

TEACHING AS AN ART OF COMMUNICATION: AN INVESTIGATION INTO
THE NATURE OF TEACHER IMMEDIACY AND PERCEIVED ATTENDANCE

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ATTENDANCE**

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ABSTRACT

TEACHING AS AN ART OF COMMUNICATION: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE NATURE OF TEACHER IMMEDIACY AND PERCEIVED ATTENDANCE

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The purpose of this study is to delineate the nature of teacher-student interaction at a preparatory school of a foundation university in Ankara and examine the relationship between this interaction and students' level of perceived attendance. The sample for this study consists of 180 preparatory school students. The data was gathered through the questionnaire developed by the researcher. Interviews were conducted with the students selected among the participants to supplement the quantitative data. Inferential and descriptive statistics were used for the analysis of the data. Principal axis factoring was utilized and four dimensions of teacher-student interaction emerged namely nonverbal immediacy, teacher humor orientation, teachers' response to questions and teachers' demonstrated interest. Results revealed that teacher humor orientation and demonstrated interest were not observed as frequent as nonverbal immediacy and response to questions. The results also indicated a significant relationship between instructors' immediate behaviors and students' level of perceived

attendance. Students reported higher attendance, better participation in class and cordial communication with instructors when immediate behaviors were employed. Follow-up interviews with students provided confirming indications and further anecdotal evidence on topics such as careful usage of humor, importance of first encounters, teacher characteristics, teacher sensitivity, distant learning, etc. It can be concluded from the results that instructional communication deserves more attention as it gives teachers opportunity to achieve a better rapport with students. Teacher education programs need to consider the enhancement of communication between teachers and students. Further studies are needed with different samples including teacher perspectives.

Keywords: Nonverbal immediacy, humor orientation, teacher confirmation, instructional communication, attendance

ÖZ

BİR İLETİŞİM SANATI OLARAK ÖĞRETMENLİK: ÖĞRETMEN YAKINLIK DAVRANIŞLARI VE ALGILANAN DEVAMSIZLIK ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışmanın amacı Ankara'daki bir vakıf üniversitenin hazırlık okulunda öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşimi irdelemek ve bu etkileşim ile öğrencilerinin algılanan devamsızlık düzeyi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Çalışmanın örneklemi 180 hazırlık öğrencisinden oluşmaktadır. Nicel veriler araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen ölçek vasıtasıyla toplanmıştır. Nicel veriyi tamamlaması için de öğrencilerle görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Verilerin analizi çıkarımsal ve betimsel istatistik yöntemleri kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Faktör analizi sonucunda öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin dört boyutu çıkmıştır. Bunlar sözsüz yakınlık davranışları, öğretmen mizah anlayışı, öğretmenlerin sorulara verdiği karşılık ve öğretmenlerin gösterdiği ilgidir. Araştırmanın bulguları 'öğretmen mizah anlayışı' ve 'gösterilen ilginin' 'sözsüz yakınlık davranışları' ve 'sorulara verilen karşılık' boyutları kadar gözlemlenmediğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sonuçlar aynı zamanda öğretmenlerin yakınlık davranışları ile öğrencilerin algılanan devamsızlık düzeyi arasında önemli bir ilişki göstermiştir. Öğrenciler yakınlık

davranışları sergilendiğinde daha az devamsızlık yapıldığını, derslerde yüksek katılım sağlandığını ve samimi iletişim kurulduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Öğrencilerle yapılan sonraki görüşmeler teyit edici bulgular ortaya çıkarmış ve uzaktan öğretim, öğretmen hassasiyeti, öğretmen özellikleri, ilk karşılaşmaların önemi, dikkatli mizah kullanımı gibi konularda sistematik olmayan veriler sağlamıştır. Araştırmanın bulguları eğitimsel iletişimin, öğretmenlere öğrencilerle daha iyi bir uyum yakalama fırsatı verdiği için üzerinde daha çok düşünmeyi hak ettiğini göstermiştir. Öğretmen yetiştirme programları öğretmen öğrenci arasındaki iletişimi iyileştirmeyi göz önüne almalıdır. Konu üzerinde öğretmen bakış açısını yansıtan çalışmalar da yapılabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Sözsüz yakınlık davranışları, mizah anlayışı, öğretmen onayı, eğitim iletişimi, devamsızlık

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ABBREVIATIONS

IC	Instructional Communication
IAT	Interpersonal Adaptation Theory
IMM	Nonverbal Immediacy
DI	Demonstrated Interest
RQ	Response to Questions
HM	Humor Orientation
R	Required Behavior
E	Expected Behavior
D	Desired Behavior
A	Actual Behavior
IP	Interactional Position

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

We can teach a lot of things, but if the teacher can't relate by talking to a group of friendly students, he'll never be a competent teacher.
William GLASSER

1.1 Overview of the Chapter

The main goal of this study is to delineate the dynamics of teacher student interaction from certain perspectives, to investigate the effect of such dynamics on the level of perceived attendance of preparatory school students and hopefully to provide some insights into teacher education. This chapter introduces the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the aim and significance of the study, the research questions, assumptions, limitations, definition of related terms and ends with a conclusion part.

