if the instructor respects the students, the students will in-turn respect the lecturer. Both need to conduct themselves in respectful ways to facilitate effective teaching and learning.

2.6.3.3. *Misbehaviour and credibility*

McCroskey and Teven (1999) conducted a study in which they looked at the other side of instructor trustworthiness and misbehaviour. This is important because most instructors view misbehaviours only in as far as students are concerned, forgetting that instructors too can misbehave, resulting in a negative impact on students' learning. In their study McCroskey and Teven reported that "teachers were perceived to be most competent when they were high in immediacy and without misbehaviours" (p.355). They also reported that teachers with high immediacy and no misbehaviours were seen as the most trustworthy. Also the study reported that high immediate teachers were constantly seen as more caring than non-immediate teachers regardless of their behaviour. Trustworthy instructors were found to offer rational explanations for grading, treated students fairly, gave immediate feedback, and never embarrassed students or were verbally abusive towards students (Teven & Hanson, 2004). In a school study conducted by Bryck and Schneider (2002) schools whose scores were improving on standardised tests were found to have high levels of relational trust in the existing relationships in the school community and vice versa. In a study by Roessingh (2006), trust was found to be the over-riding theme that determined whether or not students would support a new programme.

Martinez-Egger and Powers (2007) show that there is a strong positive relationship between the students' respect (a perception which is very positive) for an instructor and reports of the instructor competence, caring and character. Other studies show an interrelationship between students' perceptions of instructor power, credibility and student satisfaction (Teven & Herring, 2005) and a moderate meaningful relationship between instructor credibility and overall outcomes (Finn et al., 2009). Teven and Hanson's (2004) study shows a positive correlation between high source credibility with greater persuasive effectiveness. The misbehaviours by lecturers make them to lose credibility. A study conducted by Meyers(2009) reported that there was a negative correlation between perceived instructor competence, character, and caring

with perceived instructor verbal aggression. Meyers asserts that when instructors engage in verbal aggression, students will assign them lower amounts of competence, character and caring. These relationships suggest that instructor credibility is important in a learning environment and challenges the instructors to be mindful of what they say or do and how they say or do things during instruction, to ensure effective cognitive learning.

2.6.4. Instructor competence in communication

Competence as a component of source credibility is defined as “the degree to which a teacher is perceived to know what he or she is talking about” (McCroskey 1998, p.65), possessing knowledge or expertise of a particular subject (Teven & Hanson, 2004), or is regarded as an expert on the subject matter (Myers, 2010). However, Haskins (2000) cautions that it is not enough for instructors to possess knowledge or expertise of a topic, but that they must also possess the abilities to communicate the knowledge clearly. Maclellan and Soden (2003) refer to such knowledge as ‘content knowledge’ or ‘pedagogical knowledge’ or ‘pedagogical content knowledge’.

Instructor competence should not be confused with, although closely related to, ‘communication competence’ which is a term in linguistics coined by Dell Humes, defined as “ a complicated process that demands putting together information from many sources, and expressing thoughts with clarity and relevant content, according to established conventions, and an awareness of our conduct through the reaction of others to what we say or do” (Sage, 2003, p. 1). This definition suggests that the focus of instructional competence is in the process followed to communicate information clearly and relevantly, while the focus of instructor competence lies in the perceptions of the instructor’s expertise in a subject. The two should also not be confused with ‘instructional competence’ which as mentioned in 1.5.2 and discussed in detail in 2.8, as a comprehensive view of instruction, which entails: the process, methods and means of communicating information (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2013). My study has explored perceptions held by the lecturers and the students of lecturers’ expertise knowledge (instructor competence) as a reflection of lecturers’ ability to present information in a way that students understand it (instructional competence).

2.6.4.1. Competence and expertise knowledge

Competent educators keep abreast of developments in their field or discipline and incorporate them in their teaching (Adams & Pierce, 2004) and this will help them to

“explain complex material well, have good classroom management skills, have the ability to answer students’ questions, and communicate effectively” (Teven & Hanson, 2004, p. 40). This is because subject content knowledge is a crucial part of an instructor’s repertoire as it guides planning, shapes the content and presentation and helps an instructor to respond effectively to comments and questions, increases an instructor confidence and fluency when leading discussions, providing examples and explanations (Newton & Newton, 2001). Expert instructors are known to be highly organised in their presentations, deliver the message as free of errors as possible, and use relevant personal experiences that can provide greater insights for students on the subject (Haskins, 2000). However, Newton & Newton (2001) discovered that instructors with a science background tended to ask students more subject-relevant questions and more causal questions whereas those without tended to interact less and to ask fewer questions overall (Ibid, p.373). Yet, there is no agreement on whether certification makes one a better instructor or not as in some studies uncertified instructors and out-of-field instructors achieved far less than do instructors with proper in-field certificates but in some studies the argument is that instructor quality is more important than certification (Stronge, 2007).

2.6.4.2. Competence and experience

Another variable of instructor competence is educator experience. Stronge (2007) argues that instructors who are both experienced and effective are experts who know the content and the students they teach, use efficient planning strategies, practise interactive decision making and embody effective classroom management skills. In this study, this will be established by looking at lecturer experience in terms of the years in teaching the course and being in the field itself and the training that the lecturers received.

2.7. Instructional competence

Instructional communication (IC) and instructional competence - communication and expertise in the subject - are at the heart of teaching and learning. Hamilton-Ekeke’s (2013) definition of instructional competence is “... the right way of conveying knowledge of content, process, methods and means of conveying content” (p.15). As quoted by Maclellan and Soden (2003), Shulman (1987) makes a distinction among “content knowledge (knowledge of the subject matter to be taught), pedagogical

knowledge (knowledge of how to teach in general terms) and pedagogical content knowledge (knowledge of how to teach that is specific to what is being taught)" (p. 110). Lecturers need both to facilitate learning.

The question of what the competence, competencies and skills lecturers exercise to communicate content knowledge is also debatable. A recent study by Kunter and associates (2013), suggest that "teachers' professional competence includes cognitive aspects (e.g., professional knowledge), beliefs related to learning, and motivational and self-regulatory variables", (p.805) which are what determine mastery in teaching. Nordenbo and associates (2008) refer to these competencies as relational competence, rule management competence and didactic competence. The general truth seems to be that student outcomes are very much affected by instructor competencies.

A primary distinction in the literature about instructional competence has to do with whether the beliefs, cognitive abilities, motivation and capacity for self-regulation of an instructor is about what they bring to their career, especially in respect of cognitive abilities (Bandura, 2001). The other category has to do with the acquisition of profession-specific skills acquired during teaching. The third category is that put forward by Kunter and associates (2013) in which they suggest that professional competence is the most important concept. They explain, "The concept of professional competence acknowledges the importance of *profession-specific* teacher attributes ... rather than generic attributes ... but suggests that in addition to knowledge, beliefs, motivation, and self-regulation represent key aspects that determine teachers' success." (p.807). Liakopoulou (2011) uses the categories; professional competence (instructor's personality traits, attitudes and beliefs related to the professional role of the instructor) and pedagogical skills and knowledge (didactic and pedagogical skills such as a variety of teaching techniques and strategies, methods, teaching aids, teaching time and set evaluation criteria for students). Borich (1979) used three categories of instructor competence: knowledge competence (the instructor's ability to present both process and content knowledge); performance competence (the day-to-day behaviours instructors exhibit in class) and consequence competence (student outcomes). Associated with performance competence is what Richards (2011) calls contextual knowledge, which he refers to as the ability of the instructor to instruct in a particular context, understanding the

dynamics and relationships that evolve in the classroom. Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008) use the categories; *content knowledge* which includes knowledge of the subject and its organised structures; *curriculum knowledge* represented by the full range of the programmes designed for the teaching of a particular subject or topic and pedagogical content knowledge which focuses on the strategies employed in teaching, bringing about the best experience for the learner.

Instructional competence is often referred to as instructor competence or teacher competence or teacher competencies. Roelofs and Sanders (2007) agree that a definition of instructional competence should start by differentiating between a competence and competency. Oliver (1990) views competence “as a behaviour, a set of skills, a degree or level of capability or a quality of a person or state of being” (p. 184). However, Cubukcú (2010) differentiates between a competence and competency: a competence is viewed as the ability of an individual to perform a job as opposed to a competency which is viewed as “a set of defined behaviours that provides a structured guide enabling the identification, evaluation and development of the behaviour in an individual” (p. 213). Instructor competencies such as; knowledge of subject; clarity of presentation; interaction with students; teaching creatively and clarifying learning outcomes, class activity and lecture notes have been significantly positively related to student satisfaction (Long, Ibrahim, & Kowang, 2014). While there are several qualities and competencies of instructors, this study will discuss instructor competence from Liakopoulou’s (2011) categories as pedagogical skills and knowledge and professional competence, only in as far as those skills that are practiced during contact instruction.

2.7.1. Pedagogical skills and knowledge

Pedagogical skills and knowledge refer to the knowledge that instructors need to possess about the subject matter and the skills necessary to impart that knowledge to their students (Liakopoulou, 2011). This is in line with Muzenda’s (2013) findings that subject knowledge, teaching skills, lecturer attendance and lecturer attitude have significant positive influence on students’ academic performance. Pedagogical knowledge refers to content knowledge, which I will now discuss.

2.7.1.1. *Content knowledge*

The importance of content knowledge for lecturers is central to their competence - inspiring students and building confidence in the instructor (Newton & Newton, 2001; Maclellan & Soden, 2003; Fraser, 2006; Hybels & Weaver, 2012; Obermiller et al., 2012). Subject content knowledge is a crucial part of an instructor's repertoire. It ideally guides planning of instruction, shaped by the content itself. Content knowledge is a prerequisite for an instructor to respond effectively to comments and questions; his/her confidence and fluency when leading discussions is increased and examples and explanations are germane to the issue (Newton & Newton, 2001). The importance of content knowledge cuts across the curricula as was found in Mathematics (Jones, 2000), technology (De Miranda, 2008) and in Biology (Lankford, 2010). Therefore, competent instructors are expected to have a deep knowledge of the content they present. This is supported by a study conducted by Metzler and Woessmann (2012) where they found a significant effect of instructor knowledge on student achievement. However, Weimer (2007) cautions that content knowledge can become a barrier to instructor development when instructors are totally focused on course content and the need to get it covered, ignoring the process side of teaching. In their definition of instructional communication competence, Worley and associates (2007) emphasise the importance of content knowledge coupled with the ability to communicate such knowledge in ways that engaged students. This definition has brought together instructor communication and instructional competence, both of which are key in facilitating teaching and learning. As a result, it is not enough for instructors to only have only content knowledge; it should be accompanied by good planning. Newton and Newton (2001) found that instructors with a science background tended to ask students more subject-relevant questions and more causal questions whereas those without such a background tended to interact less and to ask fewer questions overall (p. 373). Competent instructors keep abreast of developments, expanding their content knowledge, in their field or discipline and incorporate them in their teaching (Adams & Pierce, 2004). By doing this they might, all things being equal, be better able to "explain complex material well, have good classroom management skills, have the ability to answer students' questions, and communicate effectively" (Teven & Hanson, 2004, p. 40). However, content knowledge needs to be communicated through language.

As a result, instructors are expected to be clear, fluent, proficient and thus understandable in the medium of instruction as was discussed under 2.5.1.2.

2.7.1.2. Pedagogical knowledge

Knowing how to teach so that students learn requires lecturers to plan, manage the classroom, ensure the students behave appropriately and be aware of individual differences. In general lecturers should be highly organised in presentations, to deliver the message as free of errors as possible, and to use relevant personal experiences that can provide greater insights for students on the subject (Haskins, 2000).

❖ Planning

Good planning by lecturers is known to “make the content and sessions interesting and involving, facilitates clear explanations, provides a wide range of resources suited to students’ needs, assists with effective use of oral questioning, giving instructions, being flexible, encouraging students’ interest and participation” (Rubio, 2009, p. 89). Instructors need to have clear presentation plans which will guide activities during instruction and prepare learners on what to expect, what would be expected of them and what format the lecture would take. However, good planning on its own will not guarantee effective teaching and learning, it needs to be accompanied by good classroom management and organisation. IC in a context of instruction, which Huitt (2003) defines as “the convenient direction of the learning process” (p.1), is not incidental. Evans’ (2005) explains why educators are expected to have lesson plans and even make the learners aware of the purpose of each instruction from the onset. Planned instruction gives direction to both the instructor and the learners, in terms of what is expected from them and also guides the activities in and outside the classroom (Huitt, 2003).

❖ Instructional materials, methods, strategies and techniques

Effective instructors need to use a variety of materials, strategies and techniques to make their content understandable to their students. These aspects have been discussed in detail under 2.5.3.

2.7.2. Professional competence

Much as instructors are expected to be professional in their conduct during instruction, they also belong to the larger institution to which the students also

belong. As a general feature of being a human social animal cooperation is the norm in our societal institutions and groups. Tuomela (2007) explains, "others' approval and disapproval of one's ways of thinking and acting form an important motivational element - over and above one's judgments based on instrumental or non-social considerations. More support for sociality comes from the fact that human beings are de facto communicative symbol users (and indeed language users) and that communication is based on shared meanings and shared uses and indeed is normally cooperative. At least within groups "this cooperation - involving sociality assumption, is a general initial presupposition underlying any person's thinking and action" (p. 149). Humans are social beings, hence Stronge (2007) refers to "teacher as a person" and argues that how a teacher presents him-/herself is a very important element in the relationship of instructor-learner. This includes personality traits such as instructors showing their learners that they care about them, attitudes such as knowledge of students individually and instructor-student relationships and their beliefs about the classroom environment.

2.7.2.1. Caring

Effective instructors are known to care about their learners as a way to bring the best out of them and one way of doing this is by encouraging the learners to succeed in their learning (Rubio, 2009). Research shows that learners learn better and participate better when they know that their instructors are interested in them, want to see them succeed and listen (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Muller, 2001; Cooper, 2004; Stronge, 2007).

2.7.2.2. Instructor - student relationships

Instructors who have high-quality relationships with their students are known to have fewer discipline problems and rule violations than those who did not (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). These relationships provide essential foundations of classroom management which in turn lead to effective learning. Student– instructor relationships have been found to have a positive effect on student learning and their schooling experience (Liberante, 2012). One of the things which contribute towards building student- instructor relationships is instructors' use of humour, which is also seen as a type of verbal immediacy behaviour (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006).

2.7.2.3. *Classroom management and organisation*

Good classroom management and organisation are essential to “create an optimistic and warm learning environment for all students and enhance learning” (Rubio, 2009, p. 90). Oliver and Reschly (2007) add that the instructors’ ability to organise the classroom and manage the students’ behaviour is key in achieving positive educational outcomes. Classroom management and organisation includes furniture arrangement and display (Stronge, 2007) which facilitate instructor movement and use of space but can also inhibit such if not well done.

Classroom management also entails managing students’ behaviour during instruction because instructor and learner behaviour can either facilitate learning or discourage it. Quite often the focus is on student behaviour to the exclusion of instructor behaviour. In a study conducted by McCroskey and Teven (1999) instructors were perceived to be most competent when they were themselves without misbehaviours. This was also evident in a study by Banfield and associates (2006) where instructor credibility was found to be negatively impacted by instructor misbehaviours. Rubio (2009) asserts that classroom behaviour is learnt and as a result, instructors need to make the learners aware of the rules of the classroom and know when and how to execute discipline. This will reduce misbehaviours during instruction and conversely reduce distractions, thus also saving time during teaching and learning. Classroom behaviour differs from learner to learner and so individual differences need to be considered.

Instructors bring to an instructional context different dynamics such as language and background, unique beliefs and values, training and experience, personality traits and attitudes. Similarly, students also differ in many ways as apart from the dynamics mentioned above, they also have different rates, abilities and learning styles. As a result, effective instructors know their students individually and give them individual attention (Rubio, 2009). Instructors need to personalise and modify their instructional methods so as to maintain high levels of instruction (Rubio, 2009) and reach their learners.

2.8. **Conclusion**

Literature on instructional communication (IC) and competence has spread in many directions touching on different fields. One can therefore, not confine IC simply to the

field of education but one has to look at it across disciplines. My definition of instructional communication (IC) emphasises the communication skills necessary for lecturers to communicate competently with their students. Lecturers therefore, need to be mindful of what they say (verbal immediacy) and how (nonverbal immediacy) they say it as research has shown that these communication behaviours have a possible impact on students' cognitive learning. How lecturers communicate with their students will set the pace for future interactions. The value of effective lecturer-student communication cannot be underestimated. Instructional communication is a form of communication, and as lecturers and students communicate, they engage in the exchange, transaction and generation of meaning with the goal to achieve academic success. This goal can be achieved if lecturers are immediate, clear and credible in the eyes of their students.

Instructors are expected to be clear orally, in writing, in the content that they present and in the process that they follow during instruction. Clear instructors are proficient in the language of instruction, ask students questions, allow them to do the same, and direct their questions in a balanced way to groups of learners, individual learners and the whole class to encourage interaction. It is also important that instructors are clear when they write information on the board because learners learn by both visual and auditory modes. Instructors need to present their content knowledge in a clear manner and this they can achieve by using different equipment, materials and strategies. However, it is not enough for lecturers to possess content knowledge; they need to also have process knowledge so that the learners receive the content successfully.

Instructors need to be credible in the eyes of the learners if effective learning is to take place. They need to communicate to the learners that they care, are trustworthy and competent in their work. Above all, instructors need to have professional and personal skills to be effective in their work. Therefore, it is important that instructors are competent in their communication and instruction.

This chapter has clarified some concepts and aspects of lecturer instructional communication and competence, with specific reference to instructor immediacy, instructor clarity and instructor credibility, and has presented the relationships and correlations established between these components, as discussed in the literature.

The next chapter will explore how perceptions of lecturers, students and the researcher were investigated through conducting a mixed methods research, within a lecture hall context.

3. Research design and methodology

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I present detailed explanations of the research design and methodology, explaining how data were gathered through interviews, lecture observations and questionnaires to measure immediacy, clarity and credibility and how data were analysed. I also discuss the reliability and validity of the study and its constraints. Table 3.1 gives a summary of the research design and methodology followed in this study.

Table 3.1: Summary of research design and methodology

Research design		Purpose
Epistemological assumption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interpretivist approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lecturers' views Students' views
Methodological paradigm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sociopsychological, Hermeneutic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To understand lecturers' Instructional communication from the eyes of the participants
Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mixed methods: QUAL- QUAN- QUAL 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To gather data from a variety of methods and sources
Research design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To conduct an in depth research on lecturers' instructional communication
Methodology		
Sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qualitative: convenient sample of seven lecturers Quantitative: convenient sample of 252 students taught by the target lecturers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To identify lecturers who were willing to participate To identify students who could volunteer information about the participants
Participants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seven lecturers who offer Basic Communication Skills courses at the university 252 students taught by the target lecturers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To establish their perceptions about their own communication behaviours To establish their perceptions about their lecturers' communication behaviours To establish the researchers' observations of the lecturers' communication behaviours
Data gathering		
Protocols	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qualitative-Semi-structured , face- 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To establish lecturers'

	to-face, individual interviews (lecturers) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative- questionnaires to students Qualitative-Lecture observations through the eCOVE software and video recorded observations 	perceptions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To establish students' perceptions To establish the researcher's observations
Data documentation instruments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interview schedule, interview transcripts, SPSS, WEFT QDAS, Express dictate software, video observation schedule, eCOVE observation reports and comments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Data recording, organising, storing and retrieval for analysis
Data analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Content, descriptive and inferential statistical analysis 	
Quality criteria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reliability – Researcher effects, Participant effects, Context effects, Test-retest reliability Validity – Content and Construct validity, 	
Ethics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Informed consent, Confidentiality, Anonymity, Trust 	

Before moving on to the research design, I present more information on the research paradigm and then the research approach.

3.2. Research paradigm and approach

Instructional communication, like communication, can also be based on the seven traditional standpoints of human communication, as highlighted by Craig (1999) which include; the semiotic tradition (signs and symbols), the phenomenological tradition (personal experience), the cybernetic tradition (communication primarily as information processing), the sociocultural tradition (social order as its centrepiece and sees communication as the glue of society), the critical tradition (communication as a social arrangement of power and oppression) and the Sociopsychological tradition (expression, interaction and influence). This study followed the sociopsychological tradition which accents behaviour, variables, effects, personalities and traits, perceptions, cognition, attitudes and interaction (Craig, 1999). This study explored perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication as lecturers and students interacted with each other. The study also acknowledges that lecturer behaviour influences student perceptions, which in turn influence student learning. Craig (1999) adds that the tradition is grounded in the study of individuals, with specific focus on interpersonal interactions, influence, individual cognition and behavioural characteristics in a communication context. The lecturers in this study were investigated as individuals who have the potential to influence students'

learning positively or negatively, in their individual capacity and as a team of lecturers at the target institution. The tradition also focuses on persuasion, attitude change, message processing, how individuals plan messages, message information and the effects of messages on individuals (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996; Craig, 1999; Littlejohn 2002; Littlejohn & Foss, 2008) all of which form the basis of teaching and learning. This is in line with the primary outcome of instruction which is considered to be a change in behaviour which can be attitudinal, cognitive and social change (Richmond, 2001; McCroskey et al., 2004; Choudhury, 2005; Ferreira, 2006; Conners, 2007). This tradition has three branches; behavioural, cognitive and biological with the first two understood as the outcomes of instructional interactions between the instructor and the learners and the third as the process.

In presenting the issues from the participants' point of view, the inquiry is 'interpretivist'. Qualitative research is known for its interpretive enquiry (Creswell, 2009) and so I attempted to make a holistic interpretation of what I saw, heard and understood, when I observed lecturers communicating with their students during instruction. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) remind researchers that in an interpretivist research design, unlike in a positivist one, "all the problems that may arise in a qualitative study are not necessarily anticipated" (p.368). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) posit that the interpretivist paradigm is concerned about the individual, which in this study is the lecturer and it focuses on the action, which is the lecturer's communication behaviours.

This study is further approached from a hermeneutics point of view, where, as Cohen and associates argue 'the research methodologies seek to clarify, understand and interpret the communications of speaking and acting subjects' (p. 32). This is because the focus of this study is on establishing the perceptions of lecturers and students on lecturers' communication within an interactive instruction. This is done so as to understand the perceptions through the eyes of the participants. I did not want to "search for any empirical regularities of laws of human behaviour" (Ibid, p. 272), which Babbie and associates (2006) refer to as the 'nomothetic strategy' or 'nomothetic theory' (Littlejohn & Foss, 2008). I followed the inductive approach by being immersed in the natural setting of the participants through lecture observations. Then I described events as they occurred during the lectures, built the second order construct and ultimately created new knowledge (Bryman, 2001;

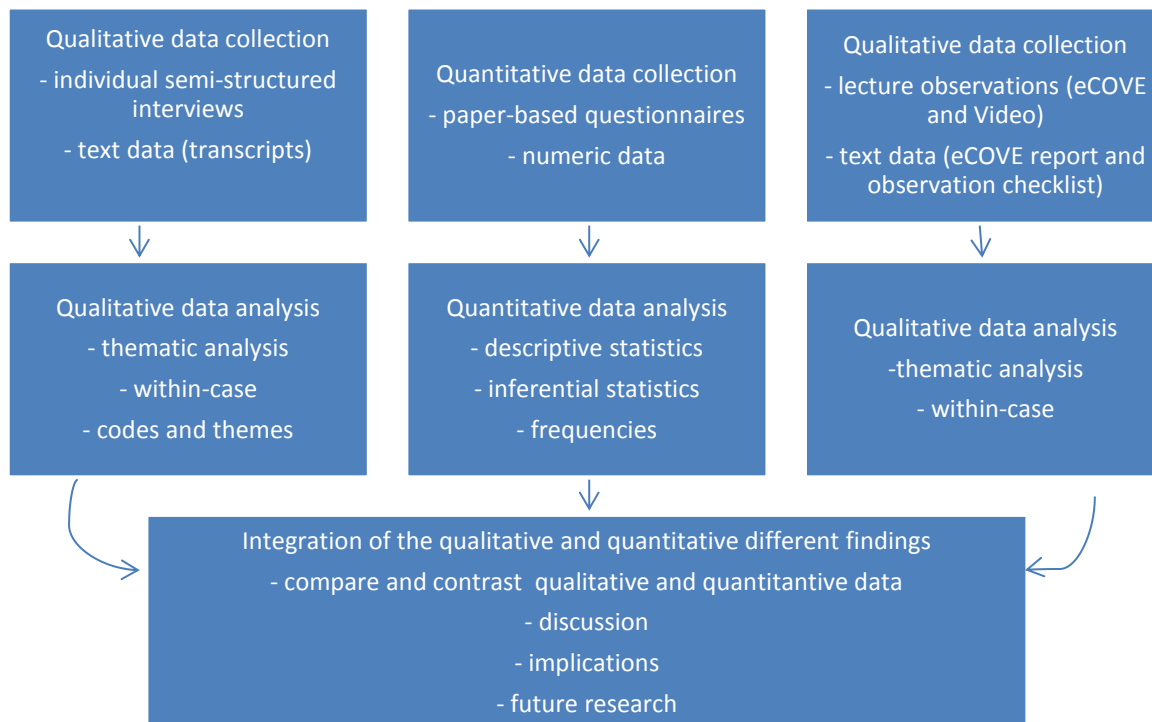
Babbie et al., 2006; Nieuwenhuis, 2009a; Jansen, 2009a). There is no hypothesis tested in my study because I wanted to explore the lecturers' and the students' perceptions and the researchers' observations of lecturers' communication skills during the time the lecturers interacted with their students during instruction. I did not use any logical appeals and emotions in this study to gain knowledge because the study is not 'rhetorical'. I also did not use any signs and symbols to elicit meaning as this would have made the study 'semiotic'. I did not focus on my personal experiences because I did not want to make the study 'phenomenological' or explore any social order as the glue of society because the focus of my study was not 'sociocultural'. In this study, I did not see communication as a social arrangement of power and oppression, since the approach to the study was not 'critical' (Craig, 1999).

Research designs can be classified according to empirical (primary and secondary) and non-empirical studies, where primary data refers to data that the researcher has collected during the study, as opposed to secondary data which is data that already existed at the time of the study (Babbie et al., 2006). This study was based on primary empirical data which the researcher collected through interviews, questionnaires and lecture observations, suggesting that multiple methods were used. Research designs can also be classified according to data sources; numeric data (numbers, statistics, test scores and physiological measures) and textual data (documents, texts, conversations, interview transcripts) (Ibid) and in this study, I used both numeric (questionnaires) and text (interviews, observations) data. The research questions that this study attempted to answer, required that data be gathered and analysed through both qualitative (interviews and lecture observations) and quantitative methods(questionnaires), hence I followed the mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2006b; Ivankova et al., 2009; Creswell, 2009) in conducting this study. Several labels have been used to refer to this approach, such as 'multitrait / multimethod research' (Creswell, 2006a), where several quantitative methods of data collection are used in a single study; 'integrated' or 'combined' methods because two forms of data are blended together; 'quantitative and qualitative methods', which acknowledges that the approach is actually a combination of two methods; 'hybrids' ; 'methodological triangulation' which recognises the convergence

of quantitative and qualitative data; and ‘mixed methodology’ which acknowledges that it is both a method and a philosophical worldview (Creswell, 2006b, p. 102).

There are several designs for mixed methods research: triangulation, embedded, explanatory and exploratory (Creswell, 2006b; Ivankova et al., 2009; Maree et al., 2009; Creswell, 2009; Borrego et al., 2009; Migiro & Maganyi, 2011). In this study I chose to use a triangulation mixed methods design where I used both qualitative and quantitative methods of data gathering and analysis sequentially as I collected qualitative and quantitative data within the same period, in one study, in order to contrast and compare the different findings to produce well-validated conclusions (Ivankova et al., 2009; Borrego et al., 2009). While many researchers use the quantitative and qualitative methods sequence, I followed the qualitative and quantitative methods sequence because I wanted to establish the ‘self- perspective’ of the lecturers, which I later triangulated with the ‘other- perspective’ of the students and my observations. In mixed methods designs, qualitative and quantitative data collection can be given equal or unequal weight in a study (Creswell, 2006a). In this study, I followed a Triangulation Convergence Design where the qualitative and quantitative data were conceptualised, designed and implemented independently. The two methods were of equal weight for the purpose of corroborating the findings. I also extended the qualitative data collection methods and used two strategies of qualitative data, interviews and two phases of lecture observations. The quantitative method entailed the use of questionnaires. Therefore, the sequence of data collection and analysis was then in three phases: qualitative (interviews) – quantitative (questionnaires) – qualitative (lecture observations).

Creswell (2006b) warns that “it is not enough to simply collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data; they need to be ‘mixed’ in some way so that together they form a more complete picture of the problem than they do standing alone” (p.7). The challenge often associated with this research design is in how the different sets of data would be compared with each other and what to do if the two sets of results do not agree (Ibid). In this study, the mixing of the methods happened by analysing the data sets separately and then I compared and contrasted the three sets in the discussion. Figure 3.1 presents a summary of the procedure followed during the mixed methods research design.



Source: Adapted from Ivankova et al., 2009

Figure 3.1: Visual diagram of the triangulation mixed methods design procedure

Figure 3.1 indicates that the mixing of the qualitative and quantitative methods takes place during the data analysis as well as during the interpretation of the study findings and the results.

3.3. Methodology

Research conducted in the field of instructional communication used predominantly one method of data gathering, questionnaires, to explore lecturers' communication skills during instruction (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Richmond, 2001; Richmond et al., 2003; Rocca, 2004; Poque & Ahyun, 2006; Zhang et al., 2007). I wondered if the findings or results in these studies would have been the same if other methods of data gathering were used. It is against this background that I chose to explore perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication holistically, by using different methods of data gathering in one study so as to corroborate the findings and the results in the end and also to increase the validity and reliability of the study.

Therefore, a mixed methods triangulation case study proved to be the best method to answer the research questions. The use of both qualitative and quantitative data gathering and analysis methods to answer the research questions, afforded me the opportunity to increase the validity and reliability of the study as multiple data sources and data gathering instruments were employed, providing a holistic view of perceptions of lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility during instruction. It is against this background that this study followed the mixed methods approach. Mixed methods research, like any research approach, has its set of procedures to follow in collecting, analysing and mixing the qualitative and quantitative data within a study (Creswell, 2006b; Ivankova et al., 2009; Borrego et al., 2009; Migiro & Maganyi, 2011). I now explain how I integrated the procedures for mixed methods research in this study.

3.3.1. Rationale for applying a mixed methods approach

Mixed methods research is viewed as a procedure for collecting and analysing data using multiple methods by combining qualitative and quantitative strategies within one study, providing room for contextual interpretations (Creswell, 2006a; Ivankova et al., 2009). My choice of this method was influenced by the fact that I wanted to elaborate on the qualitative findings with subsequent quantitative method (Ivankova et al., 2009), within one study and also because using one data gathering strategy appeared to be inadequate in answering the research questions. Another reason is that when the qualitative and quantitative methods are used together, they complement each other by offsetting the weakness of each. This approach provided me with a more comprehensive evidence for studying the research problem, by providing me with a supplementary data set, than if I had used either qualitative or quantitative research separately (Migiro & Maganyi, 2011). To achieve this, I collected both text data and numeric data within the same time frame. I did this by first establishing lecturers' perceptions of their own communication behaviours during instruction, through in-depth interviews which is qualitative text data. Secondly, I established the students' perceptions of their lecturers' communication behaviours, through questionnaires (quantitative numeric data) and thirdly by establishing the researchers' observations through lecture observations (qualitative text data). All three were triangulated.

As one of the primary focuses of qualitative research is to understand and describe human phenomena within their natural context (naturalistic context) in experimental situations (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002; Babbie et al., 2006; Eadie, 2009b; Ivankova et al., 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2009a), this study took place within a lecture hall. This is regarded as a natural teaching and learning situation for both the lecturer and the students. The lecturer and the students were not placed in a laboratory where they were under scrutiny. Also, qualitative research is concerned with “understanding the processes and the social and cultural contexts which underlie various behavioural patterns” (Nieuwenhuis, 2009a). An instructional context is seen as a social and cultural context in that any interaction that takes place between the lecturer and the students and among the students, is also governed by cultural and social rules and the participants bring to the instructional environment, the same or different cultural backgrounds, all of which has an influence on how they perceive each other and all are still subjected to the university culture.

Major qualitative designs include case study, grounded theory, ethnography and narrative research. I conducted a case study which Bromley (1990 in Creswell, 2009) defines a case study as “a systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest” (p.75). The unit of analysis is very important in any study to understand the system being explained (Nieuwenhuis, 2009b). In this study, the unit of analysis is perceptions held by the lecturers, students and the researcher, of lecturers’ instructional communication.

No matter how well designed a mixed methods study might be, there is always the possibility of flaws in the instruments or procedures (Babbie et al., 2006). For this reason, pilot studies can be very informative to both the researcher conducting the research and to others doing similar work (Thabane, Jinhui, & Chu, 2010). Before I conducted the main study, therefore, I did a test-retest reliability of the data gathering instruments, through a pilot study, which I will now explain.

3.3.2. The pilot study

There are various definitions of pilot studies, most of which can be summed up in van Teijlingen and Hundley’s (2002) definition as “mini versions of full-scale studies” (p.23) which some researchers refer to as ‘feasibility studies’ or ‘pre-testing studies’. Van Teijlingen and Hundley classify them as: the process pilot study (assesses the

feasibility of the process to be followed in the main study), the resources pilot study (assesses the time and budget problems likely to occur during the main study), the management pilot study (covers potential human and data optimising problems) and the scientific pilot study (deals with the assessment of treatment, safety, determination of dose level). I conducted a process pilot study. The purpose of conducting this process pilot study was to assess the time it would take to carry out activities in the study and to test the instruments to be used in the study, for example, the eCOVE software for classroom observation, video - recordings of lectures during classroom observation, the administration, coding and analysis of the questionnaires through SPSS, conducting, transcribing and analysing the interviews and video observations through Weft Qualitative Data Analysis software.

The pilot study was conducted at one of the institutions of higher education in South Africa where English is the medium of instruction. This site was chosen as it shared more or less the same population of students and lecturers with the research site in the main study. Besides using English as the medium of instruction, both sites represented the varying language, cultural and educational backgrounds of most students and lecturers at institutions of higher education in South Africa and they both offered contact sessions. This was an important factor to consider since the study was about exploring lecturers' IC as they interacted with their students within a lecture environment. Both research sites have become similar because of merger processes which took place in South Africa in 2004 and so share a common history in terms of the dynamics they face as a result of the merger. Another reason for choosing this institution as the research site of the pilot study was that, it was conveniently situated, minimising costs. The reason why the pilot was not conducted at the research site of the main study was to make it as objective as possible but still representative of the main study.

The participant in the pilot study, for the qualitative part, was one female, white lecturer, who was observed once, for an hour, as she conducted a lecture of her choice. She was later interviewed, once, for 20 minutes to get her perceptions about her communication with her students as they interact during instruction. Section A of the questionnaire used in the pilot study, assessed respondents' biographical details which I have used to describe the participants. A summary of the responses was

done manually as only a few respondents participated in the study as reflected in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Biographical details of respondents (Pilot study)

Description	Gender	Age	Language spoken at home	Language for social life	Grade first taught in English	First taught 3 content subjects in English	Preferred language of instruction at university
Respondents							
1	F	21	Portuguese (P)	English +Afrikaans	1	Y	English
2	F	20	English (E) + Afrikaans (A)	English	1	Y	English
3	F	20	Afrikaans	English +Afrikaans	1	N	English +Afrikaans
4	F	23	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	8	N	Afrikaans
5	F	21	English	English	1	Y	English
6	F	20	Afrikaans	English +Afrikaans	1	N	Afrikaans
7	F	20	Afrikaans	English +Afrikaans	3	N	English +Afrikaans
8	F	20	Afrikaans	English	3	Y	English +Afrikaans
9	F	20	English	English	1	Y	English
Total	F = 9 M = 0	20=6 21=2 23=1	P=1 A= 5 E= 2 A+E= 1	A=1 E=4 A+E= 4	1=6 3=2 8=1	Y=5 N=4	A=2 E= 4 A +E= 3

Key: F = female

M = Male

P = Portuguese

A = Afrikaans

E = English

Y = Yes

N = No

Table 3.2 shows that all the participants were female with an average age of 20 years. The findings revealed that five respondents spoke Afrikaans at home, two spoke English at home and one spoke both Afrikaans and English with no indication of other South African languages spoken at home. These findings also indicate that most respondents use English in their social life and this matches the language of instructions at their institution. Item 7 (*In which grade were you taught in English for the first time?*) indicated that most respondents were taught in English from the

Foundation Phase. Four respondents preferred instruction in English, two preferred Afrikaans and three preferred both Afrikaans and English. All respondents who chose Afrikaans and English indicated a preference for a dual medium of instruction and those who chose Afrikaans as home language now preferred English for instruction. Other students did not respond to item 13 and it was left blank. The blank responses were therefore, not coded as there was no clarity about what messages were communicated.

Data for the pilot study were gathered and analysed by two methods: qualitatively through lecturer interviews and observations and quantitatively through questionnaires. One semi-structured interview session with 15 questions, which was scheduled for an hour, was held with one lecturer during the pilot study although it lasted for only 16 minutes, despite my efforts to probe, clarify and use follow-up questions. All the interviews were conducted, audio-recorded and later transcribed (Addendum 11) by the researcher, for data analysis. The purpose of the pilot interview was to test the instruments; a digital voice recorder that I used to record the interviews; the Express Dictate software which I was going to use to transcribe the interviews and the Weft QDA software for organising the data gathered. The interview was held telephonically because of the unavailability of the interviewee. This was also a way to explore whether the other interviews could be held telephonically should the interviewees be unavailable. However, telephone interviews have limitations i.e. inaudibility of the recording and lack of face-to-face interaction with the interviewee in observing their nonverbal behaviour, an important variable in communication. I therefore, decided to conduct all the interviews scheduled for the main study face-to-face with the interviewee.

I used an interview schedule (Addendum 8) with 15 semi-structured, open-ended questions, which allowed room for probing and clarification questions. Each question was in its own row, with space for the interviewer to take down notes per question, during the interview. The space provided for the notes was insufficient and had to be increased for the main study.

During the pilot study, I listened to the tapes, reviewed my notes and reflected on the interview to identify gaps that I needed to explore in the main study. I decided to focus on the general process of the interview and not the minute details of the

interactions because the purpose of the interview was not to observe communication behaviours of the interviewees but to get their perceptions of their own communication as they interact with their students during instruction.

Although I used shorthand and only wrote down key points, I was still left behind. It became clear that asking questions and taking down notes at the same time, was not an easy task to perform. At times the interviewee would have finished with her response and I would still be taking down notes. This caused some time lapses between the interviewee's responses and the next question. I decided not to write down too much information and just pay attention to the responses the interviewee gave, as I still had the opportunity to transcribe the interview and so get more information. This helped me to pay more attention to the interviewee, note the gaps in the interviewee's responses and therefore, ask prompting or clarifying questions. Although the interview was shorter than planned, it became clear that this was not as a result of too few questions asked; 15 questions were more than enough. It became clear that no matter how many questions one asked, the duration of the interview depended on the length of the responses given by the participants. This showed that the duration initially planned for the interview was too long and therefore, needed to be reduced during the main study.

The pilot study also helped me to reassess the central questions of my study to ensure that the questions I asked during the main study yielded the necessary information to facilitate data analysis. Both the questions I asked during the interview and the responses given by the interviewees assured me that the questions asked related to the research questions and were consistent. I used Digital Express computer software to transcribe the interviews, verbatim, for rich data. Because the focus of the interviews was on the lecturers' perceptions of their own communication during instruction, background noise, interruptions and silences were recorded but not analysed as they do not form part of the study. Non-standard grammar like slang and language errors were recorded verbatim as they formed part of the study, giving an indication of the participants' level of language proficiency. After the interview, I had a debriefing with the interviewee to check the acceptability of the questions asked during the interview. The interviewee expressed satisfaction with the pace of the interview, the quality of the questions asked and the manner in which the

interview was conducted. She then recommended the following as ways to assist the interviewees, with their responses:

- In the opening paragraph, the interviewees could be asked to confirm orally, that they were participating in the study voluntarily and understood the procedure and consequences. This would confirm that they were not forced to participate in the study and therefore, address the ethical requirement. I found this to be very helpful feedback and included it in the main study.
- It might be helpful to give interviewees more information to clarify some of the questions, for example with question 3; which asks “How would you describe your communication with your students during instruction?” There could be a sub-question such as, “Would you say it is effective or ineffective?” I saw this suggestion as a way to reduce the ambiguity in the questions and so sub-questions were then added to some of the questions without risking the possibility of leading the interviewees or suggesting the line of responses to them.

The pilot revealed some challenges with the instruments, which had to be addressed in preparation for data gathering in the main study. These included:

- Limited space to write comments, which implied that more space should be allocated per question, for comments.
- The time constraints between asking the question, taking down notes and asking the next question. I had to limit my note-taking and pay more attention to the responses given by the interviewees.
- I felt that the interview was too mechanical, with more focus on asking questions as opposed to having a conversation with the interviewee. I decided to be more relaxed during the interview in the main study, so as to help the interviewee to relax too and be able to volunteer information.
- I realised that I did not have much control over the length of the responses given by the interviewees especially when they were too brief. I could only use more probing questions but also guard against intimidating them. The reality was that the interviews might not have lasted an hour as scheduled.
- I also realised that I needed to reword the closing statement of the interview. Instead of asking the interviewees to read the notes and sign the document

as an indication that they agreed with the contents of the notes taken, they should rather sign the document as an indication that they had participated in the study voluntarily. The reality was that the notes were not detailed enough to make sense as I used shorthand and that more information was to surface after the transcriptions.

- The recording was not very audible which meant that both the interviewer and the interviewees needed to speak into the microphone. However, I later realised that with technology, additional technology could be used to improve the quality of the sound.

The pilot was very helpful in identifying the logistical challenges and finding ways to address them. It was also helpful to improve the reliability and validity of the instruments.

The purpose of the pilot study was to check the questionnaire: the wording, order of the questions and the range of responses. Fifty questionnaires were taken to a class of BA degree – FET students. The students were told to pick up questionnaires on their way out, to complete them during their spare time and return them to the lecturer's office. Their voluntary participation in the study was emphasised; they did not have to participate in the study if they did not wish to. There was no deadline given for the return of the questionnaires and so the respondents could return the questionnaires as and when they wished. This resulted in the pilot study having only nine respondents. However, this did not stop the pilot from continuing since the interest was to test the validity and reliability and acceptability of the questionnaire before the main study was conducted and not to generalise anything or test a theory or rule. The lesson learnt from this was that to improve the response rate of the questionnaire, a special lecture session needed to be arranged for those students who volunteered to participate in the study, so that the questionnaires could be administered and submitted immediately after completion.

The cover page had a consent paragraph where respondents had to write down their names and sign the page as an indication that they were participating in the study voluntarily. It became clear during the pilot study that the cover page violated the anonymity clause as students had to write down their names. This, for students, might have meant that the lecturer would know their perceptions of him/her and

anything negative might mean victimisation for them. I decided to include a paragraph indicating that students should not write their names on the consent form but only sign it for authentication. A few questions were modified before the pilot study to make them more comprehensible. The process continued until the team (researcher, supervisor, statistician and consultant) was satisfied that the questions were unambiguous, appropriate and acceptable (Williams, 2003).

The items for Sections B, C and D of the questionnaire in this study were selected from existing measures of lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility (McCroskey et al., 2004). However, some items had to be modified to accommodate the respondents' cultural background since no single measure can accommodate all the cultures. Therefore, some items were either restructured or completely left out if they were seen to be culturally inappropriate for the type of students in South Africa. This study combined three measures into one questionnaire of three components of instructional communication. They were separated into sections, for instance, Section B measured immediacy, Section C measured clarity and Section D measured credibility. A four-point Likert-type scale (from 1: almost never to 4: almost always) was used for the respondents to choose the number that best matched their perceptions. On the last item of the questionnaire, they were asked to write their comments about their lecturer's instructional communication. This presented them with a controlled way of responding to the items and a free way of expressing their opinions. In the pilot study, the researcher spoke to some respondents face-to-face after they had completed the questionnaire, to assess their opinions about the questionnaire. They indicated that the questionnaire was simple to respond to as they only had to circle the appropriate answer. They also felt that the language used in the questionnaire was simple enough. Some indicated that the layout of the questionnaire helped them to finish the questionnaire quickly because the information was arranged in sections. Others indicated that the phrases "almost never" and "seldom" were a bit confusing and so they had to think hard before they could respond. The scale assisted in this regard.

One session of one hour lecture observations was held with Lecturer P during the pilot study. Data for this part of the study were gathered through the eCOVE software, video - recordings and recorded and analysed through the WEFT QDAS. The purpose of the pilot for this part of the study was to experiment with the eCOVE

software, test its reliability and explore how to analyse data from the report. During the analysis, I realised how the tools used could be matched with the themes identified during the interview and the questionnaire analyses so as to mix the interpretation of the findings during the analysis. The eCOVE classroom observation tools and the themes were matched as indicated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Themes for eCOVE observations

Theme	eCOVE Observation tool
Immediacy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal • Nonverbal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal Tics, Teacher talk • Teacher Travel-Attention, Nonverbal Behaviors, Comparison Timer
Clarity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral • Written • Process • Content 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbatim Tool, Directions/Questions, Individual-Group Responses • Generic Timer • Distribution of Class Time • Generic Timer, Distribution of Class Time, Questioning – Bloom's Taxonomy, Divergent Question Type
Credibility <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caring • Trustworthy • Competent • Respect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generic Tool • Generic Tool • Generic Tool • On Task Coding

3.3.3. Data gathering

Since this study followed a triangulation mixed methods design, data were collected sequentially: the qualitative and quantitative data were collected roughly at the same time, at the end of the academic year, but independent of each other. Data were gathered first through interviews with the target lecturers, followed by questionnaires administered to students of the target lecturers and ended with the lecture observations during special lectures at different times but all was done at the end of the year. This timing was a deliberate attempt to target the same participants and related respondents. Text data about perceptions of lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility were collected qualitatively through interviews and lecture observations and factual data were collected quantitatively through questionnaires which were administered to students of the target lecturers. However, Creswell (2006a) warns that when data are collected concurrently, there is the potential that one form of data might bias the other. In this study, it became clear that the data collected through interviews with lecturers might bias the data collected through questionnaires from students and vice versa. This is because lecturers might have rated themselves

positively because of how they would like to be perceived and also students might rate the lecturers, either positively or negatively, influenced by their attitudes towards the lecturers. I therefore, decided to introduce another qualitative data gathering method, lecture observation, to try and address this potential bias. This would enable me to observe what both the lecturers and the students reported.

3.3.3.1. *The research site: main study*

This study took place at an institution of higher education in South Africa which was established in 2004, as the result of the merger processes between three former technikons, to form a university of technology. The university offers both degrees and career-focused qualifications. Technikons are former Colleges of Advanced Education which offered vocational education at tertiary level. They initially offered diploma programmes until they were allowed to offer degrees in 1993. The university has six campuses spread across three provinces in SA and attracts students from neighbouring countries in the southern region of Africa. It also has eight academic faculties and several administration directorates. The university employs more than 2 700 permanent staff members and enrolls approximately 60 000 students across the different campuses. It offers accredited programmes ranging from certificates to PhDs, predominantly via 'contact' mode and a few programmes through distant learning mode. The choice of this institution was based on its convenience.

3.3.3.2. *Sampling and participants: main study*

For the qualitative part of this study, invitations were sent to eleven lecturers out of 2 700, from five campuses to participate in the study. Nine lecturers accepted the invitation but two lecturers dropped out before the study commenced, stating time constraints due to their busy schedules. I felt confident to select a sample of seven lecturers only because qualitative research is known to involve smaller sample sizes than quantitative research (Babbie et al., 2006; Migiro & Maganyi, 2011). Also, the aim in conducting this research was not to extrapolate to a larger population (Shuttleworth, 2008), but to gain greater insight and understanding into the dynamics of a specific situation, with the potential to introduce new results that lead research into new directions and not to test or prove theories (Creswell, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2009a). Also, it was neither feasible nor possible to draw large samples and include the whole population in this qualitative study, due to time and costs restrictions (Creswell, 2009; Maree & Pieterse, 2009a). Also, as Bless and Higson-Smith

(2000) point out, the aim of qualitative research in sampling is to determine or study a representative sample that best represents the population so as to generalise the results “truthfully” or “faithfully” (Mouton, 2009). As a result, I used a maximal variation sample of seven participants for the main study, which included four full-time and three part-time lecturers, of which five were female (three black and two white) and two were male (one black and one white) of different age groups. I decided to ignore age as a variable as it would not have made a difference in the analysis of the data, but used gender and race in the variation only for the profile of the participants. The lecturers’ experience in offering the Basic Communication Skills courses varied from a minimum of six months to a maximum of 15 years, their overall instructional experience ranged from four years to 15 years, and all are trained lecturers. For the purpose of this study the participants were referred to as; Lecturer 1 (L1) at Campus1, Lecturer 2 (L2) at Campus 2, Lecturer 3 (L3) at Campus 3, Lecturer 4 (L4) at Campus 4, Lecturer 5 (L5) at Campus 4, Lecturer 6 (L6) at Campus 5 and Lecturer 7 (L7) at Campus 2, to protect their identities. Care was taken to target only lecturers who offer Basic Communication Skills courses to first year students in different fields of study such as Education, International Communication Management Sciences and Public Relations. These lecturers would be regarded as having the most experience with the phenomenon - communication and instruction - as they have been offering communication/English courses for some time at the university, but statistics show that the students were performing badly in these courses as was reflected in Figure 1.1. It was also hoped that their knowledge of the courses would help them to respond to the questions that would be posed during the interviews. The lecturers were not promised any incentive for their participation.