1.2 Background of the Study

The man is only half himself, the other half is his expression. There is a great value in what Emerson (1904) urges here, which is discovering the poet in expressive speech as an artist who is able to build a bridge between the reader and the reality he experiences and a teacher in our case who is responsible as a real, relatable person and as a bridge to the knowledge by being a successful communicator in the art of both teaching and communication. The expression mentioned here relates to teaching in the

sense that how much able and willing the teachers are for being a real person in the classroom. Rogers (1969) argues that if he had a magic wand, he would make all the teachers forget they are a teacher and he believes that it would cause an amnesia for their teaching skills, which highlights the importance of interpersonal relationships in the classroom inviting teachers to act like persons in their relationships with their students. He also laments;

I can only be passionate in my statement that people count, that interpersonal relationships are important, that we know something about releasing human potential, that we could learn much more, and that unless we give strong positive attention to the human interpersonal side of our educational dilemma, our civilization is on its way down the drain. (Rogers, 2002, p. 37)

Coming from such contention, it would be advisable that a teacher's real persona should orchestrate the classroom and that depends on the words we utter, yet sometimes it exists nonverbally translated in our behaviors. Thereby, the main body of literature for this study is *instructional communication* (McCroskey, Richmond & McCroskey, 2002). It inherently stems from the field of communication which examines the dynamics of a classroom as a communication process to enhance teaching and learning. It is basically the study of communication in instruction. The researchers in the field of communication focuses on the creation of meaning with the use of verbal and nonverbal messages whereas it should not be confused with the field of communications with "S" where 'mediated' messages are examined within the medium of television, newspaper, radio, etc. In instructional communication, on the other hand, as McCroskey, Richmond and Mottet (2016) posit, teaching and learning is examined through communication theory and research conclusions to predict, explain and control instructional outcomes. They also define instructional communication as "the process by which teachers and students stimulate meanings in

the minds of each other using verbal and nonverbal messages” (p. 5). The present study has been built on the notions and perspectives from the contemporary instructional communication theories such as teacher immediacy, teacher influence, affinity or instructional messages. The researchers are often encouraged to ponder on the integration of other theoretical frameworks, as the present study has tried to do so, and it is already common to employ borrowed models in the field of instructional communication (McCroskey et al., 2016, p. 45). Coming from the belief that effective communication and understanding of its relational dynamics will result in the achievement of instructional aims, the present study attempts to exploit the *Interactional Adaptation Theory* of Burgoon, Stern and Dillman (1995) as well. The theory examines how students and teachers respond to each other’s interactional actions and reactions (Pennings et al., 2017) and how they adapt their behavior accordingly. One predominant notion from the Interpersonal Adaptation Theory is the norm of reciprocity, which is conceptualized as “the process of exchanges operating at the societal level in order to maintain harmonious and stable relations” by Gouldner (1960, p. 171). In educational milieu, interactional patterns are negotiated and reciprocated between teacher and student. According to King (1998), reciprocal learning can be considered in the framework of social constructivism, that is, instruction is a highly social activity and interactions, both with teachers and within peers, influence the cognitive and affective development of learners. He further conveys that learners dynamically interact with the learning environment and such interaction improves performance regarding intellectual activities. Herein, as it is the case in several other instructional communication studies, this study also takes a symbolic interactionist view in theory, utilized as a frame of reference to understand how the symbolic worlds that are created by the interactions between individuals result

in shaping behaviors. Ultimately, interaction and behaviors are formed with the shared meanings unique to the symbolic environment of that culture (West & Turner, 2017). Thus, the fact that verbal and nonverbal communication behaviors send relational messages is valuable to be examined in different cultures. The examination and utilization of such behaviors for instructional purposes are the focal points of the present study by exploring the effects of them on students' level of perceived attendance. Thus, three constructs have been extracted from the literature of instructional communication since it is believed they will ascertain cultural specific implications and used as variables namely teacher humor orientation using humor successfully and frequently in the classroom, teacher confirmation arousing feelings of being real or valued in the receiver and teachers' nonverbal immediacy displaying such behaviors like eye contact, gesturing, etc. They are a part of a bigger construct, i.e., immediacy construct, which binds them all. Teacher immediacy overall investigates the degree of psychological and physical closeness between students and teachers (McCroskey et al., 2016). In the literature, there is strong association between these variables, forming one end of the equation of the present study. It has been hypothesized that with the mastery of such constructs, teachers may adapt their behaviors, facilitate affective elements in learning and have students value the knowledge presented to them in class. This may cause a higher attendance ratio which already has a positive correlation with academic performance (Buckalew, Daly, & Coffield, 1986; Devadoss & Foltz, 1996; Launius, 1997; Moore, 2006; Jones, 1984; Romer, 1993; Vidler, 1980). Having formed the other end of the equation, it has been hypothesized that the dynamic nature of these constructs has an effect on students' attendance patterns. By applying a probing literature review, it has been seen that the variables in the present study's hypotheses correlate with each other, demonstrating

the theoretical validity of the study. In sum, teachers who understand the transactional nature of teacher and student communication can use this knowledge to influence classroom interaction patterns in the desired direction, resulting in attendance to the lessons. It is also expected ultimately to reveal valuable implications for teacher education.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

It is the hope that all of us, in one period of our educational lives, simply enjoyed attending and listening to the class of a teacher whom we respected deeply. It is the teacher who has the charisma and most probably who is evidently a competent user of such communicational strategies. Thus, it is the plea that there should be more teachers like her or him when one thinks of the desired quality of education, inspired from such teachers. Teacher education may have the first glance regarding this issue. Teacher education programs mostly neglect the interpersonal dimension of classrooms and thus the mission of inoculating the importance of teacher-student relationship while training teachers. When Turkey's Council of Higher Education website is examined, the Pre-Service Teacher Education Curricula Guide published by The Council of Higher Education (CoHE, 2007) and the renewed version (CoHE, 2018), only language teacher education programs have somehow related courses in their core curricula which only focuses the presentation ability of the teacher candidates, but not the interactional dynamics of a class. Among selective courses that are for all of the departments in the faculty of education, there is one called "*Human Relations and Communication*" as the most similar to the tenets of instructional communication with its context. However, since it is an elective course, there are only a few universities which tried to open the course such as Ankara University or Eastern Mediterranean

University. Moreover, when the syllabi are examined, it is seen that the course content focuses only on body language, effective listening, etc. yet not strategic interactional dimensions. In his book, Kaya (2017) contends that interaction and communication is the base for teaching profession and its role in the art of teaching is quite essential. He further stipulates that a fundamental skill for a teacher to have is competently orchestrating an interactional channel with the students. Then, the craft here is being able to find ways to convey the knowledge rather than only being proficient enough on the content, which can be considered from pedagogical perspectives. Teaching is underrated. When people fail, it is the common belief that the teaching profession may serve as a backdoor to earn money only with the content knowledge they have. Thus, the problem over the content versus pedagogy dichotomy might bring about helpful implications. Content knowledge mostly outweighs the pedagogical competency over this dilemma of teacher education and employment in the opinion of legislators both in the states (McCroskey et al., 2002) and in Turkey (Yılmaz & Altinkurt, 2011). Research shows that such an approach does not proliferate successful instructional outcomes in the system (Wilson, Ferrini-Mundy & Floden, 2002). Unfortunately, there are many teachers in the system who have a degree in a content area with a complementary certification but not an education degree (Gregorian, 2001; Yılmaz & Altinkurt, 2011). Moreover, teachers blame students for their lack of understanding and become frustrated and this might reflect their lack of pedagogical training (Palmer, 1998). From an Aristotelian view then, it could be said that artists can teach and others who have not acquired it by study but picked up skills empirically might not. Therefore, the Turkish teacher education curricula, also any educational system around the world, needs the merits and pedagogical aspects of instructional communication domain (McCroskey et al., 2002) to be exploited by tailoring and implementing

courses into the programs. Further examples and suggestions will be given in this study with the hope that study itself with its literature review and results unearth such a need and provide solutions for.

Another perspective that can be utilized is student engagement and in-service practices. Research emphasizes that when students are not well engaged in the learning process, this might put student learning in jeopardy (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Across all grades, engagement behaviors are associated with higher levels of personal development, learning and better adjustment (Martin, Mottet & Myers, 2000; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Skinner, Connell & Wellborn, 1990). Students' good-quality relationship along with an open dialogue with their teacher, which is one of the pillars of this study, is only average in the states (National Survey of Student Engagement, 2000) But alas, such surveys and studies in Turkey are scarce (Devrim, 2018, p. 6). It is assumed that the variables in this study might affect student learning and engagement and it will contribute to filling the dent. Additionally, Langdon (1996) foregrounds that lack of student interest and engagement negatively affect teacher self-efficacy and satisfaction, which eventually results in teacher attrition. This issue highlights the importance of successful utilization of the communicative strategies in a class and mutual liking. Teacher attrition is mostly studied under the term 'burnout' in Turkey. The study of Uğuz (as cited in Mızrak, 2019) found that factors related to students are more effective in relation to teacher burnout rather than teachers' gender, age, marital status, etc. (p. 20). Therefore, the interaction between students and teachers gains importance as it considers students' side as well. It is safe then to comment that when there is a smooth and welcoming communication environment in a class and when an enhanced understanding of communication

functions exists, addressing the aforementioned issues will be easier. Herein, McCroskey and Richmond (1992) urge that “people usually will comply with, rather than resist, reasonable instructions or requests if they like, respect, and admire their teacher” (p. 102), which might partially lessen teacher attrition. Hurt, Scott and McCroskey (1977) emphasize that as students move to higher grades, teacher competence gets more important gradually as well. Thus, it is plausible that as students get older, communicative dynamics become more elaborate in the classroom and competence in such an area proves more fruitful.

The other aspect that deserves a consideration is attendance. Attendance, by its nature, becomes in the shape of a decision individuals make. With a younger group of students such as K-12 education, it is sensible to say that, in most of the cases, going to the school is a must and only task to do at that age. With the university environment, there exists autonomy of such decisions and thus it proves itself as a variable in an educational research context. Even for university students, studies on attendance are rare. Research on preparatory school students are even rarer. Romer (1993) along with Devadoss and Foltz (1996) place absenteeism as a major concern for educators and an important problem at higher education institutions. Overall the well-being of classes can be greatly affected and its vivid vibes can transform into dead, unpleasant and tiresome feeling which are experienced by both instructors and students when absenteeism takes place (Braurer, 1994; White, 1992). It is an argument of the common sense that when there are missing people in the classroom, the dynamism of a lesson and social being of the milieu get affected. It would also be plausible to say that such nature of educational settings is universal and valid across the grades. Thus, this study,

through the interactional attempts of the teacher, can suggest to be an aid to overcome such a problem.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

This study aims to investigate the nature of teacher-student interaction at a preparatory school of a foundation university in Ankara, Turkey. The literature of instructional communication has been a gravity point while constructing the study. Variables for instructor behaviors were chosen from this body of literature, i.e., teacher immediacy. Having another variable as students' level of perceived attendance, a special case is created taking place in the literature of instructional communication with its cultural specific values. Chosen instructor behaviors such as nonverbal immediacy, humor or teacher confirmation are the constructs that might bring cross-cultural value as well. (Aydm, Miller, Xiaojun, Menteş & Leblebici, 2013; Goldman, Bolkan & Goodboy, 2014; Lu, 1997). Thereby, with its uniquely constructed scale for teacher-student interaction, the present study intends to amalgamate concepts from instructional communication and interpersonal adaptation theory, create links between teacher-student interaction and student attendance, unearth students' views on such interaction and on their attendance patterns and finally yield a culturally special case to the literature.

1.5 Research Questions

The research questions regarding the purpose of this study are listed below:

1. What is the nature of teacher-student interaction in a preparatory school of a foundation university in Turkey?

2. Is there a significant relationship between teacher-student interaction and students' level of perceived attendance?

3. What are the views of students about the salient themes of teacher-student interaction survey conducted in their university and about the effect of these themes on their attendance?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The importance of teacher-student relationship, comprised of interactions, have been a topic of study already and related results show an association of such interactions with cognitive learning and motivation (Cornelius-White, 2007; Den Brok, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2004; Pianta, 2006; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt & Oort, 2011; Wubbels, Brekelmans, Den Brok & Van Tartwijk, 2006) along with teacher well-being (Spilt et al., 2011; Veldman, Van Tartwijk, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2013). Yet, investigating such dynamics through the lens of interactional adaptation theory (Burgoon et al., 1995) is quite rare (Pennings et al., 2017). The interactional adaptation theory examines dyadic (between two people) interpersonal actions and reactions. Dyadic nature of theory does not hinder our endeavor where a group of people interact all the time since these dyadic relations comprise much classroom communication. Burgoon et al. (1995, p. 15) also highlight this contention by giving the relationship examples in the areas of family, friendship, healthcare, therapy, business, intercultural encounters and lastly education, where teacher-student exchange happens. It is a vast domain that can be interpreted into many fields of social studies. Founders of this theory, thereby, assert a high relevance to education and encourage future efforts to apply the principles of the field of interest (p. 15). Therefore, having proved the de jure utility of the theory, conducting an instructional communication research with the

immediacy construct divided into three latent variables, namely nonverbal immediacy, teacher conformation and humor, and investigating its effect on attendance through the interpreted base of interactional adaptation theory indicates a significant uniqueness to this study and ensures a purpose. Furthermore, this study also provides a multicultural value. McCroskey et al. (2016) specifically and repeatedly stress that the studies in the field of instructional communication have overwhelmingly been monocultural, mostly representing the Anglo culture of the United States. They suggest three culture-related foci for future attempts (p. 43). Studies with international teachers in the states, with international students again in the states or lastly a monocultural study outside of the states in which this study's significance lays. McCroskey et al. (2016) further accentuates that having different communication norms and expectations taken into account, there is a clear need for research in other cultures. They emphasize that even if a functional similarity may exist in teacher influence messages, which this study examines to utilize for achieving learning objectives, there will be significant differences when studied across cultures. For instance, McCroskey et al. (1995, 1996a, 1996b) studied the impact of nonverbal immediacy on students' affective and cognitive learning with its probable dimensions arising from certain cultures, namely Australian, Finnish and Puerto Rican, and the results were found to vary notably. There are also other similar studies that found such cross-cultural variation. Lu (1997) compared Chinese instructors with American instructors and found an interesting contrast. Coming from the fact that Chinese culture places high respect for authority and collectivism whereas in the states it is more of an individualistic and independence-seeking culture (Hofstede, 1984), it is found that Chinese instructors will be considered incapable if they please students or boost self-esteem (Lu, 1997, p. 25). This affirms the importance and effect of differences in cultural norms. Similarly,

the study of Hofstede (1984) along with the study of Roach and Byrne (2001) found that instructors' use of nonverbal immediacy behaviors and affinity-seeking strategies have more significant effect on American students than it has on German students. It demonstrates that the instructor's awareness of different cultural norms and how to respond to them is quite essential regarding the achievement of effective instructional communication. There are very few studies found in the literature of instructional communication conducted in Turkey. As a notable example, Goldman, Bolkan and Goodboy (2014) examined college students' emotional outcomes in class as a function of teacher confirmation. The study revealed confirming teacher behaviors relates to higher student emotional interest. They also found that confirmation has a stronger effect on Chinese and American students than it has on Turkish students. They present this difference as a justification for further cross-cultural studies and it is clear that the Turkish context may present a different perspective to the universal value of communication strategies in classrooms. Thus, it is safe to say that this study will be significant in unfolding the cultural context it is studied in and will contribute to the cross-cultural validity of the field. It is not only instructional communication but also interactional adaptation theory that puts an emphasis on culture and affirms this study's significant entrance to the literature. It is seen that cross-cultural differences may lead to mismatching interaction styles resulting in misunderstanding or negativity. For instance, if North Americans would like somebody to speak up, they also raise their voice hoping for reciprocity while for Middle Easterners it may not function as expected if they think the interlocutor is not deferent enough resulting in a mismatch one shouting and one mumbling (Burgoon et al., 1995). While Anglo-Americans use continuous gaze for attentiveness, African-Americans do it intermittently (Erikson, 1979), which would lead to misinterpretation such as perceiving it as condescending.

For further examples regarding such differences, the study of Burgoon, Newton, Walther and Baesler (1989) can be advised. It can be said that interaction patterns may change culturally. Thus, establishing an understanding of the nature of these culturally valenced and valued interactional patterns in the present study's sample shall bring better insights into teacher-student positioning and behavior adaptation in the Turkish context. Furthermore, the integration interpretation of interactional adaptation theory into the field of instructional communication is another aspect indicating significance of the study. Although there is one predominant exemplary study of this couple in the literature with Comstock (1999) who examined reciprocal nature of instructional communication and student influence, there clearly have not been many attempts to do more. It is believed that these two domains have lots to share and interact with.

Along with its cultural value and the coalescence of instructional communication with interactional adaptation theory, the present study, with its implications, aims to help build rapport between teachers and students, which could be translated into teacher well-being and satisfaction. As mentioned earlier, to reduce teacher attrition, it is believed that the enhancement of student engagement through effective communication strategies will draw students to the class physically and psychologically and bring satisfaction to the teachers fulfilling their professional and emotional needs. This study also aims to inform such a contention in its own ways. College students, as the sample of this study, begin to develop their adult identities when the university life starts and they require interpersonal feedback received from the instructors (Turman & Schrodt, 2006). Preparatory school time especially is a period that students seek endorsement and recognition since it is a totally new young adult environment right after high school. Hence, teacher confirmation as an

interactional phenomenon by which identities are discovered and established (Buber, 1957), is chosen as one of the aspects of this study, focusing on students in such a period of time in their lives. Thus, the competency of such abilities would aid instructors in accomplishing their teaching objectives through the alteration of interpersonal behaviors in the right direction. However, having set the crucial link to the sample of this study, there are also other studies which suggest that interpersonal behaviors may be an important variable for instructional effectiveness in K-12. (Denbrok, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2004). Thereby, this study aims to provide teachers from all grades with valuable information that they can utilize for an effective teaching with a fruitful dialogue. Finally, Turman and Schrodt (2006) highlight the value of an effective teaching style and the development of such skills necessary for engaging students in productive classroom discussions. They state that it is a difficult technique to develop for novice teachers and encourage future studies for examining interpersonal behaviors that enhance the teacher-student relationship. In this regard, it is the aim of this study that valuable implications for teacher education will be obtained.