The selection of the sample for the main study might appear to be biased in that the seven lecturers are based in the same department at the same university. This is precisely so because this is a study of one institution of learning, to explore perceptions of lecturers’ instructional communication in this specific department and also as a way of excluding other components. The bias is reduced in that the target lecturers are spread throughout the institution, located at various campuses, in the three provinces of South Africa.

The sample size for the quantitative section of the study was also conveniently selected from a group of students taught by the participants in the qualitative study, the target lecturers. This was a way to get more information about the participants, the lecturers on the same topic, their instructional communication, from another source, the students. The lecturers were left to choose which courses to focus on for the purpose of this study and the courses chosen then determined which group of students would serve as respondents in this study. Ultimately 252, first year Basic Communication Skills Course students participated in the survey. All the students who participated in the main study were black. Despite the fact that the university accepts any student, certain racial groups are still dominant at some campuses, sometimes determined by the programmes offered or the location of the institution or the campus. The respondents in this study were mostly female (57%), came from various age groups with the majority of the respondents between the ages 16 to 20 years (54%), followed by >20 to 25 years (40%) and very few students >25 years (6 %). Figure 3.2 gives a summary of a univariate analysis of the respondents' profile by gender, per campus.

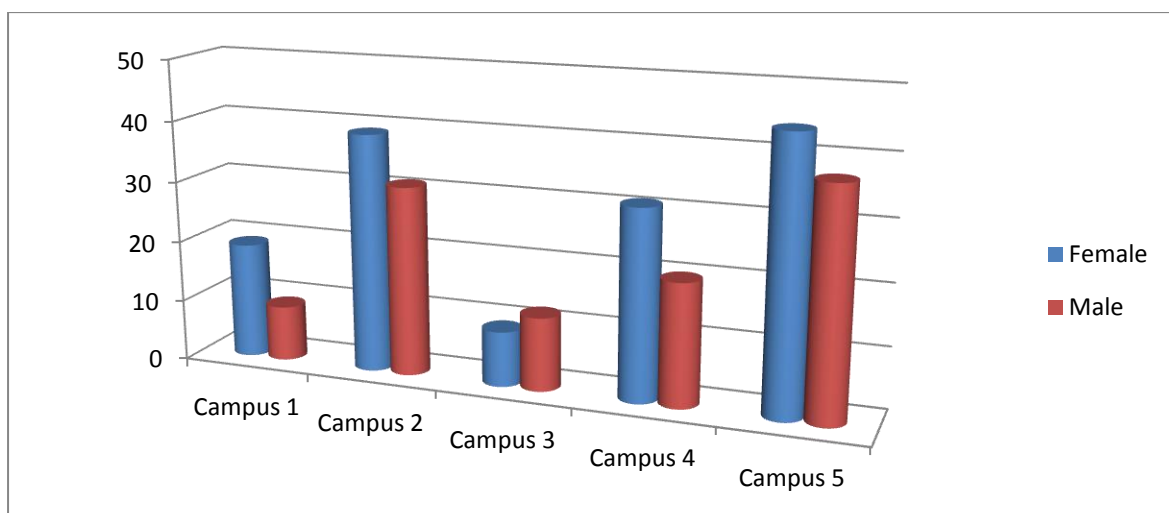
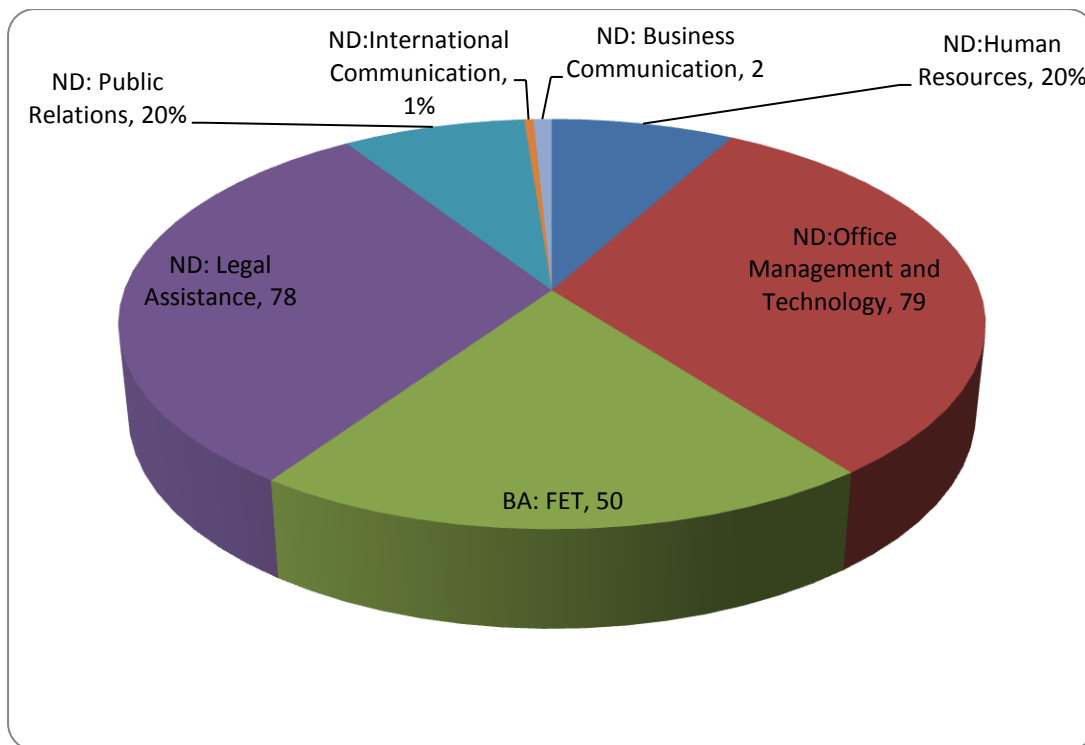


Figure 3.2: Number of respondents' profile by gender, per campus

The respondents were registered students in different programmes across the university, as illustrated in the Figure 3.3.



BA =Bachelor of Arts

ND= National Diploma

Figure 3.3: Respondents' profile programme registration

The pie-chart indicates the respondents' profile according to the different programmes for which they were registered. These fields of study are the ones with the largest population of students at the target university with a few representing smaller numbers in the fields such as International Communication.

While part of Section A of the questionnaire was intended to describe the profile of the respondents according to their language background, a multivariate analysis of the data made me wonder whether there were associations between the languages participants used at home, socially, in high school and the language of instruction used at the university, in this case English. This then became part of my data analysis as I began to consider whether the students' language background could be one of the contributing factors towards their perceptions of their lecturers' communication. I explored whether there was a relationship between students' language background and the language of instruction as reported earlier. Since there are eleven (11) official languages in South Africa, responses to the items on language became so widely spread out that during the editing process of the data, I had to regroup the languages according to English only, English and other and No

English, since the focus is on English as the medium of instruction. Table 3.4 reflects the respondents' language background according to the different contexts.

Table 3.4: Reflection of students' language at home, socially and choice at the university

The FREQ Procedure

Q5ENG	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Eng. only	8	3.19	8	3.19
Eng&Other	22	8.76	30	11.95
No-Eng.	221	88.05	251	100.00

Frequency Missing = 1

Q6ENG	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Eng. only	121	48.40	121	48.40
Eng&Other	53	21.20	174	69.60
No-Eng.	76	30.40	250	100.00

Frequency Missing = 2

Q9ENG	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Eng. only	196	78.40	196	78.40
Eng&Other	17	6.80	213	85.20
No-Eng.	37	14.80	250	100.00

Frequency Missing = 2

Q5ENG = Language spoken at home

Q6ENG= Social language

Q9ENG = Preferred language for learning at university

According to Table 3.4, the percentages column suggests that the majority of the respondents, 88% (n=221) do not speak English at home, 48% (n=121) speak

English in their social context was 78% (n=196) prefer English as the language of learning at the university. These figures imply that the respondents get limited usage of the preferred language of learning outside the institution. Therefore, there seems not to be any association between the language used in the social context, preferred language of learning and English as the language of instruction at the university. There is also no association between the medium of instruction at the university (English) and the language spoken at home as the results show that 88% of the respondents speak no English at home. These figures are similar to a study conducted by Evans (2005) with Grade 12 learners in South African high schools, in which 73% of the students used a vernacular at home, 58% used English with their peers and the majority preferred English as medium of instruction.

Several studies have shown that there is a gap between what students know when coming from high school and what they are expected to know, entering tertiary institutions (Hersh & Merrow, 2005; EDUCATOR'S VOICE; DoE, 2008; MacGregor, 2009). The students' language experiences in high school serve as an indicator of how ready the students are to receive instruction in English. Table 3.5 shows a cross-tabulation of the grades when respondents were first taught at least three content subjects in English and the language they preferred for learning at the university. This data presented a picture of the students' language background which provided an understanding of the possible level of the students' language proficiency.

Table 3.5: Grades when first taught at least three content subjects in English

The FREQ Procedure

Table of V18 by Q9ENG					
V18	Q9ENG				
Frequency					
Expected					
Cell Chi-Square					
Percent					
Row Pct					
Col Pct	Eng. only	Eng&Other	No-Eng.	Total	
1	157	13	30	200	
	158	12	30		
	0.0046	0.0294	0.0021		
	64.88	5.37	12.40	82.64	
	78.50	6.50	15.00		
	82.20	86.67	83.33		
2	20	1	3	24	
	19	1	4		
	0.0591	0.1598	0.0911		
	8.26	0.41	1.24	9.92	
	83.33	4.17	12.50		
	10.47	6.67	8.33		
3	11	1	3	15	
	12	1	2		
	0.0594	0.0053	0.2647		
	4.55	0.41	1.24	6.20	
	73.33	6.67	20.00		
	5.76	6.67	8.33		
4	3	0	0	3	
	2	0	0		
	0.1688	0.186	0.4463		
	1.24	0.00	0.00	1.24	
	100.00	0.00	0.00		
	1.57	0.00	0.00		
Total	191	15	36	242	
	78.93	6.20	14.88	100.00	

1 = Foundation Phase 2 = Intermediate phase 3 = Senior phase 4 = FET band

Table 3.5 shows that most respondents (n=157) were taught at least three content subjects in English in the Foundation Phase (1). This might suggest that these respondents were prepared to learn in English from early grades and therefore, perceived to be ready to receive instruction in English at university level. The table also shows that 158 of the respondents preferred to be taught in English at the university, a figure which is almost the same as the number of students taught at least three content subjects in English in the Foundation Phase. As a result, the medium of instruction (English) at the research site is not expected to be a communication barrier to these respondents during instruction. The sample of this quantitative study can therefore, be summed up as 252, first year, male and female students taught by the target lecturers, mostly between the ages 16 to 20 years, registered for Basic Communication Skills courses in English, from different programmes at a university in South Africa and are from different language backgrounds, yet confident to study in English.

3.3.3.3. *Researcher role*

The role of the researcher in qualitative research is to develop a complex, holistic picture, analyse words, report detailed views of informants and conduct the study in a natural setting (Migiro & Maganyi, 2011). My role as researcher was clarified from the onset with the participants, for ethical reasons, to enable the participants to separate my interactions with them as their colleague from my interactions with them as a researcher. I also played the role of an observer during lecture observations, which Nieuwenhuis (2009a) sees as a “systematic process of recording behavioural patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them” (p.83). Much as I was not participating in the activities of the lectures, my presence in the lecture hall could not be ignored by the lecturer and the students. To minimise my presence during lectures, I had to be at the back of the lecture hall where I would not be in view of the students. I remained focused on my role as an observer and did not participate in any activities during the lecture.

I performed several research functions during the study, which entailed:

- Designing data collection tools – observation sheets, interview schedules, compiling questionnaires and securing ethical clearances.

- Preparing and structuring seven, one hour eCOVE classroom observations and seven video observations which I personally conducted.
- I personally interviewed seven participants for thirty minutes each and transcribed the interviews myself using software called Express Dictate.
- I trained and assisted one research assistant in administering the questionnaires and I assisted the research assistant to sign confidentiality clauses.
- I personally video-recorded the seven lectures.
- Training the research assistants.

3.3.3.4. *Support system*

I sought the help of several people in order to ensure credibility and reliability in gathering data. The institution where I registered my study provided me with the support of a statistician and research consultant, who helped me with the layout of the questionnaire, so as to be used with SPSS, and capturing of the data gathered to ensure reliability and validity of the factors to be assessed. I employed a research assistant to administer the questionnaires to 252 students during organised lectures. I had initially planned to use a trained research assistant to video record the lectures. This was, however, not possible because of his tight schedule. Since I had to video tape the lectures myself, I received training from a video specialist at the research site, on how to video record the lectures.

3.3.4. Instrumentation

The following instruments were used to gather data in this study.

3.3.4.1. *Interviews*

Unlike in previous studies in which self-reports were used to measure lecturers' perceptions of their own verbal and nonverbal immediacy (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988; Richmond et al., 2003), I chose to use interviews. This was because self-reports are known to have the possibility of 'social desirability bias' (Rocca, 2004), have little validity as indicators of competent communication performance (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988) and have the potential of over or under reporting (Wanzer et al., 2010). I chose to interview the lecturers personally, as I saw the interviews as an objective way of making lecturers talk about themselves with minimal, if any, influence from the researcher. Therefore, I conducted single

sessions, 7x 30-minute, face-to-face interviews, with seven lecturers between the 12 and the 26 October 2011, with the intention to obtain rich, descriptive data. The interview schedule had 16 pre-determined questions, which were asked in exactly the same order, for consistency.

The session opened with a paragraph adapted from Maree and associates (2009), which was read to the participant to confirm that a request to hold the interview was submitted and that the interviewee consented to being interviewed. The introduction gave the background of the study, the aim of the interview and the commitment that information given would only be used for research purposes and that no names would be reflected in the research report. The participants were given an opportunity to ask questions before the interview commenced to clarify uncertainties. I conducted all the interviews as I wanted to observe the lecturers' nonverbal behaviours and I audio taped the interviews. The duration of the interviews varied between 15 minutes and 33 minutes, according to the responses given by the participants. In all the sessions I asked pre - determined questions, with some probing questions to get more information and clarification of the participant's responses and to encourage participants to elaborate on their answers. I also asked open-ended questions which helped to "elicit underlying ideas, feelings, sentiments and suggestions that researchers might not even have considered" p. (Du Plooy, 2009). Any 'yes' or 'no' question was followed by a follow-up question to yield the detailed information I sought. Leading questions were avoided. A variety of questions such as behaviour, opinion and evaluation questions were asked to elicit the participants' perceptions. Data collected during the interviews were recorded manually through an interview schedule (Addendum 8) and audiotaped. The audio-taped interviews were later transcribed using software called Express Dictate and saved using a WEFT Qualitative Data Analysis Software (QDAS), for analysis.

3.3.4.2. *Questionnaires*

Previous studies on instructional communication used questionnaires to gather data, in which students read the questions or scale items and then provided the appropriate response that reflected their feelings, attitudes and beliefs (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Richmond et al., 2003; Rocca, 2004; Poque & Ahyun, 2006). In this study, data were also gathered through group administered questionnaires which are known as an excellent tool for measuring

attitudes and orientation within a large population (Babbie et al., 2006). Also, questionnaires are cheap and quick to administer, have absence of the 'researcher effects', no interviewer variability and they ensure convenience for respondents (Bryman, 2001). However, Bryman adds that some disadvantages of using questionnaires are: lack of prompt (no one to help the respondents); no probe (no opportunity to probe for elaboration) and lower response rate. These disadvantages did not affect my study in that the thirty-minute questionnaires were administered by a research assistant, for the campuses in Gauteng to cut travel costs, and by me outside Gauteng. The purpose of the questionnaires was to establish the students' perceptions of their lecturers' instructional communication and so the end of the year was regarded as the opportune time to conduct the survey in that students would be better positioned to give their honest and informed perceptions of the lecturers with whom they would have interacted for almost a year. The statistician and I held meetings which helped to design a questionnaire that was professional in its layout, one that was properly coded and analysable and that addressed the research questions. This ensured that each item was discussed and that the structure facilitated respondents' responses. The questionnaires were distributed and collected by student assistants during special lecture sessions organised outside the normal timetable schedule so as not to interfere with normal instruction and learning. This allowed many respondents to complete the questionnaires in a short space of time and the response rate was increased. The students were preparing themselves for exams at the time of administering the questionnaires and so only those who were interested in participating in the study attended the special lectures. No incentives were promised or offered to the respondents but they were allowed to keep the pencils that were provided to fill in their responses. Feeley (2002) cautions that halo effects have a tendency to influence student evaluations of teaching in that if a lecturer is rated as highly effective in one area, he/she might also be rated so in other areas and vice versa. Feeley also argues that careless, carefree and unaware raters might hastily provide evaluations that highly correlate with one another and that at times students fall victim to the 'beautiful is good' stereotype. These I counteracted by not solely relying on the students' perceptions but also the interviews and observations and then triangulated the findings and the results of the data gathered.

Questionnaires are viewed as good tools to tap peoples' attitudes and report on their behaviour (Bryman, 2001). Therefore, it is important that the instructions on the questionnaire are clear, simple and concise (Maree & Pieterse, 2009b), so that the respondents are better positioned to respond to the questions. The instructions on the questionnaires were in clear, simple English, the language of instruction at the university. The layout of the questionnaire can be considered user-friendly, as all the information was in table format and respondents only had to tick the most appropriate response. The questions varied in length, ranked from simple to challenging and it was hoped that the respondents would read the statements quickly, understand their intent and select a response by grading them, without difficulty (Babbie et al., 2006) and this was achieved. Most questions were closed ended and structural, with a set of responses to choose from. Babbie et al (2006) point out that closed-ended responses, provide greater uniformity of responses and are more easily processed and can be transferred directly into a computer format. Because items in the questionnaire were asked as statements which respondents rated, this minimised bias in questions. No contingency questions were asked as all the questions in the questionnaire were relevant to all respondents. Some questions were simplified by giving additional information to avoid ambiguity and no double-barrelled questions, or leading questions, or single/double-negative questions, or sensitive questions were asked and there were no assumptions made in the questions. Most of the items were positively worded, varied in length and sought simple single answers. The questionnaire was arranged into four sections to help respondents to focus on one topic at a time and avoid confusion. In Sections B, C and D, I used scales, with the respondents provided with tables containing statements and boxes that match possible responses, to choose from. Bell (2005) argues that scales in questionnaires are used to determine the respondents' strength, or feelings or attitudes on a construct. These sections of the questionnaire used ordinal measures of the respondents' perceptions through a four-point Likert-type scale (from 1: almost never to 4: almost always), asking respondents to choose whether their lecturers showed some behaviours in five categories: almost never, seldom, often or almost always.

Sections C and D measured lecturers' clarity and credibility respectively, ending with an open-ended question for students' comments about their lecturers'

communication during instruction. Maree and Pietersen (2009a) advise that a structured questionnaire should not have more than 100 to 120 items so that it is completed within approximately 20 minutes by learners.

Section A: Biographical details

Section A had nine, non-threatening items relating to respondents' biographical details such as age, gender, campus, qualification and language background. This section was meant to establish the profile of the sample, to see if the sample was representative of the population and to explore the possible relationship between biographical items and other items (Maree et al., 2009).

Section B: Measures of lecturer immediacy

Section B of the questionnaire was shorter and easier to follow than Section C and D, as it measured students' perceptions of their lecturers' immediacy during instruction. The items for Section B were selected from The Nonverbal Immediacy Scale Observer Report (NIS–OR) (Richmond et al., 2003) with 26 items. Although these instruments have been used for years and continue to be used by many researchers because of their reliability and validity (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Richmond, 2001; Richmond et al., 2003; Rocca, 2004; Poque & Ahyun, 2006; Zhang et al., 2007), I had to select the items that suit the participants in this study's culture by excluding items that had the potential of being culture bound. This is because these questionnaires are US based and so some items used in the instruments appeared irrelevant to my respondents who are predominantly South African. Some immediacy behaviours like smiling and vocal variety are applicable across cultures, while others like proxemics, maintaining eye contact, forms of address, vary from culture to culture (Zhang et al., 2007). In this study, I excluded items that measured proximity such as touch because it can be interpreted different in different cultures. A study conducted by Georgeakopoulos and Guerrero (2010), in which they investigated students' perceptions of teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication by comparing the best and worst professors, indicated that there were subtle cultural differences in how often professors were perceived to use nonverbal behaviours, as well as which behaviours were best at discriminating between the best and the worst teachers. Therefore, as Zhang and associates (2007) caution, care should be taken when using the different immediacy scales and measures to validate a culturally

grounded scale before they are applied to other cultures. Respondents need to be able to identify with the questions to do justice to the questionnaire.

The respondents in my study come from various sub-cultures mostly in South Africa. It was therefore, important that items used in the questionnaire were meaningful to them if they were to make any meaningful judgements. For this reason I excluded items that contained words that I felt the respondents were not familiar with such as; “He/she is **animated** when he/she talks to people” and “He/she has a **bland expression** when he/she talks to people”. Some items were excluded because they gave the same information and including them would have made the section and consequently the questionnaire very long. These included items which were negatively stated and I only included the positive ones e.g. “He/she moves away from others when they touch him/her while they are talking” (excluded) and “He/she moves closer to people while talking to them” (included). Also, the fact that this study focused on lecturers’ communication during instruction meant that the items selected had to be those that could give information about what happened during lectures and not outside. Section B of the questionnaire had 20 items which measured the students’ perceptions of the lecturers’ verbal and nonverbal immediacy.

Section C: Measures of lecturer clarity

Section C of the questionnaire sought to measure students’ perceptions of their lecturers’ clarity during instruction. Several items were selected from previously tried and tested instruments which are commonly used in instructional communication, such as the Teacher Clarity Report (TCR) by Simonds(1997) and the expanded version of the Teacher Clarity Measure by Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997). The TCR had 20 items which were selected from previous instruments, some of which were grouped on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from very often, often, sometimes, almost never to never, which measured oral and written clarity. They had a factor analysis of 46%, reliability of .9315 with a subscale of .8884 for content clarity and .8849 for process clarity (Simonds, 1997). The revised TCM by Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997) had 22 items on a five-point Likert-type scale, with an alpha reliability estimate of .95. Most researchers in recent studies, continue to use and shape their instruments around the Teacher Clarity Short Inventory (TCSI) (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Avtgis, 2001; Mottet & Richmond, 2002; Titsworth &

Mazer, 2010), developed by Chesebro and McCroskey (1998), which also influenced the design of the instruments used in this study. This scale reduced the 22 items on the revised TCM to 10 items which measure content and process clarity, with an alpha reliability of .92. Since the purpose of this study was to establish perceptions of lecturers' oral, written, content and process clarity, items were selected from these three instruments to develop 14 items for the questionnaire.

Section D: Measures of lecturer credibility

Section D of the questionnaire sought to establish what perceptions students had of their lecturers' credibility. Several scales and measures have been used by different researchers over the years to measure source credibility such as: The Teacher Clarity Scale developed by McCroskey and Young in 1981 used by Witt (2004), The Credibility Measure developed by Teven and McCroskey in 1997 used by Thweatt and McCroskey (1998) and Teven and Herring (2005). The items I used to measure lecturers' credibility were selected from the Source Credibility Measure developed by McCroskey and Teven (1999). This measure had 18 items on a 1 - 7 scale expressing strong to weak feelings, with alpha reliabilities between .80 and .94 and the Cronbach's alpha reliability of .89 for competence, .93 for caring and .83 for trustworthiness. There were 15 items were selected from the Source Credibility Measure so as to suit the context of this study.

Quantitative data gathered through questionnaires were recorded and analysed through the use of the Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A code sheet (Addendum 12) was developed to appropriately record the behaviours identified by the students, for later interpretation and analysis.

3.3.4.3. Lecture observations

Lecture observations, were conducted focusing on the frequency with which specific types of behaviours occurred in the classroom (Waxman & Padron, 2004). This method of data collection is regarded as being objective and reliable because this affords researchers an opportunity to see for themselves what the situation is at the research site. Waxman and Padron also point out that the strengths of using classroom observations are that they allow researchers to study the process of education in a naturalistic setting, provide more detailed and precise evidence than other data sources, they stimulate change and verify changes that occur and the

findings provide a coherent, well- sustained knowledge base about effective instruction. Danielson (2012) adds that “classroom observations can foster teacher learning - if observation systems include crucial components and observers know what to look for” (p.32).

Data collection was through single, one hour lecture hall observations per lecturer, which were done in two stages: through the eCOVE software and through video observations. The rationale for the two stages was that the eCOVE software recorded the frequency for each behaviour, within five minutes of the lecture and the video - recordings were used to observe components that should be observed throughout the lectures. I had to set up appointments with each participant to establish when classroom observations could be conducted of them and agreed on the date, time and venue. I made sure that I arrived at the lecturers’ offices at least ten minutes before the observation for the signing of the necessary documents such as the declaration of intent, which I had to sign in their presence to confirm anonymity and confidentiality of the information I would gather. This gave me an opportunity to explain what was expected of the participants and how the observations would be conducted. Babbie and associates (2006) caution that even tape recorders and cameras cannot capture everything and so I used the two stages of classroom observations to complement each other so that I could watch the video - recordings later to fill in gaps of what I might have missed during the eCOVE observation.

❖ **eCOVE classroom observations**

The eCOVE observation software system is but one of the many electronic systems available for conducting observational research. The product’s ease of use makes it ideal for school administrators, supervisors, instructors observing students, peer coaching and special education behavioural support specialists (Brown & Tenny, 2004). The software has a PDF manual and an electronic manual with voice prompts and demonstrations. A further reason I chose to use eCOVE is that it appeared to be elementary, structured and time efficient. The screens are well designed for quick data entry, it reports both the data and the observer comments, and can be used on portable computers using Windows and Macintosh operating systems. Brown and Tenny suggest that the focus of the software is “to ease the complexity of accurate collection of data in order to provide the factual basis for collaborative reflection and

discussion” (p.3). The software focuses on four areas that affect success in the classroom: instructor actions, student actions, whole class events and specific individual events (Brown & Tenny, 2004), which I incorporated in my study. The software has 22 electronic observation tools to choose from and provides researchers space for anecdotal commentary. I focused on those tools which would best help answer the research questions. I grouped them according to the themes identified during the analysis of the interviews, to assist in mixing the interpretation of the findings and the results properly at a later stage. The tools I used from the software were matched with the components I wanted to measure as follows:

- Immediacy - Verbal immediacy - Verbal Tics, Teacher talk; Nonverbal immediacy-Teacher Travel- Attention, Nonverbal Behaviours, Comparison Timer
- Clarity-Verbatim Tool, Directions/Questions, Individual-Group Response, Generic Timer, Distribution of Class Time, Questioning, Divergent Question Types
- Credibility – Generic Tool which also allow the user to create own elements to measure and On Task Coding.

I decided to create items to assess content and process clarity and credibility, as I could not find matching tools on the programme. Each tool was used to observe lecturers’ behaviours over five minutes so that the data would be comparable consistently among the participants. This appeared to be a limitation as one observes only portions of the lecture while some behaviour needs to be observed throughout the lecture. It was against this background that I decided to combine this method of data gathering with video observations to get a holistic picture of each lecturer’s communication during instruction. The eCOVE classroom observation software afforded me the opportunity to record my observations and still write brief comments in the comments box. At the end of each session, a report (Addendum13) was generated which enabled me to save a detailed record of all the data collected as well as observer comments. Since the same lectures that I observed through the eCOVE were video-taped, I could check for any information that I might have missed while using the software. Data from the eCOVE software observations were recorded by generating a report. I also developed a video observation schedule

(Addendum 14) for the things I could not observe adequately while using the eCOVE software but wanted to focus attention on as I watched the videos.

These were: Verbal immediacy - Verbal Tics, Teacher talk; Nonverbal immediacy- Teacher Travel- Attention, Nonverbal Behaviours, Comparison Timer; Clarity- Verbatim Tool, Directions/Questions, Individual-Group Response, Generic Timer, Distribution of Class Time, Questioning, Divergent Question Types and Credibility – Generic Tool which also allow the user to create own elements to measure and On Task Coding.

❖ **Video observations**

It is important to take down full and accurate notes either during or immediately after an observation. In my case, I conducted video observations where I used a video camera which was placed at the back corner of the lecture hall to get a clear view of the lecturer–student interactions, with minimal interference during the lecture. Care was taken to ensure good sound quality recording and non-identification of the students as the pictures were taken from behind and to avoid recording the faces of the students. This is in line with ethical requirements for research to preserve anonymity by protecting the source of information and confidentiality of the information given. However, this became a constraint in those lecture halls where the seating arrangement was U-shaped. In this study it was important to capture the lecturers' faces because I had to observe the lecturers' nonverbal behaviour which included facial expressions and smiles, after they had given me their consent. I used an observation schedule (Addendum 14) to record manually, what I was observing. This allowed me to go back to the videos to view them again, focusing on specific things that I might have missed. Babbie and associates (2006) advise that it is better to practise conducting observations and I found this to be true because I had never used the eCOVE software and video before to record lectures and so I tested the tool in the pilot to ensure that it would give me the information I was looking for, before data gathering in the main study. I conducted a pilot study of the tools I was going to use in the main study to check my readiness for using them (see 3.3.2. for more details). The video observation schedule (Addendum 14) had four columns; the first two indicating the theme and subthemes to be reported on, the second column indicated a list of behaviours to be observed and the third column afforded the researcher space to make comments on what was observed. The space was

adjusted after data were collected observing the first lecturer (Lecturer 1) when it became clear that the space allocated for comments was limited.

Creswell (2006a) reminds that in qualitative research, administering data collection also involves ethical considerations.

3.3.5. Ethical considerations

Research is conducted within a setting and in this case, the setting is an institution of higher education in South Africa. Institutions have rules and regulations and one of them is to request permission for any research to be conducted. I requested permission to conduct research for my study through the ethics committees. Documents were submitted for approval which included an ethics clearance application form from the institution where I registered for the study, a copy of the letter sent to the research site to request permission to conduct the study at their institution (Addendum 25), a copy of an invitation letter sent to the participants inviting them to participate in the study (Addendum 4), a copy of the consent form that the participants would sign as an indication that they participated in the study voluntarily and with informed consent (Addendum 5), a copy of a declaration statement signed by both the researcher and the research assistants (Addenda 6 and 7), a copy of the interview schedule (Addendum 8) outlining the types of questions I would ask the interviewees; a copy of the video observation schedule (Addendum 9) indicating what would be observed and recorded during lectures, and a copy of the questionnaire that would be administered to the students (Addendum 10). Both institutions gave me ethics clearance approval as an indication that I had satisfied their requirements for embarking on field work (Addenda 2 and 3).

Researchers need to anticipate ethical issues that might arise during their study including: protecting their participants, developing trust and promoting the integrity of the research (Creswell, 2009). In addition, researchers need to consider issues such as: informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, trust and inform participants of their rights (Babbie et al., 2006; Hittleman & Simon, 2006; Creswell, 2009).

I gave the participants letters inviting them to participate (Addendum 4), with information about the research, the purpose of the study, their roles and activities that would be carried out during the research, to make them aware of their rights in this study and to help them make informed decisions about their participation. The

participants were made aware that participation in the study was voluntary and that they might withdraw from further participation at any stage of the study. I gave them consent forms to sign before they participated in the study as an indication that they had not been coerced into participating but did so voluntarily. The purpose of the face-to-face interviews was clarified beforehand to the participants and I sought permission to record the interviews so that I could listen to them at a later stage and make transcripts for data analysis purposes (Nieuwenhuis, 2009b). The cover page of the questionnaire served as a consent slip (Addendum 10), which students had to sign before they responded to the questionnaire to indicate that they were participating willingly.

I explained to the participants the value of the data they would give to me and assured them that it would be used solely for the study and that no other person would have access to it. This I secured by signing a confidentiality clause, to commit myself to keeping the information that participants gave to me, confidential, so as to protect the information that participants volunteered. The student assistants were made to sign confidentiality clauses to ensure that they keep all the information they come across, confidential.

Participants who have sensitive information to divulge can sometimes not be forthcoming for fear of victimisation. I encouraged all participants to open up by making them aware that their names would not be reflected in the study to ensure anonymity and that their identities would be kept anonymous by using numbers to identify them in the study. The students were promised that their faces would be hidden from the cameras when video - recordings were made and if, by any chance, their faces were captured, they would be blocked out to protect their identities during presentations. Respondents were not expected to reflect any names on the questionnaires and where they did by mistake, the names would not be reflected in the research report.

During research, it is possible that my perceptions or expectations might interfere with my observation of important subtle aspects of character and speech (Hittleman & Simon, 2006). The fact that I am a lecturer means that I have my own perceptions of instruction at an institution of higher education and I had to acknowledge this bias and guard against interpreting the discourse that I would receive from my own

perspective. I had to detach myself from my bias and remain focused on the data given and not on the person giving the data.

3.3.6. Data analysis

Analysing and interpreting data in mixed methods can be done in two ways – analysing separately the quantitative data using quantitative methods and the qualitative data using qualitative methods or analysing both datasets using techniques that ‘mix’ the quantitative and the qualitative data and the findings and the results – the mixed methods analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Since the design followed in this study was triangulation mixed methods design, data were analysed following the Triangulation mixed methods design data analysis as illustrated in Figure 3.4.

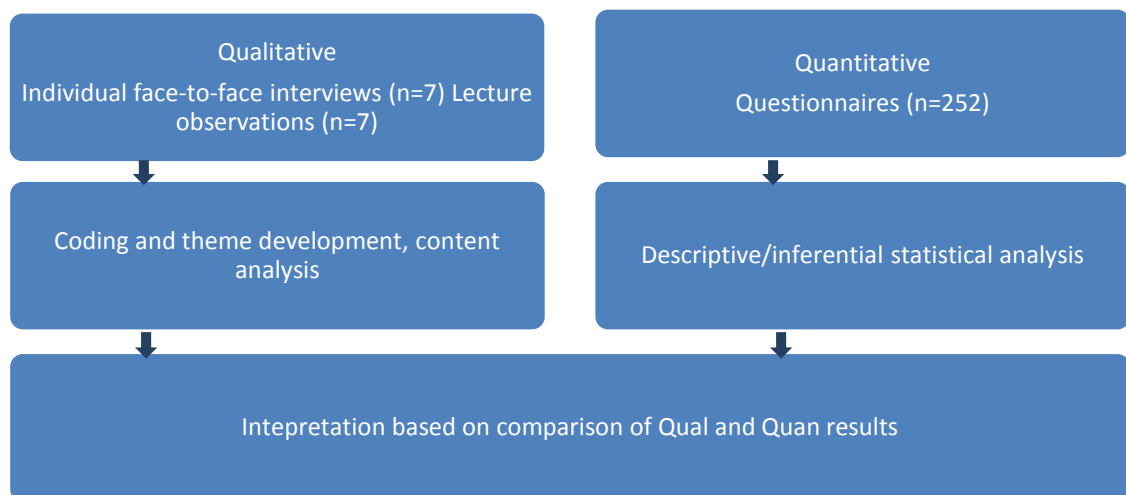


Figure 3.4: Triangulation mixed methods design data analysis procedure

Source: Adapted from Ivankova et al., 2009

Qualitative data analysis is based on the research questions, types of data collected and philosophical approach (Taylor- Powell & Renner, 2003; Jonassen & Driscoll, 2013). These shaped the data analysis in this study. Graneheim and Lundman (2003) differentiate between manifest and latent content analysis. Manifest content analysis, on the one hand, is regarded as “an analysis of what the text says and deals with the content aspect and describes the visible, obvious components” (p.106). It is therefore, an analysis of written or verbal responses and audio visual materials (Du Plooy, 2009). Latent content, on the other hand, refers to “an analysis of what the text talks about, dealing with the relationship aspect and involves an

interpretation of the underlying meaning of the text” (Ibid). I conducted a manifest content analysis of the data recorded in the interview transcripts and the eCOVE and video lecture observations. The interviews were recorded manually on the interview schedule (Addendum 8), audio recorded and then transcribed (Addendum 11) using the Dictate Express Software. As part of the qualitative data analysis, I collected the data first and then worked through the content; assigned codes using the data gathered, and identified categories developing from the data. I also prepared the data for analysis by describing the participants; organising the documents or visual data for review; transcribing text from interviews and observations into word processing files for analysis; getting to know the data and saving the data as recommended by other researchers (Nieuwenhuis, 2009b; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The lectures observed were recorded on an observation schedule (Addendum 14). After data were captured, it was then typed into word processing files and saved as plain text for storage, retrieval and analysis through WEFT QDAS. For the eCOVE observations, the software automatically generated a report at the end of each session (Addendum 13), which I organised in such a way that I would know which report to start with, followed by which, when I scrutinised each report one at a time, in preparation for the analysis. The reports were then saved for storage, better organisation, retrieval and coding during analysis through WEFT QDAS. I used the same categories that were generated from the interviews to analyse data from the observations and questionnaires so that the data could then be analysed consistently and the interpretation thereof be mixed.

Nieuwenhuis (2009a) adds that qualitative data analysis is usually based on an interpretive philosophy of analysing participants’ perceptions, attitudes, values, feelings and experiences amongst other things. I used a deductive approach in analysing this data because the categories of information sought from the data were already available from the literature that was reviewed. Of the different qualitative data analysis approaches that exist; discourse analysis; hermeneutics; conversational analysis, content analysis and narrative analysis, I chose to conduct a content analysis of the qualitative data gathered for this study, which entailed ‘identifying and summarising message content’ (Nieuwenhuis, 2009b) which in this study are interview transcripts and observation schedules.

Quantitative data were recorded through SPSS and analysed following a descriptive statistics analysis method and an inferential statistics analysis method. An in-depth comparison of the data was done, which helped me to identify some relationships between the various data, understand the respondents and guided me in the decisions that I made. Figure 3.5 indicates the steps I followed for both qualitative and quantitative data analysis as explained by Creswell (2009).

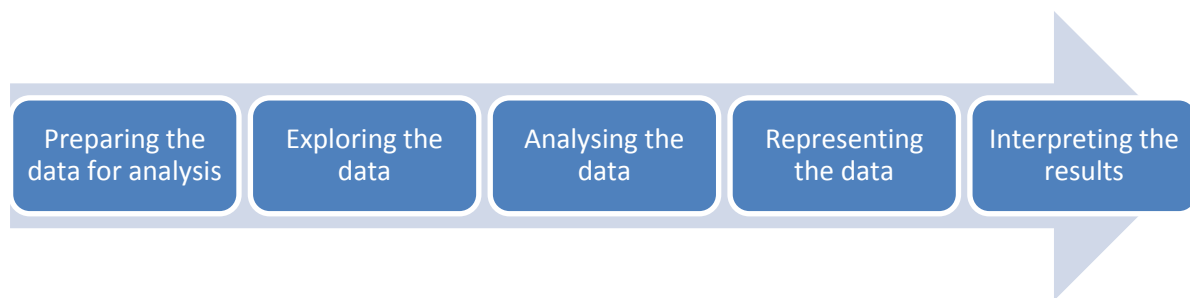


Figure 3.5: Quantitative and qualitative data analysis process for mixed methods study

For the analysis of the quantitative data, I began the process of organising the data through the guidance of a statistician and a consultant, by assigning numerical representations to the components, to quantifying the data, so that the programme I used, the Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences (SPSS), could read the data collected. I then checked the data for accuracy, entered the data into the computer, transformed the data and developed and documented a database structure that integrated the various measures. All the blanks were assigned a value of 99 to indicate that the item was missing. The data were checked to make sure that the responses were legible, that all important questions were answered and that all relevant contextual information was included. After the data were entered into the computer, a Proc Print was generated and then checked for errors as reflected in Addendum 9. A person whom I trusted read the responses on each questionnaire, while I compared the responses with what had been entered on the Proc Print report. Any errors found on the Proc Print document had been circled with a pencil and the correct value was written clearly next to the circle. Once all the data were checked and attended to, the sheets were sent back to the statistician for the errors to be corrected on the computer. Table 3.6 summarises the errors that were identified and sent for correction.

Table 3.6: Summary of errors identified, checked and corrected

CORRECTION OF ERRORS ON PROC PRINT(SO1-R1)	
1.	For V1 = 117, V30 = 1 X, should be = 4 $\sqrt{}$
2.	For V1 = 117, V69 = 4 X, should be = - $\sqrt{}$ (blank)
3.	For V1 = 138, V73 = 3 X, should be = 4 $\sqrt{}$
4.	For V1= 149, V30 = 1 X, should be = $\sqrt{}$ (blank)
5.	For V1= 150, V47 = 3 X, should be = 2 $\sqrt{}$
6.	For V1 = 161, V31 = 3 X, should be = 4 $\sqrt{}$
7.	For V1 = 166 , V55 = 4 X, should be = - $\sqrt{}$ (blank)
8.	For V1 = 247, V52 = 2 X, should be = - $\sqrt{}$ (blank)
9.	For V1 = 912, V10 = 08 X, should be = 05 $\sqrt{}$
10.	For V1= 023, V 65 = 4 X, should be = 3 $\sqrt{}$

Duplicate values for V1 at V= 110 - 119, were identified and given the values 910 to 919 while preserving the first occurrences of the values 110-119 in the data. A separate coding sheet (Addendum 12) was designed for the questionnaires administered in the main study, guided by the results of the pilot study. This was because more codes surfaced in the process of analysing the results of each group of respondents. The pilot study did not reveal any data for item 13 as none of the students responded to the question and so when the main study generated a lot of data on item 13 it was coded for analysis accordingly. The last part of Section D, item 13, sought students' comments of their lecturers' IC in general. The respondents were given an open-ended question to which they were free to answer with as many comments as possible, on their lecturers' communication during lectures. These comments were then grouped according to the components intended to be measured in this study to establish whether the students perceived their lecturers to be Immediate, Non-immediate, Clear, Unclear, Credible or Non-credible. A list of all the comments made per lecturer (Addendum 18) was made and then an

overall list was generated from the lecturers' lists (Addendum 20). The comments were then coded as indicated in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Summary of codes for item 13

Code	Variable	Verbatim description
01	Immediate	Friendly, approachable, like, nice, lovely
02	Non-immediate	Unfriendly, unapproachable, dislike, not nice, not lovely
03	Clear	Clear process, clear content, clear writing, clear oral speech
04	Unclear	Unclear process, unclear content, unclear writing, unclear oral speech
05	Credible	Intelligent, trained, caring, honest, has my interest at heart, trustworthy Expert, not self-centred, concerned, honourable, informed, moral, competent, ethical, sensitive, bright, genuine, understanding, respectful
06	Non-credible	Unintelligent, untrained, uncaring, dishonest, does not have my interest at heart, untrustworthy, inexperienced, self-centred, not concerned, dishonourable, uninformed, immoral, incompetent, unethical, insensitive, stupid, phony, not understanding, disrespectful

The first three comments made by each respondent were considered and then responses were coded and entered on an Excel spreadsheet as illustrated in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Illustration of codes for item 13

	A	B	C	D
26	43	1	3	
27	44	4		
28	45	5	1	
29	47	4		
30	48	5		
31	49	3	3	
32	51	4		
33	52	4	4	4
34	54	4		
35	57	3	3	1
36	58	1	1	
37	60	3	5	
38	61	4		
39	63	3	4	4
40	66	3		
41	68	1	5	
42	69	1	3	
43	70	5	5	
44	74	4	6	
45	76	1	1	
46	76	1	6	
47	79	1	1	
48	80	1	3	3
49	81	1	1	
50	82	3	3	6

From this spread sheet data were entered on the SPSS programme. The spread sheet indicates some empty spaces, which are values for respondents who either did not respond at all to item 13 or made fewer than three comments. This process helped to develop a code sheet (Addendum 12) as a guide for locating the components and for interpreting codes (Babbie, 2008).

Data editing and cleaning were done after all the data were gathered which showed that all the questions were answered correctly except that some items within the questionnaires were not answered at all. A decision was made to record such responses as blanks. Since item 13 of the questionnaire was an open-ended question, with no guidance given on the number of concerns students were supposed to give, some students gave more than three comments. Also, it seemed like duplication when respondents commented on the same thing under item 13, with, for instance, all or most of the first three responses being on lecturer clarity. From this, a list of themes was generated and it was decided that only the first three comments were to be considered and matched with the themes identified, to avoid duplication, and for consistency.

After I had conducted interviews with the lecturers, I used software called Express Dictate to convert the raw data I audio-recorded into a form useful for data analysis (Addendum 14). The software allowed me to save the interview on my laptop, listen to it and type it as I listened. I could also pause, rewind and fast forward the conversation with ease. Once the transcripts were made, I saved them using another software programme, WEFTQDAS, which I used to organise the data for initial analysis. To prepare for the development of the data manual, I organised the interview transcripts into a chronological order so that I knew which transcripts to analyse first and which next. The order followed was according to how the participants were numbered for identification purposes, as Lecturer 1, Lecturer 2, Lecturer 3, Lecturer 4, Lecturer 5, Lecturer 6 and Lecturer 7. This I did because I wanted to do an individual summary of the transcripts first and then do a holistic one to get an overall picture of the phenomenon.

I read the data sets several times to get an understanding of their content. I recorded some notes on the transcripts as I read each, to get an idea of the participant's perceptions, after the data from the interview transcripts were entered into the WEFT

QDA. I developed a preliminary coding manual that I used with all the transcripts to identify the data that would be analysed. From there I developed a coding manual (Addendum 15), which served as a data management tool for organising segments of similar or related text to assist with interpretation. For the eCOVE observations, I began by comparing the reports of the eCOVE toolbox to identify similarities and differences in the tools that I used with each lecturer so that the analysis could be consistent. I realised from the pilot study that I did not need to develop a code book as the report was already quantified, giving the results in percentages which only required interpreting them. The reports had to be saved in PDF before they could be saved on WEFT for compatibility. I went through each report and identified the components of IC according to the themes identified. Because the content of the report is organised in sub-headings according to the tools used, this made it easy to identify data on the text. After data were identified from each report, a table was designed to summarise data from all the reports according to the themes (Addendum 19). For the video observation, after entering the data recorded from the observation schedule into the WEFT QDAS, I read all the data to get a sense of how the items could be grouped to describe the themes and their sub - themes. This led to a preliminary coding manual (Addendum 18) that I used with all the transcripts to identify the data that would be analysed. Exploring the quantitative data entailed a visual inspection of the data and conducting a descriptive analysis of the means, standard deviation (SD) and variance of responses to each theme on the instrument in order to establish the general trends in the data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Data analysis for the interviews began with a detailed coding process of dividing the text into smaller units like phrases, sentences and paragraphs: assigning labels to each unit, and grouping the codes into themes (Creswell, 2009). For the qualitative data, I used the WEFT QDAS to store the text documents for analysis, to label text segments for easy retrieval and to organise the codes into visuals so that I could see the relationships among the codes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This resulted in the themes (Categories) and sub-themes (sub-categories) as reflected in Figure 3.6.



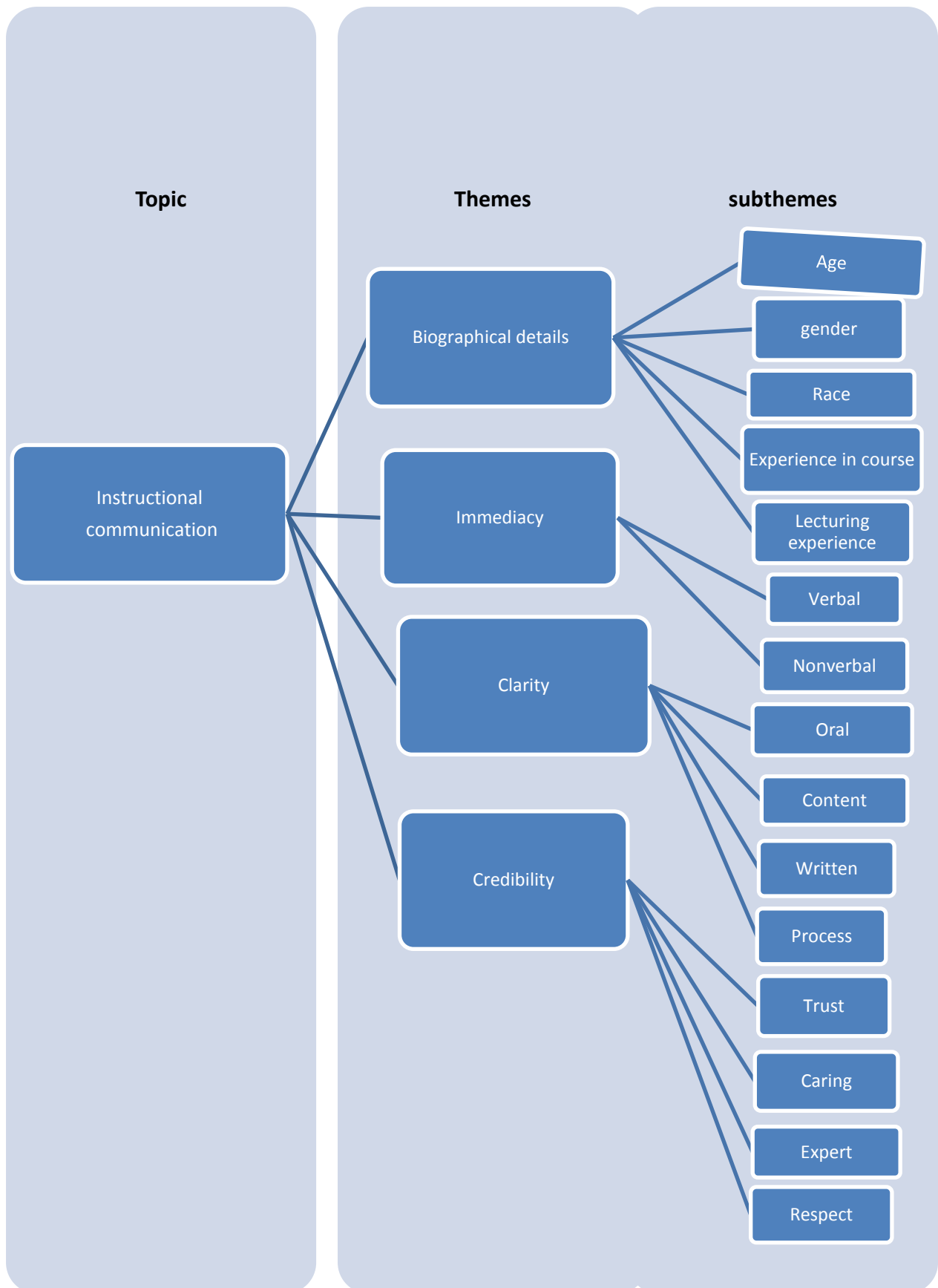


Figure 3.6: Summary of themes and subthemes

I followed the stages outlined next to code the data (Stange, Miller, Crabtree, O'Connor, & Zyzanski, 1994; Boyatzis, 1998; Ivankova et al., 2009).

Developing the code manual for the interviews was done by outlining key points made by respondents in response to the questions asked by the interviewer. The participants' responses to these questions helped me to identify key issues from the transcripts and as a result codes were suggested. I had to find a way to record data sets from the transcripts according to the codes identified where I used the Weft QDAS software to organise, retrieve and analyse my data. The software helped me to generate 21 codes which were later grouped into 11 categories and five themes, in response to the research questions asked. The next step I followed after assigning codes for the data in the transcripts was to assign sub-themes which later revealed themes according to the responses given and the literature on instructional communication.

It is essential in the development of a useful framework for analysis, to establish the applicability of the code to the raw information gathered. The reliability and applicability of the coding was done through a systematic comparison of my coding and that of an independent coder, on the same material, before coding was done in the main study and this was achieved by conducting the pilot interview. After the initial coding process followed in the pilot study, I invited my supervisor to comment on the coding and her feedback indicated no modification to the pre-determined code template (Addendum 15). This process was then followed in the main study and it helped me to do focused coding as the study progressed, facilitating data analysis. The template was then used with individual lecturers to test if it was applicable and it proved applicable.

I began to apply the coding manual to each transcript using the WEFT software programme to match the information in the transcript with the codes identified. Each time I identified data from the document; the software would highlight it in red and then later generate another document reflecting only the data that matched a specific code as shown below.

Lecturer 1 [4294-4334], basically eye contact and mostly smile, Lecturer 1 [4424-4508] if you smile people are able to buy into what you are, what you want to sell to them, Lecturer 1 [4636-4686] I win them by smiling and making them feel at home

Lecturer 2 [3708-3725] facial expression, Lecturer 2 [3727-3735] gestures, Lecturer 2 [3737-3745] movement, Lecturer 2 [3747-3760] tone of voice

Lecturer 3 [3577-3610] eye contact and facial expression, Lecturer 3 [3612-3644], as well as the use of body parts

Lecturer 4 [4922-4940] facial expressions, Lecturer 4 [4942-4971] I like to talk with my hands, Lecturer 4 [5070-5126] I like to make the class not too formal and make jokes. Lecturer 4 [5747-5763] make eye contact,

Lecturer 5 [4116-4135] facial expressions, Lecturer 5 [4136-4156] I would use gestures, Lecture 5 [4158-4258] I would even use posture,

Lecturer 6 [4034-4053] gestures definitely, Lecturer 6 [4055-4073] facial expressions, Lecturer 6 [4174-4211] for emphasis purposes I use gestures

Lecturer 7 [3420-3442] I usually use gestures, Lecturer 7 [3568-3599] Cause I use the ones they're familiar with

This helped me, later, to organise data sets that went together and it also facilitated retrieval of the data.

I used the template developed with all the transcripts separately and later added some codes as I began to be more specific with the data, guided by the literature. Addendum 16 gives an indication of how the template was used to summarise transcripts from interviews with individual lecturers. After the codes were identified, I used the literature to group codes that went together so that the data sets could be summarised meaningfully. The WEFT QDAS also required that I categorise the codes so that a summary could be generated at a later stage as shown in Addendum 19. Creswell (2009) states that these themes are the ones that appear as major findings in qualitative studies: are stated under separate headings in the findings sections of studies, should display multiple perspectives from individuals, and should be supported by diverse quotations and specific evidence. After developing the codes and then grouping them together until themes were generated, I applied the template to individual transcripts which I later summarised as indicated in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Summary of Lecturer P's responses

Name of data-driven code	Verbatim segments of texts	Category	Theme
Verbal behaviour	Is informal, relaxed, formal, clear, slower, social style, complete sentences, focus on practical activities, exchanging information, interactive	Verbal communication	Immediacy
Nonverbal behaviour	Move up among the aisle, dress for the occasion, gestures to illustrate points or to elaborate; To encourage students to participate, touch do not touch-inappropriate	Nonverbal communication	
Approachability	Give Feedback, Approachable, not intimidating, soft voice, does not shout, normal tone of voice, conversational tone		
Oral communication - Questions	Questions that seek their opinion, application type of questions, synthesise, express their view points	Oral clarity	Clarity
Presentation strategies	Yes, reflective grid gives a picture, Use over-head projectors, PowerPoint projector, , Drawings to illustrate something	content clarity	
Structure/process of presentation	Give chunks of lectures, structured specific plan, present first the background, establish what the students already know, reflective grid, ask some questions, summarise	Process clarity	
Written communication	Some understand, others do not, help by using simple language, use short sentences, be specific and direct, discuss the instruction before any assignment, use simple language and short sentences and be specific in a test	Written clarity	
Respect	Students showed no disrespectful behaviour, pay attention, follow the instruction	Respect	Credibility
Trust	I hope so , they come to talk about issues come to talk about the work, come to talk about what was discussed in class, they trust me as a person, they trust me as their lecturer, I speak from a background of knowing	Trustworthiness	
Caring	Yes, I do help them, talk , motivate them, attend to them, give them another chance, accommodate them	Goodwill	
Expert	I think so, I now know what I'm doing, bring into the classroom situation what the industry expects, consider myself an expert	Competence	
Training	Has 33 years of experience, worked for the Department of Education, set exam papers, written textbooks, reports, presented papers at conferences, received awards for recognition		
Additions	more mobility, chairs are fixed, very restrictive, would like them to talk to me more	More information	Concerns

Source: Lecturer P

From Table 3.9, an overall summary of each theme, for all the interviews, was then generated (see Addendum 17, for an example).

Analysing the quantitative data entails taking a closer look at the database in response to the research questions or hypotheses, using appropriate statistical tests (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Since this was a triangulation study that sought not to generate any rule, nor to test any hypotheses, I did not run any statistical test as there was no need to do so. However, I conducted both descriptive analysis to describe the basic features of the data and inferential statistics to infer from the sample what the population thought. I also conducted a demographic analysis to help me to describe the subjects of my results. This also meant that I conducted a descriptive analysis by looking at the frequencies and the percentages. The data gathered from Sections B, C and D of the questionnaire were analysed using the inferential statistics data analysis method, to answer the research questions asked in Chapter One.

I used tables to present a discussion of the findings and the results of the analysis as a way of giving summaries of the data analysed. In some instances, segments of statements given by the participants are quoted verbatim as a way to cite multiple items of evidence and providing multiple perspectives from the individual lecturers (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The findings of the analysis for the interviews were represented through discussions of the themes identified, with related evidence from the text. I also used comparison tables as I explored the eCOVE reports per lecturer and then gave an overall impression on the lecturers' communication during instruction. Data gathered from the video observation were represented through tables to give a summary of the behaviours observed. Segments of the behaviours recorded were also used to sum up what was observed. For the quantitative study, the results of the analysis are represented in frequency tables, through cross tabulations, figures and statements as already shown. I also used bar charts and pie charts to show a visual representation of the results by depicting the trends and distribution of the data. This is fully explained in Chapter Five of this study.

3.3.7. Validating the data

Since this study used both the qualitative and quantitative data gathering methods, I will now explain how data were validated for each method used.

3.3.7.1. *Validating the qualitative data*

Validating the quality aspects of the qualitative part of my study included addressing issues of confirmability, credibility and transferability. *Confirmability* entails objectivity in a study, where the influence of the researcher's judgement should be minimised (Mertens, 2010). In my study I relied more on what the literature said about the data to be analysed and on what the data revealed. Data from the interviews were recorded manually, audio-taped and even transcribed as evidence of what was said during the interviews. Data from the questionnaires was recorded using SPSS and hard copies are still kept for confirmability. Data gathered during lecture observations were recorded using the eCOVE software which generates a report and the same data were video-taped.

Credibility in qualitative study includes aspects such as prolonged and persistent engagement, member checks, peer debriefing and triangulation. I spent six months doing field work which entailed one hour eCOVE and video recorded observations and one hour face-to-face, individual interviews with each of the seven participants. A pilot study was conducted before the actual field work during which the tools were tested and reviewed for quality purposes. This afforded me enough exposure to the study to avoid premature closure. I triangulated data by checking information that was collected from observations, interviews and questionnaires for consistency of evidence.

Transferability relates to the ability to generalise the findings of the study based on the assumption that the sample used is representative of the population (Mertens, 2010). This was not applicable to my study since I did not seek to make any generalisations.

3.3.7.2. *Validating the quantitative data*

❖ **Reliability**

Reliability entails factors such as researcher effects, participant effects, context effects and test-retest reliability (Mouton, 2009). I used multiple methods of data collection (interviews, observations and questionnaires) to enhance reliability. Being at the same institution contributes towards *researcher effects* is affiliation (membership). It was, therefore, possible that the participants in this study, might be influenced by their relationship with me through past interactions, to either participate

voluntarily in the research, or they might be uncomfortable. To address this, I clarified the purpose of this research to the participants and my role in interacting with them, from the onset of the research. At least the participants did not see me as a stranger and this reduced the distance between us. Another researcher effect was that the participants might be suspicious of the motives of the researcher, as the researcher might be seen to intrude in their core business. I had to overcome these effects by explaining to the participants the purpose of this study; the value of the information they were to contribute; assured them that the information would not be used anywhere else except in the study and that they would remain anonymous. To ensure this, the research assistant and I had to sign a declaration statement (Addenda 6 and 7).

The mere fact that human beings are being studied, leads to atypical behaviour; some of the participant effects are memory decay (participants unable to recall information due to time lapse), the omniscience syndrome and face-to-face interviews saturation (Mouton, 2009). The participants in the study responded to questions during interviews, based on their daily interactions with students and, therefore, these posed no problems of memory decay. Only one session of 30 minute interviews was held and this posited no threat of interview saturation.

Lecturers were observed by me as they taught a class and this represented the *contextual factor*. However, the participants were motivated by the topic under investigation since it related directly to their practice. I conducted non-participant observations of lecturers, as 'at least the least obtrusive form of observation' (Nieuwenhuis, 2009b), to some extent, helped to ensure the validity of the study. However, Bless and Higson-Smith (2000), warn that although non-participant observation is based on the assumption that the observer merely records facts without interaction with the observed, there is an element of bias as the participants become aware of being observed. This was possible in my study because the data source is lecturers, who are themselves human and this threatens both the reliability and validity of any study. However, this was addressed by the fact that I was observing lecturers in a lecture hall context, with both lecturers and students present and attention to the lecturer was disguised by the presence of other people in the lecture hall.

A *context effect*, which refers to the narrower setting within which the research is conducted has the potential to compromise the reliability of any study (Mouton, 2009). My experience as a lecturer has taught me that students give feedback on lecturers, sometimes influenced by the timing or the setting. If the information requested about lecturers is sought at a time when students have received good feedback about their performance in an assessment, then they might give positive feedback and vice-versa. I collaborated with lecturers to collect data from students at a time when the setting was perceived to be 'neutral'.

❖ **Validity**

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it intendeds to measure, which can be internal (the extent to which the design can account for all the factors that might affect the outcome of the research questions to be answered), or external (the extent to which the findings can be generalised to the target population in the real world) (Du Plooy, 2009). This includes 'face validity', 'content validity' and 'construct validity'. (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Babbie et al., 2006; Hittleman & Simon, 2006; Mouton, 2009; Creswell, 2009). *Face validity*, is "the extent to which an instrument appears to measure a specific body of information"(Hittleman & Simon, 2006). I intended to measure perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication and therefore, the data gathering tools I used, observation sheets, questionnaires and interview schedules, were drawn up in such a way as to reflect the students' and the lecturers' perceptions (later being piloted) of both the verbal and the nonverbal skills. The instruments were piloted to test their validity and the findings and the results would be reported later in the study.

Content validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it set out to measure (Pietersen & Maree, 2009a). To address this, I used what Du Plooy (2009) calls 'expert-jury validity', where other researchers regarded as experts on the subject matter, evaluated the merit of the measure. I sent a provisional version of my instruments, interview schedule, observation sheet and questionnaire to experts in the field for their comments and input on the content of the measures. I also ensured that I included all the varying components to be assessed as guided by the literature and previous studies conducted on measures of instructor immediacy, clarity and credibility. I also used simple terminology, to give a clear understanding of the meanings of the behaviours I wanted to measure.

Construct validity has to do with the ability of the related items to measure the constructs covered in the instrument (Maree & Pieterse, 2009a). To address this, I looked at concepts such as immediacy, clarity and credibility as they would appear to lecturers and students and analysed and evaluated them. I also used statistical techniques such as item analysis and factor analysis (Maree & Pieterse, 2009b), to measure which items belonged together and, therefore, measure the same dimension or factor. The item analysis helped me to identify items that were not suitable for use, by being either too easy or too difficult for the respondents. Analysis of the data gathered was done from the information given by the lecturers themselves about their communication with students during instruction. Students also gave their views about how they perceived the lecturer as he/she communicates with them during instruction.

3.4. Anticipated constraints of the study

There are several constraints associated with most research and if these are not addressed, they might influence the reliability and validity of the study, negatively. Jansen (2009a) indicates that one of the possible constraints in research, 'empathetic neutrality', was influenced by the fact that "fulfilling the role of observer and not participant, was unfamiliar to individuals and/or groups and this could influence their behaviour" (p.42). This was possible in my study, since the participants are not used to being observed. However, this was minimised by the fact that lecturers were not the only people in the lecture hall during observations, there were also students in the same room and so attention was not only on the lecturers but also on the students. I conducted face-to-face interviews to establish lecturers' perceptions of their own instructional communication and this can be subjective and personal. To counteract this, I administered questionnaires to students, to assess their perceptions of their lecturers. The findings of students' questionnaires were used to either confirm or reject the findings of lecturers' responses during the face-to-face interviews. I also conducted observations to confirm or reject the findings of the questionnaires and face-to-face interviews, or to allow more insights to emerge.

A challenge often associated with the non-participatory role of the researcher is that the researcher does not become immersed in the situation and is alleged not to understand what s/he is observing. I am a trained lecturer and have been lecturing

Basic Communication skills and English courses, for the past 18 years. My experience in lecturing the courses puts me in a better position to understand the dynamics of communication as a skill and the lecturer–student interactions during formal instruction. My knowledge and understanding of aspects of communication empowered me to deal with the study, better. The participants (except for one in the pilot study) and I belong to the same institution and department and that makes us share a history although we hardly interact with each other because of the physical distance in office and campus space. This history might influence the participants to either relax, as I observed them, or withdraw participation, as they might feel that I am intruding in their line of duty. I put the participants at ease by explaining to them, the purpose of the study and assured them of confidentiality and anonymity. I also advised them to withdraw from participation at any stage of the study if they felt uncomfortable and none of them did so. Another challenge associated with observations is that information gathered through observations is highly selective and subjective. I addressed this in the study by being conscious of my own bias and dealt with this by observing events first and later, behaviour. I also took up a passive role in the initial stages of the observations so that I did not dwell aggressively on data collection as this might have interfered with interpretation.

Some of the venues the lecturers used posed a threat to the ethical consideration of keeping the participants anonymous during video observations. The seating arrangements in the lecture halls was arranged in a U-shape, while I was able to record some students from the back, the faces of those on the sides' would still be recorded. This I had to address by masking the students' faces so that they may not be seen when the data is used for presentations.

It might have been difficult to arrange extra lectures for the purpose of this study during regular scheduled classes as students would not necessarily be available for extra lectures as they might have had other lectures to attend. However, this study was conducted at the end of the year when most lectures had ceased and so the students were available for extra sessions. Lecturer availability could have been another constraint because of their other commitments. I had to work my schedule around the lecturers' availability so as not to inconvenience them.



Delamont and Hamilton-Ekeke (1984) present the following limitations associated with lecture/classroom observations, which I had to consider for the validity of this study:

Methodological concerns: Delamont and Hamilton-Ekeke (1984) argue that one of the concerns about observational research is the obtrusiveness of the technique used. Observer effects might arise because instructors and students are aware that their behaviours are being observed, 'observer paradox'. I suspected that some students would be curious and fascinated by the video in the lecture hall and so the lecturers had to introduce me before the lectures commenced and explain the purpose of the video-recording. When instructors are anxious and not performing as well as usual, this can be seen to hinder drawing valid inferences about the norm. None of the lecturers appeared nervous. Instructors might also perform better than usual knowing that they are being watched and this I counteracted by gathering data from other sources. There are also concerns that the construct validity and criterion-related validity are rarely reported in observational research. The actual amount of time needed to obtain reliable and valid observation measures is another concern. Data analysis is also a concern as there is no consensus on the level of measurement.

Pragmatic concerns: some researchers believe that classroom observations are costly to conduct as they entail training and time. In my study, I was the only person trained by my employer without charge, to do video-recordings and so costs were reduced. Classroom observation may be seen as a disruption to the learning environment. This would have been the case at the research site but I was able to convince the authorities about the benefit of the study to possibly bring awareness to employees about their interaction with their students and possibly improve instruction and learning. Some participants fear the misuse of classroom observation data as some supervisors might use it for making decisions on dismissal or salary increases. In this study I had to sign a declaration statement in the presence of the participants assuring them that the information gathered would be used solely for research. Another aspect that helped is that the participants knew that I am not in authority at the research site and therefore, I could not make use of the data gathered to influence decisions made about things like promotions or salary increases.

Babbie and associates (2006) add that one of the challenges of participant observation is the issue of overt versus covert research because of ethical issues involved. This implies that participants might hide certain things that they do not want the observer to see or they might act out what they think the observer would like to see. In this way the observation becomes biased. In some instances, the obvious fact that there is an observer in the venue might influence the participants' behaviour either positively or negatively. In this study, I did not have to cover up my role as an observer in the lecture hall as I was obviously not considered a member of the group since I was neither the group's lecturer, nor was I the student. Also, the issues I was observing were not confidential and did not warrant disguising myself.

Many of the concerns cited in this study are incidental but have been greatly reduced by the introduction of sophisticated technology which enhances the precision and accuracy of researchers in recording events, providing a detailed account of contextual items that occur during observations (Brown & Tenny, 2004; Jonassen & Driscoll, 2013) is also provided. Because no single data gathering method will sufficiently answer all questions, there is a need to use multiple measures to capture a comprehensive picture of what goes on in classrooms. It therefore, becomes important to combine, where possible, qualitative and quantitative methods when conducting observational research.

3.5. Conclusion

The research method and design followed in this study indicated the importance of using different methods of data collection and different data collection instruments to reduce bias in research. Interviews, for instance, are known to be unreliable if the interviewee gives responses that are ideal as opposed to real. This was reduced by conducting lecture observations where the researcher had an opportunity to either confirm or reject what was said in the interview. Another source of data, the students, was introduced to balance the perceptions presented. Using a mixed methods design appeared to be a tedious activity in the beginning but proved more helpful and necessary as the study progressed. Having outlined the methodology followed in this study as well as the instruments used to gather gathered, next I present an analysis of the data gathered and the findings arrived at as I answer the research questions, in the next chapter.

4. Data analysis and interpretation

4.1. Introduction

The chapter contains an analysis of the data gathered through an iterative process, following a triangulation mixed methods design data analysis. Data was generated from qualitative techniques (interviews and observation) and a quantitative technique (questionnaires), where analysis began with the interviews, then the questionnaires and ended with the observations. The reason behind this sequence was that data from the interviews with lecturers were analysed first to get their perceptions of their own instructional communicational communication, which then informed how data from questionnaires would be analysed and subsequently how the data from the observations would also be analysed so that the interpretation of the findings could be mixed at a later stage. This process mapped on to the General Model of Instructional Communication helped to present the perceptions according to the self-perception (lecturers) and the other-perception (students and the observer). Data analysis was also influenced by pre-determined categories from the model, which suggested themes as they emerged from the data. Various formats such as charts, tables and figures are used to display the data gathered. The data gathered from the interviews is presented verbatim, as unedited versions of what the participants reported. These data sets were presented in some cases by first indicating the source and then the number of the data as recorded using the WEFT QDAS, followed by a quotation of what was said. For the eCOVE classroom observations, the findings of the different reports per lecturer were analysed, and then an overall description of the lecturers' behaviours was given. The same behaviours as were recorded using the eCOVE classroom observation software were also observed during the video observation. This was done to check whether lecturers behaved consistently throughout the one hour eCOVE observations and not just in chunks of five minutes.

To answer the research questions the data from the interviews, questionnaires and observations have been analysed. The guiding concepts in exploring the nature of the lecturers' instructional communication (IC) were immediacy, clarity and credibility so as to reveal their competence when giving instruction in English. This chapter presents the findings and results related to the first research question: "*What*

perceptions do the lecturers and the students hold of lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility, during instruction?" which I will now answer, and the second research: *"To what extent do the lecturers' and the students' perceptions reflect lecturers' instructional competence?"*, which I will answer later in the report. It needs to be emphasised that the purpose of this study was not to establish the *accuracy* of the lecturers' or students' perceptions of the IC activity but to get a holistic picture of what the perception are and therefore, the perceptions need to be interpreted as simply, the lecturers' and the students' perceptions. I now present a discussion of how I answered the first research question, looking at each of the three chosen components of the General Model of Instructional Communication at a time.

4.2. Perceptions of lecturer immediacy

Since immediacy has both verbal and nonverbal elements, I explored both as part of instructional communication.

4.2.1. Lecturer verbal immediacy

In Chapter Two, verbal immediacy was described as an outcome of humour/friendliness, a willingness to become involved in a conversation with students/allowing for small talk, self-disclosure/openness by the instructor, questions that solicit students' opinion, follow-ups on students' initiated topics of discussion, meetings with students outside the classroom, usefulness of personal example/ownership statements - 'our' instead of 'my', syntactic expressions of present or past tense verbs, use of probability – 'will' versus 'might' and inclusive reference – 'we' versus 'I' as well as using student names (Richmond, 2001). I will now discuss these behaviours as evidenced by triangulation from the interviews, questionnaires and observations.

4.2.1.1. Lecturers' perceptions

The interviews opened with a question requesting the participants to describe their instructional communication with their students. Table 4.1 shows the lecturers' responses when asked: *How would you describe your communication (oral and written) with your students during the lectures?*

Table 4.1: Lecturers' perceptions of their communication with their students

Participant	Sentence numbers and verbatim quotes
Lecturer 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [2402-2428] It is formal, very formal • [2452-2498] I try by all means not to use my mother tongue • [2601-2704] It is effective in the sense that students are given an opportunity during lectures to ask questions • [2860-2951] They have consulting hours where they can come and consult beyond the normal lecturing time • [2955-3016] I will generally say it is effective, both oral and written.
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [2261-2270] Effective • [2276-2327] Both formal and informal depending on the situation • [2468-2573] We do have our student evaluation, from the feedback that I get from that, it shows that it is effective • [2574-2615] And obviously results from the assessment
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [5695-5704] Very much • [5717-5764] They are keen to talk to me even outside class • [5856-5939] They are free to come during their consultation hours to talk about any other thing
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [2495-2528] I think I have open communication • [2534-2592] They are welcomed to ask questions, and I do ask questions • [2594-2625] I like interaction in the class • [3081-3103] I think it's effective
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [2364-2466] not as effective, because they get used to the way that I teach, and I have to get used to know them • [2760-2817] I always keep the language that I use um, form, objective • [2879-2905] it becomes more informal
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [2211-2238] my lectures are interactive • [2341-2355],ask questions • [2360-2379] engage the learners • [2457-2482] not everyone participates • [2507-2544] those who are vocal will participate,
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [2695-2704] It's fine • [2766-2786] Yah, it's effective

It is evident from Table 4.1 that the lecturers perceive their verbal communication with their students as being effective, engaging/interactive, both formal and informal

and open. However, Lecturer 5 said that her impression was that it is not 'that effective' at the beginning because students had to get used to the way she taught and she had to get to know the students. All the lecturers said students visit their offices during and outside consultation hours for academic or personal matters. Lecturer 2 gave his perceptions through the eyes of the students, based on the student evaluations feedback, a mechanism used at the university to evaluate lecturer practices. There is also an indication that lecturers are rewarded for good communication as this lecturer indicated that he had received a certificate at a prize-giving ceremony for the 'coolest lecturer'. The fact that the lecturers have consultation hours that students use, indicates lecturers' willingness to engage in conversations with their students, also allowing for small talk. This might show lecturers' openness to meet with the students outside the classroom, and they are informal in doing so. These responses suggest that the lecturers perceive themselves to be immediate. Verbal immediacy is also about lecturers' approachability. Table 4.2 summarises the lecturers' responses when asked whether they thought their students found them approachable.

Table 4.2: Lecturers' perceptions of their approachability

Participant	Sentence numbers and verbatim quotes
Lecturer 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [5717-5764] they [<i>the students</i>] are keen to talk to me even outside class • [5765-5852] They can stop me and say mam you look nice or mam what's wrong or mam what's happening • [5856-5939] they are free to come during their consultation hours to talk about any other thing
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [5217-5322] this student evaluation eh, it comes out that my style, my way of presentation is eh, accessible to them,
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [4381-4463] sometimes they come and ask me eh! About something that was, say, part of a lesson, • [4563-4676] one or two students will come and based on what was said in class and they relate, his or her personal experience • [5983-6008] I think I am approachable
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [6343-6471] I'm approachable because you know, there were students who came and asked questions, and they do not seem to, to feel intimidated
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [5092-5107] I would hope so especially • [5188-5312] they do approach me especially in their second year to help with the CVs, and letter of application, application for bursary
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [5890-6089] after class they would come to the lecturer's desk or come to the office, for clarity, to find out more about what you would have been talking about in class.
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [4352-4402] they come and I address their matters in my office

These responses suggest that the lecturers perceive themselves to be approachable. Only Lecturer 5 was non-committal about her response at first, as she expressed uncertainty, but later conceded that her students do approach her. Lecturer 2's response relied heavily on what the students said about him during student evaluations. Humour is regarded as one of the verbal behaviours that show lecturer immediacy. During the interviews, only Lecturer 3 and Lecturer 4 indicated that they accepted jokes/laughter during instruction, to break the formality of the presentations. The lecturers perceived themselves to be approachable.

Another behaviour that reveals verbal immediacy is when lecturers ask students questions during instruction to encourage student interaction, engagement and participation. When the participants were asked: "*Do you ask students questions during instruction?*" the lecturers said that they did and they gave various reasons for doing so, such as:

Lecturer 1 [3138-3238] During lectures I do ask questions just to make sure that the students are on the same page with me

Lecturer 2 [2914-3003] I would say clarify, basically to check if they are understanding what I'm talking about,

Lecturer 3 [2927-2988] Knowledge, sometimes they trigger, they're thought provoking,

Lecturer 4 [3655-3765] I like to draw on their background and their experience if they have, eh, and try to put them in the picture

Lecturer 5 [3320-3356] I would test their content knowledge

Lecturer 6 [3352-3446] ... to find out how much they know, hum, to determine the pitch at which I can pitch the lecture.

Lecturer 7 [3046-3072] I usually assess knowledge

These statements indicate that the lecturers perceived themselves as questioners during lectures for the pedagogic reasons they offered. Asking questions is an indicator of an effort to communicate but as important is to whom those questions are directed and this was not established. Overall, the lecturers perceived themselves to be verbally immediate. Now that the lecturers' perceptions are stated, I now present the students' perception of their lecturers' verbal immediacy.

4.2.1.2. Students' perceptions

Figure 4.1 indicates the students' perceptions of the direction of the lecturers' questions according to the responses given in the questionnaires.

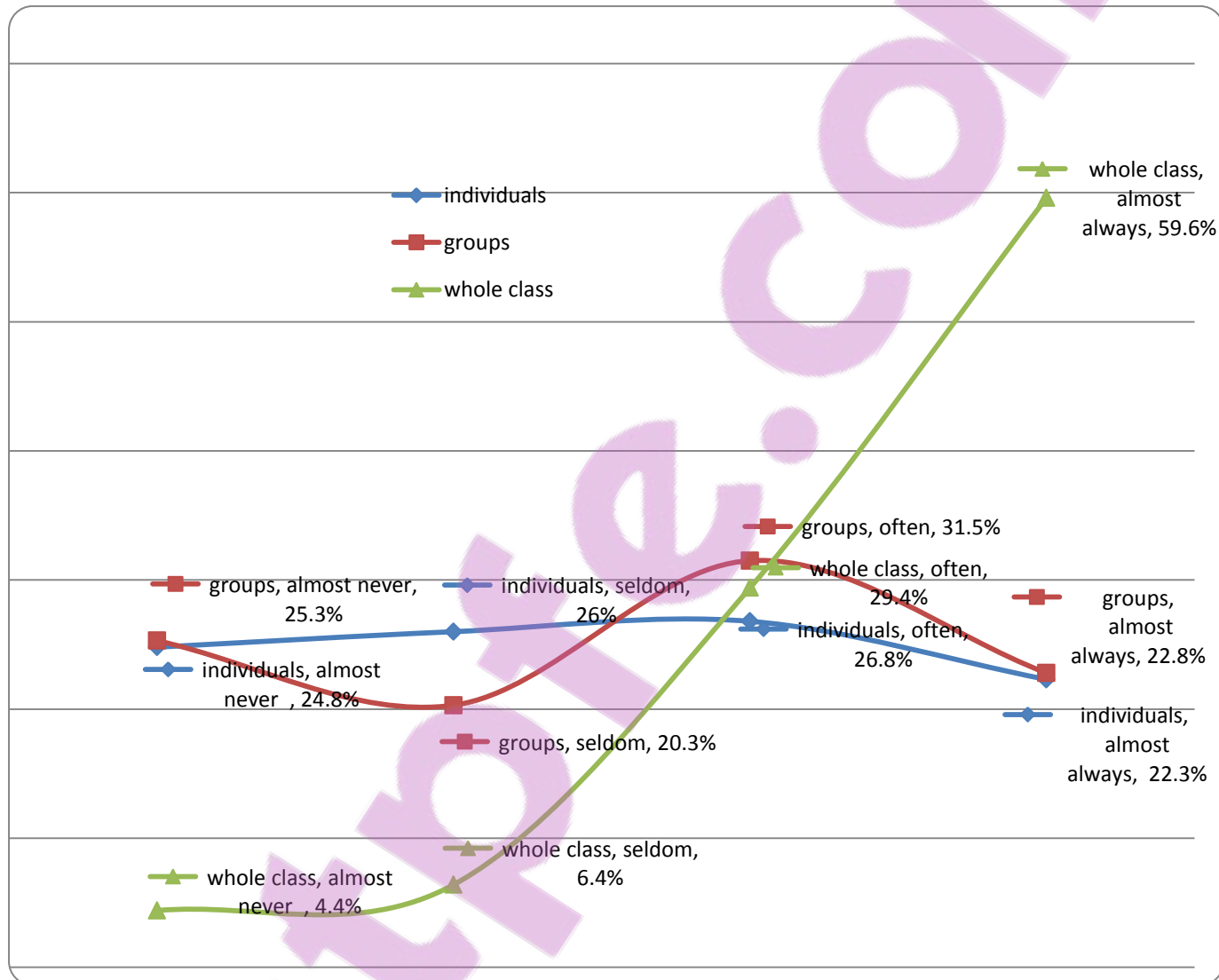


Figure 4.1: Percentage of the students' perceptions of their lecturers' direction of questions

Figure 4.1 suggests that the majority of the students perceived their lecturers to almost always direct questions to the whole class, and less often to individual students or groups of students. This suggests that the lecturers do not balance the direction of their questions to facilitate student participation although, in the interviews, the lecturers perceived their questioning skills positively.

On the questionnaire item: *My lecturer allows students to ask questions during lectures*, the responses are summarised in Figure 4.2.

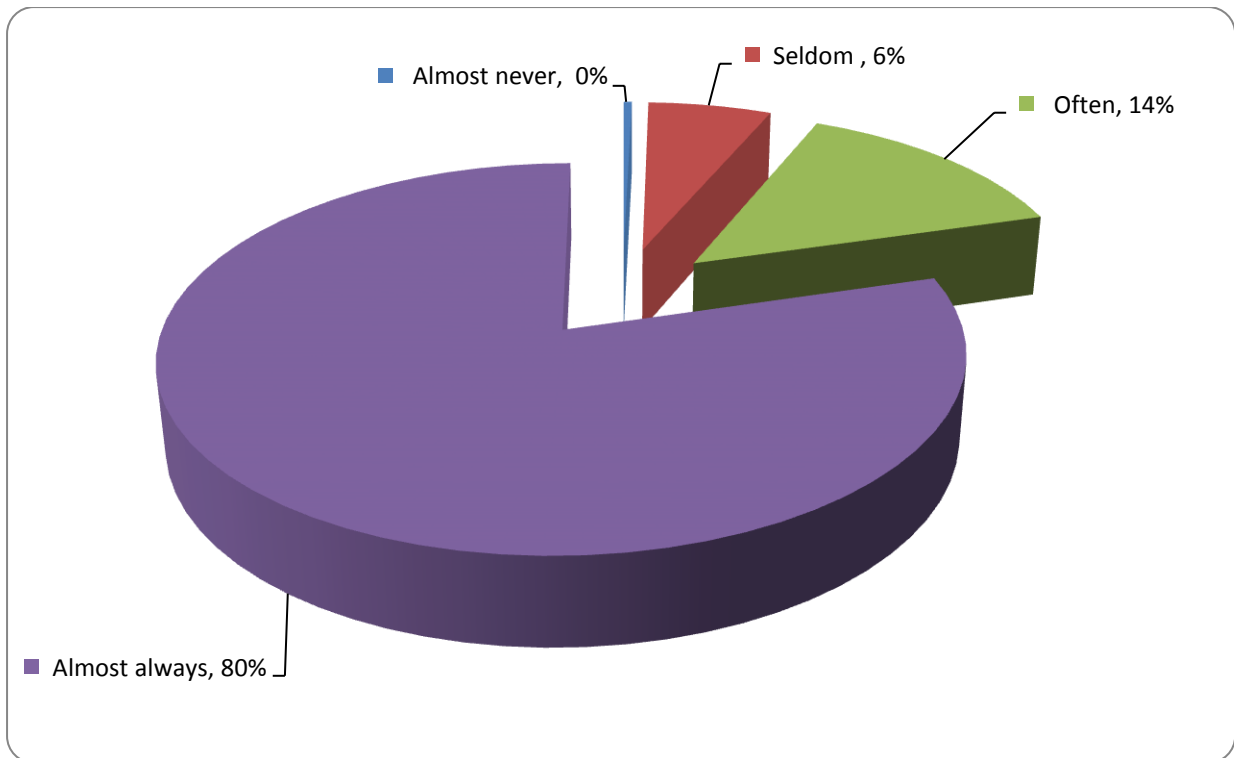


Figure 4.2: Frequency which the students perceived **their lecturers to allow them to ask questions during lectures**

The data in Figure 4.2 suggest that the majority of the students perceived their lecturers to almost always encouraged students to participate by allowing them to ask questions. This is a positive evaluation.

Immediacy is also about liking or disliking other people and this has an influence on whether we would want to communicate with others or avoid them. The students' comments on item 13 of the questionnaire, suggested that they liked their lecturers as the following descriptive statements prove:

[143-154] Role model ; [861-887] The best lecturer so far.; [890-901] He is good; [2687-2703] Lovely lecturer; [5286-5308] The lecturer is cool and [7230-7241] Nice person.

[1580-1591] Appreciate; [1594-1610] Thankful to her; [1638-1654] Enjoy her class; [4044-4072] I am happy with her lectures; [5077-5113] We love to have her as our lecturer;

These statements suggest that the students rated their lecturers positively.

The lecturers' perceptions of their effective communication with their students, is supported by the following descriptions by the students:

[508-525] Good communicator (effective)

[1249-1286] He makes the whole class interesting (effective).

[2899-2937] Communicates very well with students (effective)

[3984-4038] Has consultation shown for students who are struggling (open)

[4514-4547] Allows students to ask questions (interactive)

[3366-3425] Gives students opportunity to discuss with fellow students (interactive)

[2899-2937] Communicates very well with students (effective)

These statements also highlight the positive student emotions that the lecturers initiate as a result of their communication with the students.

In addition, the students indicated that they found their lecturers approachable because they made them feel free and comfortable to participate during lectures and that the students were not afraid to ask questions. The students added that they had good relations with their lecturers and the lecturers had consultation hours shown for students who are struggling, supporting what the lecturers said when interviewed. The students further indicated that their lecturers were humorous, interesting, open and “know how to speak with children”. These suggest good rapport. These positive comments suggest that the students perceived their lecturers to be verbally immediate, although some students raised specific concerns about their lecturers’ communication. They commented that they would like their lecturers to: inform them when not around (Lecturers 1 and 7), leave notices if unavailable (Lecturers 1), be audible (Lecturer 4, 6 and 7), use words that are more understandable (Lecturer 5), not to always treat them like primary children by instructing them to clap hands when a correct answer is communicated (Lecturer 6) and to help students with questions, and to talk with all the students and not just those in front (Lecturer 7). These comments suggest that five of the seven lecturers were considered verbally non-immediate at times.

To summarise, students perceived their lecturers to be verbally immediate, in that they perceived them positively most of the time and had positive feelings and attitudes towards them, although some had concerns.



4.2.1.3. Researcher's observations

Lecturers' verbal immediacy was observed in term of the closeness between the lecturers and their students in speech. In Table 4.3 I present a frequency table of my observations of the lecturers' verbal behaviours as witnessed during the lectures.

Table 4.3: Video observations of lecturers' verbal behaviours

Verbal behaviours	Lecturer 1	Lecturer 2	Lecturer 3	Lecturer 4	Lecturer 5	Lecturer 6	Lecturer 7
Humour	7 x h	5 x h	7 x h	9 x h	2 x h	3x h	3x h
Proximity (through the use of this = ti /that = ta)	9 x ti	-	3 x ta 1 x ti	1 x ti	4 x ta 2 x ti	4x ta 1x ti	-
Probability (will = w/might = m)	1 x m 3 x w	-	2 x w	-	1x w	-	-
Inclusive reference (we = w/I = I)	26 x w 10 x I and 6 x us 8 x you	5 x w 3 x I and 2 x us 1 x you	1 x w 3 x I and 5 x us 3 x you	2 x w 3 x I and 1 x us 6 x you	5 x w 7 x I and 5 x us 4 x you	10x w 4x I and 5x us	2x w 4x I
Ownership statement (our = o /my = m)	1 x o	-	-	-	1 x m	5x o	-
Calling students by names	2 x n		5 x n	3 x n	5 x n	5x n	-
Small talk (through short conversations with students)	2 x s	-	-	2 x s	-	2x s	-
Self-disclosure	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

The verbal behaviours summarised in Table 4.3 suggest the closeness between the lecturers and their students. During the observations, four lecturers (Lecturers 1, 2, 3 and 4) were found to use humour by allowing jokes during instruction. Table 4.3 also indicates that Lecturers 3, 5 and 6 used more of the distal demonstrative 'that' in their speeches, suggesting that these lecturers were distant from their students. Only Lecturer 1 used more of the proximal demonstrative 'this', reducing the distance between her and her students. Lecturers 2 and 7 were observed to have used

neither of the two. In terms of probability statements, Lecturers 1, 3 and 5 used 'will' sparingly, while Lecturer 1 used 'might' only once, with Lecturers 2, 4, 6 and 7 not using any probability statements.

Another verbal behaviour observed was the lecturers' use of inclusive references such as 'we' as opposed to 'I'. Lecturers 1, 2 and 6 used more of 'we' suggesting that they were positively polite in their communication with their students, while Lecturers 3, 4, 5 and 7 used more of 'I' which suggested negative politeness. However, the observations also showed that most of the lecturers used more of 'us' rather than 'I' and 'we', which is also suggests positive politeness and inclusiveness. Lecturers 1 and 6 used the ownership statement 'our', while Lecturer 5 used 'my' only once and the rest of the lecturers did not use either of the two statements. Only three lecturers (Lecturers 1, 4 and 6) engaged in small talk and none of the lecturers displayed evidence of self-disclosure by revealing their own experience and as such they were observed to be distant in their speech. Lecturers 3, 5 and 6 often called their students by name, while Lecturers 1 and 4 did so minimally and Lecturers 2 and 7 did not use students' names at all. The general perception created is that the lecturers were observed to be distant in their speech

Table 4.4 indicates the directions of the lecturers' questions using the Directions/Questions tool of the eCOVE software and video - recordings.

Table 4.4: Observations of lecturers' direction of questions (eCOVE and Video)

Participants	Whole class		Small group		Individual	
	eCOVE	Video	eCOVE	Video	eCOVE	Video
Lecturer1	mostly	71%	none	0%	sometimes	29%
Lecturer 2	mostly	100%	none	0%	none	0%
Lecturer 3	none	25%	mostly	75%	none	0%
Lecturer 4	mostly	100%	none	0%	sometimes	0%
Lecturer 5	none	100%	mostly	0%	none	0%
Lecturer 6	mostly	57%	none	0%	none	43%
Lecturer 7	mostly	20%	none	80%	none	0%

The impression gained from analysing Table 4.4 is that five lecturers directed most of their questions to the whole class while two lecturers directed most of their questions to small groups. These findings support the students' perceptions that the lecturers directed most of their questions to the whole class. However this might have been because of the activities of the day and the particular learning environment, as reflected in the following comments;

Lecturer 3 Video observations [2832-2937], Directions/Questions Whole Class/Small Group/Individual **Small groups** as students did a group activity

Lecturer 7 Video observations [2786-2916], Directions/Questions Whole Class/Small Group/Individual **Individuals** within groups, who gave information on behalf of the group

Teacher - Talk duration as an element of verbal immediacy is the duration of the instructor's verbal communication during instruction, in other words, which did most of the talking. I used the Teacher - Talk tool and the Verbal Tics tool to measure the frequency of Teacher – Talk during the eCOVE observations, as reflected in Figure 4.3.

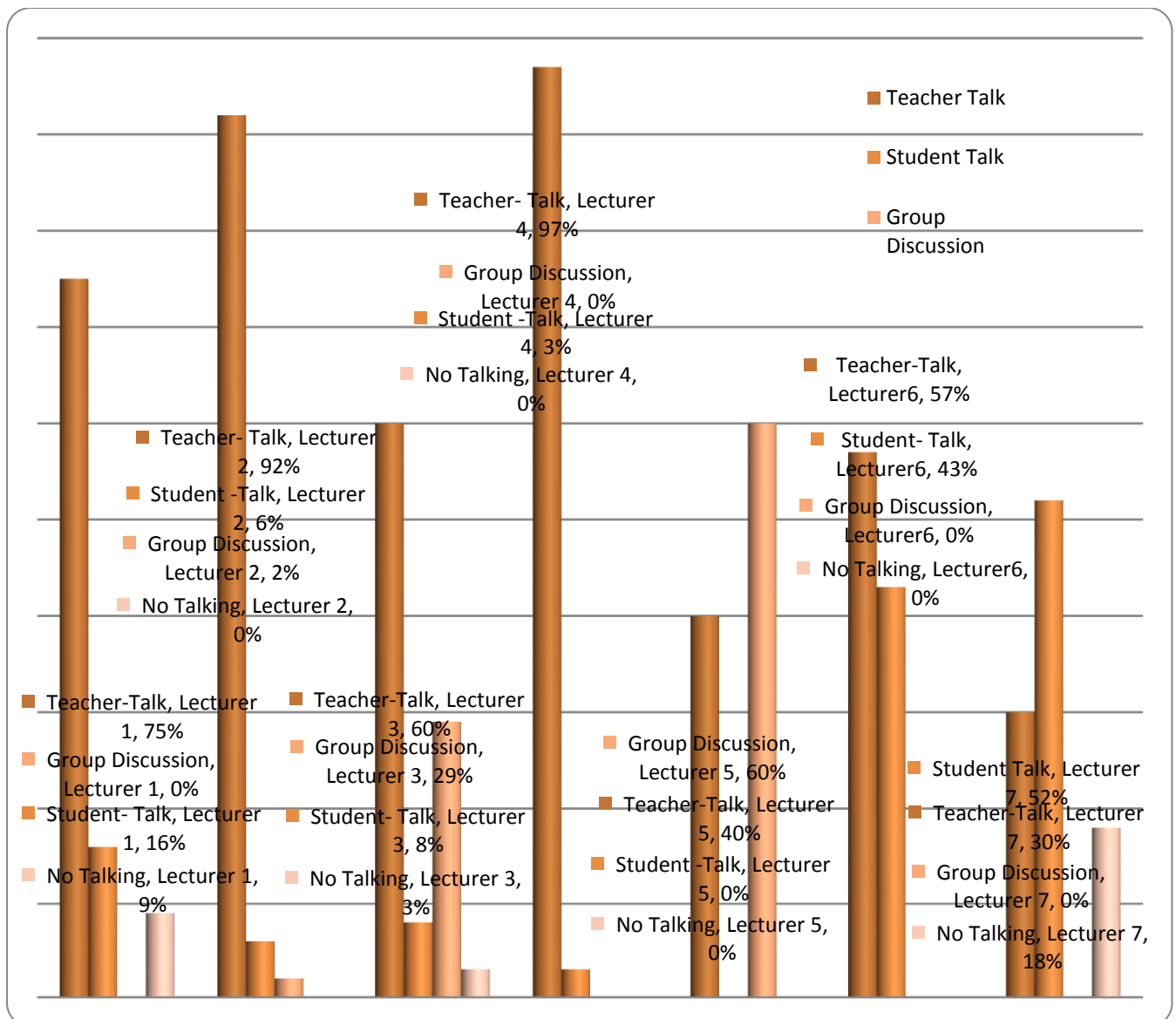


Figure 4.3: Observation of teacher-talk (eCOVE)

As shown in Figure 4.3, five lecturers dominated the interaction by doing most of the talking, making the lectures lecturer-centred. Only one lecturer allowed the students to do most of the talking (52%), while another lecturer initiated group discussions, making their lectures student-centred,. There were some instances of silence during the lectures, suggesting that there was more interaction than non-interaction. The following field notes made during the observations, confirm what is illustrated in Figure 4.3:

Lecturer 1: no comment

Lecturer 2: 12:16:53 PM Teacher - talk the lecturer was giving explanations of the content at the beginning of the lecture, reading from the textbook, individual students talked only when they asked and answered questions.