In a nutshell, the tenets, notions and approaches of the instructional communication field will transpire in a Turkish context with the navigation and interpretation of interactional adaptation theory through the construct of immediacy by establishing a unique link to perceived attendance. Furthermore, last but not least, the present study constructs and presents an adapted scale, named the TSIS (Teacher-Student Interaction Scale) with three sub-components of immediacy, validated by the literature theoretically and statistically by the factor analyses details of which can be found in the methodology part.

1.7 Assumptions

There are some assumptions regarding this study. First of all, it is assumed that the answers collected from the survey have been given in an honest manner by the students since the anonymity and confidentiality of their information have been stated to them and ensured. Thereby, reliable responses have been elicited. Secondly, items of the scale are assumed to have been understood fully by the participants and responded thereafter. Finally, it has been assumed that competent utilization of teacher immediacy and thus effective management of communication strategies is assumed to have an impact on students' level of perceived attendance.

1.8 Definition of related terms

Nonverbal Immediacy: It refers to “sets of nonverbal communication behaviors that reduce physical and psychological distance between teachers and students.” (Mehrabian as cited in McCroskey et al., 2016, pp. 15-16).

Humor Orientation: It refers to “intentional verbal and nonverbal messages which elicit laughter, chuckling, and other forms of spontaneous behavior taken to mean pleasure, delight, and/or surprise in the targeted receiver.” (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1991, p. 206).

Teacher Confirmation: It is described as “the process by which teachers communicate to students that they are valuable, significant individuals.” (Ellis, 2000, p. 265).

Instructor – Teacher: *Instructor* is used for university level teaching whereas *teacher* is used for mostly k-12 level teaching.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the special case for the study is presented with its theoretical framework and with related empirical studies from the field of instructional communication, from the theory of interpersonal adaptation and from the literature of attendance composing the overall value and theoretical validation of the thesis.

2.2 Introduction

It can be said that this study has three major domains to delve into and expand with. However, one of them is predominant when compared to the others since it is more comprehensive, which is instructional communication (IC). IC is an inclusive discipline itself with its own culture and scholars. Thereby, course achievement, for instance, manifests itself theoretically and empirically in the field of IC as cognitive learning. Affective learning is another point that IC scholars study already and in this study it has been hypothesized that it has an effect on attendance. The chosen variables are also the constructs that are mostly studied in the IC field, which are nonverbal immediacy, teacher humor and teacher confirmation. These behavior types can be considered under the bigger construct of teacher immediacy that is the closeness of teachers and students both psychologically and physically as mentioned earlier in the introduction chapter. Since IC informs the construct of teacher immediacy (variables of this study) and course achievement very well, it constitutes a bigger and thus

predominant part of the literature benefited from. The second body of literature that can be considered apart from IC is student attendance as it clearly distinguishes itself from the field. It is not difficult to contend that attendance has not gained enough attention among the IC scholars, thus it is exciting to read attendance literature through the lens of IC perspective and to integrate into the field. It is quite enthralling to synthesize attendance literature with the theories of IC domain and delivering an empirical study to the field. Finally, the interactional adaptation theory (IAT) of Burgoon et al. (1995) informs and guides this study considerably. The integration of IAT with the tenets of IC is quite rare. Comstock (1999) did a study tested the reciprocity principle of IAT the results of which affirms the teacher-student interaction as a transactional process although it does not necessarily mean that reciprocity is the only virtue of IAT. When one goes through it and tries to obtain a solid understanding of the ideas, IAT has a lot to offer for social studies where interpersonal interactions take place. Therefore, just as with the excitement of taking attendance into account, forming the glasses of theoretical spectacles of this study with IAT and IC is a joy and this acquaintance may have a ripple effect for future studies. Both IAT and IC have many notions to tackle with. This chapter, alongside the related empirical studies, discusses these informative notions for the purposes of the study and lays the theoretical groundwork. The chapter will start with the place of instructional communication in this study, go on with interactional adaptation theory concepts and conclude with the attendance issue forming an idiosyncratic case for the thesis.

2.3 Instructional Communication

To start with a clear definition, McCroskey et al. (2016) note that instructional communication is “the process by which teachers and students stimulate meanings in the minds of each other using verbal and nonverbal messages” (p. 5). It is a very

serviceable field that is not only for K-12 or higher education but also for non-traditional settings such as continuing education. Even though Sorensen and Christophel (1992) contend that effective IC is the integration of the management of the communication messages to maximize students' potential to learn (p. 35), mutual influence is a prevailing and transactional aspect of IC, which may lead us to teacher satisfaction and/or student compliance. Hurt et al. (1977) also convey that between knowledge and learner, communication forms a crucial link and it is the difference between knowing and teaching (p. 3). Having set a definitional base, it is safe to go on with the statement that there are interdisciplinary foundations of IC namely educational psychology, pedagogy and communication. They inform IC and set its boundaries. While discussing these disciplines and the concepts within them, implications relating to the questions and hypotheses of the study will be drawn.