Lecturer 3: 3:43:53 PM Teacher - talk students worked on an article as a group, more time spent on group discussion, teacher talked to give direction, explanations, clarification

Lecturer 4: 11:22:06 AM Teacher - talk teacher talked more when giving explanations and students talked when they answered questions to prompt them to talk about their advert. She talked more as she explained students' adverts

Lecturer 5: 11:23:51 AM Teacher - talk teacher talked more in the beginning-theory lesson, later group discussions; lecturer came in to give directions

Lecturer 6: 12:34:40 PM Teacher - talk the lecturer did most of the talking in the beginning because she had to read out the questions, she also explained how the question should have been answered, students talked when they responded to questions

Lecturer 7: 9:37:27 AM Teacher - talk students talked to seek clarification, lecturer talked to answer questions from the students and to give explanations, there was no talk while the lecturer wrote on the board

The video observations suggested that four lecturers (Lecturers 1, 3, 5, and 6) talked more at the beginning of the lecture and then the students started talking. Two lecturers (Lecturers 4 and 7) maintained a balance between student talk and Lecturer-talk throughout the lectures, whereas Lecturer 2 did most of the talking. These findings contradict the findings of the eCOVE observation although the overall impression created was that there was a balance between 'Lecturer-Talk' and Student-Talk.

Another behaviour which established lecturer verbal immediacy was the manifestation of verbal tics. These are the sounds, meaningless fillers that lecturers make as they talk. Table 4.5 provides the frequency of verbal tics observed during lectures.

Table 4.5: Observations of lecturers' use of verbal tics (eCOVE and video)

Participants	Verbal tics			
	eCOVE recordings	Quantity	Video recordings	Quantity
Lecturer 1	eh, ok(2x), um, eh	5	Right, alright, ok, um, ok, ok, eh, good, right, alright, ok	11
Lecturer 2	em (2x), ah (2x), eh, uh, ok	7	Right, eh, right, right, em, uh, ok, em, ah, em, ah, eh,	12
Lecturer 3	er, um, yah (3x), er	6	Right, er, um, yah, er, yah, yah	7
Lecturer 4	ok (8x), um (3x), yah,	12	Right, ok, right, ok, ok, alright, ok, um, er, ok, yah, ok	12
Lecturer 5	ok (6x)	6	Ok, ok, ok, ok, ok, ok, 6x	6
Lecturer 6	Uhm, uh, um, ok (3x)	9	Ok, uh, uhm, uh, uhm,	5
Lecturer 7	er, yah, huh	3	Eh, er, yah, huh	4

From the analysis of data summarised in Table 4.5, the lecturers appear prone to using many verbal tics throughout the lectures, not only during the five minute eCOVE observations. The use of tics during video observations increased, especially the use of ‘ok’. Lecturer 4 used ‘ok’ to acknowledge contributions from students, while Lecturer 5 used it to encourage students to continue presenting their work and other lecturers used ‘ok’ simply to agree with what the students were saying. The use of verbal tics is regarded as a positive means of creating immediacy but also as a negative perception of lack of content knowledge or confidence.

From the data discussed to this point, there appears to be discrepancies in perceptions in that lecturers perceived themselves to be verbally immediate, while the students perceived their lecturers to be sometimes verbally immediate and sometimes not. My observations suggest that they were verbally non-immediate in most behaviour. Since immediacy is both verbal and nonverbal, I now present perceptions of lecturers’ nonverbal immediacy.

4.2.2. Lecturer nonverbal immediacy

Highly affective teaching behaviours such as gestures, movement, smile, vocal variety, eye contact and tone of voice (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001) were explored to establish lecturers’ nonverbal immediacy.

4.2.2.1. Lecturers’ perceptions

When lecturers were asked “Which nonverbal codes (eye contact, touch, smile etc.) do you use often during instruction?” most lecturers said that they used *facial expression* for emphasis (Lecturers 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6); *gestures* (Lecturers 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7); *movement* (Lecturer 2), eye contact (Lecturers 1, 3, and 4) and Lecturer 1 indicated that she smiled during instruction, because

Lecturer 1 [4424-4508] if you smile people are able to buy into what you are, what you want to sell to them

Lecturers are expected to modulate their tone of voice; listening to a monotone is not a successful way of getting students interested in any subject matter. Only Lecturer 2 made a comment about modulating the tone of voice;

Lecturer 2 [3747-3760] tone of voice, **Lecturer 2 [3857-3898]** to bring the message across, more clearly

When lecturers were asked; “*Are there any nonverbal codes you do not use often?*”

Lecturer 1 responded by saying;

[4513-4631] I do not see a point in frowning or bringing in, or bringing my problems into class because it can only work against me

Lecturers 2, 3, 4, 6 and 7 could not think of any and Lecturer 5 stated:

[4704-4831] I would never use for example the gesture of this (demonstrated calling a student by her finger) because I think that is rude

[4905-5003] I would for example not chew a gum cause it would show ha-ha (laughing), it's just a bad example.

It is clear from these responses that most lecturers struggled to think of nonverbal codes they do not used. None of them made any comments about using touch.

When the lecturers were asked directly if they used touch during instruction they responded as follows;

Lecturer 1 [5106-5206] I would not touch my students ... [5106-5206] I would not touch my students because (giggle) you know these days, besides I feel it's unacceptable

Lecturer 2 [4028-4059] I think touch is the main thing [4224-4297] to create that professional distance between the lecturer and the student

Lecturer 3 [3824-3886] Touch for instance? Respondent: yah, I do not really use it.... [4147-4163] it's off-limits

Lecturer 4 [5402-5436] No I do not touch with the students... [5533-5584] I think I get, I'm moving into their space too much

Lecture 5 [4672-4700] I would not touch a student....

Lecturer 6 [4535-4571] Touch, hum, no, no, not regularly no [4729-4772] you do not want to give the wrong impression

Lecturer 7 [4104-4134] I can say I'm not used to that

These responses suggest that none of the lecturers touched their students.

However, when probed some lecturers later said that:

Lecturer 1 [5303-5530] I can only touch when someone comes into my office with their personal problems, when comforting them might be I can give them a hug

Lecturer 3 [3977-4016] It depends upon the content of the day

Lecturer 5 [4574-4666] I would touch the students or so, with their permission when I for example explain proxemics

Lecturer 6 [4918-5007] Used touch occasionally with the girls but to encourage them, prompt them to give answers

These responses suggest that the lecturers have not totally ruled out touch during instruction but that it is only done under certain circumstances and with the permission of the students. Overall, the lecturers perceive themselves to be nonverbally immediate.

4.2.2.2. *Students' perceptions*

The lecturers' perceptions were supported by the students' perceptions as summarised in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Frequency distribution of respondents' perceptions of lecturers' nonverbal behaviours (n = 252)

Base question	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
Maintains eye contact	3%	5%	17%	75%
Can be heard by all students	4%	7%	19%	70%
Looks over or away	59%	12%	15%	14%
Uses a dull or monotonous voice	44%	17%	23%	15%
Smiles	5%	8%	31%	55%
Nods her/his head	4%	8%	30%	59%
Uses her/his hand and arms	2%	13%	36%	48%
Moves around	10%	15%	32%	42%
Has a relaxed body position	6%	12%	30%	53%
Frowns	53%	26%	15%	5%
Gestures when talking to students	11%	23%	41%	25%
Looks directly at the students	2%	5%	21%	72%

Looking at the frequency distribution in Table 4.6, the data suggest that the majority of the respondents perceived their lecturers to use more positive nonverbal behaviours than negative ones, suggesting that they are perceived to be nonverbally immediate. It also appears that the lecturers do not use the lecture hall space adequately as only 42% said they do. The students' comments on item 13 revealed that some lecturers are always late for lectures (Lecturers 1, 4 and 7), do not smile (Lecture 3) and Lecturer 7's students remarked that her facial expression is not 'attractive' and not encouraging, "she is lazy", she "stays in one place does not move around" and that she "looks tired". These comments on the lecturers' negative nonverbal behaviours cannot be ignored as they suggest that these students find the lecturers nonverbally non-immediate and this might be interfering with their learning.

In general, these comments suggest that lecturers can be perceived to be nonverbally immediate by some students and not by others, which is a reality in life. The question is who are in the majority and in this case 116 students who responded to this item, perceived their lecturers to be nonverbally immediate as opposed to 13 students.

4.2.2.3. *Researcher's observations*

Lecturers' nonverbal behaviours were also observed and the data are summed up in Table 4.7

Table 4.7: Observations of lecturers' use of nonverbal behaviours (eCOVE and video)

Nonverbal behaviour	Lecturer 1		Lecturer 2		Lecturer 3		Lecturer 4		Lecturer 5		Lecturer 6		Lecturer 7	
	e	V	e	V	e	V	e	V	e	V	e	V	e	V
Arms folded	-	-	-	-	-	-	1x	√	-	-	-	-	-	-
Direct stare	1x	√	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	√
Frowning	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hands on hips/pockets	-	-	2x	√	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Leaned on table	-	√	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nodding head	3x	√	1x	√	1x	√	1x	√	-	-	-	-	-	√
Shaking head	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1x	√
Smiling	3x	√	-	-	-	-	-	√	1x	√	1x	√	1x	-
Thumbs up /hand gesture	2x	√	1x	√	4x	√	1x	√	2x	√	4x	√	1x	√
Touch	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

e =eCOVE observations

v=Video observations

Table 4.7 shows that in the five minute eCOVE observations, using the Nonverbal Behaviour tool, the lecturers used more than three nonverbal behaviours. The most common nonverbal behaviour observed was the use of thumbs/gestures by all seven lecturers followed by laughing (five lecturers). Four lecturers smiled and/or nodded

their heads which showed that they used positive behaviours. Individual lecturers also used negative behaviours such as folded arms, direct stares, hands on hips or shook their heads. No lecturer touched a student, supporting what the lecturers initially said during the interviews that they do not touch their students and none of the lecturers frowned. These findings suggest that most of the lecturers showed positive nonverbal behaviours, as also supported by the following comments;

Lecturer 1: No comment

Lecturer 2: 12:09:59 PM Nonverbal Behaviors hands for elaboration, illustration, moving not fixed to one spot, hands in pockets, maintains eye contact, allowed students to laugh when needed, used head gesture to allow students who were late to come into the lecture hall

Lecturer 3: 3:13:19 PM Nonverbal Behaviors maintained eye contact, used hand gestures to illustrate a point, allowed students to laugh when needed

Lecturer 4: 11:23:42 AM Nonverbal Behaviors she used gestures to elaborate and illustrate information, eye contact, nod to show agreement, she laughed students laughed

Lecturer 5: 11:11:32 AM Nonverbal Behaviors maintained eye contact, gestures to explain and illustrate points, sitting on the table,

Lecturer 6: 12:31:19 PM Nonverbal Behaviors used hand gesture-finger to emphasise instruction, make an illustration, maintained eye contact, allowed students to laugh when needed

Lecturer 7: 9:33:44 AM Nonverbal Behaviors lecturer allowed students to laugh when needed shook her head to show disagreement, and maintained eye contact

These comments reveal additional information; that other nonverbal behaviours such as eye contact and laughing, which were not part of the tools used, were also observed. The comments also indicate that lecturers used nonverbal codes for reasons such as; elaboration and illustration (hands), emphasis (hand gesture, finger), permission to access the lecture hall (head gesture), agreement (nod) and disagreement (shook head).

How space is shared in an instructional environment can either be affective in bringing the lecturer and the students together or create a barrier. If there seems to be an intangible psychological barrier, lecturers can be perceived as unfriendly, unreceptive, unapproachable and non-immediate. This influences student-instructor relationships negatively (Richmond, 2001; Nieman, 2006; McArthur, 2008). The location of the lecturers in the lecture hall, their movement and the students' seating arrangements were observed during lectures. I used The Teacher Travel- Attention tool to observe the lecturers' travel patterns as part of lecturers' nonverbal behaviours. The tool divides the lecture hall into time spent at the instructor's desk,

at the Overhead Projector (as used in the tool) but also refer to PowerPoint presentation, in front, in the middle and at the back and also on the left, centre and right of the classroom. Figure 4.4 illustrates how the lecturers travelled during their lectures, with the squares illustrating the physical layout of the lecture hall.

Teacher's desk: L1:28.7%, L2: 0%, L3: 0%, L4:19%, L5: 29.9%, L6: 50.7%, L7: 0%

Projector: L1:7.3%, L2: 0%, L3: 0%, L4:0%, L5: 0%, L6: 0%, L7: 0%

Front left L1:4.7% L2: 26.7% L3: 13.1% L4:7.7% L5: 5.2% L6: 0% L7: 0%	Front centre L1: 56.7% L2: 70.7% L3: 0% L4:0% L5: 20.2% L6: 49.3% L7: 100%	Front right L1:0% L2: 1.3% L3: 0% L4:12.3% L5: 2.7% L6: 0% L7: 0%
Centre left L1:2.7% L2: 0% L3: 14.5% L4:18.0% L5: 1.3% L6: 0% L7: 0%	Middle centre L1:0% L2: 0% L3: 15.4% L4:2.7% L5: 2.8% L6: 0% L7: 0%	Centre right L1:0% L2: 0% L3: 0% L4:11.2% L5: 25.3% L6: 0% L7: 0%
Back left L1:0% L2: 0% L3: 0% L4: 9.3% L5: 1.2% L6: 0% L7: 0%	Back centre L1:0% L2: 6% L3: 48.6% L4:5.2% L5: 6.2% L6: 0% L7: 0%	Back right L1:0% L2: 1.3% L3: 0% L4:13.7% L5: 5.2% L6: 0% L7: 0%

 = Almost even distribution of time  = Highest percentage

Figure 4.4: eCOVE observations of Teacher-Travel Attention (five minutes)

Figure 4.4 suggests that the lecturers' movements were influenced by the seating arrangements in the lecture hall. Where lecturers could move around, the seats were arranged to accommodate such movements. Those lecturers who could not move around freely were constrained because the seats were bolted securely to the floor, limiting the lecturers' use of space. Lecturers 1, 2 and 7 spent most of their time in the front centre section of the lecture hall and Lecturer 3 at the back centre section

while Lecturer 6 spent most of her time between the instructor's desk and the front centre of the lecture hall. Lecturer 4 and 5 managed to spread their movements across the lecture halls. This can be largely attributed to the U-shaped student seating arrangement and the fact that the students were engaged in group activities. The lecturers could move from one group to another, as they checked the students' work and gave feedback.

The comments below, recorded during the eCOVE observations, further explain how and why the lecturers travelled, or did not travel, through the lecture hall the way they did.

Lecturer 2: 12:13:34 PM Teacher Travel-Attention Lecturer walked up and down between the front left and middle, mostly in the front middle as that is where the textbook was and he read from the book from time to time, seats arranged in three columns to allow some teacher travel

Lecturer 4: 11:33:32 AM Teacher Travel-Attention She covered the whole room as she walked from one student to the other, also wrote on the board. The seating arrangement was U-shaped and so there was no reason to be in the middle of the class as there were no students seated there.

Lecturer 5: 11:17:22 AM Teacher Travel-Attention Time spent on chalkboard to write down information, seating arrangement allowed the lecturer to move around, changed when students engaged in a task-the lecturer started moving around the groups

Lecturer 6: 12:54:34 PM Teacher Travel-Attention Mostly at her desk when giving explanations, at the chalkboard to reflect the correct answers

The lecturers were observed to not use space adequately by covering the whole lecture hall, even though some of the seating arrangements allowed them to do so. Table 4.8 provides a summary of the location and travel patterns of the lecturers during the video observations.

Table 4.8: Lecturers' location and travel patterns (video)

Participants	Location in class	Teacher travel	Seating arrangement
Lecturer 1	[1528-1579] Initially at the lecturer's desk for the PowerPoint	[1581-1672] moved around the class - back, sides but not in the middle because of seating arrangements	[1721-1753] Rows without space between them
Lecturer 2		[1420-1490] Back and forth at the front of the class, where the textbook was kept	[1560-1641] Desks arranged in two columns and allowed lecturer to walk in between but did not
Lecturer 3	[1330-1492] Was at the lecturer's desk most of the time as he read from the notes,	[1330-1492] ...later went to the back, sides and in-between the rows when students did the class activity	[1579-1635] Only rows, no columns, allowed movement between the rows
Lecturer 4		[1290-1346] Left, right, centre, back, interacted with the students	[1407-1448] U-shaped, allowed lecturer free movement
Lecturer 5	[1339-1461] Initially spent more time at the teacher's desk reading from the hand-out,	[1339-1461] ...then moved around in between the rows of desks	[1512-1575] Seats in rows of U-shape but with plenty of space between rows
Lecturer 6	[1386-1460] More time at the teacher's desk issuing out scripts, then giving feedback		[1510-1549] Rows in one column, no movement between
Lecturer 7	[1433-1510] At the teacher's desk most of the time waiting for students to ask questions		[1572-1623] Rows in two columns which allowed some movement

Blanks= not observed

Table 4.8 indicates that Lecturers 1 and 5 were initially at the lecturer's desk most of the time, but later moved around the lecture hall as the seating arrangements provided either rows or columns to move in. Lecturers 3 and 6 were at the lecturer's desk throughout the lecture because the seating arrangements did not provide them with space to move in between the desks, but Lecturer 7 was at the lecturer's desk (front centre) throughout the lecture even though she had space to move between the columns of the desks. Lecturer 2 restricted his movement at the front of the lecture hall, where he was reading from a book even though the seating arrangements allowed columns for movement. Lecturer 4 was able to move around freely throughout the U-shaped lecture hall. Therefore, the lecturers were observed to use space moderately.

Another nonverbal behaviour that was observed was the lecturers' physical appearance as this is known to have either a positive or negative influence on the

learners, thereby either facilitating learning or hindering it. Lecturers were not interviewed about their appearance as I believed this needed to be observed. From the video observations, it was noted that female lecturers were strikingly formal in their appearance. Lecturers 1, 5 and 6 wore formal dresses; Lecturers 4 and 7 wore formal shirts and formal trousers; while the male lecturers were casually dressed. Lecturer 2 wore a sports shirt not tucked in with jeans and Lecturer 3 wore a golf shirt not tucked in and a casual pair of trousers. Perhaps it would have helped to establish what the policy of the institution says about lecturers' dress code as this would have shed some light on whether the lecturers are within the policy or not. However, this was not part of this study. Also, there were no items in the questionnaire on students' perceptions of their lecturers' dress code.

Overall, the lecturers perceived themselves to be nonverbally immediate, aligned with the students' perceptions and the lecture observations.

4.2.3. Summary of findings: lecturer immediacy

From the four data sets, the lecturers perceived the nature of their IC to be verbally immediate because they perceived their communication with their students to be effective and that they are approachable. The students perceived their lecturers to be immediate in some behaviour and non-immediate in others. This is because the students indicated that they liked and valued their lecturers by describing them positively, even though some students expressed concerns about certain lecturers' communicative behaviours. During the observations, the lecturer's choice of pronouns indicated that they were distant in their communication with their students. In addition there was little small talk during instruction, when they were observed. This implied that there was little to bridge the psychological distance between the participants in a register other than the instructional and pedagogic one. The lecturers did not engage in self-disclosure during instruction even though it is associated with more positive evaluations of the instructor (Lannutti & Strauman, 2006; Cayanus et al., 2009). Although lecturers asked students questions, there was no balance in the direction of their questions, since most of their questions were directed at the whole class and only a few to individual students and groups of students. Also, some of the lectures were dominated by lecturer-talk rather than student-talk, which does not encourage student participation or effective learning. Lecturers were found to use verbal tics extensively and this creates dissonance in

that they can create both the perception of immediacy from a verbal perspective and give the impression to students that they are non-immediate because they lack confidence or content knowledge (Hybels & Weaver, 2012).

In terms of nonverbal immediacy, the lecturers perceived themselves to use more positive nonverbal behaviours than negative ones. This is encouraging because instructor nonverbal behaviours are known to help improve affect or liking for the subject matter, instructor and class, and to increase the desire to learn more about the subject matter (Allen, 1999; Babad, 2009). Lecturers were found to maintain eye contact; they smiled, nodded their heads, showed relaxed body positioning, did not frown nor stare at their students. Much as touching can establish and maintain affective relationships and avoidance of touch can be perceived to be non-immediate (Richmond, 2001), the lecturers initially claimed not to touch their students although they later conceded they did under the appropriate professional circumstances. However, during the observations no such behaviour was evident. In the South African context of the early twenty first century with its concerns about sexual harassment and professionalism it is understandable that touching between lecturers and students might be perceived to be inappropriate.

Some lecturers did not maximise lecturer-travel space even when the seating arrangements allowed them to do so. Such lecturers created a barrier between themselves and their students and can be perceived to be unfriendly, unreceptive, unapproachable and non-immediate (Richmond, 2001; Cunny & Wilde, 2004; Nieman, 2006; McArthur, 2008; Georgakopoulos & Guerrero, 2010; West & Turner, 2010; Peng, 2011; Hybels & Weaver, 2012). However, certain lecturers' movements were restricted by the seating arrangements, suggesting that in some cases lecturers can be perceived to be non-immediate because of circumstances beyond their control. The students' comments suggested that some lecturers were at times perceived to be nonverbally non-immediate in that they were not punctual, did not smile nor show a pleasant facial expression, appeared to be lazy and looked tired.

All female lecturers adhered to a formality in their dress code while all male lecturers dressed casually, raising a question of whether this is influenced by gender or not. Lecturer appearance create a dissonance in that in some studies (Richmond, 2001; Cunny & Wilde, 2004), students perceived a lecturer who dressed formally as

competent, organised, prepared and knowledgeable but not receptive, and lecturers who dressed casually were seen as friendly, outgoing, receptive and flexible but not competent. In this study, lecturers were generally perceived to be both verbally and nonverbally immediate.

4.3. Perceptions of lecturer clarity

High clarity instructors are systematically clear in their presentations and organisation of content, preview topics, provide affective transitions, so that students are able to integrate lecture material into their schemata, speak fluently, stay on task and explain information successfully (Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Comadena et al., 2007). To explore lecturers' clarity in their Instructional communication in English, oral clarity, written clarity, content clarity and process clarity were distinguished.

4.3.1. Lecturer oral clarity

Behaviours such as the lecturers' audibility, speaking in such a way that the students can understand him/her, answering students' questions clearly, being proficient and straightforward, were explored.

4.3.1.1. *Lecturers' perceptions*

A lecturer who has oral clarity is perceived to be proficient in the medium of instruction which in this study is English. Different language proficiency levels continue to be used to measure speaker oral proficiency such as; beginner, intermediate and advanced levels (Sage, 2003). In this study, no specific questions were asked during the interviews about the lecturers' oral proficiency as this would not have yielded reliable information because of the bias in self-reports (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988). However, the number of language errors in the interview transcripts allowed a fair assessment of the lecturers' English oral proficiency. Six lecturers made few language errors but lecturer 7's spoken English was problematic as it contained too many language errors.

4.3.1.2. *Student's perceptions*

Table 4.9 presents a summary of the students' perceptions of their lecturers' oral clarity as evidenced from the results of the questionnaire.

Table 4.9: Students' perceptions of lecturers' oral clarity

Base question	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
Answers students' questions clearly	1%	7%	36%	56%
Is straight forward in his/her lecture	3%	11%	26%	60%
Speaks in such a way that the students understand him/her	3%	7%	29%	61%

These data indicate that more than 50% of the students perceived their lecturers to be orally clear, most of the time. The students' comments on item 13 indicate that the students found their lecturers to be proficient in English, which is the medium of instruction. They used expressions such as: "uses English that is understandable", "speaks English fluently", "her English is straight forward" and "is articulate, uses plain and simple English which makes it easier for me to follow". The students further suggest that their lecturers are "clear" and "understandable" in what they say.

However, some students made the following verbatim comments about Lecturer 6;

Item 13 students' comments analysis [5347-5371] Her English is too deep.

Item 13 students' comments analysis [6044-6131] I only have a problem with her accent. Sometimes she pronounces words in a unique way.

Item 13 students' comments analysis [6269-6400] Sometimes I do not receive complete information because sometimes the lecturer ends up adding other languages which I do not know.

These comments suggest that Lecturer 6 uses a heavy accent which interferes with these students' ability to hear her well and that she sometimes code switches and code mixes with languages that these students do not understand. A student made the following comment about Lecturer 7:

Item 13 students' comments analysis [7475-7567] Sometimes uses Sepedi during an English lecture; this makes it harder to follow discussions.

Furthermore, some students would like their lecturers to be more specific in what they are saying (Lecturers 4 and 6) and to be understandable (Lecturers 4, 5, 6 and 7). In this case these students found their lecturers to be orally unclear.

4.3.1.3. *Researcher's observations*

The data from the eCOVE observations of lecturers' oral clarity are summarised in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: eCOVE observations of lecturers' oral clarity

Behaviours	Lecturer 1	Lecturer 2	Lecturer 3	Lecturer 4	Lecturer 5	Lecturer 6	Lecturer 7
Audible	√	√	√	√	√	√	X
Answers students questions clearly	√	X	√	√	√	√	X
Language proficiency	√	√	√	√	√	√	X

√ = positive observation X = negative observation

Lecturers 1, 2, 4 and 5 were audible during instruction, whereas Lecturer 3 became less audible when he read from the notes he had in his hands. Lecturer 7 became less audible when she addressed individual students. Lecturers 4 and 6 answered students' questions clearly by giving appropriate and detailed answers. Lecturers 3 and 7 were not sufficiently clear in their responses in that the students kept on asking follow-up questions for clarity, while Lecturer 7 left many questions unanswered. Lecturers 1 and 5 did not ask any questions.

The data from the video observations are summarised in the statements that follow:

Lecturer 1 Obser Vid [2272-2303] Students did not ask questions

Lecturer 2 Obser Vid [2017-2053] Gave appropriate, elaborate answers

Lecturer 3 Obser Vid [2044-2100] Not clear as students kept asking questions for clarity

Lecturer 4 Obser Vid [1884-1922] Answered students' questions clearly

Lecturer 5 Obser Vid [1962-2052] Students were not given the chance to ask questions. They too did not take the initiative

Lecturer 6 Obser Vid [1923-1949] Gave detailed information

Lecturer 7 Obser Vid [2024-2108] not as clear as students kept asking follow-up questions, sometimes left unanswered

These comments supported the eCOVE observations as they suggested that Lecturers 2, 4 and 6 answered the students' questions appropriately, while Lecturers 3 and 7 were unclear in their responses.

Using the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Speaking: descriptors (public version)

(<https://www.teachers.cambridgeesol.org/ts/exams/academicandprofessional/ielts/speaking>) to gauge lecturers' speaking proficiency, based on the video-taped lecture observation, was valuable to assess the speaker's fluency and coherence, lexical resources, grammatical range and accuracy and pronunciation. The IELTS test has three oral tasks that the candidate needs to complete: an interview, a collaborative task and discussion, which were not so directly applicable to my research, but useful as a guide. I watched the video recordings of lecturers presenting lectures and assessed their speaking proficiency according to the descriptions of the IELTS speaking bands (from band 0 which refers to a non-English user up to band 9 which refers to an expert user). My initial assessment was cross-referenced by an objective language instructor to increase the validity of the assessment. The findings are reflected in Addendum 27 in which the language instructor and I gave comments on the features of the speech and also graded the participants' oral speech according to the bands explained. It appears, from Addendum 27, that six of the lecturers were found to be sufficiently proficient to offer instruction in English, and to be understood by their students, despite minor language slips. However, Lecturer 7 had limited speaking proficiency. These data support the findings of the eCOVE observations. Thus it can be concluded that the lecturers were reasonably, orally clear.

4.3.2. Lecturer written clarity

Written clarity is evidenced in examination question papers, course objectives, course syllabus, outlines of class projects, task briefs and writing on the board (Sidelinger & McCroskey, 1997; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001). During the analysis, two items were considered to establish students' perceptions of their lecturers' written clarity; lecturers constructed test questions and information written on the chalkboard

4.3.2.1. *Lecturers' perceptions*

When lecturers were asked whether students understood their written instructions during tests and assignments, their responses varied as reflected in Figure 4.5.

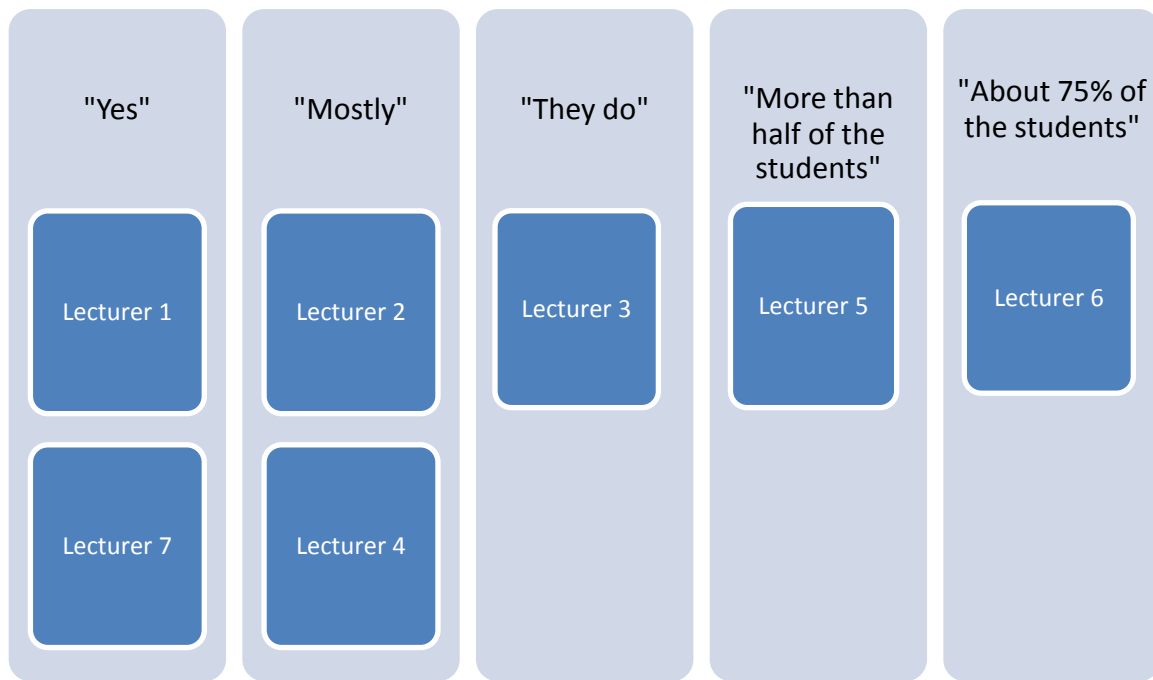


Figure 4.5: Lecturers' perceptions of students' understanding of their written instructions

Analysing evidence represented in Figure 4.5, Lecturers 1, 3 and 7 were confident in their responses, Lecturers 2 and 4 suggested an average number of their students understood the written test instructions and Lecturers 5 and 6 believed that the majority did. However, some lecturers acknowledged that some students still battled to follow their instructions, as reflected in the following statements:

Lecturer 2 [7093-7148] You still get the odd one who didn't read the question

Lecturer 4 [10235-10301] Most of the students struggle a little bit with the comprehension

Lecturer 5 [9460-9617] ... unfortunately those students who typically do not understand the written instruction, is as if they're embarrassed by that, that they also do not attend class

Lecturer 6 [7153-7215] ... the rest of them, hum, you can see that they missed the point

When the lecturers were asked how they assisted students to understand written instructions, they said that they;

clarify the instructions in class before the students go and do the assignment; explain each requirement of the assignment before the students go and do the assignment; tell the students to read the question carefully and read the situation and use that information; go through the questions/assignment with the students in class before they attempt it on their own ; repeat the assignment; ask the students to repeat the instructions after the lecturer; allow students to ask questions about the assignment and stress that the students apply the English and not just the theory.

4.3.2.2. *Students' perceptions*

Less than fifty percent (44%) of the students indicated that their lecturers often construct test questions that are understandable. In response to item 13 of the questionnaire, the students indicated that they would like their lecturers to: give the scope of the test (Lecturer 7), compile a memorandum for the test (Lecturer 6) and to provide them with a summary of the notes she gives and not to write everything on the board (Lecturer 7). These students perceive their lecturers not to be clear in their written communication. Lecturers are expected to reflect the content of their presentations on the board during explanations as students learn both by visual and audio means. When the respondents were asked whether their *lecturer writes information on the board during lectures*, the majority of the students (55%) reported that their lecturers almost always wrote on the board. On the item: *my lecturer allows students to write on the board*, 64% of the students indicated that their lecturers almost never allowed them to write on the board during instruction.

4.3.2.3. *Researcher's observations*

The students' perceptions were supported by the findings of the eCOVE observation reports which showed that Lecturers 6 and 7 wrote legibly on the board most of the time, while Lecturers 1, 4 and 5 rarely wrote on the board, and Lecturers 2 and 3 did not write on the board at all because they focused on reading and explaining the text. The perception created therefore, is that most of the lecturers wrote clearly on the board although sparingly. These perceptions were further supported by the video observations as summarised below;

Lecturer 1 **Obser Vid [1864-1924]** Divide board into sections, wrote clearly, neatly, legibly get the

Lecturer 2 **Obser Vid [1734-1751]** Not used at all

Lecturer 3 **Obser Vid [1791-1807]** Not used at all

Lecturer 4 **Obser Vid [1560-1590]** Good, neat but used sparingly

Lecturer 5 **Obser Vid [1688-1748]** Used board but information was all over, not well organised

Lecturer 6 **Obser Vid [1654-1705]** Used the chalkboard which she divided into columns

Lecturer 7 **Obser Vid [1804-1829]** Used the board sparingly

Both male participants (Lecturers 2 and 3) did not use the board at all, suggesting that this could be explored in further research to establish whether there is a relationship between gender and writing on the board.

4.3.3. Lecturer content clarity

Content clarity is reflected by behaviour such as the following: the lecturers (saying what the lecture is about; excluding unnecessary things); using clear and relevant examples to illustrate points or content; using demonstrations to make information clear; defining new concepts clearly; using at least three instructional aids e.g. the board, technology, hand-outs, or Videos/DVDs during instruction; repeating and stressing important points; presenting students with tasks to practise what was taught and constructing test questions that are understandable (Hines et al, 1985, in Simonds, 1997).

4.3.3.1. *Lecturers' use of materials and strategies*

Effective use of different strategies and materials to make content clear was considered. In Figure 4.6 there is a resume in the form of a comparison of the lecturers' and the students' perceptions of content clarity, and the researcher's observations of the lecturers' use of strategies and materials during instruction from four data sets.

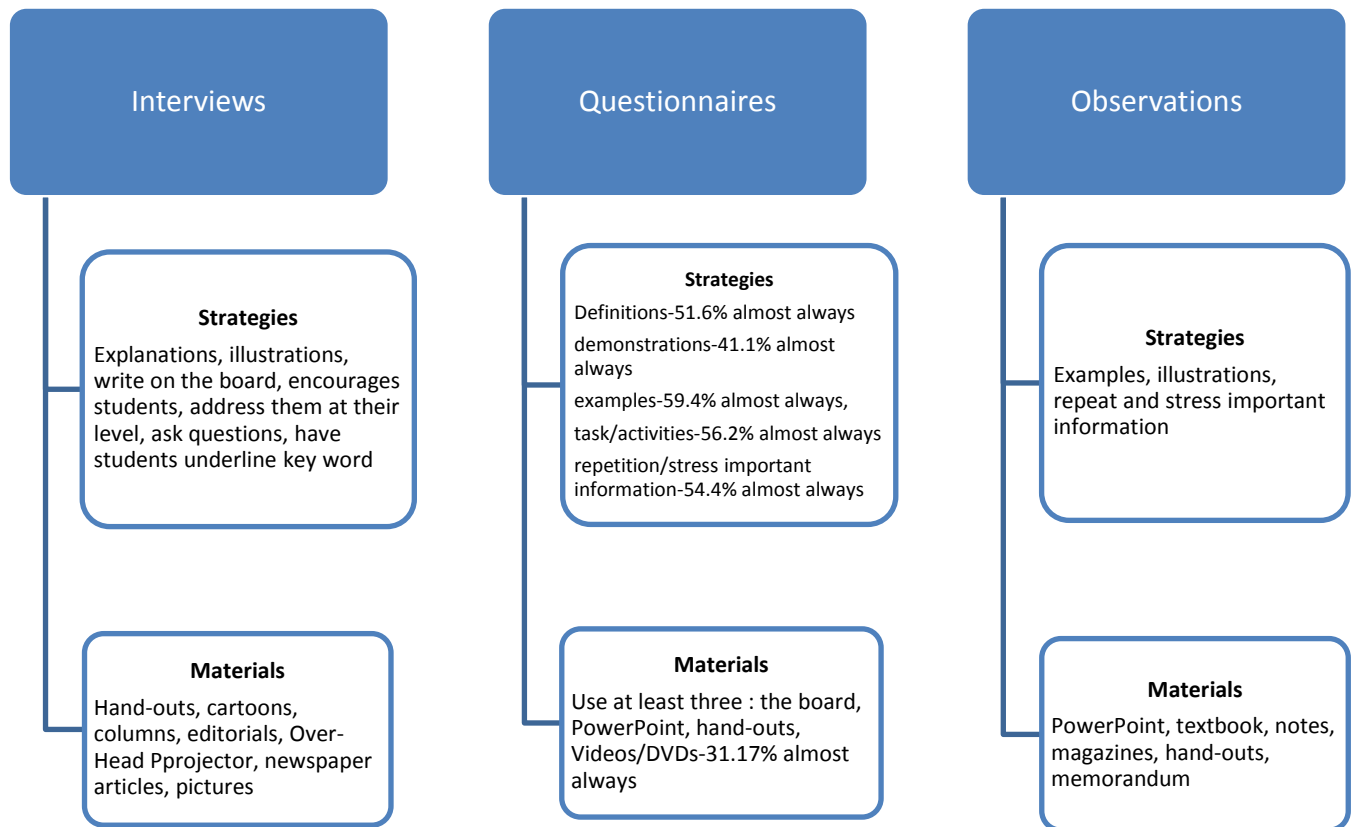


Figure 4.6: Lecturers' use of materials and strategies

The interviews indicated that lecturers claimed to use strategies such as; examples five times, explanations four times and illustrations three times during instruction. This was supported by the students' responses in which 59% reported their lecturers almost always used clear and relevant examples; 41% said they almost always used demonstration to make their information clear and 52% reported that they almost always defined major/new concepts clearly. Also, 56% reported that their lecturers almost always presented students with tasks/activities to practise what had been taught while 54% said that their lecturers almost always repeated and stressed important points. The eCOVE and video classroom observations indicated that all the lecturers except Lecturers 3 and 4 used examples adequately throughout the lectures to make the content clear. All the lecturers, except Lecturer 7 used either

definitions or explanations adequately. The eCOVE observations further revealed that five lecturers, with the exception of Lecturers 4 and 7 repeated or emphasised important information and the video observations indicated that all the lecturers stressed important information. However, the video observation showed that lecturers used few strategies to clarify their content, contradicting the claims made during the interviews.

In terms of the equipment and materials used during instruction, the lecturers indicated that they used newspaper articles, hand-outs and overhead projectors. Also, Lecturers 1, 2, 4, and 5 indicated that they used three or more materials during instruction. Lecturer 7 did not use any material at all because “*we do not have enough resources*”. This statement contradicts what Lecturers 1, 4, and 5 said when they indicated that they used technology such as PowerPoint presentations and/or overhead projectors during instruction. In terms of lecturers using at least three of these resources; the board, PowerPoint, hand-outs, videos / DVDs during instruction, the students’ perceptions are almost evenly spread with a majority (31%) indicating that the lecturers almost always use at least three materials during instruction.

4.3.3.2. Lecturers’ perceptions of content clarity

Good instructional practice requires lecturers to ask students questions and also to vary the questions in terms of different levels (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation) and types (quantity, pretend, forced association, viewpoint and elaboration) as explained under 2.6.3.2. During the interviews, the lecturers indicated that they asked different levels of questions so as to evaluate understanding (Lecturer 1), to do knowledge testing (Lecturer 2), to elicit opinion (Lecturer 4), to capture factual and perceptual grasp (Lecturer 5). The lecturers therefore, perceived themselves to be clear in their content.

4.3.3.3. Students’ perceptions of content clarity

The majority of the students perceived their lecturers to almost always define major/new concepts clearly (52%), present students with tasks/activities to practice what was taught (56%) and to repeat and stress important points (54%). 31% reported that the lecturers use at least three of these resources - the board, PowerPoint, hand-outs, Videos/DVDs, during instruction. This percentage is so low

that it implies that the lecturers hardly use different instructional material. 40% suggested that the lecturers use demonstrations to make information clear.

4.3.3.4. Researcher's observations

Figure 4.7 indicates the frequency and cognitive levels of questions lecturers asked during the eCOVE and video observations.

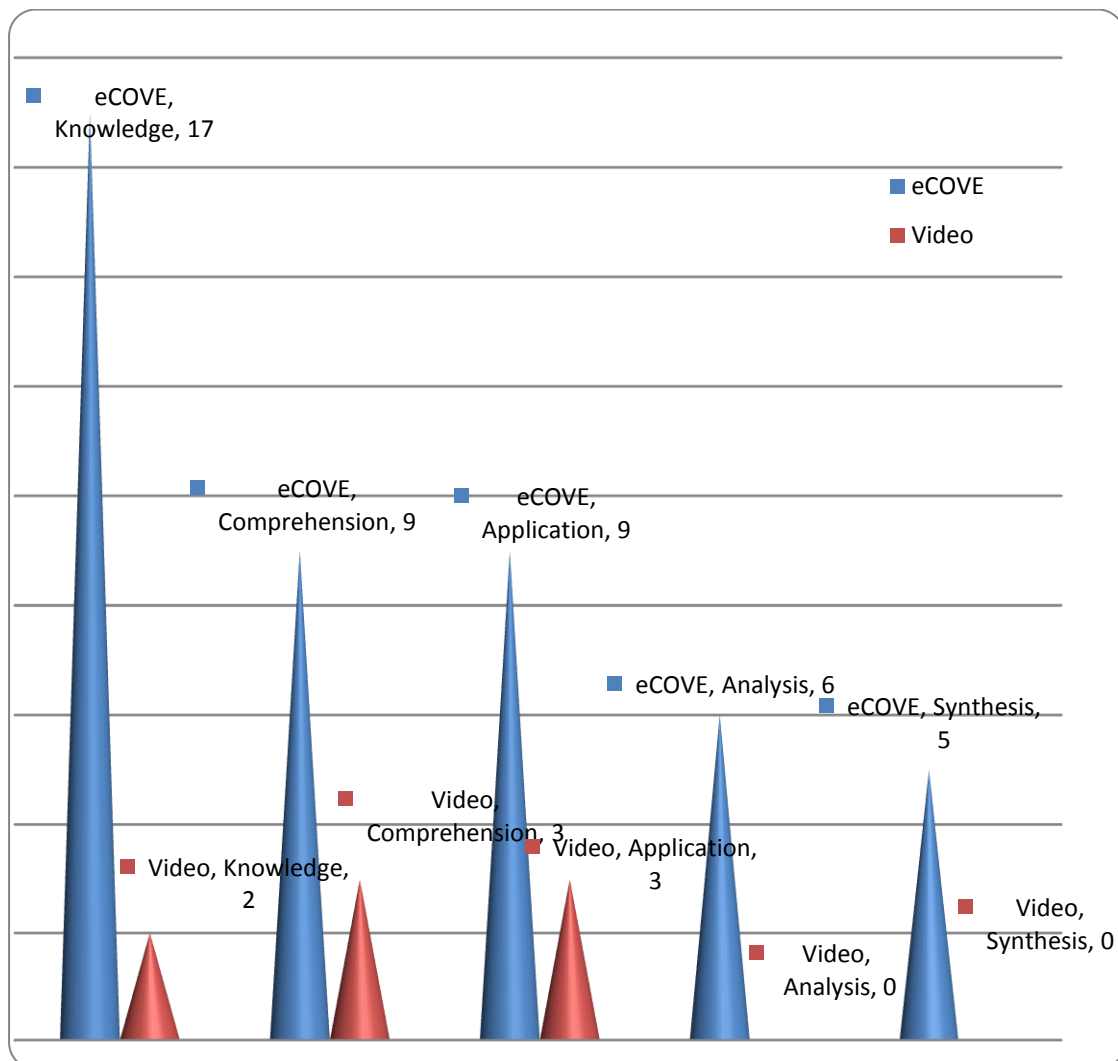


Figure 4.7: Frequency and cognitive levels of questions asked during instruction

The summary of the data in Figure 4.7 illustrates that although lecturers varied the levels of their questions during the eCOVE observations, they asked less than two questions per level during the video observations. Some lecturers asked one or two levels of questions while others asked the same level of questions more than once. I also used the Divergent Question Type tool, available on the eCOVE software, which

classified questions as Quantity, View point, Elaboration, Pretend, Forced association, Reorganisation and Non-divergent thinking type questions (Brown & Tenny, 2004), as explained under 2.6.3.2, to observe the type of questions lecturers asked during instructions as summarised in the Figure 4.8. The results indicate that five lecturers, (L1, 2, 3, 4, and 6), asked more than one type of question.

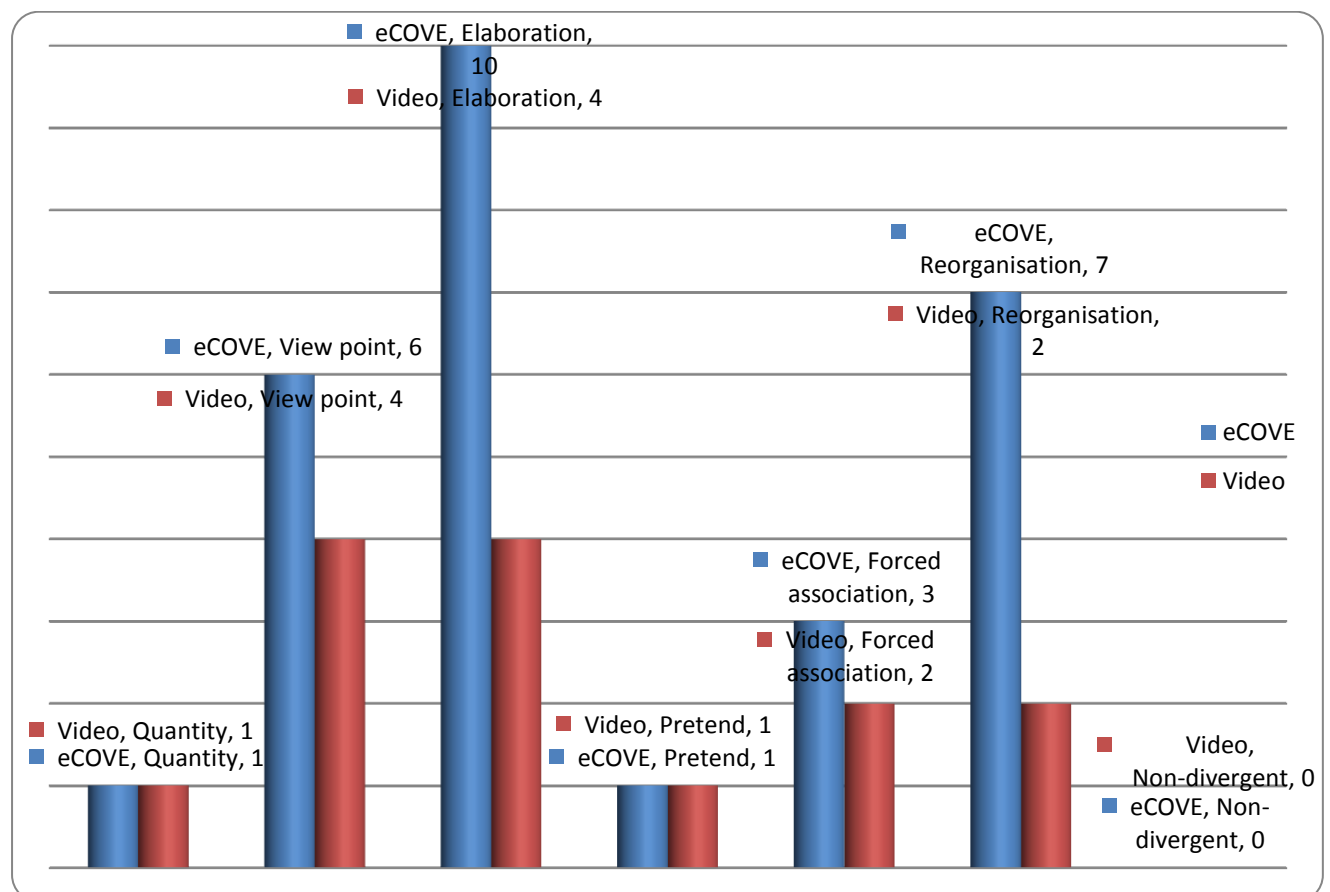


Figure 4.8: Observations: Frequency of the types of questions asked during instruction

The findings of the eCOVE observations therefore, suggest that lecturers predominantly asked elaboration questions. This is contradicted by the video observations that indicate that most lecturers asked more view-point type than elaboration questions. The data suggest that the lecturers asked the same types of Divergent questions. Overall, the video observations suggested that the lecturers were not clear enough in their questioning skills. In terms of lecturers not wasting time saying unnecessary things, the data from the eCOVE classroom observations indicated that all the lecturers except Lecturer 2 were straight forward in their

speech. This is closely borne out by the findings of the video observations which indicate that all the lecturers were straightforward in instructional communication.