2.3.1 Interdisciplinary Foundations

Firstly, in order to put educational psychology under the scope, learning processes of individuals can be examined and discussed through three domains, i.e., cognitive, affective and behavioral (Bloom, 1956). To start with, cognitive learning can simply be defined as a process of converting information into knowledge and made meaningful. Without going deeper into Bloom's (1956) taxonomy and its revised version (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), the responsibility for an effective teacher would be to aid students in this conversion. This is where the most observable and thereby acclaimed part of the teaching profession is, which focuses on the time and effort that teachers invest to create and to organize the content with examples and with the anticipations for possible confusions students may have. Considering its interwoven nature with cognitive learning and possible relation to student attendance,

affective learning should be discussed thoroughly. Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964) define affective learning as students' attitudes, beliefs, values and feelings about what they learn. They also divide affective learning into two as low level and high level affective learning. They indicate that high level affective learning causes self-motivation and even a change in the students' worldview, a pragmatic shift. They also state that students attending class, which is another variable of the study, and asking and answering questions in class are examples of low affective learning. They further describe affective learning as a process of internalization. McCroskey et al. (2016) acknowledge that effective teachers are the ones who aid this process of internalization by adapting their instructional behavior, nodding the theory of interpersonal adaptation, towards their students' beliefs and values in order to turn them on to the knowledge. To be able to make the knowledge approachable and customize the educational experience accordingly, getting to know the students and their feelings is needed indeed, which translates as teacher confirmation constituting one of the variables of this study. Therefore, Krathwohl et al.'s (1964) distinction of affective learning as high and low levels and the place of attending class in this distinction becomes vague by hypothesizing that attendance achieved by variables of this study will result from a high level affective learning. The job of a teacher then is to teach content as well as to make the students like it, if it is the desire to achieve affective learning by having the students value, appreciate and internalize the knowledge presented to them. The final focus point from the perspective of learners would be behavioral learning. It is also paraphrased as psychomotor learning and it is, as the name suggests, the development of physical skills. It is an overlooked aspect compared to cognitive and affective learning although it is quite important for K-12 where such development takes place densely. It also deserves attention since it

includes many instructional elements from using a pen or using a mouse to play a musical instrument. Behaviors that need to be modified should be known by the teacher so that students will be navigated properly to master those behaviors. For the sample of this study, for example, learning a foreign language requires certain abilities of the tongue for the right articulation and that requires corrective feedback to develop coming from the teacher. Overall, learning outcomes ought to be identified as such in advance and delivered teaching methods should be chosen accordingly for a proper instruction.

The second interdisciplinary foundations of IC to mention is pedagogy which is the systematic study of teaching methods having the teacher in the center of discussion. This comprehensive field of study involves examining history, philosophy of teaching and also curriculum development. As mentioned in the introduction chapter, the pronounced debate of content versus pedagogy is still ongoing. However, the issue can be addressed as that teaching is not just an innate set of skills that everybody has, but something that should be studied and mastered., which suggests to us the beautiful praxis of educational theory along with the tenets of pedagogy.

As for the discipline of communication, having given the difference between the study of communications and the communication discipline in the introduction chapter, we may go on with the fact that place of communication in teaching, the creation of meaning through verbal and nonverbal messages, is inevitable. Beebe, S. A., Beebe, S. J. and Ivy (2004) define the evolution of communication in three steps, namely as action, interaction and transaction. Shortly, as action, communication can be pictured as a mere lecturing where the meaning is created through a linear and one-way process with teacher-centeredness. Communication as interaction, on the other hand, is defined

as “a message exchange process where the source-selected meaning is verified, refined, and adapted based on the verbal and nonverbal responses (feedback) that the source obtains from the receiver” (McCroskey et al., 2016, pp. 12-13). Thus, the point is that the teacher is open to feedback coming from the students and adapting an instructional behavior accordingly, which is a necessary approach to enhance learning outcomes (Bloom, 1976). Communication as transaction, lastly, is a nonlinear process (Berlo, 1960). In the pursuit of shared meaning, students and teachers keep influencing one another, where the distinction of receiver and source is vague. For such a distinction to fade, teachers and students should respect each other’s ideas or feelings by debating openly till the meaning is shared and should feel free to engage in conversation. As we move forward from communication as action to as transaction, it becomes less rhetorical and more relational. It is the contention that having the notions such as adaptation of instructional messages and mutual respect, this study’s approach is towards transactional and more relational, where through the relationship interactants yield influence each other focusing on affective responses. Herein, to clarify a dimension of the present study as well, two possible ways of expression should be examined, which are verbal and nonverbal.

In order to diagnose and prescribe communication behaviors for instructional effectiveness, two ways to express messages should be examined thoroughly, namely verbal communication with linguistic symbols and nonverbal communication with behaviors other than the usage of linguistic symbols. Some theories suggest that they function differently (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). Verbal messages can be considered as what is said whereas nonverbal messages as how it is presented. Verbal messages can convey content rich linguistic information while nonverbal messages

establish the quality of the interaction with cues about power, emotion and attitudes (McCroskey et al., 2016). On another dimension, Burgoon (1994) contends that verbal messages have their impact on cognitive responses and nonverbal messages on affective responses. As the link between affective responses and attendance has been highlighted earlier and having the nonverbal immediacy as a predictor, Burgoon's contention again informs and consolidates the rationale behind the variables of this study. While students' cognitive abilities, as in Bloom's taxonomy, are highly influenced by the usage of verbal messages (Thomson & Tulving, 1970), students' affective responses like valuing and internalizing the knowledge is highly influenced by teachers' degree of nonverbal immediacy (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992). An example of nonverbal immediacy here can be a teacher coming to the class in the break time, sitting with students in a relaxed body position with a smiling face, spending time with them in a socially appropriate manner, which represents a set of behaviors that reduce psychological and physical distance between students and teachers (Andersen, 1979; Mehrabian, 1969). Lastly, the ability to control these messages is an issue. Verbal messages, for instance, are intentionally conveyed whereas nonverbal messages are unintentionally (Knapp, Wiemann & Daly, 1978). For verbal messages to be expressed, a cognitive process is required and thus falling into the area of our control while for nonverbal messages such cognitive effort is not needed making it unintentional (Burgoon, 1994). Since nonverbal messages are beyond the awareness, teachers may fail to mask their feelings (Richmond, 1997), which may be referred to as *nonverbal leakage cues* (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). That is why Burgoon (1994) believes that when an interactant's verbal and nonverbal messages are not in parallel, nonverbal messages tend to be believed more, which puts emphasis on the importance of nonverbal immediacy latent variable of this study. Having a grasp of the nature of

human communication through these discussions will inform the field of education deeply.