4.3.4. Lecturer process clarity

Clarity of process was explored following Chilcoat's (1989) guidelines for structuring instructional presentations, according to: previewing information, organising in step-by-step sequence, assessing student learning, and reviewing information.

4.3.4.1. Lecturers' perceptions

When the participants were asked "*Are there any steps that you follow when you present lectures?*" the lecturers responded as reflected in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Lecturers' perceptions of their process clarity

Lecturers	Introduction/overview	Presentation (body)	Conclusion
Lecturer 1	X	X	X
Lecturer 2	X	X	X
Lecturer 3	X	-	-
Lecturer 4	-	X	X
Lecturer 5	X	X	X
Lecturer 6	X	-	-
Lecturer 7	-	-	-

Table 4.11 shows that three lecturers claimed to follow the 'traditional style' of instruction, as Lecturer 2, puts it, "introduction, go into the lecture and conclusion", except for Lecturer 7, who indicated that she does not follow any particular structure. However, not all lecturers were specific about the steps they followed and none of them mentioned all the steps, but implied them in their responses. Lecturer 6, for example, said that she "puts the topic across, do a bit of research to find out where the students are" and then moves on from there without specifying the next steps. It is therefore, unclear as to whether the lecturers are aware of the specific steps to follow during lecture presentations or not, including the sequence of them. The data

from the interviews showed that lecturers claimed to do the preview and called it an 'introduction' instead. During the interviews, the lecturers reported that during the introduction, which Chilcoat (1989) refers to as a stage to 'preview information', they would begin as follows:

- "start by introducing the objectives/the outcomes of the lecture or telling the students what they are going to talk about or giving the background, looking at it from the perspective of their pre-existing knowledge or telling them why they have to do things or explaining how it fits in with the industry" or
- "Start with putting the topic on the board and asking them where they are coming from, if they know anything about the topic"

Most lecturers also indicated that they concluded their lectures by:

- "going back and checking the outcomes to make sure that they have covered everything"
- "formally assessing to check if students grasped the subject matter"
- "recapping of the theory" and
- "summarising the whole thing again"

4.3.4.2. *Students' perceptions*

Figure 4.9 indicates the students' perceptions of their lecturers' process clarity

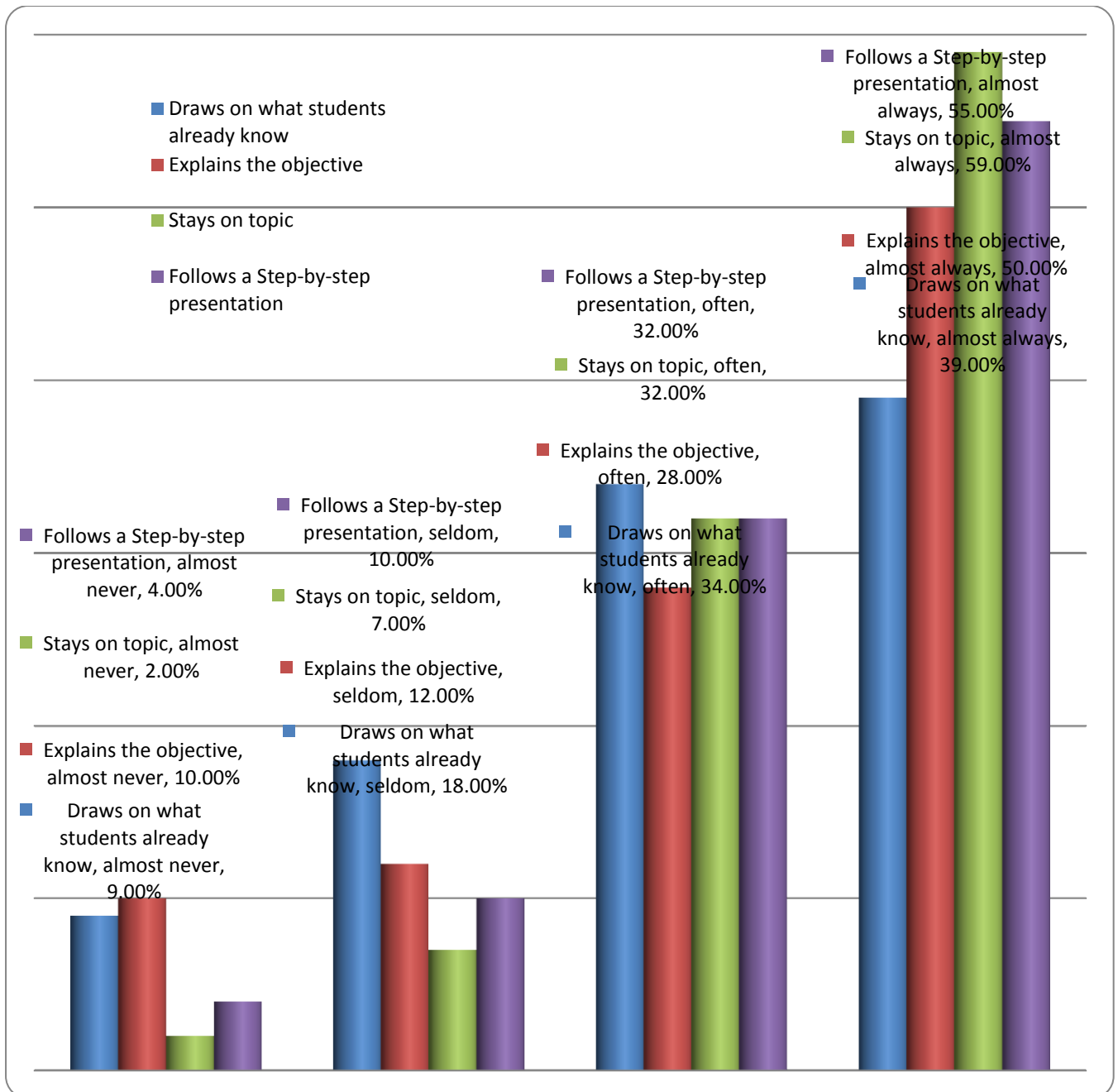


Figure 4.9: Students' perceptions of lecturers' process clarity

In terms of what Figure 4.9 shows, 55% of the respondents reported that their lecturers almost always follow a step-by-step presentation; 59% perceived them to almost always stay on the topic during their lectures, 50% perceived them to almost always explain the objectives of the lecture at the beginning of the lecture and 39% indicated that they almost always drew on what students already knew to prepare them for new information to be taught. From these data, it can be concluded that the students' perceptions of their lecturers was that they used a clear process during

instruction. However, in their comments to item 13 or the questionnaire, Lecturer 7's students indicated that they would like their lecturer (s) to:

Item 13 students' comments analysis [7910-7960] Use lecture time fully, must not leave class early

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8193-8231] Explain the objectives of the lecture

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8235-8253] Stay on the topic

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8405-8453] Not take information as it is from the textbook

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8693-8703] Add style

These negative comments suggest that these students perceived their lecturer not to be clear in the process she followed when presenting the content of the subject.

4.3.4.3. *Researcher's observations*

In the previous discussion, the students perceived their lecturers to follow a step-by-step presentation. However, these findings were not supported by the findings of the eCOVE observations which indicated that Lecturers 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6 explained the objective(s) of the lecture to the students before commencing with the lecture. Only Lecturer 4 tested students' prior knowledge at the beginning of the lecture. All the lecturers except Lecturer 7 followed a step-by-step process to present their lectures. This was to do with the ideas to be presented and not lesson presentation steps. The steps lecturers followed in presenting their lectures seemed unclear as there was no consistency, nor clear distinction between preview, presentation and review. The lecturers went straight to presentation and ended there. Table 4.12 summarises the lecturers' process clarity during instruction, as deduced from the video observations.



Table 4.12: Observations of lecturers' process clarity (video)

Participants	Step-by-step presentation
Lecturer 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction – stated outcomes of the lesson • Presentation – logical sequence • Review – students used information in the advert to write a letter
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review - reminded students about previous lecture on communication barriers • Presentation – meeting documents • No review
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No evidence as he was just reading the article
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stated outcomes • Used the AIDA formula • No review of current lesson
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Followed the steps to write an article, no preview, went straight to the presentation
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction - gave feedback on students' performance • Presentation- question by question • Review - summed-up important aspects
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No logical sequence but dealt with questions as they came

Table 4.12 shows that during the video observations, the lecturers followed some steps in presenting their lectures although not the traditional steps as claimed during the interviews. Lecturers 1 and 4 opened their session by stating the outcomes of the lectures, while Lecturer 2 reviewed the previous lecture and Lecturer 6 gave general feedback on the students' performance. Lecturers 3, 5 and 7 had no introduction but went straight to the presentation. The presentation stage was largely influenced by the content the lecturers planned to deliver. Lecturer 1's lecture was on "Advertising and letter writing" and so her presentation was guided by the format of the classified adverts, and then steps in writing a letter to respond to a job advertisement. These three lecturers used a logical sequence for the ideas to be presented. The presentation by Lecturer 2 was on "Meeting procedure" and that was guided by the documents used at meetings – notice, agenda and minutes, which were presented logically, one after another. The presentation by Lecturer 3 was on "Article writing", where there was no logical presentation of the ideas, as all he did was to read an

article to the students. Lecturer 4 presented a lecture on “Advertising” in which she took the students through the Attraction, Interest, Desire and Action (AIDA) formula which lent structure and sequence to her presentation. Lecturer 5 also presented a lecture on “Article writing” during which she read the steps of article writing to the students from a hand-out and later guided the students in writing an article. Lecturer 6 returned the students’ assignments and gave them feedback while discussing the memorandum. Her presentation was guided by the questions as numbered in the assignment. Lecturer 7’s lecture was a preparation for the coming examination. She did not have a sequence to follow but addressed questions as they came from the students. Only two lecturers reviewed their lectures;

Lecturer 1: Review – students used information in the advert to write a letter and

Lecturer 6: Review – summed-up important aspects

My observations contradicted what the lecturers claimed to do during instruction.

I further explored lecturers’ process clarity using the Distribution of Class Time tool of the eCOVE software, by observing how lecturers used class time, as reflected in Figure 4.10.

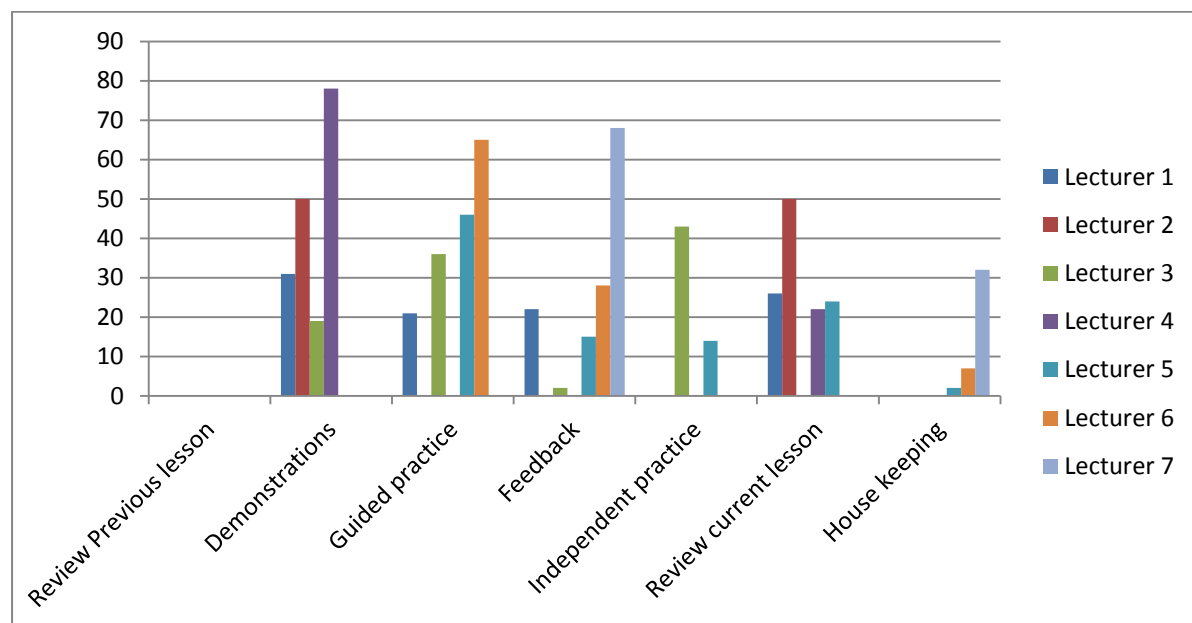


Figure 4.10: Observations: Percentage of lecturers' distribution of class time (eCOVE)

Although it might appear as though none of the lecturers reviewed the previous lesson, or distributed time to cover all the activities indicated, this might have been done somewhere outside the recorded five minute chunks of the one hour observations. The data could also suggest that the highest percentage was the focus of the lecture at the time of the observations, i.e. Lecturer 1 was busy with demonstration, Lecturer 2 with both demonstration and reviewing previous lecture, Lecture 3 with independent practice, Lecturer 4 with demonstration, Lecturer 5 and 6 with guided practice, and Lecturer 7 with feedback. The data from the video observations revealed the following;

Lecturer 1 Obser Vid [3993-4069] Brief review of previous lesson, more time on the presentation/explanation

Lecturer 2 Obser Vid [3383-3484] Some minutes allocated to review previous lesson, no practice, no review, no demo, and more time on explanation

Lecturer 3 Obser Vid [3348-3446] No review, no demonstration, more time on explanations and guided practice and less housekeeping

Lecturer 4 Obser Vid [3256-3333] No review of current lesson, no demonstrations, more time on guided practice

Lecturer 5 Obser Vid [3396-3534] No preview, no demonstration, more time on guided practice, a bit of reviewing current lesson by summarising the lesson, less housekeeping

Lecturer 6 Obser Vid [3270-3306] Most of the time spent on giving feedback

Lecturer 7 Obser Vid [3346-3385] More time spent on students' questions

From these findings, there seems to be no logical distribution of class time as more time was spent on presenting the content of the subject to the exclusion of other steps and activities. Lesson presentation ought to include student activities, which also need to be allocated time. There were either no class activities or where evidenced they were allocated more time as part of content presentation and not assessment of student learning. Therefore, based on the video observations the lecturers were perceived to be unclear in their process.

4.3.5. Summary of findings: Lecturer clarity

Six lecturers were found to be orally proficient in English, which is the medium of instruction in this study. The students found them to be articulate, clear, fluent and proficient in English, understandable and straight forward. However, some students perceived their lecturers to use 'deep' English, have a heavy accent and used languages that some students did not understand, interfering with the information

sought. The students also perceived their lecturers to answer students' questions clearly although few questions were asked and to be straightforward in their presentations. However, certain lecturers were found to be inaudible when they read from the hand-outs or answered individual students' questions.

With the development of technology, most instructors have replaced the chalkboard with whiteboards or smart boards. However, in this study, female lecturers wrote sparingly on the board while males did not write on the board at all. This implied that lecturers who did not write on the board did not help their students to learn better by providing them with note-taking skills, detailed sets of notes to review, skeletal notes during the lectures and lecture cues signalling important ideas as was found by Kiewra (2002). This is because students learn by both hearing and seeing (Wrench et al., 2009).

The lecturers perceived themselves to be clear in their written instructions and assisted students by avoiding ambiguous words, repeating the instructions, and gave extra instructions. Lecturers were aware of the importance of clear instructions during tests and assignments and perceived their students to understand the instructions.

The students perceived their lecturers to use examples, explanations, demonstrations and illustrations in simple language, to make their content clear. They were also perceived to encourage students to use note-taking strategies and underlined key words and phrases and stressed important points to make their content clear. The use of technology is known to help learners to relate new knowledge to the known, to arouse learner interest, to stimulate their enthusiasm and to help instructors to vary their presentations (Ferreira, 2006). In addition, when technology is enhanced with visual support, it is known to improve audience memory and grasp their attention (Hybels & Weaver, 2012). Although the lecturers claimed to use different instructional equipment and materials during instruction, they could only mention a maximum of three instructional materials that they used. The students reported that the lecturers rarely used instructional resources and the observations revealed that only one lecturer attempted to use PowerPoint presentation.

Although the lecturers asked students questions during instruction, the questions were few, and they were of the same level and type. This implied that the lecturers' appeared not to integrate Bloom's taxonomy of questioning, neither did they use divergent and non-divergent questions suggested inadequate questioning skills.

While the lecturers claimed to follow the traditional steps of lecture presentation, they were unclear in their descriptions of the process. However, most of the students perceived the lecturers to follow step-by-step lecture presentations, and the question is whether the students are aware of the presentation steps that lecturers ought to follow and therefore equipped to make such a judgement. Certain students preferred their lecturers to 'use the whole period', 'stay on the topic', summarise/paraphrase the textbook instead of reading word-for-word and to 'add some style' in their instruction. The lecturers' claims and the students' perceptions were contradicted by the outcome of the lecture observations. From the lecture observations data, it was clear that the lecturers did not follow any logical steps during their presentations. Certain lecturers went straight to the presentation and they did not use class time appropriately as more time was spent on the presentation to the exclusion of other steps and student activities. During instruction, it did not seem as if process clarity was the most important focus of the lecturers' attention, attention appeared to be on the content knowledge.

4.4. Perceptions of lecturer credibility

Researchers view instructor credibility as composed of three dimensions: goodwill, trustworthiness and competence. I therefore, tried to establish from the lecturers whether they perceived themselves to be caring towards their students (goodwill), whether their students trusted and respected them and whether they are perceived to be competent in their instructional communication.

4.4.1. Lecturer caring

Caring is viewed as the extent to which the instructors are regarded as showing goodwill towards their students, contributing positively to affective and cognitive learning and the students' evaluation of their lecturer (McCroskey & Teven, 1999).

4.4.1.1. Lecturer's perceptions

When the lecturers were asked “*Do you care about your students?*” they all answered “Yes”. When probed further by being asked “*What are the things that you do or say to show the students that you care about them?*” their responses showed empathy, e.g. when they tried to establish why the students were absent from class. They also simplified activities by ‘*lowering standards*’ and designing supportive suitable activities. The lecturers also showed concern for students who appeared to be struggling and tried to talk to them. They tried to decode what the student had expressed when marking tests, taking their students’ low language proficiency into account, and explaining content one-to-one or in groups. The lecturers showed responsiveness when they stated that they accommodated the students by rescheduling their tests when the students faced a tough week. They added that they accommodated, motivated and gave the students extra work to do for practice. These data were supported by the students’ perceptions which I now discuss.

4.4.1.2. Student's perceptions

The lecturers’ perceptions were supported by the students’ perceptions as summarised in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Respondents' perceptions of their lecturer's caring

Base question	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
The lecturer gives helpful comments after tests and assignments	5%	11%	32%	52%
The lecturer is very concerned that I do well in the subject.	9%	10%	31%	50%
The lecturer wants to see me succeed in the subject.	1%	9%	23%	67%

The data presented in Table 4.13 suggest that more than 50% of the students perceived their lecturers to care about them. The students’ comments on item 13 described their lecturers as encouraging, motivating, helpful and do not put them down. These they support by citing the actions that the lecturers perform to suggest to the students that they care about them such as: “gives hope when there is poor performance”, “helps students become better”, “identifies students’ weaknesses,

advises them individually on how to improve”, “wants every student to pass”, “always willing to assist students who are not doing well”, “get students into the mood of studying”, “sacrifices for us to succeed”, “always concerned that students do well in their subject”, and “has consultation shown for students who are struggling”. These perceptions support McCroskey’s and Teven’s (1999) findings that if instructors communicate that they care about their students, the students will then perceive them as credible. This is essential in instruction because as Davis (2011) found, students who perceive their instructors to be caring tend to engage more with the content, take intellectual risks, persist in the face of failure and are less likely to drop-out. However, some of Lecturer 4’s students felt that she could do more by: “giving second chances to those who did not do well in a test” and “follow-up on students who did not do well in a test”.

These percentages suggest that the students perceive their lectures to be caring towards them, confirming how the lecturers perceived themselves.

During the eCOVE lecture observations, the Generic Counter tool was used to explore whether the lecturers cared for their students or not. The reports indicated that the lecturers gave important information about the subject, were prepared for their lectures and encouraged students. Lecturers 2 and 7 were not included in the reports and this is explained by the following comments.

Lecturer 2: 12:04:34 PM Generic Counter nothing was said to encourage the students, as more focus was on the lecturer

Lecturer7: no comment

The fact that there is no report and comment for Lecturer 7 suggests that nothing encouraging was said. The video observations supported this. It was also plain that the lecturers used various strategies during instruction to encourage students to participate in the lectures, as reflected in the following data;

Lecturer 1 Obser Vid [4463-4528] Used leading and probing questions to encourage students to talk

Lecturer 2 Obser Vid [3960-4032] Used probing questions to encourage students to give detailed responses

Lecturer 3 Obser Vid [3876-3970] Kept giving the students guidance on how to go about doing the activity, used students’ names

Lecturer 4 Obser Vid [3674-3775] Encouraged each student to say something about their advert, used probing questions, students’ names

Lecturer 5 Obser Vid [3851-3914] Guided students when they did the activity, used their names

Lecturer 6 Obser Vid [3602-3676] Used follow-up and leading questions to encourage students to participate

Lecturer 7 Obser Vid [3759-3825] Used leading questions although the focus was on the task at hand

These data suggest that all the lecturers, except Lecturer 7; encouraged their students to participate in the lectures by using probing and leading questions, guided the students, used the students' names and facilitated learning.

4.4.2. Lecturer trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is the extent to which an instructor is perceived to be honest and truthful, (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988; Banfield et al., 2006).

4.4.2.1. Lecturers' perceptions

When the lecturers were asked; *"Would you say that your students trust you as their lecturer?"* they responded as summed up in Figure 4.11.

Lecturer 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •[13071-13093] Yes, I can say they do •[13071-13741] I think they've got some certain level of trust and confidence in me.
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •[8225-8296] Yes.
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •[8956-9023] But it's very difficult to, to measure trust, yah. but, eh, they do •[9058-9126] They trust the knowledge that you present to them?
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •[12741-12750] I hope so
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •[10390-10451] I would say it depends on the student, whether they trust me. •[10626-10770] Think so, I think so
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Did not answer the question
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •[6949-6952] Yes

Figure 4.11: Lecturers' perceptions of own trustworthiness

The lecturers' responses could be a polite way of affirming their perceptions but also a non-committal response to the statement. Lecturer 6 did not respond to the question. When probed during the interviews for more information, the lecturers advanced the following as evidence that their students trusted them:

Lecturer 1 [13104-13231] in the students, the lecturer evaluation also they, they have indicated confidence in the knowledge that I'm imparting to them, [13265-13478] there are those that would come to my office privately just to talk about issues that are bothering them

Lecturer 2 [7988-7997] I hope so [8075-8164] in the student evaluation it does come out that there not many who want to burn my car so

Lecturer 3 [9144-9295] I give them, my, my tips for the exam, for the test, for the assignment and I tell them this is how you should tackle the question, they follow suit.

Lecturer 5 [10453-10498] They often come to me with personal problems [10784-10881] I try to do is to keep up with industry and to give them real life examples within every lesson. [11087-11127] I will use real life examples for them.

Lecturer 7 [6949-6952] Yes

These responses confirm that student evaluations are conducted at the research site and that the lecturers interpreted the feedback from the evaluations to mean that the students trusted them. The lecturers also perceived their students to trust them enough to approach them even on personal matters and that the students' behaviour suggested that they trusted the information that the lecturers gave them. This then indicates that the lecturers perceived themselves to be trusted by their students.

4.4.2.2. *Students' perceptions*

Section D of the questionnaire was designed to assess students' perceptions of their lecturers' honesty and trustworthiness and is summarised in Figure 4.12.

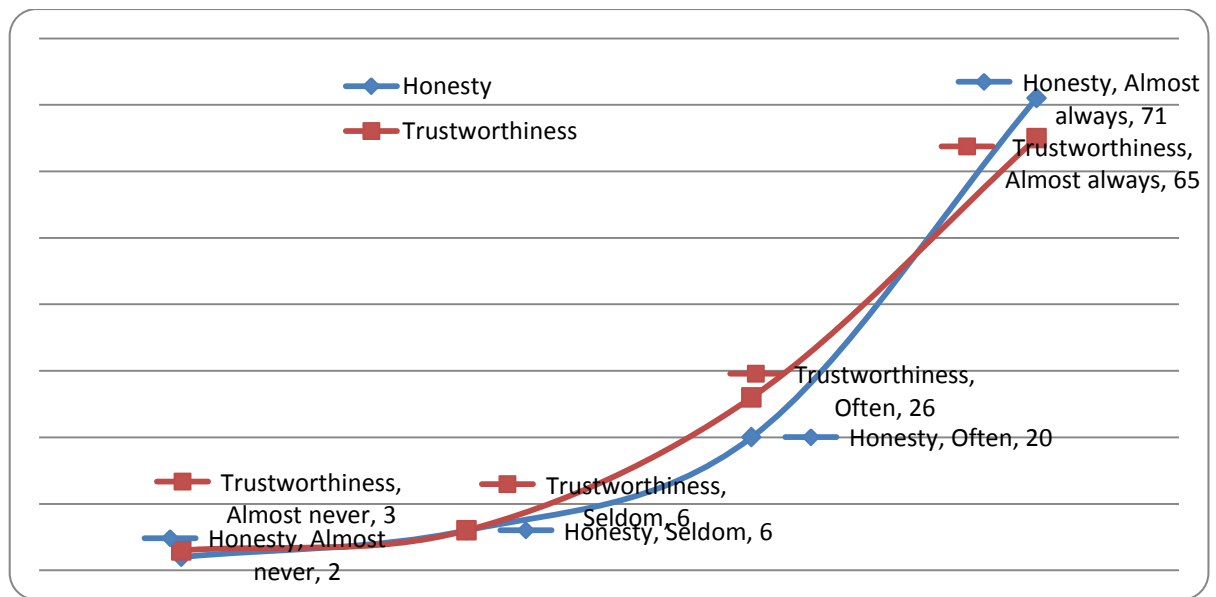


Figure 4.12: Percentage of respondents' perceptions of their lecturers' honesty and trustworthiness

These percentages suggest that there are high levels of honesty and trust in the lecture halls as lecturers and students interact with each other. This is supported by a students' response to item 13 where a student indicated that her lecturer was:

Item 13 students' comments analysis [5117-5135] Humble and honest

Martinez–Egger and Powers (2007) added *respect* as another element of credibility. They argue that a student's respect for an instructor would logically have an impact on a student's behaviour towards and communication with the instructor during interactions. As such, lecturers are able to read a student's verbal and nonverbal behaviour as either respectful or disrespectful. It was against this background that lecturers were asked “*Would you say that your students respect you as their lecturer?*” The responses of Lecturers 1, 3, and 7 were affirmative: “yes”. Lecturer 5 said, “They do”, while Lecturers 2 and 4 said, “Hope so” and Lecturer 6 claimed, “It is normal for students to respect their lecturers”. The responses by Lecturers 2, 4 and 6 suggest politeness which again might be attributed to cultural influence. When probed further, lecturers indicated student behaviours that mirror respect, as summarised in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Lecturers' perceptions of students' respect

Participants	Verbatim quotes
Lecturer1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [11790-11942] my students generally would wait for me inside class • [12233-12318] I would not have students who would in the middle of the lecture disrupt my lecture • [12345-12394] I feel my students are talking to me with respect • [12400-12520] they make use of formal language when they talk to me because they understand I am not their friend, I am their lecturer • [12635-12673] when they come to my office they knock • [12675-12750] if they find me over the phone they stand outside when I'm done I call them
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [8236-8296] their behaviour, does it show any respect? RESPONDENT: Yes
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [8002-8088] they do not call me by name, but that one is not a hard and fast rule, but they prefer • [8369-8406] when they need to be quiet they do so • [8408-8512] when there is a joke, they laugh limitedly, they do not prolong their, their excitement or their laughter
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [12752-12804] I haven't had anyone who was er, disrespectful to me
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [10336-10383] I do not have problems with discipline in class
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [11526-11583] I think is normal for students to respect their lecturers • [11626-11773] I have observed that they are very respectful Students may want to talk to you in a friendly way sometimes but there is that measure of respect • [11919-12006] there an indication, there was an indication that they respected what I did with them • [12038-12075] they respect what we do in our course
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [11626-11773] I have observed that they are very respectful • [11919-12006] there an indication, there was an indication that they respected what I did with them • [12038-12075] they respect what we do in our course

Respect is a two-way process and as students are expected to respect their instructors, good instructors also respect their students by taking time and effort to prepare for their lectures and mark assessments (Domizio, 2008). Section D of the questionnaire attempted to explore students' perceptions of whether their lecturers treated them with respect or not. I selected the items and analysed them for lecturers' punctuality and preparedness in a classroom context as presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Respondents' perceptions of their lecturers' respect towards them

Base question	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
The lecturer comes to class prepared.	4%	5%	23%	68%
The lecturer is on time for the lecture.	8%	8%	26%	58%

Table 4.15 suggests that the students perceived their lecturers to be respectful towards them. However, some of the students' comments to item 13 of the questionnaire suggested that some lecturers do not respect their students. The students would like their lecturers to;

- Be on time / be punctual (Lecturers 1, 4, and 7),
- Inform students when not around (Lecturer 1)
- Leave notices if unavailable (Lecturer 1)
- Always late for class (Lecturer 7)
- Sometimes does not come to class at all

However, more items to establish respect could have been added in terms of the way the lecturers treat their students, how they talk to and look at them. This could be investigated in future research.

Students' respect for their lecturers was established by observing how the students conducted themselves during lectures, for example, by being attentive and interested in and by valuing what the lecturer said. The students' conduct was also observed as being either respectful or disrespectful towards their lecturers, in relation to what is generally viewed to be acceptable or unacceptable behaviour, for example, being punctual for lectures, requesting permission to come in or go out. During the eCOVE classroom observations, the focus was on whether the students found their lecturer credible enough to be respected. This was observed using the Generic Counter tool which revealed that most students respected their lecturers.

Lecturer 3: 12:31:18 PM Generic Counter students became quiet when the lecturer called for their attention

Lecturer 5: Students were noisy when they worked in groups but the lecturer called them to calm down

However, some students were disrespectful towards their lecturers:

Lecturer 2: 11:54:37 AM Generic Counter students whistled as others arrived late

Lecturer 7: 3:46:18 PM Generic Counter some students were going in and out as they wished and the lecturer said nothing ... the students were playful, and students would shout at the lecturer if they did not agree with something

These comments were supported by the video observations which showed that most students were attentive, quiet, and well behaved. Therefore, the perception created is that most students respected their lecturers. The eCOVE reports indicated that all the lecturers, except lecturer 7, appeared to be prepared for their lectures, suggesting a high level of professionalism for their students.

4.4.3. Lecturer competence as a variable of instructor credibility

Instructor competence in this context refers to lecturers being regarded as experts in their field, knowledgeable and competent in offering their subjects and intelligent (Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2007).

4.4.3.1. *Lecturers' perceptions*

When lecturers were asked “*Would you regard yourself as an expert in the subject that you teach?*” their responses suggested reluctance to declare themselves as “experts” in their fields. Only Lecturers 1, 3 and 4 confidently acknowledged their expertise, while other lecturers responded as follows:

Lecturer 2 [8980-9024] I do not think you can ever be a total expert.

Lecture 5 [12142-12238] I won't call myself an expert, but I would say that I try to gain expertise as often as possible

Lecturer 6 [13342-13390] It depends on what you mean by the word 'expert'

Lecturer 7 [7951-8034] I do not know cause, uh, what can I say! Yes, cause most of my students perform well

These reticent responses might point to lack of confidence or a cultural fear of being considered ‘proud’ or ‘boastful’ as it might be interpreted in other cultures. When the lecturers were probed to elaborate on their responses they reported as summarised in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Lecturers' perceptions of being regarded as experts

Participants	Verbatim Quotes
Lecturer1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [15379-15429] I've been teaching the subject for over five years • [15654-15793] The CEN160B that we are talking about now, the pass rate has risen from about 40 to, we are sitting now at 50, 50% for the past three years • [15935-15971] Also a trained teacher by profession • [15997-16086] I did a BA degree, then I did a B Ed, then I also did in between a diploma in methodology
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [9029-9113] I think I know enough to do my best to provide, eh, proper service to the students • [9126-9182] And I believe you are a trained teacher? RESPONDENT: Yes
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [10510-10610] So far for the past three years, yes I would say, if I'm not an expert but I am moving towards that • [11081-11147] A trained teacher by profession? Respondent: yes, by profession
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [14407-14540] I have experience in other courses but, uh, I have an idea of what is going on in the management courses, what people are looking for • [14621-14659] I'm comfortable teaching the subject • [14685-14707] also a trained teachers
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [11972-12045] The fact that I've got quite a few years of experience in the field helps • [12253-12303] And also you're a trained teacher? RESPONDENT: Yes • [12320-12371] I taught at the, at the teachers training college
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [13973-14070] I went out of my way consulting the lecturer that, hum, has always taught them • [14071-14139] I have also asked other views on the net you know, hum, extensively
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [8107-8133] I'm trained for the course • [8139-8171] I've been trained for four years

Table 4.16 summarises the reasons why lecturers perceived themselves as competent to teach the subject - citing lecturing experience, the increase in students' pass rate in the course and the fact that they were trained lecturers.

4.4.3.2. Students' perceptions

The lecturers' perceptions were supported by the students' as reflected in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Respondents' perceptions of their lecturers' competence

Base question	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
The lecturer knows the subject matter.	1%	5%	24%	70%
The tests in this class are well matched with the information taught in class.	4%	10%	28%	58%
The information taught in this class is important to my field of study.	6%	22%	0%	72%
The lecturer follows the syllabus.	0%	9%	31%	60%
The lecturer is competent in the subject s/he teaches.	1%	9%	35%	55%
The lecturer is an expert in his/her field.	1%	8%	37%	54%
The lecturer is trained to lecture.	2%	5%	22%	71%

While the lecturers were hesitant to regard themselves as experts, these findings suggest that the students esteemed them highly and therefore perceived them to be credible.

Item 13 of the questionnaire asked the respondents to rate their lecturers' instructional communication by responding to an open-ended question: "I would like to make the following comments about my lecturer's instructional communication where English is used as the medium of instruction". The respondents were free to write at length. The data gathered are summarised in Table 4.18, by looking at the frequency distribution of the responses per variable.

Table 4.18: Students' comments on their lecturers' instructional communication in English

The FREQ Procedure

Q13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	116	28.29	116	28.29
2	13	3.17	129	31.46
3	88	21.46	217	52.93
4	64	15.61	281	68.54
5	90	21.95	371	90.49
6	39	9.51	410	100.00

Frequency Missing = 346

1 = Immediate 2 = Non-immediate 3 = Clear 4 = Unclear 5 = Credible 6 = Non-credible

There are 346 frequencies missing, which are the 'no comments' and the blanks on the questionnaires, put together and not necessarily per value. This number is inflated by the fact that for one respondent, who decided not to comment at all, there would be six frequencies missing and each blank was counted as frequencies missing. I decided to focus on the frequencies of the responses given rather than the percentages as they indicate the number of times a comment was made in relation to the specific variable to the exclusion of the ones missing. The frequency table suggests that 116 respondents found their lecturers immediate as opposed to 13 who said the lecturers were non-immediate. Ninety of the 129 comments claimed that the lecturers were credible and 88 of the 152 comments claimed that the lecturers were clear.

Furthermore, the students' comments suggest that they found their lecturers credible by using the following expressions to describe them; "good lecturer", "the best lecturer so far", "great lecturer" and "lovely lecturer". The students also describe the lecturers as being: "intelligent", "well trained", "professional", "deserving to be in the field", "expert", "lecturer is competent", "perfect", "well qualified", "talented" and "hard worker". The students also commented that their lecturers are knowledgeable by indicating that lecturer(s): " knows what she is talking about", "He definitely knows his job", "knows exactly what is expected", "knows her work", "follows the syllabus" and "she has all the qualities you would like an educator to have". In addition, the students complimented their lecturers by using expressions such as; "keep it up", "appreciate", "thankful to her", "excellent" and "keep up the good work". These expressions suggest the students' high regard for their lecturers. From these expressions it becomes clear that students perceived a lecturer to be credible if he/she is an expert, good in his/her job, hard-working, intelligent, knowledgeable, professional, talented, trained and qualified.

However, Lecturer 7's students commented that she:

Item 13 students' comments analysis [7992-8029] Does not understand what she teaches

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8033-8072] Sometimes teach what she does not know

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8173-8189] Need to improve

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8518-8566] Need to come to class with the ability to teach

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8823-8874] Jumps to the end of the book without understanding

These comments suggest that these students perceived their lecturer to lack content knowledge of the course responsible for. The students are not motivated to attend her lectures as suggested in the following comments;

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8076-8122] Feel like I am doing grade 2 when she teaches

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8257-8284] I frog drag myself to class

And they ultimately used strong comments like

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8571-8583] She is lazy

Item 13 students' comments analysis [8802-8819] Not professional

These comments indicate that these students do not trust the lecturer's knowledge, expertise and competence and therefore perceive her as not competent in the content that she presents. Also, Lecturer 6 students' comments to item 13 suggested that she did not manage her students well as indicated in the comments that follow:

Item 13 students' comments analysis [5410-5477] Control the noise other students make, and are on social network...

Item 13 students' comments analysis [5517-5566] Be strict on students who disrupt the lectures

Item 13 students' comments analysis [5764-5810] She must not waste time on unhelpful students

Such comments suggest a compromise on competence in managing classroom behaviour.

eCOVE observations of lecturer competence revealed that lecturers followed the syllabus, were competent in the subject matter taught, could be considered experts in their field, were intelligent and appeared to be trained in the subjects they taught. However, the video observations contradicted some of the findings as reflected in the following comments:

Lecturer 3: 12:39:39 PM Generic Counter Could do more by controlling the noise in the lecture so that the students can hear him when he responds to students' questions

Lecturer 7: 3:46:18 PM Generic Counter ... Did not sound like an expert; her intelligence was not shown in the manner that she spoke to students and her responses to the questions. There were moments of silence; lecturer was leaning on the desk most of the time

Lecturer 3 may have lacked experience in classroom management because the lecturer failed to control the students. Lecturer 7 did not sound like an expert and was not convincing in her presentation as she failed to answer students' questions. These comments suggest that although some lecturers perceived themselves to be competent, and this was supported by the students' perceptions, they were observed to be less competent in their instruction.

4.4.4. Summary of findings: Lecturer credibility

In terms of lecturer credibility, the lecturers perceived themselves to be caring in that they showed empathy, understanding and responsiveness towards their students. Lecturers were modest about whether they perceived themselves to be experts in their field and so it is unclear whether they were being polite in their responses or whether they were culturally influenced. This needs to be further investigated in future research. Some lecturers gave their perceptions through the eyes of the students confirming that student evaluations can be used to establish perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication. However, the lecturers later conceded to being experts because of their experience and training in the courses they offered.

Lecturers were polite when asked whether their students respected them, although they later stated that they did command respect because students waited for them in the lecture hall when late, did not disrupt lectures, used formal language, did not call the lecturers by their names, kept quiet when the need arose, were attentive during lectures and showed interest in the course and the lecturer. However, the observations contradicted these perceptions by indicating that some students were disrespectful during lectures, suggesting a moderate degree of respect between the lecturers and their students.

The students perceived the lecturers to be caring because they encouraged them; they wanted them to succeed, gave them individualised instruction and called them by their names. This is essential in instruction because students who perceive their instructors to be caring tend to engage more with the content, take intellectual risks, persist in the face of failure and are less likely to drop-out (Davis, 2011). The students also described their lecturers as competent, experts, intelligent, hardworking, perfect, talented and well qualified. They also went further by complimenting their lecturers for doing a good job.

The researcher observed the lecturers to be prepared for their lectures and used strategies to encourage students to participate in the lecture. Most students were found to respect their lecturers with a few showing some disrespectful behaviour.

4.5. Conclusions about the lecturers' instructional communication

As I analysed the findings and the results generated in this study, I arrived at the following conclusions with specific reference to lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility. Much as it was not the aim of this study to establish this, it cannot be ignored that perceptions are subjective, and this study has confirmed this. It can be concluded that the lecturers in this study evaluated themselves positively in all communication behaviours, confirming the possibility of 'social desirability bias', commonly associated with self-reports, in which participants have the potential to over or under report (Rocca, 2004; Wanzer et al., 2010). Lecturers might have over rated themselves positively, on account of how they would like to be perceived. It can also be concluded that the students' perceptions in this study might have also been biased because the students might have rated the lecturers, either positively or negatively, influenced by their personal attitudes toward the lecturers, as Creswell (2006a) warns. I was also cognisant of the fact that the lecturers knew in advance that they were going to be observed during lectures, and this could have influenced their preparation for those lectures, and may have led lecturers to engage in behaviours that they would normally not manifest while lecturing.

In terms of lecturer immediacy, the lecturers appeared to be verbally distant in their use of ownership statements (my, than, our) and exclusive references (I, them, we) although this was balanced by their use of humour, which contributes towards building student- instructor relationships (Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006). It can also be concluded that there existed an enhanced interpersonal relationship between the lecturers and their students in that the students acknowledged that their lecturers were 'good', 'the best', 'a role model', 'perfect, etc. These expressions suggest that the lecturers used behaviour alteration techniques (BATs) that motivated students to perceive them as pro-social (Waldeck et al., 2010). The lecturers also used more positive nonverbal behaviours than negative ones and this made their students to like them and to find them approachable. The fact that students used consultation hours for both academic and personal matters is another confirmation of their

approachability. Therefore, it can be concluded that the lecturers are verbally and nonverbally immediate. Now that the lecturers have been perceived to be immediate, I now present the conclusions I arrived at in terms of their clarity.

In terms of lecturer clarity, one of the elements of oral clarity is lecturers' use of questions to initiate conversations (Dagarin, 2004), structure course content (Sahin et al., 2002; Westwood, 2004; Vogler, 2005a), monitor student's comprehension (Sahin et al., 2002; Vogler, 2005a) and revise, recall and review existing knowledge (Monyai, 2006). Although questions are fundamental to healthy class interaction, few lecturers indicated that they asked different types and levels of questions. The lecturers' use of questions did not benefit the students much as most of the questions were directed at the whole class, with few at individuals and groups. The lecturers did not follow Bloom's taxonomy of questioning as they did not ask different types and levels of questions. Bowker (2010) points out that instructors who ask questions help the students to understand how the answers that are accepted are connected, contingent and contextual, how they rely on, imply and generate additional questions.

Other elements of lecturer clarity entail using a variety of instructional material and equipment and following an organised structure to present the content in a way that students will find understandable. The finding that few lecturers used examples, illustrations, demonstrations, different materials to make their content clear, stressed important information, and did not follow any clear, specific and consistent steps in their presentations; suggest that they were often unclear in their presentations.

As far as lecturer credibility is concerned caring lecturers are perceived to be honest and trustworthy and credible in the eyes of the students (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; McAllister & Irvine, 2002; Stronge, 2007; Aultman et al., 2009; Burnside, 2012). The four data sets indicated that the lecturers were perceived to care about their students, by showing empathy, simplifying activities for students' understanding, showing concern for their students and being considerate and accommodating. The students believed that their lecturers were trustworthy and competent in their communication.



4.6. Reflection of instructional competence

Now that the lecturers' and their students' perceptions of their communicating during instruction are known, these perceptions were further analysed to answer the following research question; *RQ2. To what extent do the lecturers' and the students' perceptions reflect lecturers' instructional competence?* Lecturer 7 caught my attention throughout the analysis as she appeared to be perceived negatively in most of her behaviours during the interviews, questionnaires and the eCOVE and video observations, as summarised in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Summary of Lecturer 7

Behaviours	Video observations
Verbal immediacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maintained a balance between student talk and Teacher - talk throughout the lectures, students asked questions , she answered, used 4 verbal tics , 80% of her questions were directed at individual students seated in front and was not clear in her responses in that the students kept on asking follow-up questions for clarity, she even left some questions unanswered.
Nonverbal immediacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Less movement as she was at the front centre of the lecture hall throughout the lecture even though she had space to move in-between the columns of the desks and students commented that her facial expression was not attractive
Oral clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Had the most language errors, became less audible when she addressed individual students and used a local language which made it difficult for come students to get full information
Written clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students complained that she did not give them the scope for the test, wrote everything from the textbook on the board instead of just the summary and used the board sparingly
Content clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not use definitions or explanations adequately, throughout the lecture, did not repeated or emphasised important information and did not use any instructional material to make the content clear
Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not follow a step-by- step process to present their lectures
Caring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not say anything to encourage the students to participate in the lecture, did not appear to be prepared for the lecture.
Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Her knowledge of subject matter was not convincing and she could not handle students' questions, left students' questions unanswered
Respect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some students were going in and out as they wished and the lecturer said nothing, ... the students were playful, and students would shout at the lecturer if they did not agree with something
Expert	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not sound like an expert and her intelligence was not convincing as she failed to answer students' questions

Her behaviour indicates instances of poor instructional communication which also questions her instructional competence. From this table, Lecturer 7 was perceived and observed to be verbally non-immediate. In Stronge's (2007) study, students

taught by instructors with greater verbal ability were found to learn more than those taught by instructors with lower verbal ability. This suggests that there might be ineffective learning taking place in Lecturer 7's lecture. Also, a lecturer who exhibits appropriate nonverbal immediacy is more likely to improve affect with the students, and to encourage them to listen more, learn more and have a more positive attitude about school/university (Richmond, 2001). This might not be the case with Lecturer 7 as she was found to be nonverbally non-immediate. Lecturer 7 was found to be unclear in presenting the content. In Toale's (2001) study, lecturers who were higher in clarity behaviours were found to produce more positive outcomes as was evidenced by students' perceptions of instructor competence, caring, and trustworthiness among other relationships. Also, speakers who are highly credible are perceived to be more persuasive, organised and skilled in responding to questions (Eadie, 2009a) and this was not the case with Lecture 7 who was perceived and observed not to be credible in the eyes of her students.

The elements of lecturer immediacy, clarity and credibility informed the data collection and thematic analysis in this study. Nine findings relating to lecturer immediacy, fourteen to lecturer clarity and five to lecturer credibility emerged. When these findings were further analysed, eleven suggested pedagogic competence and another eleven suggested professional competence (See Addendum 28). Two new categories were identified; instructional context with two findings and gender with two findings. Further analysis matched the findings with predetermined categories of pedagogical competence and professional competence, as will be discussed later.

Most of the findings under immediacy and credibility reflect lecturers' professional competence while most of the findings under clarity reflect lecturers' pedagogical competence. I now discuss the extent to which these perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication, found in this study, reflect instructional competence, guided by Liakopoulou's (2011) categories as pedagogical competence and knowledge (instructional techniques and strategies, methods, instructional aids and instructional time) and professional competence (instructor's personality traits, attitudes and beliefs related to the professional role of the instructor).

4.6.1. Pedagogical skills and knowledge

As already discussed in Chapter Two, lecturer pedagogical skills and knowledge entails the lecturers' ability to convey content knowledge, process, and methods effectively (Hamilton-Ekeke, 2013). I now discuss how the lecturers' and the students' perceptions reflect instructional pedagogical skills and knowledge.

4.6.1.1. *Pedagogical skills*

As already indicated in Chapter Two, pedagogical skills entail didactic and pedagogical skills such as a set evaluation criteria for students, teaching aids, methods, variety of teaching strategies and techniques and teaching time, among others, which I will now discuss. It is also important to remember that the focus of this study is during instruction and therefore behaviour that take place before or after lectures were excluded.

❖ **Set evaluation criteria**

Evaluation entails the use of questions and in this study, the perceptions focused on lecture's use of questions during instruction and perceptions of clarity in lecturers' instructions during tests and assignments as these are given in class. Lecturers were found to be clear in written instructions because of the strategies they used to assist students. Instructors need to make use of questions to make their content clear to their students. According to the finding on lecturer communication, the lecturers were found not to balance the direction of their questions by predominantly directing the questions to the whole class, they did not vary the levels and types of their questions as they did not follow any questioning taxonomy, they answered students' questions clearly although they asked few questions and they did not allow students to ask questions. These perceptions present a negative picture of the lecturers' assessment skills, and begs the question - are they trained assessors? Gibbs (2004) asserts that while students can overcome their lecturers' poor teaching through their own efforts, they cannot do the same with poor assessment. Therefore, the lecturers are perceived to be less competent in their questioning skills during instruction and as a result, might need training.

❖ **Teaching aids**

Competent lecturers use instructional equipment like videos, to support the transmission of instructor nonverbal immediacy cues, with similar effects on student

outcomes, as in the traditional, face-to-face classroom (Witt et al., 2010). Much as today's students learn more by doing and seeing, and less by hearing (Guthrie & Carlin, 2004; Boyer et al., 2009; Crews et al., 2011), only one lecturer attempted to make use of a PowerPoint presentation and some used the white board while other just read from the handouts and textbook. This suggests that the lecturers have not yet integrated technology into their instruction. Therefore these lecturers are therefore found to be less competent in their use of instructional aids. This suggests that the institution has not yet introduced smart boards, further suggesting that these lecturers and perhaps the institution might not have integrated technology into their instruction. If this is the case, institutions of higher education might need to provide resources and incentives as well as training opportunities to encourage lecturers, who might still be intimidated by technology, to become literate in this mode. Institutions need to make available permanent data projectors, networks and computing facilities in all instructional venues, technical support and training for staff, so that technology can be integrated into instruction as recommended by Nicholson (2002) and Palbom (2009). Content knowledge is further made clear by the use of instructional strategies.

❖ **Teaching methods**

Instruction takes place in many forms and in this study, **lecturers** used the lecture method with others using the textbook method by reading from the textbook. The textbook method was not used effectively as some students complained that they could as well have read the textbook themselves. They appealed for the lecturers to explain what was in the textbook and to present them with summaries. As Haskins (2000) cautions it is not enough for lecturers to possess knowledge of a topic, they also need the capabilities to present the content knowledge clearly. This is because competent lecturers communicate their content knowledge through the systematic process that they follow during instruction. The lecturers in this study claimed to use the traditional process of lecture presentations although were unable to describe, or even list, the processes they followed in their presentations, is a cause for concern. The students perceived them to follow step-by-step presentations although the question is whether the students are equipped to make this judgement. However, they were found not to follow any clear, specific and consistent steps in their presentations. The lecturers did most of the talking making the lecturers to be

dominated by teacher-talk and therefore becoming teacher-centred instead of student-centred. These perceptions cast doubt on the quality of the lecturers' methodological training in the field, although they claimed to have teaching qualifications. The lecturers are therefore, perceived to be less competent in their methodology, suggesting that the institution may need to be more supportive by providing professional development opportunities to enhance their process knowledge.

❖ **Teaching strategies and techniques**

Competent instructors use different instructional strategies to make the content knowledge clear to their students. In this study, lecturers used few demonstrations, examples, explanations, illustrations and printed materials, to make their content clear. In his study, Theall (2005) found that presenting and explaining course materials clearly and concisely could encourage students to be more effective processors, and retain course content. Most lecturers did not allow their students to write on the board although their students perceived them to be competent because they had knowledge of the subject matter and gave important information. In this case, the lecturers are found to be moderately competent in their use of strategies and techniques.

❖ **Teaching time**

The fact that lecturers were found to spend more time on the presentation stage at the expense of other lesson presentation steps and that there were few lecture activities, suggest that the lecturers did not allocate lecture time appropriately. Therefore lecturers were found to be less competent in the distribution of teaching time. Associated with pedagogic skills is pedagogic knowledge, which I will now discuss.

4.6.1.2. Pedagogical knowledge

As already pointed out, researchers (Newton & Newton, 2001; Maclellan & Soden, 2003; Fraser, 2006; Hybels & Weaver, 2012; Obermiller et al., 2012) found lecturer pedagogical knowledge, also referred to as content knowledge, critical in facilitating students' learning. This is because, instructors whose knowledge of the subject is not convincing to the students, will not stimulate the students' interest and participation in the course. They also will not be perceived as credible by their

students. Therefore, instructors are expected to have a deep knowledge of the content they present, as supported by a study conducted by Metzler and Woessman (2012). In this study, the lecturers perceived themselves to be experts in their fields by virtue of the increase in students' pass rate, their lecturing experience and training in the field. These perceptions were supported by the students and the lecture observations. This is in line with Hamilton-Ekeke's (2013) claim that instructor qualifications are tied to competence in instruction and management of students' material in the classroom. In South Africa, instructors are expected to have academic and professional training in their fields of interest as a way to ensure content knowledge and instructional skills. Although there is no guarantee that lecturers with good qualifications, experience and training are necessarily experts in their field, these are generally acceptable measures of instructor competence, used by many institutions as requirements for recruiting academic staff. Therefore, the lecturers in this study, with the exception of one, could be perceived to have content knowledge, enough to offer instruction at an institution of higher education. They can therefore be regarded to be competent in as far as their content knowledge is concerned. Content knowledge and its processes are communicated by the lecturers and received by the students through language. As a result, proficiency in the medium of instruction is key during instruction.

4.6.1.3. Language/oral proficiency

Most institutions of higher education in South Africa have opted for English as the medium of instruction, and, therefore, both lecturers and students are expected to be proficient in English. Although the lecturers in this study were found to be relatively proficient in the medium of instruction, with room for improvement, Lecturer 7 had limited speaking proficiency in English. This adds to studies documenting problematic language proficiency in South African education, (Sage, 2003; Uys et al., 2007; Neethling, 2010; Dippenaar & Peyper, 2011; De Jager & Evans, 2013). The question thus arises, to what extent does limited oral proficiency in the medium of instruction influence the students' academic performance? When lecturers do not have 'linguistic confidence' a concept used by Evans and Cleghorn (2012) they might shy away from asking and answering students' questions, they might fail to give clear instructions during assessments, or use few examples, illustration and demonstrations during instruction. Lecturers might be perceived to lack content

knowledge if they are unclear in what they are saying due to their limited language proficiency. When lecturers display such behaviours, they might be perceived to be incompetent and lacking credibility. In addition, such lecturers might be negatively evaluated by their students, in their instructional communication. This is how the students perceived Lecturer 7. Therefore, the lecturers in this study, still with the exception of one, can be perceived to be competent enough to offer instruction in English.

Although this study was about lecturer's instructional communication, it became clear that one cannot totally ignore students' oral proficiency from this discussion. This is because, many students in this study appeared to have limited English proficiency themselves, as evidenced by their written response to item 13 of the questionnaire. One wonders to what extent the students' English language proficiency shapes their perceptions of their lecturers' instructional communication. This implies that there might be a relationship between lecturers' and students' language proficiency and perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication. However, this could be scope for future research. Pedagogic skills need to be accompanied by professional competence, also referred to as interpersonal skills, if affective learning is to take place.

4.6.2. Professional competence/ interpersonal skills

Interpersonal skills in IC are about persuasion in its best rhetorical sense, listening which is active, leading the students to effective learning and taking responsibility for their (Foss & Griffin, 1995). Lecturers hold certain beliefs about their professions which manifest themselves during instruction. Perceptions held by the lecturers and the students of lecturers' instructional communication were further explored to establish the extent to which they reflect lecturers' professional competence during instruction, as presented in the next paragraphs.

4.6.2.1. *Beliefs on absenteeism, communication and interaction*

Lecturers are expected to conduct themselves in a professional manner inside and outside the lecture hall as such behaviour exhibits their beliefs about certain practices in their profession. In this study, some students appeared to be demoralised by their lecturers' behaviour by pointing out that their lecturers are not punctual / are always late for lectures and sometimes stay away without notifying the

students. These behaviours are unprofessional as they go against lecturers' work ethics. Even though there are times that lecturers can engage in these behaviours because of matters beyond their control, like illness, death in the family or accidents, this will not happen regularly. For the students to complain about these behaviours, it means the lecturers engage in them regularly and this suggests that the lecturers do not value lectures attendance and punctuality. Much as the lecturers perceived themselves to be verbally immediate in that they perceived their communication with their students to be effective, engaging, formal, informal, interactive and open, some students would like their lecturers to communicate with them so that they know whether the lecturer is coming to class or not, or are delayed or not so that they don't waste time waiting for a lecturer who is unable to make it for the lecture. This further suggests a non-caring attitude especially if the lecturers knew in advance what would happen but did not inform the students. furthermore, on one hand the lecturers used language that suggested that they were removed from their conversations with the students such as the distal demonstrative 'this' than 'that', 'will' than 'may' to show probability, 'I' than 'we' to show inclusive reference and did not engage in small talk or self- disclosure. In this case the lecturers are verbally non-immediate. On the other hand some lecturers used more positive nonverbal behaviours than negative ones and this suggests that they are nonverbally immediate. However, the found it easy to mention behaviours that they often used during instruction than those they hardly used. The lecturers also used humour during instruction by allowing students to laugh and use jokes when needed and this is known to create rapport and facilitate interaction. These behaviours suggest that some lecturers believe in bridging the physical or psychological distance between them and their students while others do not. In this context, the lecturers are regarded as professionally moderately competent. Learning ought to lead to behavioural change and the question is whether lecturers believe in this or not.

4.6.2.2. *Behavioural change*

The sociopsychological tradition advocates that effective teaching and learning should lead to behavioural change, which manifest itself through persuasion, attitude change, confidence building, morale improvement and positive influence in students (Richmond, 2001; McCroskey et al., 2004; Choudhury, 2005; Ferreira, 2006; Connors, 2007). Lecturers were found to care about their students in that they

showed empathy, understanding and responsiveness; encouraged students to participate, accommodated and guided them. These were evidenced in the students' response to item 13 which suggested that the students appear to have a positive attitude towards their lecturers by describing them as "the best", "good lecturer", "professional" and "doing well". The lecturers seem to have built the students' confidence as expressed in the statements: "Encourages her students to express themselves in English, she says it's the only way to learn". This is because for most students who have English as either their third or fourth language, speaking in a lecture hall might be a challenge. The students also state that their lecturer "does not put them down", "wants every student to pass", "not afraid to participate" and "I am not afraid to ask questions". These comments suggest that the lecturers have succeeded in encouraging their students to communicate in English and consequently participate freely as they interact with each other. The lecturers seem to have influenced the students positively, hence the statements: "communicates well with the students", "makes us feel free", "we have a good relations" and "makes me feel comfortable". Furthermore, the lecturers seem to have succeeded in persuading the students to attend lectures in that the students perceived them to "offer valuable information", "explain everything well" and "presents relevant material". They also add that their lecturers could be trusted with the knowledge that they presented. This suggests a relationship of trust between the students and their lecturers. Therefore, the lecturers are reflected as competent in influencing and subsequently changing the students' attitude and behaviour positively.

4.6.2.3. *Classroom management*

Content knowledge can best be presented after good planning within a well-managed and organised classroom in which students behave themselves. This is evidenced in behaviour that show respect for others. Lecturers were found to respect their students by being prepared for lectures and being punctual although this could have been further established by how they treated their students, spoke to them and looked at them. However, some students disrespected their lecturers by coming in and out as they wished, making noise, whistling at other students and playing during lectures. These behaviours suggest that the lecturer did not believe that these behaviours were disturbing to other students and that she did not have control of the instructional setting. It also indicates that no ground rules were laid for classroom

behaviour. If they existed, the lecturer did not enforce them and also suggests that the students did not respect their lecturer. The reality is that such misbehaviours interfere with effective instruction because they disrupt activities and make it difficult for other learners to learn effectively. Once lecturers fail to manage their classrooms, students lose respect for them and in the end find them less credible. When such behaviour is left to the students' discretion without any rules and discipline, it interferes with student participation and learning. Other students made a plea to their lecturers to control the noise others made be strict on disruptive students and not to waste time on students who do not want to learn. As a result the lecturers were found to be less competent in managing their classroom.

This study also revealed that while lecturers can be perceived to be immediate, clear and credible in their instruction, the context in which they interact with their students can lead to barriers to instruction which might lead to perceived instructional incompetence, which I will now discuss.

4.6.3. Instructional context

Since the instructional context is generally considered an interactive environment, I describe the affective attributes of instruction as essential interpersonal skills, as reflected by perceptions of the lecturers' instructional communication. Evans (2005) introduced the concept of instructional dissonance to refer to "the ignorance or denial of hindrances, barriers and distortions that permeate and negatively affect interpersonal communication between the instructor and student" (p.168). While Evans' study focused on the mismatch of meanings in instructional communication between the instructor and the student, my study discusses instructional dissonance with regard to physical barriers to instructor communication, leading to perceived instructor incompetence. I now discuss how the instructional context can bring about instructional dissonance, as barriers to instruction with regards to the following:

4.6.3.1. Size

The size of a lecture hall contributes to challenges experienced during instruction, where small venues are more manageable than large ones, interfering with student activities in the process. Lecturers need to be audible all the time regardless of the activity at hand or the person involved. A large venue might presents problems of audibility where the volume of the lecture hall swallows the voice of the lecturer and

where students who are not at close proximity with the lecturer might not be able to hear the lecturer well. In such instances, voice projection devices could be used to enhance the lecturer's voice production. However, this was not the case in this study because the lecturers who were perceived to be inaudible, as others had small groups of students. Lecturers need to be competent to know how to project their voices in a manner that they can be heard by all the students.

4.6.3.2. *Space*

Space entails furniture arrangements and displays that facilitate learning and instruction. In this study, classroom organisation was not established in terms of displays because the lecture halls are not subject specific but are used by different lecturers for different courses and sometimes with different students. Focus was more on the lecturers' use of space. In this study, the lecturers did not use space adequately due to the furniture arrangement (seats bolted to the floor) although some still did not use space adequately even without the restriction. In this instance, such lecturers are found to be less competent in their classroom organisation and use of space, even though the situation is at times beyond their control. Another category that was identified was gender.

4.6.4. *Gender*

The researcher observed certain behaviour which indicated a pattern in as far as gender is concerned. Female lecturers appeared formal while male lecturers appeared casual. It is not clear what the dress code is at the research site and so this might be worth exploring to establish if there is a relationship between gender and dress code. Also, female lecturers wrote on the board while male lecturers did not. This will need to be explored further to establish if there is a relationship between gender and writing on the board.

The lecturers' and the students' perceptions reflect that the lecturers were competent in their pedagogical language, were orally proficient, less competent in their questioning skills during instruction, less competent in their use of instructional aids, less competent in their methodology, moderately competent in their use of strategies and techniques and less competent in the distribution of teaching time. These perceptions describe the lecturers' competence in their instruction and therefore, it can be concluded that perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication reflect

the lecturers' instructional competence. After this analysis, the following conclusions were arrived at from a sociopsychological perspective, as the second research question RQ2. *To what extent do the lecturers' and the students' perceptions reflect lecturers' instructional competence?* was being answered.

4.7. Conclusions about the lecturers' instructional competence

Breaking the elements of competence into discrete bits is useful for the General Model of Instructional Communication, but it is in the synthesis of all elements of praxis and its exercise that real competence is revealed. Much as this study was able to show that perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication do reflect lecturers' instructional competence, new information emerged that showed that instructional competence is not only about effective teaching but also improving the humanistic aspects that might lead to students' academic success as suggested by the sociopsychological tradition of communication. I will now discuss the following conclusions that emerged during the data analysis:

4.7.1. Competence and power

For lecturers to be competent there is a need for management of the class, which includes a power dynamic. The power relationship was evidenced in the relationship between lecturers and students, although couched in terms of immediacy, verbal or nonverbal. The lecturers perceived themselves to be verbally and nonverbally immediate and the students generally agreed, although with discrepancies. In the case of competence in management of the class through displays of humour or friendliness, both concepts inconsistent with respect, there was a certain amount of friendliness towards the students in the observations, but there was little humour. The disposition for humour was not a feature of most of the lecturers' interactions. In terms of the situation, there was room for humour, but it was not displayed. It can therefore be concluded that the lecturers were not immediate and therefore less competent in this area.

In meetings with students outside the classroom the lecturers perceived themselves as willing to become involved in conversation, possibly small talk, even self-disclosure, but it was not observed in the IC situation. Openness as a feature of immediacy, despite perceptions by the lecturers themselves, was lacking in the lectures. Personal example/ownership statements, for instance saying 'our' rather

than 'my' were not often employed. This suggests again that dispositionally, there could be a lack of openness in the lecturers concerned or that they felt that the management of the power/respect dynamic would not be well served. In terms of competence this would be an area which could be developed in lecturers, despite what the students say. More worrying is the fact that questions that solicited students' opinion and follow-ups on students' initiated topics of discussion were few and far between. Whether this omission has to do with disposition or attitude it is not good instructional praxis.

4.7.2. Competence and the dialogical interaction

Much as the lecturers perceived themselves to be orally clear in that they asked students different questions at different steps of their presentations, to facilitate cognitive learning, both the students and the researcher perceived them to be unclear. Dialogical questions are a fundamental and important means of class interaction (Vogler, 2005b; Tuan & Nhu, 2010), yet few lecturers distinguished amongst the different types and levels of questions. Bloom's taxonomy of questioning for instance, appeared to be ignored and there appeared to be no other framework followed. Modelling in the question and answer activity in IC - asking students and then showing them how the answers that are accepted are connected, contingent and contextual, is an important area of competence. Research shows that in traditional lectures, students spend time listening and taking notes passively (Tuan & Nhu, 2010) but when students are involved through answering questions and creating their own questions, meaningful learning is more likely to take place. This, according to Lei (2009) can only happen when instructors give up some authority to encourage students to participate.

Even more critical is modelling through questioning and guidance towards the correct answer/s for assignments, assessments and examinations. Making the close connection experientially of writing on the board clearly and in an exemplary way when asking and answering questions does more for clarity than simply perceiving oneself to be orally clear in enunciation, pronunciation and content delivery. Therefore, the lecturers are perceived to be less competent in this area of instruction.

In this study, most lecturers were perceived to be audible, straightforward and proficient in their presentations. Their oral proficiency could, nevertheless be much improved. They also perceived themselves to be clear in their writing although some acknowledged that students found it difficult to follow written instructions given during assessments. However, the students and the researcher perceived the lecturers to be unclear in their writing. Again, it can be concluded that the lecturers were less competent in this area.

4.7.3. Competence, form and function

The lecturers perceived themselves to be clear in their content by using examples, illustrations, demonstrations and stressing important information. This was supported by the questionnaires and to some extent, by the lecture observations. The lecturers were also perceived to use different instructional materials such as hand-outs, notes, magazines and newspapers to make their content clear, although more could still be done. The failure to distinguish between form and function might not be regarded as a mark of competence. If the underlying structure of the rhetorical performance is lacking then the function of illustrative materials, however interesting or illuminating, means the onus for understanding is left to the audience. In this case, the audience are expecting to be led to an understanding. Content clarity in terms of using a clear rhetorical structure (beginning, middle, end, what outcomes, what is addressed in the syllabus, for instance) was not evident amongst the lecturers. They and the students concentrated on the lecturers' contingent activity. In this study, the lecturers were found to be unclear, general and inconsistent in the steps they followed to present their content. This suggested that the lecturers were either untrained pedagogically, or have become complacent in their teaching or placed more emphasis on presenting the content and less on the process they need to follow to achieve their objectives.

A limited range of strategies in the delivery of the lectures themselves as rhetorical performances and in the use of materials and equipment to make content clear, suggested that technology was not well integrated into the repertoire of the lecturers. Only one lecturer attempted to use PowerPoint. Such lecturers might not be able to meet the needs of their students who already use a range of sophisticated technological devices.

4.7.4. Competence and oral proficiency

Lecturers' and students' oral proficiency is key towards ensuring affective, behavioural and cognitive student learning. Lecturers who show limited oral proficiency in the medium of instruction will not be clear in their content, presentations and assessment and this will affect students' performance negatively. Similarly, it complicates the instructional environment if the lecturer is proficient in the language of instruction but the students are not. The students may fail to grasp what the lecturers present and they will in turn fail to express themselves well during assessment. This is bound to have a negative influence on the students' perceptions of their lecturers' instructional communication. In the same context, it will not benefit the students if the lecturer is proficient in the medium of instruction but has limited content knowledge. Oral proficiency and content knowledge are inseparable if effective learning is to take place.

4.7.5. Competence and instructional context

This study has indicated that the *instructional context* also presents several barriers to communication and instruction. The size of the lecture hall for instance, influences activities during instruction. If the lecture hall is big, the lecturer needs to put in more effort to ensure audibility unless there are voice projection devices in the venue. Large venues are commonly used for large groups of students and this has the potential to restrict classroom activities which call for lecturers paying individual attention to their students or initiating student participation.

Overall, it can thus be concluded that this study was able to establish the lecturers' and the students' perceptions and the researcher's assessment of lecturers' immediacy, clarity and credibility and further presented the extent to which these perceptions reflect lecturers' instructional competence. In a nutshell, the lecturers were perceived to be verbally and nonverbally immediate, often clear orally, in writing, in their content but unclear in their process of presentations and credible in that they were perceived to care about their students and their students believed that they were trustworthy and competent in their communication. These perceptions were able to reflect that the lecturers were often not so competent in their instruction.

4.8. Chapter conclusion

This chapter has successfully presented the perceptions held by the lecturers and their students and the researcher's observations of lecturers' instructional communication. Further analysis of the data revealed that perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication reflect lecturers' pedagogical skills and knowledge and professional competence. It can thus be concluded that perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication reflect lecturers' instructional communication, presenting the two as interrelated. The next chapter presents the conclusions arrived at in this study, the limitations of the study, its implications and recommendations for future research.

5. Conclusions, limitations, significance, implications and recommendations of the study

5.1. Introduction

This study was undertaken to explore perceptions of lecturers' IC as a reflection of lecturers' instructional competence. The perceptions of lecturers' behaviour during communication with students from the perspective of lecturers, students and the researcher were collected and analysed as the data for the study. A variety of qualitative and quantitative methods was used to reduce bias. Overall, lecturers appeared to be competent from data gathered through a pragmatic, non-experimental study, using a triangulation mixed methods research approach in the natural setting of the participants, the lecture halls.

A general lens to understand the results and findings of the study and present them in this conclusion was to assess the competence pedagogically and professionally of the lecturers. A further distinction which was cross-cutting was to do with situational and dispositional characteristics of the lecturers' IC through their own perceptions, and those of the students. Perceptions of the behaviour of lecturers while communicating in an instructional environment were used to explain the behaviour both situationally (immediacy, clarity in communication) and dispositionally (goodwill, trustworthiness and credibility) of the lecturers. The choice of examining IC through these concepts arose from an extensive literature review. The decision to use the General Model of IC (McCroskey et al., 2004) as a base was to concentrate on the lecturers not the students, so three components of that model were not the focus of the research, namely the environment, the students' temperaments and their outcomes of the year of study.

It was assumed that, if the behaviour of lecturers, explained in terms of the concepts of immediacy, verbal and nonverbal, clarity and credibility, was examined something could be said about whether lecturers could be considered competent in their instructional communication (IC) and competence. Further, if they were found to be competent in IC when the medium of instruction was English and not the home language of participants, the reasons for students failing or dropping could not be necessarily laid at their door. In studies on reasons for poor pass rates and dropping

out, students are generally considered to face a myriad of problems which prevent success. The fact that pass rates and retention rates at higher institutions are a matter of great concern currently motivated this research into the lecturers' IC rather than the students' challenges.

5.2. Overview of the study

The study was conducted following great concern nationally and globally, that undergraduate students were not succeeding as they should, with some eventually dropping out. Thus a decision was made to investigate the role played by the lecturers in the instruction process, to establish what perceptions exist of their instructional communication and how these perceptions reflect lecturers' instructional competence, which may be a contributing factor to poor student academic performance. This was done through interviews, observations and questionnaires, with specific reference to lecturer immediacy, clarity and credibility as components of effective communication during instruction. As a result, the first chapter contains the rationale for the study, and the research questions to be answered. The context of the study is thereafter provided before the key concepts are explicated so as to provide common understanding in the context of this study. An overview of the scope of the study, the research design and methodology followed, how data were analysed, the possible constraints experienced and the organisational nature of the study is then presented.

In Chapter Two, review of the literature, theoretical stances and studies by other researchers were explored. They showed relationships among immediacy, clarity and credibility and other components of instructional communication (Richmond et al., 2001; Mottet & Richmond, 2002; McLean, 2007; Martinez-Egger & Powers, 2007). This was done to establish areas of focus as well as gaps in the studies that needed to be filled by this study. This study was guided by theoretical stances mainly from the Generic Model of Instructional Communication (Figure 2.1.), which is based on six components, namely; teacher communication behaviours (immediacy and clarity - oral, written, content and process); students' perceptions of teachers' verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours (immediacy), and students' perceptions of teachers' credibility (caring, trustworthiness and competence) (McCroskey et al., 2004).

The research methodology and design I followed are presented in Chapter Three. A pragmatic, non-experimental case study, following a triangulation mixed methods research approach was used. The qualitative data were gathered through a sample of seven lecturers, as explained in detail in Chapter Three. Single sessions of one hour, semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were held with the seven lecturers. Special lectures were held to conduct single sessions of eCOVE and video lecture observations with each of the target lecturers. Quantitative data were gathered through structured paper-based four-point Likert-type scale questionnaires. The sample for this part of the study was 252 black first year students; male and female, aged between 18 and 42 years, as described in detail in Chapter Three.

In Chapter Four I explained how I analysed data, the findings that emerged and my interpretation thereof. Since this was a mixed methods study, I followed the triangulation mixed methods design data analysis which included steps to explain how data were prepared, transcribed using the Express Dictate software, explored through WEFT QDAS, the eCOVE classroom observation software and SPSS, analysed and presented. The data sets were mixed in the interpretation according to their similarities, differences and additional information discovered. The findings indicated the bias associated with self-reports as lecturers evaluated themselves highly and positively in all the items. This was balanced by the results of the questionnaires and the findings of the lecture observations. The findings indicated the importance of effective communication and instructional competence, as well as the elimination of barriers to create a conducive teaching and learning environment.

In Chapter Five, I present the conclusions I arrived at in this study, the significance of this study, its implications, limitations and recommendations for further research.

5.3. Conclusions

In the light of the data gathered and analysed by looking at each research question, the following conclusions can be made. The perceptions discussed in this study confirm that lecturers are at different levels in their communication with their students during instruction. Some lecturers were perceived by their students positively in some behaviour while others were perceived negatively. Similarly, these perceptions indicate that lecturers at institutions of higher education (IHE) will vary according to their level of communication and competence. Therefore, these perceptions cannot

be generalised across institutions but to the participants in this study, although they shed some light in what the situation might be at various IHE. From these perceptions, one deduces that some lecturers perceived themselves to be competent in both their professional skills and personal skills. Although the students' perceptions and the lecture observations sometimes supported the perceptions, at times they contradicted each other. This explains why it is important to investigate perceptions of individual lecturers and give them feedback individually so that each lecturer would become aware of his/her strengths and weaknesses in instructional communication, so that relevant interventions can be recommended. If IHE are to be successful in a vital aspect of their core business, which is teaching and learning, they need to conduct an audit of what institutions have in place to ensure effective, open and interactive lecturer- student communication during instruction. This goes beyond human capabilities to teaching and learning resources.

The four data sets in this study, presented the lecturers' and the students' perceptions of lecturers' instructional communication as reflective of lecturers' competence. The lecturers' and the students' perceptions also indicated that the lecturers can be perceived to be competent in most areas related to their professional skills and interpersonal skills, with the need for development. It can therefore, be concluded that six lecturers' were found to be orally proficient enough in their communication and instruction to offer courses at an institution of higher education and therefore, although with a need for improvement in some critical areas. This therefore, suggest that the perceptions highlight the importance of lecturers' IC and competence as areas that institutions need to quality assure to assist some lecturers to develop their professional and interpersonal skills and enhance their content and pedagogical knowledge. Having said so, as the findings were further analysed, a new finding emerged that suggested that while lecturers might have content knowledge, be competent in the process they followed during instruction and have good interpersonal skills, they might still be perceived to be less competent in other areas due to barriers in their environment, which are beyond the their control.

As already discussed in Chapter Two, IC has been researched extensively (McCroskey et al., 2004; Chesebro & Wanzer, 2006; Mottet & Beebe, 2006; Mottet et al., 2006; Richmond et al., 2006; Katt et al., 2009; Simonds, 2001). Some studies

exist on instructional communication competence, which also emphasise instructors' competence in communicating with their students (Worley et al., 2007). However, there has never been a study that shows that perceptions of instructional communication reflect instructional competence. This study was able to do so and thus introduce the concept of lecturers' instructional communication and competence (LIC&C) by proposing that lecturers' instructional communication and competence are interrelated aspects of the instructional process, which need to be evaluated and analysed together.

Methodologically, the fact that I had to move away from observing behaviour in five minutes chunks, as was expected with the eCOVE observation tool, to observing behaviour throughout the lecture, presents another way of using tool.

5.4. Limitations of this study

My choice of research design and methodology was guided by the research questions I had to answer. As a result, observations were conducted and data were gathered through the eCOVE software and video recordings, which permitted observations of the frequency of lecturers' communication behaviours. A challenge experienced during the analysis of the data gathered during the pilot study was that the lecturers' behaviours were observed in chunks of five minutes for an hour of the lecture, through the eCOVE observation software. If behaviour was not observed within the five minutes, the impression created might be that the lecturer did not engage in it at all. However, this might not necessarily have been the case as the focus was only on the five minutes and not on the entire lecture. It is possible that the lecturer might have engaged in the said behaviour at another stage of the presentation. Therefore, the results of the eCOVE classroom observation reports could not be generalised for the entire lecture. It was against this background that I decided to observe the behaviours throughout the lecture although recorded in five minutes. It was also against this background that video classroom observations were conducted to either confirm or reject the results of the eCOVE observations or establish additional information. Had the video observations not been conducted, valuable information could have been missed.

The fact that the eCOVE classroom observations, and the video classroom observations, were once-off activities, created challenges in discerning whether what

was observed were regular events, or one-day performances by the target lecturers, knowing that they were going to be observed, and, obviously, assessed, on their teaching. The researcher addresses this by complementing data gathered through the lecture observations by using other methods: questionnaires, interviews and lecture. However, this could be addressed in future studies, by conducting multiple sessions of lecture observations.

I also used several software programmes such Express Dictate to transcribe the interviews; WEFT QDAS to store and explore the findings of the interviews and lecture observations, and SPSS to record, store and later analyse data from the questionnaires. Interview schedules (Appendix 8); observation schedules (Appendix 9); eCOVE reports and comments (Appendices 13 and 22) and code manuals (Appendices 12 and 15) were used to store, explore and analyse the findings from the qualitative data and the results generated from the quantitative data. These methods of data gathering and software instruments indicated the importance of using multiple sources and methods of gathering data to increase the reliability and validity of the study.

Other limitations were identified during the analysis and interpretation of the findings of this study, some of which the researcher tried to address to ensure the reliability and validity of the study, such as observations under controlled circumstances. This was a once off study where data were gathered within single sessions and therefore, the data gathered might seem to be too limited to make any generalisations. However, this was balanced by using different methods of data gathering; interviews, lecture observations and surveys from different sources; the lecturers, the students and the researcher so that the data could be generalised to the participants in the study. This could be improved by gathering data through multiple sessions to establish consistencies, deviations and patterns in the data. The sample of seven lecturers might appear to be small but qualitative studies are known for their small sample (Babbie et al., 2006; Migiro & Maganyi, 2011). More can still be done, by increasing the number of participants through focus group interviews.

One institution cannot stand for all. The fact that this study was conducted at one institution of higher education in South Africa implies that the findings or results cannot be generalised across all institutions of higher education in South Africa, but,

the study could be duplicated. However, it was not the aim of this study to generalise any results to all institutions, as this was an exploratory study. The perceptions of the lecturers would need to be nuanced differently to probe their self-awareness and more deeply explored taking into account the three omitted factors in McCroskey and associates' (2004) model. With outcomes at the end of the second semester and end of year, or in two consecutive years, there would be increased reliability. The findings helped to shed some light on the situation at the target institution, in as far as perceptions of lecturers' IC is concerned, but as there can be little deep understanding on the students part of pedagogical skills present or lacking, the questionnaires would need to be amplified.

5.5. Significance and implications of the study for higher education

Much as the field of instructional communication (IC) has been widely researched internationally, this study stretched the boundaries in IC research, by proposing new knowledge that investigating the lecturers' communication skills during instruction also reflects lecturer competence in their instruction. That instead of making a separation between lecturer communication and lecturer competence, the two should be treated as interrelated aspects of the instructional purpose, to get a holistic picture of lecturers' behaviours during instruction.

In South African higher education, the topic of instructional communication and competence, linked to a lecturer's oral proficiency in the medium of instruction, has started attracting interest. A prompt for this study was the call by the Department of Higher Education and Training in South Africa, needs to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Also, concerns about the poor performance of undergraduate students (Letseka & Maile, 2008; Cosser & Letseka, 2010) and a high level of student drop-out (MacGregor, 2009) continued to be raised in higher education circles. Instruction is a communication process aimed at establishing an effective and affective communication relationship between the instructor and the learners for optimum of success in the instructional environment (Richmond et al., 2001, p. 14). This speaks towards improving the quality of teaching and learning in the country. This study therefore, makes a contribution in this regard by addressing an issue of current national importance.

The study also adds to the voice that suggests that institutions of higher education need to quality assure lecturers' communication and competence during instruction, if they are to increase students' academic success and retention rates. There is a need for higher education institutions to know what is going on in their lecture halls, audit what resources they have available to support the lecturers, and evaluate the success of their interventions, policies, and strategies to enhance communication during instruction and consequently achieve students' affective, behavioural and cognitive learning.

Furthermore, the topic of instructional communication and competence, linked to the medium of instruction, in South African higher education, has started to attract interest. The increasing use of English as a language of learning and teaching in multilingual higher education affects lecturers and students and the study contributes to one aspect of discussions on improving throughput. As institutions and schools decide on the medium of instruction and introducing code switching and code mixing, care should be taken not to do at the expense of students receiving knowledge because of languages that might be barriers.

5.6. Implications and recommendations for higher education

I now present the implications and recommendations of this study from both a policy and practical perspectives.

5.6.1. Policy

Higher education institutions would do well to have mechanisms in place, such as sound language policies that guide instruction, open door policies on communication and policies on consultation hours, the integration of technology in instruction and the use of social media facilities such as Facebook, Twitter, and the like, to facilitate lecturer-student immediacy. For institutions that already have these mechanisms, some means of evaluating their effectiveness should be in place. These media need to be maximised in their use during and after instruction and might even be extended to assessment practices. Institutions need to evaluate, and review, their communication and instructional policies and strategies, so as to encourage students to approach their lecturers, and interact with them freely during instruction. Student feedback forms have proved to be a useful tool in establishing what perceptions exist, so that lecturers can be aware of their strengths, and weaknesses, for their

professional development, and for the institutions to synthesise, and expand their communication with students and develop appropriate and level mechanisms for staff development. This study has contributed to the body of knowledge on lecturer instructional communication, that, institutions of higher education need to approach, with an aim to remediate or optimise, lecturers' communication skills during instruction.

If research shows that there are relationships between instructor behaviour and student motivation and demotivation (Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Simonds, 2001), a relationship between instructor clarity and student outcomes (Rodger et al., 2007), instructor clarity and nonverbal immediacy (Comadena et al., 2007), source credibility and communication effectiveness (Hovland & Weiss, 1952), instructor immediacy and instructor credibility (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998) then there is a need to assess and develop lecturers' IC within the framework of institutional quality management. This can be achieved by developing programmes that could benefit both the lecturers and the students and increase students' academic success and retention rate. This therefore, calls upon institutions of higher education to review or establish their instructional policies and communication strategies, so that lecturers are more immediate, clear and credible if effective teaching and learning is to take place.

5.6.2. Practice

Institutions of higher education will continue to attract lecturers from different language backgrounds, and so, for many lecturers, the medium of instruction might not be a language they are fully confident of speaking in a formal setting.

To ensure that inadequate oral proficiency does not affect teaching and learning negatively, institutions ought to administer oral proficiency tests for lecturing staff prior to appointment to ensure an appropriate level of oral proficiency in the medium of instruction. Several standardised language testing systems are currently in use globally with band descriptors providing a proficiency score ideally accepted as a sound indicator of a person's oral proficiency. Where language support is required, lecturers can be assigned to language programmes and interventions like voice clinics that will help them to improve their language proficiency.

The fact that there are lecturers at institutions of higher education, who do not use a variety of dialogical interventions, modern instruction equipment, materials and strategies to make their content clear, during instruction, is a serious factor to consider. To assist such lecturers, institutions could review, or formulate a teaching strategy that would lead to the development of a policy that directs instruction. Lecturers, who do not have a methodology course in their qualifications, need to attend professional development workshops, to extend their instructional skills and to keep abreast of current trends in adult pedagogy.

A challenge often associated with integrating technology into instruction is that instructors have to learn new technical skills, and adjust to new roles of classroom management, and giving up a certain amount of control. Institutions of higher education can support lecturers who might still feel intimidated by technology, by providing mentoring (match the experienced with the inexperienced), and train staff to redirect their attention towards learning rather than evaluation, and reasoning rather than answers, during instruction (Beatty, 2005). This might also mean re-curriculating programmes, to accommodate the integration of technology into instruction. In terms of availability of resources, Nicholson (2002) advises that institutions make available permanent data projectors, network and computing facilities in all rooms, technical support for teaching and training for staff, so that technology can be integrated into instruction. Palbom (2009) adds that lecturers should read about how to use the technology, and practice using them.

Much as the findings and results of this study have been generalised to the participants in this study, there is a need to analyse and interpret them per individual lecturers so that the lecturers can get direct feedback on their individual communication behaviours and instructional competence. Then it might be possible to match their shortfalls with the relevant intervention(s) and through that develop a personal development plan. The general perceptions can still be helpful for institutions to develop interventions for common problems experienced by the majority of the lecturers.

The implications of this study for managers and supervisors at institutions of higher education, is that it is hoped that this study would bring attention to some of the

strengths and weaknesses in lecturers' communication and instructional skills. A personal development plan worked out with supervisors or managers could support and promote effective teaching and learning. In such a programme the balance between a caring psychological approach to students and control in the class would be helpful. Learning rhetorical skills which allow for humour to close the gap between person-in-charge and person-receiving-instruction, without diminishing mutual respect would go some way to a different style of engagement with students and lecturers. A change of attitude and mind-set by lecturers towards their students, and their profession might help students to pass. Some institutions are resourced, and, therefore, will have minimal problems, whereas others are not, and these will need more support from the Department of Higher Education & Training. Institutions of higher education in South Africa need to prioritise assessing lecturers' instructional communication and competence as part of their Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign.

Furthermore, this study imply that teacher training institutions review their training of student teachers in order to equip them with communication skills that will prepare them to be effective and competent in their communication and instruction. They need to be immediate, clear and credible in their communication if they are to facilitate behavioural, cognitive and attitudinal change.

5.7. Recommendations for further research

The study explored what perceptions exist of lecturers' instructional communication (IC) in order to establish the extent to which these perceptions reflect the lecturers' instructional competence, at an institution of higher education in South Africa. In the light of the research findings, analyses and discussion, the following recommendations can be made;

- How far does the relationship between perceptions, new interventions developed to improve lecturers' IC and competence and students' academic success go? In other words a study could be conducted where the perceptions are explored, interventions such as training are put in place, and then their impact is measured against students' performance to see if there will be a difference, or improvement.

- In reviewing the findings, it became clear that an important part of the credibility of lecturers, fairness in grading was not something which lecturers or students gave much weight to, nor was there discussion about how lecturers taught students to be accountable for their own successful outcomes to learning. The other aspect of being competent as a lecturer which was largely ignored was the methods and means by which lecturers modelled for students the mechanisms they could use to communicate effectively. The lecturers modelled, on the whole, immediacy and credibility, but the next step, how to transfer those same skills to tasks which would be evaluated or examined was not part of the discussion.
- Since only three components of the Generic Model of Instructional Communication were investigated, future research could be conducted on the remainder of the components, to get a complete picture of the lecturers' communication during instruction. Previous studies conducted on these components could be integrated in such a way as to amplify what can be done in higher education to increase students' success and retention rates.

The following questions could also be explored in further research:

- How does oral proficiency affect perceptions of instructional communication (IC)?
- Would a group of students who had been advised about pedagogical competencies have the same perceptions as those who are less well-informed?
- Are there gender specific verbal and nonverbal behaviours which affect IC?
- Does the particular disposition of lecturers affect their perceptions?

5.8. Chapter conclusion

This study has been able to indicate that perceptions held by the lecturer and their students of the lecturers' instructional communication (IC) at an institution of higher learning, also reflect lecturers' instructional competence. There is therefore, a need for a formal evaluation of the lecturers' communication and competence both pedagogical and professional are required. Interventions need to be put in place to

better support the lecturers in instructional environments with regard to attaining effective instructional communication and competence. This is especially urgent in places where English is the medium of instruction and most of the role players are second or third language English speakers.

Cultural and dispositional attitudes to power differences in lecturers and students were not sufficiently explored but seemed to play some part in the perceptions reported. A dialogical relationship as an effective method of teaching should be encouraged so that deep learning can take place and success rates improved.

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Addenda

**Faculty of Education
Department of Humanities Education**

Addendum 1: Request to conduct research at research site

P O Box 3281

THE REEDS

0158

18 November 2010

The Ethics Committee

The Tshwane University of Technology

Soshanguve Campus

Private Bag X680

Pretoria 0001

Dear chairperson

REQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

My name is Madikwa Hendrietta Segabutla, an employee at the Tshwane University of Technology and a graduate student on the PhD: Curriculum & Design, Instruction & Development programme, in the Faculty of Education at the University of Pretoria. It is against this background that I wish to request permission to conduct my research at your institution, in partial fulfilment of the requirements of my studies. I set out my research project as follows:

Title

Exploring the complexities of instructional communication in multilingual lecture halls, where English serves as the medium of instruction.

Purpose

The purpose of the research is to explore the lecturers' communication skills when they interact with their students, through the use of English as a language of instruction. The research conducted will contribute towards the Department of Education (2008) and now, Department of Higher education and Further Training's priority, to improve the quality of teaching and learning, in higher education, and possibly reduce students' drop-out rate and increase students' success rate. The study will thus explore the complexities that both lecturers and students encounter within a teaching and learning environment.

Research questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

- What are the complexities of instructional communication, in multilingual lecture halls, where English is the medium of instruction?
- What are lecturers', students and the researcher's perceptions of the nature and quality of lecturers' instructional communication with students, at institutions of higher education?

Ethical principles

I need to apply for ethical clearance at the University of Pretoria, where the study has been registered. However, such clearance will only be granted if all participants and research sites have given their informed consent. The following ethical principles would be adhered to during the study;

Voluntary Participation

Lecturers would be sent letters inviting them to participate in the research (Please see copy attached). This will afford them the opportunity to either accept or decline the invitation. The letters sent to them will explain the purpose of the research, the procedures to be followed in conducting the research, and the roles and activities of the participants. The participants will also be informed that participation is voluntary, and that should they decide to participate in the research, they can withdraw from participation at any stage of the research. Their withdrawal from further participation will not be used against them anywhere. The participants would be given consent forms (see copy attached) to sign if they agree to participate in the research, as an indication that they are participating voluntarily. All video - recordings of lectures would be done in consultation with the lecturers and with their permission.

The students (respondents) would be presented with a consent form that they will have to read and sign before they fill in the questionnaire (see copy attached). The consent form will explain the purpose of the research, indicate to the students that participation is voluntary and that they might discontinue filling-in the form the moment they feel uncomfortable. This will not be used against them at all. Observations and video - recording of lectures would be done with the permission of the students.

Confidentiality

I will explain to the participants during briefing sessions, in the letters inviting them to participate in the study and in the consent forms participants have to fill-in, the value of the data they will give to me and assure them that it would be used solely for the study and that no other person will have access to it. This I will secure by signing a declaration form (see copy attached) form, to commit myself to keeping the information that participants give to me, confidential. I will explain to them that the data collected will not be used for promotion or performance evaluation purposes. The student assistants will also sign a declaration form (see copy attached) to ensure that they too will treat all information they come across during the research, as confidential. Participants who have sensitive information to divulge can sometimes not be forthcoming for fear of victimisation. I will encourage all participants to open up by making them aware that their names will not be reflected in the study to ensure *anonymity*. Their identities would be kept anonymous by using numbers to identify them, when collecting, and recording data. Where recorded videos are used, their faces would be covered.

Potential risks and harm to participants

The nature of the study indicates that the level of risk and potential to harm to the participants would be minimal or non- existent. This is because the study is about normal interaction between the lecturers and their students, something that is expected in any given teaching and learning environment. Participants will not be exposed to circumstances that will cause them undue embarrassment, stress, or low-self-esteem.

Time Frame

The research will entail one hour individual interviews conducted once with lecturers and two sessions of one and half hours, manual and video recorded, observations, during instructions. I also wish to distribute questionnaires, in one session, to students taught by the lecturers. All these activities are scheduled to take place, possibly, in the first semester between January and June 2011.

Thank you for your support.

Yours faithfully



Signature

MH Segabutla

RESEARCHER

Signature

Dr R Evans

PROJECT SUPERVISOR

For any questions or concerns you might have, please contact MH Segabutla (Researcher) at 082 795 3425 or segabutlamh@tut.ac.za. OR Dr R Evans (Project supervisor) at revans@postino.up.ac.za

For any complaints concerning the manner in which the research is conducted and you would like to speak to an independent person, please consult the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria, or the institutional office) at ethics.education@up.ac.za OR the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Tshwane University of Technology) at www.tut.ac.za

Building and office no

Groenkloof Campus, University of
Pretoria
PRETORIA 0002
Republic of South Africa

Tel number: 012 420
4272
Fax number: 012 420
5594

E-mail address:
revans@postino.up.ac.za
www.up.ac.za/education

Addendum 2: Research site ethics clearance



**Tshwane University
of Technology**

We empower people

Faculty of Humanities

Office of the Dean

FREC CODE: FREC/APL/STD/2010/1

TO: DRIC CHAIRPERSON – APPLIED LANGUAGES

**FROM: DR MS MUKHOLA
EXEC DEAN: FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**

DATE: 29 November, 2010

RE: ETHICS REVIEW: Segabutla, M.H

Decision: Approved

Title: EXPLORING THE COMPLEXITIES OF INSTRUCTIONAL COMMUNICATION IN
MULTILINGUAL LECTURE HALLS, WHERE ENGLISH SERVES AS MEDIUM OF
INSTRUCTION.

In reviewing the proposal, the following comments/notes, emanating from the meeting, are
tabled for your consideration/attention/notification

- There were no ethical issues, therefore approval is granted.

Sincerely,

**DR. MS MUKHOLA
EXECUTIVE DEAN: FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**



We empower people

Tel. 0861 102 422, Tel. (012) 382-9240, Fax (012) 793-0975, www.tut.ac.za • Dean of Faculty of Humanities, Private Bag X680, Pretoria 0001



Addendum 3: Ethics clearance at institution of learning



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

Faculty of Education

Ethics Committee

19 November 2010

Dear Mrs Segabutla

REFERENCE: HS10/10/01

Your application was carefully considered by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee and the final decision of the Ethics Committee is:

Your application is approved.

This letter serves as notification that you may continue with your fieldwork. Should any significant changes to the study occur after approval was given, it is your responsibility to notify the Ethics Committee immediately.

Please note that this is **not a clearance certificate**. Upon completion of your research you need to submit the following documentation to the Ethics Committee:

1. Integrated Declarations form that you adhered to conditions stipulated in this letter – Form D08

On receipt of the above-mentioned documents you will be issued a clearance certificate. Please quote the reference number HS10/10/01 in any communication with the Ethics Committee.

Best wishes,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Liesel Ebsersohn'.

Prof Liesel Ebsersohn
Chair: Ethics Committee
Faculty of Education

Addendum 4: Letter of invitation - participant

P O Box 3281
THE REEDS
0158.

Faculty of Education
Department of Humanities Education

18 November 2010

Tshwane University of Technology
Private Bag X 754
PRETORIA.

Dear

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

My name is Madikwa Hendrietta Segabutla, a Senior Lecturer (Applied Languages) at Tshwane University of Technology, and a graduate student on the PhD programme, Curriculum & Design, Instruction & Development, Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria.

Part of my doctoral studies requires that I invite people to participate in the study. I am currently preparing to engage in a research project that seeks to explore the interaction between lectures and their students as they communicate with each other, during instruction. It is against this background that I invite you to participate in this research project. Similar invitations would be sent to other lecturers and so participation would be open to the first few respondents. Details of the research project are as follows;

Title

Exploring the complexities of instructional communication in multilingual lecture halls, where English serves as the medium of instruction.

Purpose

The purpose of the research is to explore the lecturers' communication skills when they interact with their students, through the use of English as a language of instruction. The research conducted will contribute towards the Department of Education (2008) and now, Department of Higher education and Further Training's priority, to improve the quality of teaching and learning, in higher education, by reducing students' drop-out rate and increase students' success rate. The study will thus explore the complexities that both lecturers and students encounter within a teaching and learning environment.

Research questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

- What are the complexities of instructional communication, in multilingual lecture halls, where English is the medium of instruction?
- What are lecturers', students and the researcher's perceptions of the nature and quality of lecturers' instructional communication with students, at institutions of higher education?