2.3.2 Interdisciplinary Contributions

Regarding their interdisciplinary contributions to IC, education psychology, pedagogy and communication discipline have some certain aspects to be highlighted. To start with, from the point of view of educational psychology, student affective learning has gained the utmost attention in the field of IC given the fact that it is one of the most neglected aspects in teacher education programs (McCroskey et al., 2016). The reasons behind this negligence might be the fact that cognitive and behavioral learning outcome results are more immediate, easier to assess and it develops faster, satisfying educational stakeholders like administrators, parents and so on. However, in the field of IC, it is believed that, regarding instructional effectiveness, affective learning is a stronger indicator compared to cognitive learning and it is meaningful to instructors (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992). It is mostly because of the fact that communication behaviors of instructors, especially their nonverbal behaviors, are strong predictors of affective learning rather than cognitive learning (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992; McCroskey et al., 2016). In addition, it has been shown that affective learning predicts cognitive learning (Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994; Rodriguez, Plax & Kearney, 1996). Therefore, the present study suggests that addressing to students' affective domains through the chosen variables might as well result in course achievement. Moreover, it is repeatedly reported that emotion influences human behavior (Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999; Metts & Bowers, 1994; Russell & Mehrabian, 1978). There is a relationship between students' learning and emotions (Mayer, 1986; Mottet & Beebe, 2002; Goleman, 1997; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997) and a close link exists between

cognition and emotion (Frijda, 1994). Although it is a strong indicator for cognitive learning (Rodriguez et al., 1996), it can be said that affective learning has been overlooked.

As for contributions of pedagogy to IC, teachers' self-perceptions have gained attention such as teacher self-efficacy and satisfaction. Job satisfaction is defined as "a state of mind determined by the extent to which the individual perceives his/her job-related needs being met" (Evans, 1997, p. 833) and self-efficacy is defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977, p. 137). These constructs have been studied together over time. In relation to the hypotheses of this study, Shin and Reyes (1995), Shann (1998) and Fresk, Kfir and Nassir (1997) acknowledge that teacher retention and commitment can be achieved by teacher satisfaction. Herein, Dinham and Scott (2000) reveal that having a positive relationship with students brings teacher satisfaction. Shann (1998) along with Kim and Loadman (1994) also note that teacher-student relationship is the top predictor of teacher satisfaction.

Lastly, contributions of communication discipline to IC and to academia overall happen in the distinction of relational and rhetorical traditions (Cohen, 1994; Howell, 1954; McCroskey & Richmond, 1996; Shepherd, 1992; Wallace, 1954). As discussed earlier, in rhetorical tradition, which is one of the original seven liberal arts (Sproule, 1991), communication is mostly linear where we have the teacher as the source of messages and students as the compliant receivers of these messages. This tradition keeps informing the IC field and focuses on how we speak and prior to the significance of delivery. The importance of rhetorical is indisputable since its strategic use aims to

facilitate communication and learning together with relational paradigm. Given the fact that rather than being opposite sides and both informing instructional effectiveness, relational perspective has gained a closer attention in the literature and informed this study deeply. The relational paradigm moves the focus from the message content onto emotions of teachers and students with a shared meaning. Research regarding relational perspectives mostly concentrated on nonverbal messages since it has been shown that they stimulate emotions and social meanings in the messages (Burgoon, Buller & Woodall 1996; Mehrabian, 1972). It has been revealed that being nonverbally immediate or expressive positively influence student motivation (Richmond, 1990), their perceived learning (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992), liking for teachers (Frymier, 1994). When teachers are nonverbally expressive, students are willing to comply more (Plax & Kearney, 1992) and resist less (Kearney & Plax, 1992). These findings perfectly connect the variables of this study by exhibiting a reasonable hypothesis. Research have also shown that nonverbally responsive students also affect their teachers regarding their liking for students, motivation to teach, self-efficacy and satisfaction (Mottet, 2000; Mottet, Beebe, Raffeld & Medlock, 2004; Mottet, Beebe, Raffeld, & Paulsel, 2004) These findings as well put an emphasis on the variables and affirms the integration of the principle of reciprocity and the theory of interpersonal adaptation into instructional communication and into this study. When teachers are aware of the principle of reciprocity and strategically utilize it, it can be assumed that students can adapt nonresponsive behaviors and this may result in aforementioned advantages for teachers, creating a beautiful rapport and harmony in class.

Overall, these interdisciplinary tenets and findings prove the importance of teachers' competence over the variables' of this study and utilization of them in order to provide remedies for the stated problems earlier.

2.4 Panecastic Philosophy

Exceeding the practical scope of this study, a vision may be laid out regarding a deeper virtue of the tenets discussed. Teachers have been mentioned as a bridge to knowledge in the introduction. Creating a bridge to the knowledge and thereby making it more approachable is a process where teachers act as builders. Such endeavors perhaps should aim for an intellectual emancipation of students, i.e., having the bridge built, there is no dependency on builders anymore. Especially in the twenty first century where knowledge is so easy to access, such an approach may speak for some prospective realities.

As high level affective learning mentioned earlier, when achieved, a pragmatic shift may take place in their world view and they might become more self-motivated. The pragmatic shift can relate to *paradigm shift* as Kuhn (1962) uses the term in his book, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, to refer to the process that occurs within the individual who is able and willing to change his lens. By adapting instructional behaviors towards students' beliefs, teachers may turn students on the knowledge, help changing the lens and make knowledge valuable to them. They may achieve it so well that student autonomy may transpire outside of the classroom. When students then take the ownership of their learning, Panecastic philosophy can be discussed.