Ethical principles

I need to apply for ethical clearance at the University of Pretoria, where the study resides. However, such clearance will only be granted if all participants and research sites have given their informed consent. The following ethical principles would be adhered to during the study;

Voluntary Participation

Lecturers would be sent letters inviting them to participate in the research. This will afford you the opportunity to either accept or decline the invitation. You would be expected to play the role of a participant in the study whose activities will include a 1hr interview on your interaction with one group of your students during instruction. You will also be observed in two sessions of 1:30 minutes lecture, where the focus would be on the communication that takes place between you and the students. These lectures will also video recorded so that if I missed anything during my observation, more information can be sought from the video. All activities would be negotiated with you for the date, time and venue that best suit you. Please be informed that participation is voluntary, and that no reward would be given. The benefit for your participation in the study is that you would be making a meaningful contribution towards improving the quality of teaching in higher education. You will also be among the first to see a report on the findings of the study. Should you decide to participate in the research, you can withdraw from participation at any stage without any penalty or negative consequences. You would be given a consent form to sign if you agree to participate in the research, as an indication that you are participating voluntarily.

Your students would be expected to respond to a questionnaire that would be administered by research assistants. The questionnaire will have a consent clause that they will have to read and sign before they fill in the questionnaire. The consent form will explain the purpose of the research to them, indicate to the students that participation is voluntary and that they might discontinue filling-in the form the moment they wish to do so or feel uncomfortable continuing with the questions. They too would be observed during instruction and video recorded. These activities would be done after lectures so that I do not interfere with your normal teaching and learning.

Confidentiality

I would like to assure you that the data that I will gather during the interview and the observations sign a declaration of responsibility form in your presence to commit myself to keeping the information that you give to me, confidential. This will also be a way of protecting the information that you volunteer to me. The student assistants that will administer questionnaires to your students and also video record the lectures will also sign a declaration of responsibility form in your presence to ensure that they too will treat all information they come across during the research, as confidential. Please take note that no real names would be reflected in the study to ensure *anonymity*. Your identity would be kept anonymous by using numbers to identify information from you, when collecting, recording and storing data. Your face would be covered in the video to protect your identity. However, the school management team might have access to a summary of the research findings for research purposes only.

Potential risks and harm to participants

The nature of the study indicates that the level of risk and potential to harm to the participants would be minimal or non-existent. This is because the study is about normal interaction between you and your students, something that is expected in any given teaching and learning environment. You are assured that you will not be exposed to circumstances that will cause you undue harm, embarrassment, stress, or low-self-esteem.

Time Frame

As already pointed out, the research will entail one session of one hour individual interviews conducted once with you and two sessions of one and half hours, manual and recorded, observations, during instructions. The questionnaires that would be administered to your students will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. All these activities are scheduled to take place, possibly, in the first semester between January and June 2011.

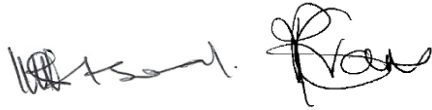
I am looking forward to your participation in the study.

Yours faithfully

Researcher: MH Segabutla

Supervisor: Dr R Evans

Signatures:



Date: 18 November 2010

18 November 2010

For any questions or concerns you might have, please contact MH Segabutla (Researcher) at 082 795 3425 or segabutlamh@tut.ac.za. OR Dr R Evans (Project supervisor) at revans@postino.up.ac.za

For any complaints concerning the manner in which the research is conducted and you would like to speak to an independent person, please consult the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria, or the institutional office) at ethics.education@up.ac.za OR the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Tshwane University of Technology) at www.tut.ac.za

Addendum 5: Letter of consent by participant

Faculty of Education
Department of Humanities Education

CONSENT FORM TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INSTRUCTIONAL COMMUNICATION STUDY PERTAINING TO HIGHER EDUCATION ON UNIVERSITY SITE.

This is to confirm that I _____, the lecturer for the course: _____ has been informed and fully understand the nature and purpose of the research project entitled: *Exploring the complexities of instructional communication in multilingual lecture halls where English serves as the Medium of Instruction*. I hereby agree to participate in the study being conducted by Ms MH Segabutla, a PhD student at the University of Pretoria.

A. PURPOSE

I understand that the research to be conducted is not an experimental study and have been informed that the purpose of the study is to explore the interaction between lectures and their students as they communicate with each other, during lectures.

B. PROCEDURES

These lectures will also be video recorded so that if the researcher missed anything during her observation, more information can be sought from the video. All activities would be negotiated with me for the date, time and venue that best suit me. I have been informed that participation is voluntary, and that no reward would be given. The benefit for my participation in the study is that I would be making a possible contribution towards improving the quality of teaching in higher education. I will also be among the first to see a report on the findings of the study. Should I decide to participate in the research, I can withdraw from participation at any stage without any penalty or negative consequences. I have been given a consent form to sign if I agree to participate in the research, as an indication that I am participating voluntarily.

I understand that I would be interviewed for 1hr, on my interaction with students during lectures and that I will also be observed in two sessions of 1:30 minutes lecture, where the focus would be on the communication that takes place between me and the students. During these observations, the researcher will record data manually while a research assistant, will video tape the lectures. All the data gathered would be used solely for the purpose of the study. The researcher will not interfere with teaching and learning as these activities would be done outside normal lecture hours. I also understand that my students will also be invited to fill-in questionnaires that would be administered by research assistants. I have been informed that the school management team might have access to a summary of the research findings for research purposes.

C. CONDITIONS OF PARTICIPATION

I understand that:

- Even though I have agreed to participate in the study, I am free to withdraw from participation at any stage of the research without negative consequences or penalty.
- I might inform the researcher or research assistant of my intentions to withdraw participation, orally or in writing.
- I am at liberty to contact the researcher at any time I have questions or concerns about the study.
 - All information gathered about me or the university would be kept confidential.
 - The findings of the study might be disseminated within academic contexts.

I have carefully studied the information above and understand this agreement. I hereby freely consent and voluntarily agree to participate in the study as described above.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Designation: _____

E-mail: _____

Tel: _____

Although I have signed the consent form, I would like to comment as follows:

For any questions or concerns you might have, please contact MH Segabutla (Researcher) at 082 795 3425 or segabutlamh@tut.ac.za. OR Dr R Evans (Project supervisor) at revans@postino.up.ac.za

For any complaints concerning the manner in which the research is conducted and you would like to speak to an independent person, please consult the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria, or the institutional office) at ethics.education@up.ac.za OR the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Tshwane University of Technology) at www.tut.ac.za

Addendum 6: Declaration by researcher and

Addendum 7: Declaration by research assistant

Faculty of Education
Department of Humanities Education

PERSONAL DECLARATION OF RESPONSIBILITY

Research project: Exploring the complexities of instructional communication in multilingual lecture halls, where English serves as the medium of instruction.

1. I declare that I am cognisant of the goals of the Research Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Education to:

- ☐ develop among students and researchers a high standard of ethics and ethical practice in the conceptualisation and conduct of educational research;
- ☐ cultivate an ethical consciousness among scholars especially in research involving human respondents; and
- ☐ Promote among researchers a respect for the human rights and dignity of human respondents in the research process.

2. I subscribe to the principles of

- ☐ *Voluntary participation* in research, implying that the participants might withdraw from the research at any time.
- ☐ *informed consent*, meaning that research participants must at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes, and must give consent to their participation in the research.
- ☐ *Safety in participation*; put differently, that the human respondents should not be placed at risk or harm of any kind e.g., research with young children.
- ☐ *Privacy*, meaning that the *confidentiality* and *anonymity* of human respondents should be protected at all times.
- ☐ *Trust*, which implies that human respondents will not be respondent to any acts of deception or betrayal in the research process or its published outcomes.

.....
Researcher/Research assistant

.....
Signature

.....
Date

Addendum 8: Interview schedule

Faculty of Education Department of Humanities Education

Project title: *Exploration of lecturers' instructional communication at an institution of higher education in South Africa, where English is the medium of instruction.*

Research site: ----- Date of visit: -----

Time: ----- Length of session: ----- minutes

Interviewer: -----Interviewee: -----

The aim of this interview is to explore lecturers' and students' communication as they interaction with each other during instruction. Right now, I would like to confirm that you have given me permission to interview you. I assure you that the information you give me would be used only for the purpose of research and that no names would be mentioned in the report. I would like to audio record the interview, with your permission, so that I can listen to it later for more information and that I can transcribe it for data analysis. Will this be okay with you? In that case we can now begin with the interview. Please confirm that you are participating in this study voluntarily.

Biographical data: I would like to confirm the following biographical details:

Gender	Male	
	Female	
Race	Black	
	White	
	Other (specify)	
Lecturing experience	Less than 5years	
	Between 5 -10years	
	Between 11 – 15years	
	More than 15years	

QUESTIONS:

1. Which course would you like to be interviewed for?
2. How long have you been lecturing this course?
3. How would you describe you communication (oral and written) with your students during the lectures?
4. Do you ask students questions during instruction?

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What type of questions do you often ask? (as in those that assess Facts, Knowledge, evaluation) • And what is the students' response?
5. Which nonverbal codes (eye contact, touch, smile) do you use often during instruction? Is there any particular reason for that?
6. Are there any nonverbal codes that you do not use often? Is there any particular reason for that?
7. Would you say that your students find you approachable? Please elaborate on that.
8. Would you say that your student understand you during instruction? Please elaborate.
9. What do you do during instruction, to present the content of your subject in such a way that students are able to follow the lecture?
10. Are there any steps that you follow when you present lectures?
11. When you give students written instructions as in during a test or assignment are they able to follow the instructions? How do you assist them?
12. Would you say that your students respect you as their lecturer? Please elaborate on your answer.
13. Would you say that your students trust you as their lecturer? Please elaborate on your answer.
14. Would you describe yourself as caring about your students? What are the things that you do or say to show them that you care about them?
15. Would you regard yourself as an expert in the subject that you teach? Please elaborate.
16. Is there anything you would like to add about your communication with your students during instruction?

We have reached the end of the interview. Thank you very much for the valuable information that you have shared with me. Thank you too for your time. Please sign the document as an indication that you participated in the study voluntarily.

Signatures: 1. ----- Date: -----

Interviewer

2. ----- Date: -----

-

Interviewee

Addendum 9: Example of the Proc Print of the data entered

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Addendum 10: Questionnaire



Faculty of Education
Department of Humanities Education

CONSENT FORM

PhD: Curriculum and Instructional Design & Development

Research Project: *Exploring lecturers' Instructional communication at an institution of higher learning, where English is the medium of instruction.*

RESEARCHER: MH Segabutla (segabutlamh@tut.ac.za)

SUPERVISOR: Dr. R Evans (revans@postino.up.ac.za)

Dear student

You are requested to fill in the questionnaire, starting on the next page, as honestly as possible. The questionnaire is completed in fulfillment of my PhD studies, as I seek to explore lecturers' instructional communication during lectures. My findings may contribute towards improving the quality of teaching and learning at institutions of higher learning.

The questionnaire should take about 20 minutes to complete. All the information you provide will be treated with confidentiality, and used only for the purposes of this study. Your identity as the respondents will remain anonymous. Please note that you are free to withdraw from further participation in the study at any stage. Your withdrawal from participating in the study will not be used against you at all. Please note that there is no right or wrong answer.

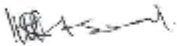
Please, sign the statement below, as an indication that you are willing to participate in the study and tear off the slip at the dotted line below and keep it.

I, have read the explanation above, and understand its contents. I willingly participate in the study, and fully understand that participation is voluntary, and that I may withdraw from further participation at any stage.

Respondent's signature: _____

Researcher: MH Segabutla

Project Supervisor: Dr. Evans

Signatures: 



Date: October 2011

October 2011

Tear off here _____ Tear off here

For any questions or concerns you might have about the research project, please contact MH Segabutla (Researcher) at 082 795 3425 or segabutlamh@tut.ac.za. OR Dr R Evans (Project supervisor) at revans@postino.up.ac.za

For any complaints concerning the manner in which the research is conducted and you if you would like to speak to an independent person, please consult the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria, or the institutional office) at ethics.education@up.ac.za OR the chairperson of the Ethics Committee (Tshwane University of Technology) at www.tut.ac.za

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Groenkloof Campus, University of Pretoria
PRETORIA 0002
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Tel number: 012 420 4272
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E-mail address: revans@postino.up.ac.za
www.up.ac.za/education

QUESTIONNAIRE: INSTRUCTIONAL COMMUNICATION OF LECTURERS

Respondent

Please answer all the questions by circling an appropriate number in a shaded box or by writing your answer in the shaded space provided

SECTION A

In this section, we would like to know more about you so we can see how different students feel about their lecturer's communication skills.

1. For which Diploma are you enrolled?

--

2. At which Campus are you studying?

Soshanguve South	1
Soshanguve North	2
Pretoria Campus	3
GaRankuwa	4
eMalahleni	5
Polokwane	6

3. What is your gender?

Male	1
Femal	2

4. What was your age at your last birthday?

--

5. Which language(s) do you speak at home?

Afrikaans	1
English	2
isiXhosa	3
Northern Sotho/Sepedi	4
Setswana	5
Other (specify):	

Question 6 follows on the next page ...

For Office Use

V1

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 1

V2

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 5

V3

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 8

V4

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 10

V5

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 12

V6

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 15

V7

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 18

V8

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 21

V9

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 24

V10

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 27

V11

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 30

For Office Use

6. Which **language(s)** do you use regularly to communicate in your social life?

Afrikaans	1
English	2
isiXhosa	3
Northern Sotho/Sepedi	4
Setswana	5
Other (specify):	

V12			33
V13			36
V14			39
V15			42
V16			45
V17			48

7. In which grade were you taught in **English for first time**?

--

V18

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 51

8. Were you **taught** at least **three content subjects** in English in high school (e.g. Geography, Mathematics, Biology etc.in Grades 8 - 12)?

Yes	1
No	2

V19

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 54

9. If you could choose, which language(s) would you prefer for learning at university?

Afrikaans	1
English	2
isiXhosa	3
Northern Sotho/Sepedi	4
Setswana	5
Other (specify):	

V20			56
V21			59
V22			62
V23			65
V24			68
V25			71

SECTION B

10. Please **rate your lecturer** for each statement below

My lecturer ...

	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
writes information on the board during lectures.	1	2	3	4
allows students to write on the board during lectures.	1	2	3	4
allows students to ask questions during lectures.	1	2	3	4
maintains eye contact with the whole class.	1	2	3	4
looks over or away from students while talking to them.	1	2	3	4
asks questions that test how well students understood what was taught	1	2	3	4
asks questions to the whole class	1	2	3	4
uses a dull or monotonous voice while talking to the students.	1	2	3	4
asks questions to individual students.	1	2	3	4
asks questions to groups of students.	1	2	3	4
can be heard by all students when s/he speaks during lectures	1	2	3	4
smiles when s/he presents lectures	1	2	3	4

V26		74
V27		76
V28		78
V29		80
V30		82
V31		84
V32		86
V33		88
V34		90
V35		92
V36		94
V37		96

SECTION B continues on the next page ...

For Office Use

SECTION B (cont.)

10. (cont.) Please rate your lecturer for each statement below

My lecturer ...	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always		
nods her/his head to show that s/he is listening when students talk to her/him	1	2	3	4	V38	98
uses her/his hand and arms to gesture while talking	1	2	3	4	V39	100
moves around the lecture hall during lectures	1	2	3	4	V40	102
has a relaxed body position while talking to students	1	2	3	4	V41	104
frowns when talking to students	1	2	3	4	V42	106
gestures while talking to students	1	2	3	4	V43	108
looks directly at the students when she/he when she/he talks	1	2	3	4	V44	110
moves closer to students when she/he talks to them	1	2	3	4	V45	112

SECTION C

11. Please rate your lecturer for each statement below

My lecturer ...	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always		
explains the objectives of the lecture at the beginning on the lecture.	1	2	3	4	V46	114
draws on what students already know to prepare them for new information that is to be taught.	1	2	3	4	V47	116
speaks in such a way that the students understand her/him.	1	2	3	4	V48	118
uses clear and relevant examples.	1	2	3	4	V49	120
uses demonstrations to make information clear.	1	2	3	4	V50	122
defines major/new concepts clearly.	1	2	3	4	V51	124
uses at least three of these material - the board, PowerPoint, handouts, Videos /DVDs, over-head projector when lecturing.	1	2	3	4	V52	126
constructs test questions that are understandable.	1	2	3	4	V53	128
presents information step-by-step.	1	2	3	4	V54	130
repeats and stresses important points.	1	2	3	4	V55	132
answers students' questions clearly.	1	2	3	4	V56	134
presents students with tasks/activities to practice what was taught.	1	2	3	4	V57	136
stays on the topic during her/his lecture	1	2	3	4	V58	138
is straight forward in her/his lecture	1	2	3	4	V59	140

SECTION D

follows on the next page ...

Almost never	Seldom	Often	Almost always
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V60		142
V61		144
V62		146
V63		148
V64		150
V65		152
V66		154
V67		156
V68		158
V69		160
V70		162
V71		164
V72		166
V73		168
V74		170

V75

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 172

V76

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 175

V77

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 178

4

Addendum 11: Interview transcript

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (SEMI – STRUCTURED)

Project title: Exploration of lecturers' instructional communication at an institution of higher education in South Africa, where English is the medium of instruction.

Research site: Campus 1

Date of visit: 04 March 2012

Time: 15:45

Length of session: 20:03 minutes

Interviewer: Researcher

Respondent: Lecturer 1

INTERVIEWER: Good afternoon mam (Name) and thank you very much for setting aside your activities for the day to accommodate me, with my interview. I really thank you.

RESPONDENT: Good afternoon mam and eh, you're welcome.

INTERVIEWER: the aim of this interview is to explore lecturers' and students' communication as they interact with each other during instruction. Right now I would like to confirm that you have given me permission to interview you. I assure you that you would be used only for the purpose of this research, and that no names would be mentioned in the report. I would like to audio record the interview with your permission, so that I can listen to it later for more information, and that I can transcribe it later for data analysis. Will this be okay with you?

RESPONDENT: yes permission granted.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you. In that case we can now begin with the interview. Please confirm that you are participating in this study voluntarily.

RESPONDENT: yes I am.

INTERVIEWER: thank you. I would like to confirm the following biographical details. Your gender is female.

RESPONDENT: yes.

INTERVIEWER: and your race is black.

RESPONDENT: yes.

INTERVIEWER: your lecturing experience, is it less than five years? Is it between five and ten years? Is it between 11 and 15 years? Is it more than 15 years?

RESPONDENT: Between five and 10 years.

INTERVIEWER: five and 10 years, thank you. Which course would you like to be interviewed for? You have to choose one course.

RESPONDENT: Communication 1, CEN160B.

INTERVIEWER: CEN160B, Thank you very much. How long have you been lecturing this course? How long have you been lecturing this course?

RESPONDENT: over six years.

INTERVIEWER: How would you describe your communication with your students? Oral, written, during instruction? Would you say it's effective? Is it formal? How would you describe it?

RESPONDENT: it is formal, very formal, in the sense that eh!, I try by all means not to use my mother tongue during the instruction because not all the students are speaking my native language, and I

would say it is effective in the sense that students are given an opportunity during instruction to ask questions, if they feel they want to ask questions, and also at the end of the lesson they are given an opportunity to ask questions, and they furthermore have got a, they have consulting hours where they can come and consult beyond the normal lecturing time. so I will generally say it is effective, both oral and written.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Thank you very much. Do you ask students questions? You have already indicated

RESPONDENT: Yes I do. During instruction I do ask questions just to make sure that the students are on the same page with me before I go any further.

INTERVIEWER: alright, and what type of questions do you often ask? Is it those that test their knowledge? Those that evaluate, test understanding?

RESPONDENT: Those that normally would evaluate their understanding during instruction.

INTERVIEWER: and what is the students' response when you ask them questions?

RESPONDENT: I would say generally students would always say they understand and eh, when you ask them questions in class, sometimes they get them right. I would assume that it's because they just heard you speaking and or teaching, is still fresh. But sometimes you find it's a different scenario if you give them an exercise might be after three days or during the test, is when you will see that some people did understand you but some students did not. But when you ask them questions during class, at times they give you the impression that they understood.

INTERVIEWER: alright. Which nonverbal codes, for example eye contact, touch, smile do you use often during instruction?

RESPONDENT: wow! (Laughing) mine is, is basically eye contact and mostly smile.

INTERVIEWER: Is there any reason in particular for those?

RESPONDENT: Yes! I mean really if you smile people are able to buy into what you are, what you want to sell to them. So I do not see a point in frowning or bringing in, or bringing my problems into class because it can only work against me. So I win them by smiling and making them feel at home.

INTERVIEWER: Okay and you've also touched on my next question. The next question is there any nonverbal codes that you do not use often? You have already said frown.

RESPONDENT: yes, no I do not. I do not frown, I do not eh, yah! Basically anything they would, that would make them feel uncomfortable, I do not do body language wise.

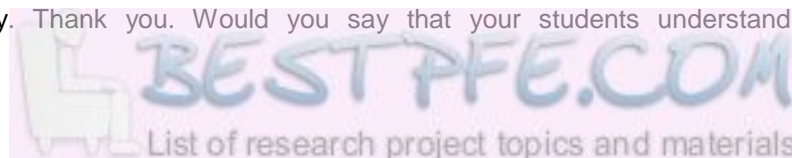
INTERVIEWER: huh, and then when it comes to touching, do you touch?

RESPONDENT: No, I would not touch my students because (giggle) you know these days, besides I feel it's unacceptable, there's no reason for me to touch, and eh, yah, in short I do not believe in that, because they, our relationship is a lecturer- student relationship and it has got nothing to do with touching. I can only touch when someone comes into my office with their personal problems, when comforting them might be I can give them a hug, but generally in class I see no point in hugging or touching students.

INTERVIEWER: alright. Would you say that your students find you approachable?

RESPONDENT: very much, I see that they are keen to talk to me even outside class. They can stop me and say mam you look nice or mam what's wrong or mam what's happening and they are free to come during their consultation hours to talk about any other thing, even if it's not subject related. So yes, I think I am approachable.

INTERVIEWER: okay. Thank you. Would you say that your students understand you during instruction?



RESPONDENT: yes, I say this confidently because the last lecturer evaluation , the student-lecturer evaluation, indicated that the students have got confidence in me and the, they, the majority of them really showed satisfaction in terms of my teaching, my teaching methods and so on. So I would really say they understand me during instruction because they said so.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Thank you. What do you do during instruction, to present the content of your subject matter in such a way that students are able to follow? Like for instance what do you use to assist them in following what you are presenting to them?

RESPONDENT: well. I would introduce eh, the outcomes of the, my presentation, and I would, I would let them know that these are the things that they, I initially would present the objectives of the lesson, say these are the things we need to achieve at the end of the day. And as we go along during the lecture, I try and go back and test if we are trying to cover up what we said we would cover. and the other thing is that I am, I believe in the technology that I'm using, the fact that we, I, I make use of PowerPoint presentations and make use of the overhead projector, it's visual er, it's visual interaction and I, I see that they are more keen because it's not like at high school where you would normally write, u would spend most of your time writing on the board. So I think the, the technology presentation that I use is also interesting to them.

INTERVIEWER: alright, do you also give them explanations, illustrations, demonstrate things to them?

RESPONDENT: yes I do. for instance when I teach about nonverbal communication we, the time where I would for instance bring along , having cut the different expressions of faces of people in newspapers and so on, for instance people who are at a funeral carrying a coffin and people who are playing in a soapy, people who are at a wedding or a party and so on, and er, without even , like cartoons in newspapers, so those kind of things are demonstrations that I use to indicate to them that eh, there are, we can see one picture for instance, all of us and we can interpret it differently those kind of things. so even pictures, I would show them a picture on my lap top, be it my picture or any other person and say let's look at this pictures and let's interpret it and you get different interpretations .

INTERVIEWER: thank you. Are there any steps that you follow when you present lectures? Already you have talked about

RESPONDENT: Yes, I would introduce the objectives, the outcomes from there the introduction and then I go straight into the lecture and at the end there's a conclusion but, before we move into the other Chapter or the other unit we go back and check and have what we call our checklist of the outcome to make sure that we have covered them but not only that, also to assess them because I give them classwork to assess whether we have covered what we wanted to cover, the objectives. That cannot be done only during a test; I do that before the test so that when we go into the test there are no surprises.

INTERVIEWER: alright, thank you very much. When you use students' written instructions, for example during a test or assignment, are they able to follow the instructions?

RESPONDENT: yes, they are.

INTERVIEWER: How do you assist them to follow instructions?

RESPONDENT: there are instructions when for instance during a test, there are instructions on the question paper, like there would be objectives in every lesson so that the, the instructions would be for instance answer the following, all of the following questions, and sometimes might be the instructions would be use er, your own words er, as far as you can er, where they would , they're supposed to quote for instance there would be a, an instruction such as quote and support your answer, those kind of instructions, in every question there are instructions and I believe the instructions are clear and er, I, I see with the pass rate that er, they are able, as much as I said earlier on that they, I'm convinced that my students understand me when I present my lectures . I see also in the test that they've been able to understand my instructions.

INTERVIEWER: Alright. So after marking a test, do you get the same feeling, that they've performed well, they've understood the instructions, they've carried out the instructions?

RESPONDENT: yes, I would say more than 50% do and for me that is good, it indicates that the majority of the students have er, have really understood the, the instructions. I would really say it's only in few cases where you find that in a test there are students who obtained less than 40, so the majority of them are seating at between, er, 50 and 59 and, and er, six, er, 59 and 60 and so on.

INTERVIEWER: okay, and with assignments?

RESPONDENT: what about assignments?

INTERVIEWER: when you give them instructions in an assignment, are they able to follow?

RESPONDENT: They are but with assignments, normally because it's not something that they do in one day, they, they take home and they go and type, there are certain expectations from you, I make sure that I clarify the instructions in class so that as they go and execute the task, they understand fully what is expected of them.

INTERVIEWER: alright, thank you very much. Would you say that your students respect you as their lecturer?

RESPONDENT: yes, 100%.

INTERVIEWER: Please elaborate on that, is there anything they do, that they say, to indicate respect?

RESPONDENT: one, generally er, uhm, I've observed that students wait for the lecturer outside, when, when the lecturer is not there. But my students generally would wait for me inside class because I have made it clear in the beginning with them that they must go to class and wait for me. They cannot wait for me outside as if they are waiting for a bus. Now, the other thing is that when they talk to me they cannot talk to me, I made it clear to them in the beginning, and I believe if you clarify things in the beginning you would not have problems. so even in class I would, I would not have students who would in the middle of the lecture disrupt my lecture, thus I never get that, and I feel my students are talking to me with respect, and they make use of formal language when they talk to me because they understand I am not their friend, I am their lecturer.

INTERVIEWER: alright, so their behaviour also

RESPONDENT: Yes, their behaviour towards me indicate respect even when they come to my office they knock, if they find me over the phone they stand outside when I'm done I call them, because these are the things that we try to instil to the young people. I have, I'm not surprised because I told them I would like things to be done so.

INTERVIEWER: okay, thank you very much. Would you say that your students trust you as their lecturer? Do they trust the knowledge that you give to them?

RESPONDENT: yes, I can say they do trust and in the students, the lecturer evaluation also they, they have indicated confidence in the knowledge that I'm imparting to them and furthermore, I would say that they trust me not only with the knowledge that I impart in class, but er, generally with their lives because there are those that would come to my office privately just to talk about issues that are bothering them, the social issues that are bothering them. So with that I mean we have got er, an office that deals particularly with that but if they can pass that office and come to me as their lecturer, I think they've got some certain level of trust and confidence in me.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you. Would you describe yourself as caring about your students? Do you care?

RESPONDENT: yes I do (giggling).

INTERVIEWER: what are the things that you do or say to them that show that you care?

RESPONDENT: for instance, sometimes before I start a lecture when I greet them and for instance you do not get a good response, I sometimes ask them "er, ladies and gentlemen did you have your breakfast? Did you eat this morning? (Laughter by both), what is up with you today? And the

response that I will always get, you know students are students they will say "no mam we are hungry today" and er, that is some kind of an ice breaker and from there we continue.

INTERVIEWER: okay, and then, when for instance they didn't do well and they approach you do you accommodate them? Help them?

RESPONDENT: yah, actually they come during consultation hours but even after the test because after the test I give them feedback in the form of the memorandum. we go through the memo together and if they're, they've got queries they come to the office, we address that query or we adjust the mark if there's a mistake that I made and I normally say to them if you, you are aware that you have robbed me with the marks, you must bring the mark back, but that you'll never get back (laughter from both). But I would say, they do consult, and they get help, even after I shall have given them feedback, if they still feel that they need clarity, they are welcome to come to me and then we sort out the rest.

INTERVIEWER: alright, would you regard yourself as an expert in the subject that you teach?

RESPONDENT: yes, confidently so. I've been teaching the subject for over five years and when I joined the university in 2004, the pass rate for communication classes generally was about 34%. since I came there are classes for instance Communication 2, where in the past three years it has been over 80%, and the CEN160B that we are talking about now, the pass rate has risen from about 40 to, we are seating now at 50, 50% for the past three years. So I would say that I'm an expert in my field and I've made a positive contribution since I joined the university.

INTERVIEWER: and you're also a trained teacher by profession?

RESPONDENT: yes, I am. I did a BA degree, then I did a B Ed, then I also did in between a diploma in methodology, a methodology diploma in a, a teaching diploma at the university.

INTERVIEWER: alright.

RESPONDENT: what was then called HED, Higher education Diploma.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you very much. Is there anything that you would like to add about your communication with your students during instruction?, anything that , that perhaps we didn't talk about , anything that you want to go back to , add information ?

RESPONDENT: I would say that , though students are generally confident about me and the subject matter, I would still say, I find that there are challenges with the communication language itself. Some students are not yet confident to be talking in the English language. You see that when they come to your office. some of them just start speaking their own mother tongue , and er, it's only after you shall have intervened and told them they need to start practice learning the language because as they go into the world of work, they're going to be using the same language, and sometimes when you mark the assessment you realise that the , especially where you want them to describe concepts and might be give their view on, on a particular er, issue, where they have to write their views, then that you realise that they've got a problem with their language.

INTERVIEWER: okay,

RESPONDENT: so I feel like we still need to do more in order to help them cope with the, the communication at tertiary level. I think there are many reasons to it, background, the way they were taught in school and so many reasons. So I feel there we still need to work harder.

INTERVIEWER: Okay. Mam, we've reached the end of the interview, and I would like to thank you very much for the valuable information that you have shared with me. Thank you for your time that you've set aside on a weekend like this I really appreciate it, and I would like to request you to sign this document just as an indication that you participated in this study voluntarily.

RESPONDENT: Thank you very much mam, and er, I enjoyed the interview with you.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you.

Addendum 12: Questionnaire codes sheet

PhD: Curriculum and Instruction Design & Development

Research Project: *Exploring lecturers' Instructional communication at an institution of higher education, where English is the medium of instruction.*

Researcher: MH Segabutla (segabutlamh@tut.ac.za)

Supervisor: Dr. R Evans (revans@postino.up.ac.za)

Q No.	Variable	Operational Definition	Coding	Value
1	Diploma	For which diploma are you enrolled?	01- National Diploma: Human Resource Management 02- National Diploma: Office Management and Technology 03- BA:FET 04- National Diploma: Legal assistance 05- National Diploma: Public Relations 06- National Diploma: International Communication 07- National Diploma: Business Communication	V2
5	Language(s) spoken at home	Which language(s) do you speak at home?	ORIGINAL 01- Afrikaans 02- English 03- IsiXhosa 04- Northern Sotho/Sepedi 05- Setswana 06- IsiNdebele 07- isiZulu 08- Xitsonga	V6 to V10 & V11

			<p>09- siSwati 10- English & North Sotho 11- Tshivenda 12- Southern Sotho/Sesotho 13- English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi & isiZulu 14- English, isiXhosa, isiZulu 15- Afrikaans & English 16- English, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sesotho 17- English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, Setswana, isiZulu & SiSwati 18- English, isiXhosa & Northern Sotho/Sepedi 19- Afrikaans, English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, isiNdebele & isiZulu 20- Setswana & English 21- English & siSwati 22- English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, isiNdebele & isiZulu 23- Setswana & English 24- English & siSwati 25- English & isiXhosa 26- English, N. Sotho & Setswana 27- English & isiNdebele.</p> <p>LATER</p> <p>01-English only 02-English + another language 03 – No English</p>	
6	Languages used socially	Which language(s) do you use regularly to communicate in your social life?	<p>ORIGINAL</p> <p>01- Afrikaans 02- English</p>	V12 to V16 & V17

			03- IsiXhosa 04- Northern Sotho/Sepedi 05- Setswana 06- IsiNdebele 07- isiZulu 08- Xitsonga 09- siSwati 10- Southern Sotho/Sesotho 11- Tshivenda 12- English, isiXhosa & isiZulu 13- Sepetori 14- English, Setswana & isiZulu 15- English, Afrikaans, isiXhosa, Setswana, isiZulu & Sesotho 16- English & Northern Sotho/Sepedi 17- Northern Sotho/Sepedi & Tshivenda 18- English, isiZulu & siSwati 19- Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele & isiZulu 20- English & isiZulu 21- English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi & isiZulu 22- English, isiXhosa, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, & siSwati 23- English & siSwati 24- English & Setswana 25- Afrikaans, English, isiXhosa, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, Setswana, Xitsonga & S. Sotho 26- English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, siSwati, & isiZulu 27- English & Xitsonga 28- Afrikaans & English 29- English & isiNdebele 30- English, Northern	
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			<p>Sotho/Sepedi & Setswana</p> <p>31- Northern Sotho/Sepedi & Setswana</p> <p>32- English, Northern Sotho/Sepedi, Setswana & isiZulu</p> <p>LATER</p> <p>01-English only</p> <p>02-English + another language</p> <p>03 – No English</p>	
7	Grades	In which grade were you taught in English for the first time?	<p>01- Grades R – 3 (Foundation Phase)</p> <p>02- Grades 4 – 6 (Intermediate phase)</p> <p>03- Grades 7 – 9 (Senior phase)</p> <p>04- Grades 10 – 12 (FET band)</p>	V18
9	Language education of	If you could chose, which language(s) do you prefer for learning at university?	<p>ORIGINAL</p> <p>01- Afrikaans</p> <p>02- English</p> <p>03- IsiXhosa</p> <p>04- Northern Sotho/Sepedi</p> <p>05- Setswana</p> <p>06- IsiNdebele</p> <p>07- isiZulu</p> <p>08- Xitsonga</p> <p>09- siSwati</p> <p>10- Southern Sotho/Sesotho</p> <p>11- Tshivenda</p> <p>12- English & Xitsonga</p> <p>13- French</p> <p>14- English & Northern Sotho/Sepedi</p>	V20 – V24 & V25

			15- Afrikaans & English 16- English & isiXhosa LATER 01-English only 02-English + another language 03 – No English	
13	Comments	I would like to make the following comments about my lecturer's instructional communication where English is used as the medium of instruction	See table on the next page.	V75 – V77

Summary of codes for item 13

Code	Variable	Description
01	Immediate	Friendly, approachable, like, nice, lovely
02	Non-immediate	Unfriendly, Unapproachable, Dislike, Not nice, Not lovely
03	Clear	Clear process, Clear content, Clear writing, Clear oral speech
04	Unclear	Unclear process, Unclear content, Unclear writing, Unclear oral speech
05	Credible	Intelligent , Trained, Caring, Honest, Has my interest at heart, Trustworthy Expert, Not self-centred, Concerned, Honourable, Informed, Moral, Competent, Ethical, Sensitive, Bright, Genuine, Understanding, Respectful
06	non-credible	Unintelligent, Untrained, Uncaring, Dishonest, Does not have my interest at heart, Untrustworthy, Inexpert, Self-cantered, Not concerned, Dishonourable, Uninformed, Immoral, Incompetent, Unethical, Insensitive, Stupid, Phony, Not understanding, Disrespectful

Addendum 13: eCOVE classroom observation report

Observer: MH Segabutla
Date: 28 Dec 2012

Person being observed: Lecturer 5 Add
Time report saved: 2:52 PM

Session Notes:

Additions to the initial observation, 28 December 2012, Video - recordings

Verbal Tics

This tool gathers data on the number of verbal tics per minute.

Total time recording: 5:00 min: sec

Tics per minute: 1.4

Total Number of Verbal Tics: 7

-----SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION-----

*The purpose of the **VERBAL TICS** tool is to gather data on the number of verbal tics (ah, um, er,) per minute. This data will assist the teacher or student in improving the fluency of speech before an audience or classroom. This tool is also useful to make students aware of their speech patterns.*

HOW TO INTERPRET THE DATA: Verbal tics generally fall into two categories-fillers for mental processing time or lazy language habits. Nearly everyone will respond with filler when caught off guard. When it is consistent in a person's speech, it becomes interference to understanding.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE DATA: Mental processing fillers will diminish as talking about a topic becomes more familiar. Becoming aware of the fillers can often help prevent them from becoming habits. The changing of a verbal tic habit is a bit more difficult, but certainly doable. The first step is becoming aware through inspecting the data, which will facilitate a person hearing the verbal tics when used. Comparing data from several observations will provide a record of improvement.

Verbatim Tool

This tool creates a time stamped verbatim record of statements made by the person(s) being observed.

Verbatim Record:

2:12:32 PM language proficiency is good-no language errors picked up

2:12:58 PM audible

-----SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION-----

*The purpose of the **VERBATIM** tool is to accurately record the words spoken by those being observed, accompanied by a time stamp for each statement. This data can be useful to the observed in analysing their language patterns and interaction style.*

HOW TO INTERPRET THE DATA: Interpreting a verbatim record will greatly depend on the nature of the interaction and the goals of the teacher and observer. A verbatim record of a classroom management incident would be different from a record of an instructional interaction. Regardless, the record would be useful in identifying confusing explanations, language loaded with prompts that are too subtle, or confrontational language,

HOW TO IMPROVE THE DATA: Analyzing the record will help the teacher become aware of his/her language patterns, and to develop alternate ways of verbally interacting with students. Many classroom management conflicts can be avoided well-planned approaches to particular types of incidents or individual students. Likewise, the record can assist the teacher in rephrasing questions or instructions.

Generic Timer

This tool gathers data areas identified and labelled by the observer, and returns the cumulative time and percent of total time for each area.

Behavior being observed: Clarity

Explains Objective: 0:20 Min: Sec (7 % of total time)

Use examples: 0:16 Min:Sec (5 % of total time)

Writes clearly on the board: 0:34 Min:Sec (11 % of total time)

Definition/Explanation: 1:03 Min:Sec (21 % of total time)

Use DVD/OHP/PP : 0:44 Min:Sec (15 % of total time)

Is straight forward: 0:08 Min:Sec (3 % of total time)

Answers students' questions clearly: 1:01 Min:Sec (20 % of total time)

Repeats/stress important information: 0:30 Min:Sec (10 % of total time)

Step-by-step presentation: 0:24 Min:Sec (8 % of total time)

Total time: 5:00 Total time

-----SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION-----

*The purpose of the **GENERIC TIMER** tool is to allow the creation of up to ten observer labeled items with attached buttons that will run individual timers when clicked. This is to accommodate timing needs not addressed in the other tools. Often there are unique, single-incident data collection goals that can be best accomplished with a user designed tool.*

HOW TO INTERPRET THE DATA: As a generic, user designed tool, the interpretation of the data must follow the plans and intentions of the user. The best practice is to identify both the entities to be observed and a target outcome identified prior to data collection. Analyzing the divergence between the goals and data collected will provide a useful basis for alteration or confirmation of teaching strategies.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE DATA: In order to improve a teaching strategy or individual behavior, multiple data collections carefully analyzed for the impact of changes made will provide an indication

of the appropriate actions to be taken. Comparison of the data over time against an identified goal can also provide useful insights.

Generic Counter

This tool gathers data on up to ten areas identified and labeled by the observer.

Behavior being observed:

Knowledge of subject: 1 (10.0 %)

gives imp info: 1 (10.0 %)

prepared: 1 (10.0 %)

follow syllabi: 1 (10.0 %)

competent: 1 (10.0 %)

trusted/respect : 1 (10.0 %)

encouraging: 1 (10.0 %)

expert: 1 (10.0 %)

intelligent: 1 (10.0 %)

trained : 1 (10.0 %)

Total Count: 10

On-Task Time Tracker

This tool gathers data on the on-task and off task behavior of observed individuals.

On-task time: 5:00 min:sec (100% on task)

Off task time: 0 min:sec (0% off task)

Total time observed: 5:00 min:sec

Distribution of Class Time

This tool gathers data on the distribution of class time from beginning to end of the class period.

Review Previous: 0 Min:Sec (0 % of total time)

Demonstration: 0 Min:Sec (0 % of total time)

Guided Practice: 2:18 Min:Sec (46 % of total time)

Feedback: 0:44 Min:Sec (15 % of total time)

Independent Practice: 0:42 Min:Sec (14 % of total time)

Review Current Lesson: 1:13 Min:Sec (24 % of total time)

Housekeeping: 0:06 Min:Sec (2 % of total time)

Total time: 5:03 Total time Minutes:Seconds

Individual-Group Responses

This tool gathers data on where the responses to teacher questions come from-individual, groups, whole class, or teacher answered.

Individual Student: 0 Responses(s)-(0%)

Identified Group: 6 Responses(s)-(100%)

Entire class: 0 Responses(s)-(0%)

Call Out by Student(s): 0 Responses(s)-(0%)

Teacher Answered: 0 Responses(s)-(0%)

Addendum 14: Video observation transcript

Faculty of Education

Department of Humanities Education

VIDEO OBSERVATION REPORT (*Adapted from Evans, 2009*)

Project title: *Exploration of lecturers' instructional communication at an institution of higher education in South Africa, where English is the medium of instruction.*

Lecturer: 1

Target group: ND: Office Management & Technology

Research site: 6

Date of recording: 12 October 2011

Observer: MH Segabutla

Date of observation: 2 March 2013

Time: 11:45

Length of session: 46 minutes

Lesson topic: Advertising and application letter

Theme	Sub-theme	Behaviour observed	Comment
Verbal immediacy	Verbal behaviour	Teacher Talk	Lecture talked a lot in the beginning and later the students
		Verbal tics	Right, alright, ok, um, ok, eh, good, right, alright, ok
Nonverbal immediacy	Nonverbal behaviour	<i>Positives</i> Smiling/Laughing/Nodding head (yes)/Positive touch/Thumbs up/other hand signal:	Smiled, nodding head, hand gesture, eye-contact, allowed students to laugh, also laughed, no touching

		<i>Negative</i>	
		Frowning/Direct stare/Shaking head (no)/Arms folded/Hands on hips:	Sometimes leaned on the table when waiting for the students to respond to a question
		Teacher Travel Attention	
		Teacher's desk/Overhead/Classroom	Initially at the lecturer's desk for the PowerPoint, moved around the class – back, sides but not in the middle because of seating arrangements
Clarity	Oral	Appearance	Formal dress
		Seating arrangement	Rows without space between them
	Oral	Audible	Audible, clear voice, enthusiastic
		Language proficiency	good
	Written	Use of board	Divided board into sections, wrote clearly, neatly, legibly
	Content	Use examples	Used as in advertises a car, a job, cat,
		Definition/Explanation	defined smalls, classified, explained well designed
		Use DVD/OHP/PP	Wanted to use PowerPoint but the technology did not allow her, used the laptop for her notes
		Is straight forward	Presented facts
		Answers students' questions clearly	Students did not ask questions
		Repeats/Stress important information	What should be done in an advert, job, duties, contacts
		Questioning – Bloom's Taxonomy	
		Knowledge Level	Does it have a heading, contact details, who can tell me about what fringe benefits are?

		Comprehension Level	Find a classified advert, used adverts to assess what was taught
		Application Level	
		Analysis Level	
		Synthesis Level	
		Evaluation Level	
		Divergent Question Type	
		Quantity type question (How many...; List all the...)	
		Viewpoint type question (How would X feel about this?)	Do you see a small advert or a big advert?
		Elaboration type question (Can you expand on this?)	
		Pretend type question (If you could do anything to solve....)	If you were to write a letter to respond to the advert, what would you say? Only write the first paragraph.
		Forced association type question (How is ... like ... ?)	
		Reorganization type question (What would happen if?)	
		Non-divergent thinking type question	
		Directions/Questions	
		Whole Class/Small Group/Individual	Whole class, sometimes individual students as in Mary,
		Individual – Group Responses	Allowed individual students to respond, sometimes group but discouraged whole class response by saying “I am not a choir master”
		Individual Student/Identified	

		Group/Entire class/Call Out by Student(s)/Teacher Answered:	
	Process clarity	Step –by-step presentation:	Introduction – stated outcomes of the lesson Presentation – logical sequence Review – students used information in the advert to write a letter
		Distribution of Class Time Review Previous/Demonstration/Guided Practice/Feedback/Independent Practice/Review Current Lesson/Housekeeping	Brief review of previous lesson, more time on the presentation/explanation,
Credibility	Competence	Knowledge of subject	Gave detailed information
		Gives important information	Components of the advert
		Prepared	Well prepared, used relevant examples, could elaborate with ease
		Follow syllabi	Followed the syllabus
		Competent	Controlled and guided the class
	Trustworthy	Trusted/respect	Students were quiet, orderly, attentive
	Caring	Encouraging	Used leading and probing questions to encourage students to talk
	Expert	Intelligent	Intelligent
		Trained	Knew how to manage the class

Observer signature: Date: 02 March 2013

Addendum 15: Interview code manual

Code	Definition	Description
Verbal communication	Any exchange of information between lecturers and students through the use of words, orally or in writing	Anything that indicates what the lecturer says during instruction and how it is said.
Questions	The lecturer's ability to get information from the students	Any indication that the lecturer asks questions during instruction, the types of questions asked and the reason for asking the questions
Nonverbal communication	Any form of communication without using words	Any communication through facial expression, gestures, eye contact, etc.
Approachability	The ability to encourage others to approach one when needed and interact with	Any indication that students go to the lecturer for help, information
Oral clarity	The ability to express information in a spoken manner with fluency	Any indication that the students comprehend what the lecturer says or shows them during course lectures, through examples, illustrations, demonstrations, feedback,
Presentation Clarity	The ability to share information in a manner that the receiver is able to interact with the information	Any indication of how information is shared during lectures as in strategies used, material used,
Process clarity	A specific way of presenting course material during instruction	Any indication of steps followed, description of how lectures are presented, specific pattern followed.
Written clarity	Ability to give instructions clearly in writing	Written instructions during tests, assignments , written information in course syllabus
Respect	Behaviour that is acceptable	Following instructions, good conduct,
Trustworthiness	The degree to which a lecturer is perceived to be honest (McCroskey, 1998)	Any indication of trust, character, honesty, reliability,
Goodwill	The degree to which the lecturer is perceived to care about the students' best interest (McCroskey & Teven, 1999)	Any indication of goodwill, helping, motivation, accommodating students, Caring
Competence	The degree to which the lecturer is perceived to know what he/she is talking about.	Any indication of expert knowledge, intelligence, competence,
Additions	Any other information that the respondent wants to add	Any additional information after the interview, concerns, lessons learnt

Addendum 16: Coding interviews through WEFT QDAS

LECTURER 1

Biographical data

VERBAL CODES

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [2402-2428] it is formal, very formal,

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [2452-2498] I try by all means not to use my mother tongue

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [2522-2583] because not all the students are speaking my native language

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [2601-2704] it is effective in the sense that students are given an opportunity during instruction to ask questions ,

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [2860-2951] they have consulting hours where they can come and consult beyond the normal lecturing time

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [2955-3016] I will generally say it is effective, both oral and written.

NONVERBAL CODES USED

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4294-4334] basically eye contact and mostly smile.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4424-4508] if you smile people are able to buy into what you are, what you want to sell to them

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4636-4686] I win them by smiling and making them feel at home

NVC NOT USED

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4513-4631] I do not see a point in frowning or bringing in, or bringing my problems into class because it can only work against me

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4885-4898] I do not frown

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4927-4987] anything they would, that would make them feel uncomfortable

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5106-5206] I would not touch my students because (giggle)you know these days, besides I feel it's unacceptable,

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5303-5530] our relationship is a lecturer- student relationship and it has got nothing to do with touching. I can only touch when someone comes into my office with their personal problems, when comforting them might be I can give them a hug

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5536-5601] generally in class I see no point in hugging or touching students

APPROACHABILITY

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5695-5704] very much

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5717-5764] they are keen to talk to me even outside class.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5765-5852] They can stop me and say mam you look nice or mam what's wrong or mam what's happening

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5856-5939] they are free to come during their consultation hours to talk about any other thing

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [5983-6008] I think I am approachable

ORAL CLARITY – QUESTIONS

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [3138-3238] During instruction I do ask questions just to make sure that the students are on the same page with me

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [3422-3492]
Those that normally would evaluate their understanding during instruction

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [3606-3724]
students would always say they understand and eh, when you ask them questions in class, sometimes they get them right.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [3824-4023]
sometimes you find it's a different scenario if you give them an exercise might be after three days or during the test, is when you will see that some people did understand you but some students did not

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [4029-4131]
when you ask them questions during class, at times they give you the impression that they understood.

WRITTEN CLARITY – TESTS

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [9357-9425] are they able to follow the instructions?
RESPONDENT: yes, they are

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [9541-9600] during a test, there are instructions on the question paper

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [10056-10092] I believe the instructions are clear

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [10194-10265] I'm convinced that my students understand me when I present my lectures

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [10267-10346] I see also in the test that they've been able to understand my instructions.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [10557-10573] more than 50% do

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [10720-10818] it's only in few cases where you find that in a test there are students who obtained less than 40,

WRITTEN CLARITY-ASSIGNMENTS

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [11015-11110] when you give them instructions in an assignment, are they able to follow?
RESPONDENT: They are

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [11277-11413] I make sure that I clarify the instructions in class so that as they go and execute the task, they understand fully what is expected of

CONTENT CLARITY – STRATEGIES

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [6742-6800] I would introduce eh, the outcomes of the, my presentation

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [7618-7706] give them explanations, illustrations, demonstrate things to them? RESPONDENT: yes I do.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8130-8155] demonstrations that I use

CONTENT CLARITY – MATERIAL

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [7154-7197] I believe in the technology that I'm using

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [7220-7258] I make use of PowerPoint presentations

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [7263-7297] make use of the overhead projector

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [7501-7584] I think the, the technology presentation that I use is also interesting to them.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [7824-7887] cut the different expressions of faces of people in newspapers

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8072-8099] like cartoons in newspapers

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8196-8280] we can see one picture for instance, all of us and we can interpreted it differently

CONTENT CLARITY-UNDERSTANDING

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [6118-6145] yes, I say this confidently

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [6154-6272] the last lecturer evaluation , the student-lecturer evaluation, indicated that the students have got confidence in me

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [6289-6382] the majority of them really showed satisfaction in terms of my teaching, my teaching methods

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [6393-6473] So I would really say they understand me during instruction because they said so.

PROCESS clarity

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8636-8683] I would introduce the objectives, the outcomes

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8715-8750] then I go straight into the lecture

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8755-8786] at the end there's a conclusion

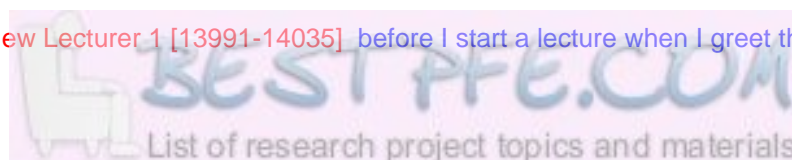
Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [8851-8958] go back and check and have what we call our checklist of the outcome to make sure that we have covered them

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [9005-9101] I give them classwork to assess whether we have covered what we wanted to cover, the objectives

CREDIBILITY – CARING

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [13849-13857] yes I do

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [13991-14035] before I start a lecture when I greet them



Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [14355-14418] that is some kind of an ice breaker and from there we continue

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [14571-14606] they come during consultation hours

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [14611-14630] even after the test

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [14741-14875] if they're, they've got queries they come to the office, we address that query or we adjust the mark if there's a mistake that I made

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15067-15101] they do consult, and they get help

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15103-15253] even after I shall have given them feedback, if they still feel that they need clarity, they are welcome to come to me and then we sort out the rest.

RESPECT

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [11538-11548] yes, 100%

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [11790-11942] my students generally would wait for me inside class because I have made it clear in the beginning with them that they must go to class and wait for me.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [12129-12205] I believe if you clarify things in the beginning you would not have problems

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [12233-12318] I would not have students who would in the middle of the lecture disrupt my lecture,

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [12345-12394] I feel my students are talking to me with respect

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [12400-12520] they make use of formal language when they talk to me because they understand I am not their friend, I am their lecturer

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [12635-12673] when they come to my office they knock

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [12675-12750] if they find me over the phone they stand outside when I'm done I call them

TRUST

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [13071-13093] yes, I can say they do

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [13104-13231] in the students, the lecturer evaluation also they, they have indicated confidence in the knowledge that I'm imparting to them

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [13265-13478] they trust me not only with the knowledge that I impart in class, but er, generally with their lives because there are those that would come to my office privately just to talk about issues that are bothering them

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [13670-13741] I think they've got some certain level of trust and confidence in me.

EXPERT

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15357-15377] yes, confidently so

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15379-15429] I've been teaching the subject for over five years

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15537-15648] since I came there are classes for instance Communication 2, where in the past three years it has been over 80%

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15654-15793] the CEN160B that we are talking about now, the pass rate has risen from about 40 to, we are seating now at 50, 50% for the past three years

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15845-15911] I've made a positive contribution since I joined the university.

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15935-15971] also a trained teacher by profession

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [15997-16086] I did a BA degree, then I did a B Ed, then I also did in between a diploma in methodology

ADDITIONS

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [16615-16686] I find that there are challenges with the communication language itself

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [16688-16762] Some students are not yet confident to be talking in the English language

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [16777-16864] when they come to your office. some of them just start speaking their own mother tongue

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [17074-17352] sometimes when you mark the assessment you realise that the , especially where you want them to describe concepts and might be give their view on, on a particular er, issue, where they have to write their views, then that you realise that they've got a problem with their language

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [17388-17453] I feel like we still need to do more in order to help them cope

Express dictate interview Lecturer 1 [17606-17652] So I feel there we still need to work harder.

Addendum 17: Summary of lecturers' perceptions of their own verbal and nonverbal immediacy

Code	Verbal codes	Nonverbal codes		Approachability
		Used	Not used	
Participants				
Lecturer 1	Lecturer 1 [2402-2428], it is formal, very formal, Lecturer 1 [2452-2498] I try by all means not to use my mother tongue , Lecturer 1 [2522-2583] because not all the students are speaking my native language, Lecturer 1 [2601-2704]it is effective in the sense that students are given an opportunity during instruction to ask questions , Lecturer 1 [2860-2951]they have consulting hours where they can come and consult beyond the normal lecturing time Lecturer 1 [2955-3016] I will generally say it is effective, both oral and written.	Lecturer 1 [4294-4334] basically eye contact and mostly smile. Lecturer 1 [4424-4508] if you smile people are able to buy into what you are, what you want to sell to them Lecturer 1 [4636-4686] I win them by smiling and making them feel at home	Lecturer 1 [4513-4631] I do not see a point in frowning or bringing in, or bringing my problems into class because it can only work against me Lecturer 1 [4885-4898] I do not frown , Lecturer 1 [4927-4987] anything they would, that would make them feel uncomfortable Lecturer 1 [5106-5206] I would not touch my students because (giggle)you know these days, besides I feel it's unacceptable, Lecturer 1 [5303-5530] our relationship is a lecturer- student relationship and it has got nothing to do with touching. I can only touch when someone comes into my office with their personal problems, when comforting them might be I can give them a hug Lecturer 1 [5536-5601] generally in class I see no point in hugging or touching students	Lecturer 1 [5695-5704] very much Lecturer 1 [5717-5764] they are keen to talk to me even outside class. Lecturer 1 [5765-5852] They can stop me and say mam you look nice or mam what's wrong or mam what's happening Lecturer 1 [5856-5939] they are free to come during their consultation hours to talk about any other thing Lecturer 1 [5983-6008] I think I am approachable
Lecturer 2	Lecturer 2 [2261-2270] effective, Lecturer 2 [2276-2327] both formal and informal depending on the situation, Lecturer 2 [2468-2573] we do have our student evaluation, from the feedback that I get from that, it shows that it is effective. Lecturer 2 [2574-2615] And obviously results from the assessment	Lecturer 2 [3708-3725] facial expression Lecturer 2 [3727-3735] gestures Lecturer 2 [3737-3745] movement Lecturer 2 [3747-3760] tone of voice Lecturer 2 [3857-3898] to bring the message across, more clearly	Lecturer 2 [4028-4059] I think touch is the main thing Lecturer 2 [4224-4297] to create that professional distance between the lecturer and the student	Lecturer 2 [5217-5322] this student evaluation eh, it comes out that my style, my way of presentation is eh, accessible to them, Lecturer 2 [5323-5355] it's easy for them to understand Lecturer 2 [5378-5490] when you ask them questions in class does it show that they understood what you were

				teaching? RESPONDENT: Yes. Lecturer 2 [5526-5561] in the assessment? RESPONDENT: Yah
Lecturer 3	lecturer 3 [2355-2369] it is formal, lecturer 3 [2379-2404] it is effective as well. lecturer 3 [2554-2593] they do carry instructions as expected, lecturer 3 [2598-2658] whatever I communicate with them, I mostly achieve the goals	lecturer 3 [3577-3610] eye contact and facial expression, lecturer 3 [3612-3644] as well as the use of body parts , lecturer 3 [3646-3683] to regulate the flow of information	lecturer 3 [3824-3886] touch for instance? Respondent: yah, I do not really use it. lecturer 3 [3977-4016] it depends upon the content of the day lecturer 3 [4147-4163] it's off-limits	lecturer 3 [4248-4261] yes, I would lecturer 3 [4381-4463] sometimes they come and ask me eh! about something that was say part of a lesson, lecturer 3 [4563-4676] one or two students will come and based on what was said in class and they relate, his or her personal experience
Lecturer 4	Lecturer 4 [2495-2528] I think I have open communication, Lecturer 4 [2534-2592] they are welcomed to ask questions, and I do ask questions, Lecturer 4 [2594-2625] I like interaction in the class, Lecturer 4 [3081-3103] I think it's effective	Lecturer 4 [4922-4940] facial expressions Lecturer 4 [4942-4971] I like to talk with my hands , Lecturer 4 [5070-5126] I like to make the class not too formal and make jokes. Lecturer 4 [5747-5763] make eye contact	Lecturer 4 [5402-5436] no I do not touch with the students Lecturer 4 [5533-5584] I think I get, I'm moving into their space too much	Lecturer 4 [6039-6121] I tell them that my door is always open , that they do not have to be afraid of me Lecturer 4 [6234-6265] I encourage them to talk to me. Lecturer 4 [6270-6324] they have during the year come to me and ask questions, Lecturer 4 [6343-6471] I'm approachable because you know, there were students who came and asked questions, and they do not seem to, to feel intimidated, Lecturer 4 [6477-6559] it might be that there are students who feel intimidated I do not know about them.
Lecturer 5	Lecture 5 [2364-2466] not as effective, because they get used to the way that I teach, and I have to get used to know them. Lecture 5 [2760-2817] I always	Lecture 5 [4116-4135] facial expressions, Lecture 5 [4136-4156] I would use gestures Lecture 5 [4158-4258] I would even use posture,	Lecture 5 [4574-4666] I would touch the students or so, with their permission when I for example explain proxemics, Lecture 5 [4672-4700] I would not touch a student ,	Lecture 5 [5092-5107] I would hope so, Lecture 5 [5162-5183] they do ask questions, Lecture 5 [5188-5312] they do approach me

	<p>keep the language that I use um, form, objective Lecture 5 [2879-2905] it becomes more informal.</p>	<p>to explain to them for example during an employment interview, how to act,</p>	<p>Lecture 5 [4704-4831] I would never use for example the gesture of this (demonstrated-calling a student by her finger) because I think that is rude, Lecture 5 [4905-5003] I would for example not chew a gum cause it would show ha-ha (laughing), it's just a bad example.</p>	<p>especially in their second year to help with the CVs, and letter of application, application for bursary, Lecture 5 [5321-5420] some of my second years approached me now in the second semester to help them with, um, a project</p>
Lecturer 6	<p>Lecturer 6 [2211-2238] my lectures are interactive Lecturer 6 [2341-2355] ask questions, Lecturer 6 [2360-2379] engage the learners, Lecturer 6 [2457-2482] not everyone participates Lecturer 6 [2507-2544] those who are vocal will participate,</p>	<p>Lecturer 6 [4034-4053] gestures definitely Lecturer 6 [4055-4073] facial expressions Lecturer 6 [4174-4211] for emphasis purposes I use gestures, Lecturer 6 [4225-4278] facial expressions also sometimes to emphasise things, Lecturer 6 [4280-4308] to question you know, things, Lecturer 6 [4310-4349] to find out if they are with you or not</p>	<p>Lecturer 6 [4535-4571] Touch, hum, no, no, not regularly no, Lecturer 6 [4729-4772] you do not want to give the wrong impression Lecturer 6 [4827-4908] people can shy away from you if you do not know you well and you are touching them Lecturer 6 [4918-5007] used touch occasionally with the girls but to encourage them, prompt them to give answers</p>	<p>Lecturer 6 [2794-2849] they also tend to come for, what is it! consultation hour Lecturer 6 [5546-5560] I believe so, Lecturer 6 [5890-6089] after class they would come to you know, after class they would come to the lecturer's desk or come to the office, for clarity, to find out more about what you would have been talking about in class. Lecturer 6 [6133-6183] but immediately you will find them following you.</p>
Lecturer 7	<p>Lecturer 7 [2695-2704] It's fine, Lecturer 7 [2766-2786] Yah, it's effective.</p>	<p>Lecturer 7 [3420-3442] I usually use gestures, Lecturer 7 [3520-3566] Cause sometimes they portray a certain meaning Lecturer 7 [3568-3599] Cause I use the ones they're familiar with</p>	<p>Lecturer 7 [3932-4007] Like I just roam around the passages not getting in touch with the students Lecturer 7 [4104-4134] I can say I'm not used to that</p>	<p>Lecturer 7 [4352-4402] they come and I address their matters in my office</p>

Addendum 18: Students' comments on item 13

The results of item 13-Lecturer 1

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Best, good lecturer • Role model • Deserving to be in the field • Excellent • Understandable • Intelligent • Flexible • Motivating • Well trained • Doing well • Presents relevant material • Students pass • Encouraging • Allows students to ask questions • Interesting lessons • Energetic • Clear • Professional • Knows what she is talking about • Expert • Good communicator 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stick to what you assess and not the whole work • Be on time • Inform students when not around • Leave notices if unavailable

Table..... Results of item 13: Lecturer2

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Methods he used do work. • The way to speak to students. • The lecturer is competent. • He definitely knows his job. • The best lecturer so far. • He is good. • Understandable. • Knows exactly what is expected. • Follows the syllabus. • Makes sure that we understand what he teaches. • He is interesting and humorous. • It was very pleasant and exciting to attend his lectures. • His English is outstanding. • Perfect • No buts or mightiest • Keep it up. • I like his style of teaching • He makes the whole class interesting. • Well qualified. • Made the English language easier for me to understand. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use more practical examples. • Give students more tasks to do. • Do more DVD or slide-show presentations.

Table ... Results of item 13- Lecturer 4

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keen to do her job • Appreciate • Thankful to her • Keep up the good work • Enjoy her class • Great lecturer • Best lecturer • Good lecturer • Teaches well • Understand her • Clear • I improved my communication skills • She has done exceptionally well • Encourages • Gives hope when there is poor performance • Motivates • Punctual • Makes the most of time • Helps students become better • Qualified • Dedicated • Inspiring • Passionate • Knows her work • Identifies students' weaknesses, advises them individually on how to improve 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be more specific • Be punctual • Have one test each week • Give second chances to those who did not do well in a test • Teach simple things but give difficult things in a test • I do not understand her clearly • She does not repeat what she said • Be audible • Be flexible • Follow-up on students who did not do well in a test • Assesses few things that she taught in a test

Table.... Results of item 13: Lecturer 5

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She is very intelligent. • Unique. • Talented. • She is very good I must say. • Lovely lecturer. • She is clear. • Understandable. • Knows her work very well. • Best lecturer for communication. • Wants every student to pass. • The lecturer is very enthusiastic about the subject. • Communicates very well with students. • I am what I am because of her. • Keep up the good work of encouraging and motivating students. • She has all the qualities you would like an educator to have. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make more relevant examples about the subject. • Use words that are more understandable.

Table....: Results of item 13: Lecturer 6

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good, excellent lecturer • Always willing to assist students who are not doing well. • Gives students opportunity to discuss with fellow students • Explains matters clearly. • Well understood • Intelligent • Uses good examples • Uses relevant examples • Knows her job very well • Treats us like her children, wants to know us all • Makes us feel free • We are not afraid to ask questions • Not afraid to participate • Professional • Trained • Patient • Gives information that we need • Do practical work in class • Understands her students • Always smiling • Straight • Love her sense of humour • Gets students in the mood of studying • Offers valuable information • Has consultation shown for students who are struggling. • I am happy with her lectures • Uses English that is understandable • Very friendly • Asks students questions to make sure that they understand her. • Motivates students • Write and speak English fluently • Lecturers like her are needed in education. Keep up the good work. • Encourages her students to express themselves in English, she says it's the only way to learn. • Helpful • Speaks clearly • Goes straight to the point • Understandable • Allows students to ask questions • Is articulate, uses plain and simple English which makes it easier for me to follow. • Wants us to succeed • Knows how to speak with children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Her English is too deep. • Make tests more understandable. • Control the noise other students make, and are on social network.. • Your voice is not audible enough. • Be strict on students who disrupt the lectures • Give practical examples if necessary. • Must not always treat us like primary students doing something like yes, give him a big hand, when someone has answered correctly. • Get to the point • She must not waste time on unhelpful students • Sometimes I do not understand what she is saying. • She teaches a lot but I get poor marks. • Compile a memo for the tests. • Allow students to do presentations • Avoid teaching things that you will not mark in a test. • I only have a problem with her accent. Sometimes she pronounces words in a unique way. • Be more lenient, look for other things that can give marks. • Give scope for the test. • Sometimes pitches up late for class. • Sometimes I do not receive complete information because sometimes the lecturer ends up adding other languages which I do not know.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knows her work • Always concerned that students do well in their subject • Her English is straight forward • Can be understood by many students. • Gives relevant examples • Is competent • Is committed to us • Teaches new words every day • Teaches relevant information. • She makes sure that we understand the information. • Always follow the syllabus. • We love to have her as our lecturer • Humble and honest • Knows her work • Try by all means that all students are supposed to pass. • Right person for the subject. • Hard-worker • Approachable • The lecturer is cool. • I have no complaints about her. 	
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Table... Results of item 13 – Lecturer 7

Positive comments	Negative comments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good • Clear • Presents lessons well • Comes to lectures all the time • Covers the whole syllabus • Does her work well • We have a good relations • Approachable • Smiles always • Knows her work • Keep up the good work • Makes learning simple • Have learnt a lot • Helpful • Communicates good • Explains everything well • Answers our questions • Clear • Voice is natural • Finishes what she planned to teach • Sacrifice for us to succeed • Prepares thoroughly for lectures • Intelligent • Trained • Treats us equally • Straight forward • Makes me feel comfortable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always late for class • Be punctual • Must give correct content to students about what they are going to use in future • Give time to students • Help students with questions • Sometimes uses Sepedi during an English lecture, this makes it harder to follow discussions • Communicate effectively • Raise your voice • Communicate with all the students and not just those in front • Use relevant examples • Ask relevant questions in assessment • Notes given in class must be summarised • Be clear • Be understandable • Sometimes does not come to class at all • Give more exercises for practice • Use lecture time fully, must not leave class early • Keep students informed • Does not understand what she teaches • Sometimes teach what she does not know • Feel like I am doing grade 2 when she

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am not afraid to ask questions • She is open-minded • Does not put you down • Treats us with respect • Come to class on time • Nice person • Notifies her students if not coming to class 	<p>teaches</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does not care whether we understand or not • Need to improve • Explain the objectives of the lecture • Stay on the topic • I frog drag myself to class • She reads a textbook as it is • Sometimes I do not understand her • Fails to give us the scope for the test • Not take information as it is from the textbook • Her facial expression must be attractive and encouraging • Need to come to class with the ability to teach • She is lazy • Stays in one place does not move around • Must not always write down notes in class • Be flexible • Add style • Give scope that match the test • Looks tired • Explanations do not go with the subject • Not professional • Jumps to the end of the book without understanding • Manage time properly
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Addendum 19: WEFT QDAS report on eCOVE observations

WEFT Credibility -competence

Lecturer 1 WD [6520-6551] Knowledge of subject: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 1 WD [6552-6577] gives important information: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 1 WD [6578-6597] prepared: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 1 WD [6598-6623] follow syllabi: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 1 WD [6624-6644] competent: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 1 WD [6687-6727] expert: 2 (18.2 %) intelligent: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 1 WD [6729-6749] trained : 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 2 WD [4258-4358] knowledge of subject matter: 1 (10.0 %) gives important information: 1 (10.0 %) prepared: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 2 WD [4359-4386] follow syllabus: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 2 WD [4387-4430] competent: 1 (10.0 %) respected: 2 (20.0 %)

Lecturer 2 WD [4431-4449] expert: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 2 WD [4450-4484] intelligent: 1 (10.0 %) trained: 1

Lecturer 3 WD [5741-5818] Knowledge of subject: 1 (9.1 %) gives important information: 1 (9.1 %) prepared: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 3 WD [5819-5865] follow syllabi: 1 (9.1 %) competent: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 3 WD [5919-5936] expert: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 3 WD [5937-5959] intelligent: 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 3 WD [5960-5980] trained : 1 (9.1 %)

Lecturer 4 WD [5393-5425] Knowledge of subject: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 4 WD [5426-5500] gives important information: 1 (10.0 %) prepared: 1 (10.0 %) follow syllabi: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 4 WD [5501-5522] competent: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 4 WD [5577-5619] expert: 1 (10.0 %) intelligent: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 4 WD [5620-5640] trained : 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 5 WD [5332-5391] Knowledge of subject: 1 (10.0 %) gives imp info: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 5 WD [5392-5412] prepared: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 5 WD [5413-5461] follow syllabi: 1 (10.0 %) competent: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 5 WD [5516-5534] expert: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 5 WD [5535-5558] intelligent: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 5 WD [5559-5580] trained : 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 6 WD [4378-4410] Knowledge of subject: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 6 WD [4411-4458] gives imp info: 1 (10.0 %) prepared: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 6 WD [4459-4485] follow syllabi: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 6 WD [4486-4507] competent: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 6 WD [4581-4605] intelligent: 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 6 WD [4606-4627] trained : 1 (10.0 %)

Lecturer 7 WD [4913-4952] gives important information: 1 (33.3 %)

Lecturer 7 WD [4953-4979] follow syllabi: 1 (33.3 %)

Addendum 20: Summary of codes for item 13

Code	Variable	Description
01	Immediate	Friendly, approachable, like, nice, lovely
02	Non-immediate	Unfriendly, Unapproachable, Dislike, Not nice, Not lovely
03	Clear	Clear process, Clear content, Clear writing, Clear oral speech
04	Unclear	Unclear process, Unclear content, Unclear writing, Unclear oral speech
05	Credible	Intelligent , Trained, Caring, Honest, Has my interest at heart, Trustworthy Expert, Not self-centred, Concerned, Honourable, Informed, Moral, Competent, Ethical, Sensitive, Bright, Genuine, Understanding, Respectful
06	non-credible	Unintelligent, Untrained, Uncaring, Dishonest, Does not have my interest at heart, Untrustworthy, Inexpert, Self-cantered, Not concerned, Dishonourable, Uninformed, Immoral, Incompetent, Unethical, Insensitive, Stupid, Phony, Not understanding, Disrespectful

Addendum 21: Pilot interview manual

Pilot interview manual

Meaning unit	Condensed meaning unit	code	Sub-theme	Theme
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> JME 300, English Methodology. 	English methodology	Course	Course Lecturing experience	Experience
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seven years since 2005 	Seven years	Experience in course		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> my communication with the students is informal, relaxed I sometimes get formal with them the communication is clear my pace is slower I use a social style I use complete sentences focus on practical activities The students and I would be exchanging information, an exchange which encourages students to talk, to participate. interacting with each other 	is informal, relaxed, formal, clear, slower, social style, complete sentences, focus on practical activities, exchanging information, interactive	Description of communication	Verbal	Immediacy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I move up among the aisle, although the desk, desks are fixed so I can only move among the students through the aisle, I dress for the occasion when I go to present lectures because my appearance must also be exemplary I use a lot of gestures. The nonverbal codes that I use are more to illustrate points, to elaborate on information that I give, also to encourage them to participate. The only time that I would touch a student would be when I demonstrate something 	move up among the aisle, dress for the occasion, gestures, to illustrate points, to elaborate To encourage students to participate,	Nonverbal codes used	Nonverbal	

	touch			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I normally do not touch my students because I see it as inappropriate 	do not touch inappropriate	Nonverbal codes not used		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the feedback that I have received so far, indicated that um, I'm approachable, generally students say that I am not intimidating, I do not use a loud voice like shouting at them, I use a normal tone of voice, conversational tone 	Feedback Approachable not intimidating, soft voice, does not shout normal tone of voice, conversational tone	Approachability	Approachability	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I ask questions that seek their opinion on issues that we should be discussing questions that will link the theory with the practical, application type of questions questions that will make them synthesise what they have already learnt questions that will allow them to express their view points 	questions that seek their opinion, application type of questions, synthesise, express their view points	Questions	Oral clarity	Clarity
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Generally, yes During that reflective grid, it helps me to get a picture of whether they have understood what I have shared with them or not. 	Yes reflective grid gives a picture	Understanding	Oral clarity	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I would use visual material like over-head projectors, PowerPoint projector, 	Use over-head projectors, PowerPoint projector	Lecture material	content clarity	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I would give them chunks of lectures in fifteen minutes use drawings during instruction just to illustrate something I have a specific plan that is structured I would present first the background of the lecture establish what the students already know about my topic at the end of the lecture, this is where I would have a grid for the students to reflect on what they have learned I would also ask some questions to assess whether they have understood what they've learnt I would summarise, you know, what they have learnt. 	<p>Give chunks of lectures, Drawings to illustrate something, structured specific plan, present first the background, establish what the students already know, reflective grid, ask some questions, summarise</p>	<p>Presentation steps</p>	<p>Process clarity</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> some of them would understand the instruction, others do not, I help them by using simple language in the instruction that I give I use short sentences so that they do not get confused I would also be specific in the instruction that I'm giving them, you know just be direct and say what I want to say before any assignment is given we would discuss the instruction just so everybody understands, that we are on par In a test it would have to be in the language that I use which is simple, short sentences and specific information given. 	<p>some understand, others do not, help by using simple language, use short sentences, be specific and direct, discuss the instruction before any assignment, use simple language and short sentences and be specific in a test</p>	<p>Written instructions</p>	<p>Written clarity</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I have not had a situation in class where the students were disrespectful, or where they showed disrespectful behaviour 	<p>Students showed no disrespectful</p>	<p>Positive behaviour</p>	<p>Respect</p>	<p>Credibility</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> when I talk to them, they really pay attention when I give them instructions they really follow the instruction 	behaviour pay attention follow the instruction			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As for trust, I hope so, I hope so. because they come to me to talk about issues they come to me to talk about the work that I have given to them they come to me to talk about what was discussed in class if it wasn't clear I think also that they trust me as a person. They trust me as their lecturer that I speak from a background of knowing what I'm talking about. 	I hope so they come to talk about issues come to talk about the work come to talk about what was discussed in class they trust me as a person, they trust me as their lecturer I speak from a background of knowing	Approachability	Trust	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yes, I do I'm out there to help them become brilliant teachers I tell them, you know, like pep- talks, motivation talks sometimes, I tell them about the importance of their education, the importance of the role that they are going to play as soon as they are qualified teachers, When they have difficulties understanding something I attend to them. When they couldn't write a test for instance and they have a valid explanation with evidence to support the explanation, I give them another chance If they can't submit an assignment in time I try and accommodate them. 	Yes, I do help them, talk , motivate them, attend to them, give them another chance, accommodate them	Shows concern, helpful	Caring	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes, I think so • I have 33 years of experience • I have worked for the Department of Education • I've set exam papers, • I've written textbooks, reports • I have been invited to present papers at conferences • I have been given awards for recognition, • I have been in this field for so many years that I know, I now know what I'm doing. I know what the industry expects, and I try and bring that into the classroom situation • I consider myself, not perfect in this subject but an expert. 	<p>I think so, 33 years of experience, worked for the Department of Education, set exam papers, written textbooks, reports, presented papers at conferences, received awards for recognition, I now know what I'm doing, bring into the classroom situation what the industry expects, consider myself an expert</p>	<p>Experienced, trained, knowledgeable</p>	<p>Expert</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I prefer them not to sit in this rigid classroom environment. I would like for them to have more mobility • the seating arrangement is such that the chairs are fixed, they cannot be moved, so, it makes it difficult for groups to move around • it means I have to interact with them at a horizontal level, which is very restrictive • I would like them to talk to me more often, so that they can synthesise what they already know.so, yes 	<p>more mobility, chairs are fixed, very restrictive, would like them to talk to me more</p>	<p>Change in seating arrangement, more interaction</p>	<p>Additions</p>	<p>Additions</p>

Addendum 22: eCOVE observer comments

Classroom Observation Report

Created by eCOVE Software

Observer Comments

Observer: Researcher

Person being observed: Lecturer 6

Date: 25 Oct 2011__Time report saved: 1:08 PM

Session Notes:

A lecture observation with lecturer 6, at campus 5, on 25 October 2011, at 12:00, with about 45 students. The lecturer was giving assignments back to the students and so time was spent on calling out the names of the students since they were many. however, only a few students out of 120 showed up for the lecture. Feedback on the assignment

12:26:00 PM_Verbal Tics hello! to call for the attention of the students and to quiet them down, ok, um, ah

12:31:19 PM Nonverbal Behaviors used hand gesture-finger to emphasise instruction, make an illustration, maintained eye contact, allowed students to laugh when needed

12:34:40 PM_Teacher - talk the lecturer did most of the talking in the beginning because she had to read out the questions, she also explained how the question should have been answered, students talked when they responded to questions

12:37:46 PM Questioning-Bloom's Taxonomy also asked follow-up questions where students' responses were incomplete

12:46:13 PM Individual-Group Responses teacher answered questions when she gave more information that students left out, entire class responses when an opinion was sought or when they objected to an answer given, also when they were confident about an answer

12:49:04 PM_Divergent Question Type mostly follow-up questions, most questions asked were those that were asked in the assignment

12:54:34 PM Teacher Travel-Attention mostly at her desk when giving explanations, at the chalkboard to reflect the correct answers

Addendum 23: Video observation data coded manual

Code	Definition	Description
Verbal immediacy	Any exchange of information between lecturers and students through the use of words, orally or in writing	Anything that indicates what the lecturer says during instruction and how it is said as in Teacher Talk, Verbal tics
Nonverbal immediacy	Any form of communication without using words	Any communication through Smiling/Laughing/Nodding head (yes)/Positive touch/Thumbs up/other hand signal; Frowning/Direct stare/Shaking head (no)/Arms folded/Hands on hips; Teacher Travel Attention (Teacher's desk/Overhead/Classroom); Appearance ; Seating arrangement
Clarity	Oral clarity The ability to express information in a spoken manner with fluency	Any indication of lecturer audibility, Language proficiency
	Written clarity Ability to give information clearly in writing	Any indication of the use of the board, clearly, legibly and in an organised manner
	Content clarity The ability to share information in a manner that the receiver is able to interact with the information	Any indication that the students comprehend what the lecturer says or shows them during course lectures, through examples, illustrations, demonstrations, feedback, Definition/Explanation, Use DVD/OHP/PP , Is straight forward, Answers students' questions clearly, Repeats/Stress important information; Directions/Questions (Whole Class/Small Group/Individual) Individual – Group Responses(Individual Student/Identified Group/Entire class/Call Out by Student(s)/Teacher Answered)
	Process clarity A specific way of presenting course material during instruction	Step –by-step presentation, distribution of Class Time, Review Previous/Demonstration/Guided Practice/Feedback/Independent Practice/Review Current Lesson/Housekeeping
Credibility	Trustworthy The degree to which a lecturer is perceived to be honest (McCroskey, 1998)	Any indication of trust, character, honesty, reliability, respect
	Caring The degree to which the lecturer is perceived to care about the students' best interest (McCroskey & Teven, 1999)	Any indication of goodwill, helping, motivation, accommodating students, Caring Encouraging
	Competent The degree to which the lecturer is perceived to know what he/she is talking about.	Any indication of expert Knowledge of subject, Gives important information intelligence, competence, Prepared, Follow; syllabus, Trained

Addendum 24: An illustration of data-driven coding manual for interviews

Code	Definition	Description
Verbal behaviour	Any exchange of information between lecturers and students through the use of words, orally or in writing	Anything that indicates what the lecturer says during instruction and how it is said.
Questions	The lecturer's ability to get information from the students	Any indication that the lecturer asks questions during instruction, the types of questions asked and the reason for asking the questions
Nonverbal behaviour	Any form of communication without using words	Any communication through facial expression, gestures, eye contact,
Approachability	The ability to encourage others to approach one when needed and interact with	Any indication that students go to the lecturer for help
Oral communication	The ability to express information in a spoken manner with fluency	Any indication that the students comprehend what the lecturer says or shows them during course lectures, through examples, illustrations, demonstrations, feedback,
Presentation strategies	The ability to share information in a manner that the receiver is able to interact with the information	Any indication of how information is shared during lectures as in strategies used, material used,
Structure/process of presentation	A specific way of presenting course material during instruction	Any indication of steps followed, description of how lectures are presented, specific pattern followed.
Written communication	Ability to give instructions clearly in writing	Written instructions during tests, assignments , written information in course syllabus
Respect	Behaviour that is acceptable	Following instructions, good conduct,
Trustworthy	The degree to which a lecturer is perceived to be honest (McCroskey, 1998)	Any indication of trust, character, honesty, reliability,
Caring	The degree to which the lecturer is perceived to care about the students' best interest (McCroskey & Teven, 1999)	Any indication of goodwill, helping, motivation, accommodating students, Caring

Expert	The degree to which the lecturer is perceived to know what he/she is talking about.	Any indication of expert knowledge, intelligence, competence,
Additions	Any other information that the respondent wants to add	Any additional information after the interview, concerns, lessons learnt

Addendum 25: Turnitin report

Turnitin Originality Report

Thesis by MH Segabutla

From COPYRIGHT CHECK 2014 (2014)

- Processed on 27-Mar-2014 09:46 SAST
- ID: 410147279
- Word Count: 77387

Similarity Index

9%

Similarity by Source

Internet Sources:

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Publications:

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Student Papers:

5%

sources:

1

< 1% match (publications)

"Toward a general model of instructional communication", Communication Quarterly, 2004

2

< 1% match ()

http://lrd.yahooapis.com/_ylc=X3oDMTVnN292NGVyBF9TAzlwMjMxNTI3MDIEYXBwaWQDTHJlazRUTFYzNEdRVjYwVDFRYVlHeC5xMDYuMHVja2pJb3dfYzJFV3NGejhWZzVHX2xkQjRFX1YweDZPdVNOME9zVjg2a0I2BGNsaWVudANib3NzBHNIcnZpY2UDQk9TUwRzbGsDdGI0bGUEc3JjcHZpZANWT3ZRUGtnZUF1MGNoUVdoaXpNYnVtdWxKbS5UVGt2WIVMa0FDRFhV/SIG=12rfentjv/**http%3A/www.mpumalanga.gov.za/education/legislation_policies/policies/docs/SECTION1.doc

Addendum 26: Editor's disclaimer

Sharon (Sheyne) R Ball





Editorial Services

TTD (JCE) PEG member

Hendrietta Segabutla
PhD thesis – Pages 1–101

4 April 2014

GENERAL REPORT (1)

- EDITED HARD COPY ready to be returned (~~dated 18.01.2014~~).
- Corrections are generally made in the text itself, and also marked x in the LH margin.
- It is suggested that you cross them off with a highlighter (both text and x) to be sure you check them all. You might like to use different colours – one colour for where you just accept the corrections I have made, another for where you make changes.
- Other standard marks: Insert space  Delete space  New paragraph  Capital letter  *i.e.*
- Spelling: UK English (Oxford English Dictionary) is used – also generally changing the US spelling where chosen 'by default' by the computer (except in 'quoted material').
- Consistency: Some errors have to do with consistency. I have listed those where you need to make a choice, and I suggest you then check the entire document by using 'Search/Find' and 'Replace'.
- Where the text is unclear to me or there are other questions, I have generally noted such in the RH margin.
- Under the Editing Comments below, I have also drawn attention to some of these queries.
- You are welcome to come back to me if anything is unclear, or if you wish me to look through any changes you might make.

EDITING COMMENTS

Inconsistencies requiring your decision (Pages 1–101)

(my recommendation is in the first column – generally based on the most frequent usage)

audiotaped	audio taped; audio-taped
behaviour	behavior
Chapter three	chapter 3
closed-ended	closed ended
emphasised	emphasized
focuses	focusses
mixed methods	mixed-methods

Nonverbal
open-ended
optimising
organised
prerequisite
predetermined
Self Report

Non verbal
open ended
optimizing
organized
pre-requisite
pre-determined
Self-Report

practice noun
practise verb

Spelling to check (throughout the document and the list)
Nieuwenhuis, Nieuwenhuis
Ozeer and Demirtas, Özer, Demartis (p.65)
Macfarlane, McFarlane (p.64)

General notes

Open Office

1. A 'dash' should be a 'spaced en dash' – the width of an n in the font – not a hyphen. *Alt Numeric 0150*
2. A hyphen is only used for compound words, e.g. above-mentioned.

A spaced en dash (or en rule) can usually be made by pressing # - - # (in Word)
Sometimes the computer will do it automatically – one could also find a dash elsewhere in the document and 'copy and paste'.

3. An 'unspaced en dash' denotes 'between' or 'to' as in 1939–45.
4. Contractions, and abbreviations such as e.g. or etc., should generally not be used in running text in formal writing. (The use of 'such as' or 'includes' makes etc. unnecessary.)
5. No spaces either side of a solidus (forward slash): his/her
6. The serial (or Oxford) comma added before 'and', before the final item in a list, is often helpful (and also preferred by APA). I have generally suggested including the comma.

Style – headings and punctuation

1. Check the style of all headings for consistency e.g. v, vi, x, xii
2. Check the style of all levels of headings to be consistent across the chapters (11,21,70,83,91)
A subsection 2.2.1. should also be followed by a 2.2.2. (See suggestion p.30)
3. Some pages are missing page numbers e.g. p.3. Page 259 is blank
4. Footers appear from p.27
5. Bibliography or References (pp. ix, 223)
6. Quoted material: generally double quotation marks have been used "..."
Emphasis: generally single quotation marks have been used: '...'
(I have suggested changing any 'doubles' to 'single')
- Question: for consistency, possibly change *italics* (9,38,82) and **bold** (23,32) to single quotes?
7. Use of : and ; (discuss).
8. Ellipsis has a space either side of the 3 dots. (I have suggested the inclusion of ellipses in some quoted material.)
9. 'Between' (ages or months, for instance) means 'between them'. Rather use 'from April to October', not 'between the ages of 16 and 20'.

In-text referencing

(n.d.)

1. All names must be written out in full on first usage in the text
2. Initials should not be included in the in-text references (nor , before the &)
3. Those references indicated as a or b (e.g. 2009a) in the list, should also be indicated as such in the in-text references.
4. et al. noted (with full stop, not italics)
5. When more than one source is cited within one set of brackets, they should be in alphabetical order according to the first author's name.
6. Where references have inaccuracies in the text (or list) (spelling, incorrect order of names, names left out) – check the entire document to be sure that all have been corrected.

Specific Queries

- Q1. p.ii If wishes were horses
- Q2. pp.i,v,1 Title must be exactly the same wherever it is written (including punctuation)
- Q3. pp.6,14,31 Six components unclear (possibly solved on p.31)
- Q4. pp.7,18 RQs Suggested layout. 3rd RQ mentioned on p.18.
- Q5. p.16,18 One or two institutions? Also 7 or 8 faculties? (p.16) 2 sites? (p.18)
- Q6. pp.11,26 Definitions of IC (Simonds) different. Unclear mention of Wrench et al.
- Q7. pp.49,53,55 Moving paragraphs about questioning?
- Q8. p.14 somehow say something

Unclear

- p.x Table 3.4 caption
- p.32 communication behaviours
- p.47 student state receiver apprehension
- p.74 mindful of nonverbal behaviours
- p.79 Qual Quan Qual
- p.85 Afr/Eng
- p.96 Eng in Gr 12 etc.

SB. 4 April 2014

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TTD (JCE) PEG member

Editorial Services

Hendrietta Segabutla
PhD thesis – Pages 102–222

7 April 2014

GENERAL REPORT (2)

- EDITED HARD COPY ready to be returned dated 07.04.2014..
- Corrections are generally made in the text itself, and also marked x in the LH margin.
- It is suggested that you cross them off with a highlighter (both text and x) to be sure you check them all. You might like to use different colours – one colour for where you just accept the corrections I have made, another for where you make changes.
- Other standard marks: Insert space  Delete space  New paragraph  Capital letter 
- Spelling: UK English (Oxford English Dictionary) is used – also generally changing the US spelling where chosen 'by default' by the computer (except in 'quoted material').
- Consistency: Some errors have to do with consistency. I have listed those where you need to make a choice, and I suggest you then check the entire document by using 'Search/Find' and 'Replace'.
- Where the text is unclear to me or there are other questions, I have generally noted such in the RH margin.
- Under the Editing Comments below, I have also drawn attention to some of these queries.
- You are welcome to come back to me if anything is unclear, or if you wish me to look through any changes you might make.

EDITING COMMENTS

Inconsistencies requiring your decision (Pages 102–222) (also see previous report)

What is your decision regarding hyphens for the following – with or without?

audiotaping and videotaping
teacher-talk and student-talk
teacher travel
travel attention
view point or view- point

U-shape or u-shape (capital or not?)
straightforward (should be one word)

General notes

1. Do not start a sentence with figures p.106
2. Check: that 'behaviours' is the correct academic term p.107
3. 'such as' vs 'like' p.107
4. bias – (not biases, biasness)
5. QDAS – last on list on p.xiv – Should it be WEFT-QDAS, or moved to the correct alphabetical place?
6. Some page numbers are missing
7. Some pages are blank e.g. p.198, 259
8. From p.201, I haven't cross-checked when tables have been referred to, nor ticked references
9. Captions for figures should be below the figures

Check diff style of page numbers.

Specific Queries

- Q9. p.108 Variables unclear
- Q10. p. eCOVE and video results sometimes different i.e. not 'confirmed'
- Q11. p.151 Figure 4.4 is missing. (There is also no Figure 4.10)
Figure 4.5 is incorrectly numbered as 4.4
Check numbering of ALL Figures from here, and also that they match the list on p.xii
- * Q12. p. Table 4.10 – reflections do not concur *RQs Suggested layout. 3rd RQ mentioned on p.18*
- Q13. pp.161, 163-165 Where should they be? Under Oral clarity or Content clarity?
I do not understand the Figures
Are there any tables showing the Lecturer info that is discussed? *Questions*
- Q14. pp.167/88 Graph and comments
- Q15. pp.151, 171, 194 Students writing on the board. Why? The point is lecturers' written clarity. 194
gave a better sentence to explain.
Also check Kiewra's ideas, used 4 times, 2 better than the others of p.194
- Q16. pp.156, 158 Headings using the word 'lecturer'
pp. 160, 166, 173, 174, 179 Headings not using the word 'lecturer' ... but possibly should?
These headings link with, and should be differentiated from those in 2.5 and 2.6
- Q17. p.200 definition of immediacy (incorrect?)

Unclear

- p.104 relatively 20 minutes
- p. 118 mine was to infer
- p.131
- p.132
- p.139 us, I, we → 204, 190
- above:* p.157 2 & 3 mixed up?
- p.159 English/theory
- p.163 contradict?
- p.185 source
- p.189, 214 formal, informal list – cf below Table 4.1 *cf p.189 sometimes.*

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Addendum 27: Observations and grading of lecturers' speaking proficiency

Participant	Features of speech		My grading
	Language instructor's observations	My observations	
Lecturer 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has standard accent and stress patterns, incorrect use of prepositions, interprets what she says, think about it and say the next thing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willingness to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition and self-correction, had a wide enough vocabulary to discuss topics at length, used a mix of simple and complex structures with some flexibility and used a range of pronunciation features with mixed control 	6
Lecturer 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has native like proficiency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> speaks at length without noticeable effort or loss of coherence, used vocabulary resources flexibly to discuss a variety of topics, used a range of complex structures with some flexibility and showed all the positive features of band six and some of the positive features of band eight 	7
Lecturer 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has non-standard accent and stress patterns, difficult to follow 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> speaks at length without noticeable effort or loss of coherence, used vocabulary resources flexibly to discuss a variety of topics, used a range of complex structures with some flexibility and showed all the positive features of band six and some of the positive features of band eight. 	7
Lecturer 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has near native like fluency although influenced by her mother-tongue, self-corrects, looks for words now and again, lacks linguistic confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willing to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition and self-correction, had a wide enough vocabulary to discuss topics at length, used a mix of simple and complex structures with some flexibility and used a range of pronunciation features with 	6

		mixed control	
Lecturer 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has clear native like fluency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> spoke fluently with only rare repetition or self-correction, used vocabulary with full flexibility and precision in all topics, used a full range of structures naturally and appropriately and used a full range of pronunciation features with precision 	9
Lecturer 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has non-standard accent and stress patterns, near native like fluency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willing to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition and self-correction, had a wide enough vocabulary to discuss topics at length, used a mix of simple and complex structures with some flexibility and used a range of pronunciation features with mixed control 	6
Lecturer 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> has a wrong sentence on the board, exceptionally little language available to assess. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> could not respond without noticeable pauses and spoke slowly with frequent repetitions, was able to talk about familiar topics but could only convey basic meaning on unfamiliar topics, produced basic sentence forms and some correct simple sentences and used limited range of pronunciation features. 	4

Addendum 28: Perceptions of instructional communication as a reflection of instructional competence

A. Pedagogical competence

1. Directing their questions to the whole class. **OC - evaluation**
2. Lecturers did not balance the direction of their questions by predominantly directing the questions to the whole class **V evaluation**
3. The lecturers did most of the talking making the lecturers to be dominated by teacher-talk, becoming teacher-centred. **OC methods**
4. Most lecturers did not allow their students to write on the board. **WC strategy**
5. Lecturers used examples, illustrations and explanations to make the content of their subjects clear. **CC strategy**
6. Few lecturers used teaching materials and equipment. **CC teaching aids**
7. Lecturers claimed to use the traditional process of lecture presentations **PC methods**
8. Students perceived their lecturers to follow step-by-step presentations although the question is whether the students are equipped to make this judgement. **PC methods**
9. Lecturers were found not to follow any clear, specific and consistent steps in their presentations. **PC methods**
10. Students perceived their lecturers to be competent because they had knowledge of the subject matter and gave important information **CC strategy**
11. Lecturers did not vary the levels and types of their questions. **CC evaluation**
12. Lecturers were perceived to be orally clear in that they answered students' questions clearly, were audible and straight forward in their speech. **OC evaluation**
13. Lecturers were found to be clear in written instructions because of the strategies they used to assist students. **WC strategy**

B. Professional competence

14. Lecturers perceived themselves to be verbally immediate in that they perceived their communication with their students to be effective, engaging, formal,

- informal, interactive and open; perceived themselves through student evaluations; perceived themselves to be approachable **V communication**
15. Six lecturers were orally proficient **V communication**
16. Researcher perceived the lecturers to be verbally non-immediate in that they used language that suggested that they were removed from their conversations with the students such as the distal demonstrative 'this' than 'that', 'will' than 'may' to show probability, 'I' than 'we' to show inclusive reference and did not engage in small talk or self-disclosure. **NV communication**
17. The lecturers used a lot of verbal tics **OC communication**
18. Lecturers used humour during instruction by allowing students to laugh and use jokes when needed. **NV communication**
19. Lecturers used more positive nonverbal behaviours than negative ones **NV communication**
20. Lecturers found it easy to mention behaviours that they often used during instruction than those that they hardly used. **NV communication**
21. Lecturers were found to care about their students in that they showed empathy, understanding and responsiveness; encouraged students to participate, accommodated and guided them. **CCa change behaviour**
22. Lecturers could be trusted with the knowledge that they presented **CT change behaviour**
23. Lecturers were found to respect their students by being prepared for lectures and being punctual although this could have been further established by how they treated their students, spoke to them and looked at them. **CR class management**
24. Some students disrespected their lecturers by coming in and out as they wished, making noise, whistling at other students and playing during lectures. **CR class management**
25. Lecturers perceived themselves to be expert in their field by virtue of the increase in students' pass rate, their lecturing experience and training. **CCar class management**
-

C. Gender

26. Female lecturers appeared formal while male lecturers appeared casual. **NV**
27. Female lecturers wrote on the board while male lecturers did not. **WR**

D. Instructional context

28. Lecturers did not use space adequately due to the furniture arrangement (seats bolted to the floor) although some still did not use space adequately even without the restriction. **NV**