In his book, *The Ignorant Schoolmaster*, Ranciere (1991) discusses intellectual emancipation through Joseph Jacotot, a French teacher who succeeded to teach French

without knowing a single word from student's language. He did not intervene in the process of learning much, just provided a book written in two languages, French and Dutch. He named the method as panecastic. He provided four principles, respectively, all men have equal intelligence, every man has received from God the faculty of being able to instruct himself, we can teach what we don't know, everything is in everything. Macdonald's (1975) stigmatization for emancipatory pedagogies as utopian and a form of political and social philosophizing may sound a bit biased after hearing about Jacotot's acclaimed method. Rancière discusses Jacotot's method orderly and communicates the principle of the equality of all speaking beings as for hierarchy of intellectual capacity. Therefore, what is meant is only the inequality in the manifestations of intelligence, which is caused by the lack of willpower students have or have not (Ranciere, 1995). Herein, the teacher comes in as using his unequal willpower to have student use his or her equal intelligence. The teacher provides willpower and he or she does not have to be more knowledgeable or professing anything. Illich (1971) with his book, *Deschooling Society*, and Freire (1968) with the book, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, discusses emancipation in political and economic manners whereas Ranciere emphasizes the intellectual side of emancipation as explained above. As a matter of fact, it is a pedagogical attitude that teachers theoretically make use of in their teaching philosophy rather than a specific method that has specific guidelines

There is a scattered literature on emancipatory pedagogy since Jacotot's time, 19th century. It has been quite some time since and what has been discussed about Jacotot's method is few but critical. The most cited and newest reference for the panecastic method is Ranciere's (1991) book, *The Ignorant Schoolmaster*. The first argument to

be considered is that no party or government, no army, school, or institution, will ever emancipate a single person because every institution is a dramatization or embodiment of inequality. In the final chapter of his book, Ranciere contends that all attempts to turn panecastic philosophy into a method and institutionalize it failed from the point of view of emancipation. Therefore, it is related to the dynamics of the relationship between students and teachers, not a method to apply. It is indeed a rightful critique that our institutions today delineate an exact opposite picture with lots of failures to ensure the quality of and equality in education. Despotic principals and teachers are still common and have no intention to be real and equal with students. They mostly neglect interpersonal relationships and therefore fail to emancipate.

Rogers (1969) emphasizes that teachers should be a real person in the classroom environment and this is the preliminary state to be in if we are to emancipate students. As cited earlier, he notes that it is an urgent issue of our modern education. Ranciere sees schools as embodiment of inequality and such an inequality would result from the issue Rogers discusses. Teachers can and should relate as persons to their students. Intellectual emancipation can only be directed to individuals, never to societies. However, what is in literature about emancipation are remnants of possible epiphanies that a teacher can realize and interpret theoretically, which may eventually turn into a praxis. Thus, rather than its bare suggestions, there must be individual interpretations of panecastic philosophy to have collective applications. A true emancipatory gesture, according to Rancière, is assuming that everyone can understand and appreciate opera on the condition that one is attentive enough. Such a statement is also in line with tenets of constructivism and Bugelski's (1971) principles of instructional theory. He asserts that even arousing little attention will result in learning. "An organism will

learn anything that arouses attention whether it wants to or not” (p. 281). It is the full devotion to a ‘thing’, that is, to a subject matter we study, which makes emancipation possible. Indeed, student’s attitudes matter a lot. There are many examples of successful people who had self-motivation to learn and were courageous enough to take ownership of the process. Perhaps, this is the moral of panecastic/emancipatory philosophy. In the twenty first century, knowledge, as mentioned earlier, has become so easy to reach. What education tries to do is to spread the wisdom and knowledge and help students to find themselves.

With its relation to the study from the domain of affective learning and with its constructivist approach, Panecastic philosophy deserves a place to take a minute and think about. In the future, perhaps every student will value and respect knowledge so much that attendance will not be a problem. Perhaps, their physical presence will not even be required. However, to build that world, a collective cooperation of all the stakeholders of education is needed first.

2.5 Teacher influence: Negotiated Power

The teachers’ job is to influence in order to facilitate learning and inspire students to learn. Relationships that are built on communication are the medium of this influence. Through communication, power is negotiated. Rather than being a strict political term, power can be considered here as the degree to which teachers and students let each other influence themselves. As student-centered approaches gained popularity and became even more salient, students attained more power (Weimer, 2002), as in their influence on teachers. Student incivility and teacher misbehaviors are the research topics which influence the negotiation of power. Chory-Assad and Paulsel (2004), for instance, revealed a reciprocal base for this power negotiation, i.e., student

aggressiveness was positively correlated with teachers' use of antisocial influence messages such as punishing or threatening, making both parties responsible, say, for student incivility. It once again highlights the importance of teachers' communicative awareness. Thereby, discussing power as a relational aspect deserves a place. To begin with, rather than its conventional polarized depiction, Hartnett (1971) posits that "power is a property of the social relation; it is not an attribute of the actor" (pp. 27-28), a constant negotiation over compliance. Relational power, herein, can be discussed through French and Raven's (1959) classification, namely legitimate, coercive, reward, expert, and referent power. In short, legitimate power mostly relies on the title or position and not necessarily on the interpersonal relationship between the interactants. Teacher is the authority here. Coercive power happens with the possible occurrence of punishment or withholding of a reward. The sharp eye of a teacher over the compliant and resisting students may lead to coercive power. Reward power happens, as the name suggests, when the agent is able to reward. Reward power is yielded to teachers since they are able to reward students with their reference letters, grades, ignoring absence or simply with material rewards like a sticker or a chocolate for younger students. Expert power occurs when teachers are perceived as experts on and competent over the taught subject. Students may yield expert power to a new teacher when s/he is able to communicate their knowledge to students whereas some other qualified teachers may not communicate similarly and fail to be perceived as experts. Lastly, referent power happens when the agent is perceived as a role model. Respect and succeeding compliance transpire with referent power. In the examination of influence messages within the instructional context, such classification is quite informative (Richmond & Roach, 1992).

Richmond and McCroskey (1984) revealed that, not the teachers', but students' perception of teachers' power use was significantly related to student learning. They found that while coercive and legitimate power were negatively related, referent and expert power were positively related to student learning. McCroskey et al. (1985) found expert, referent and reward power were positively related to affective learning whereas legitimate and coercive power were not. In the same study, they also found that students yielded more referent and expert power to teachers who had training in instructional communication, providing another implication for teacher education programs that benefit both teachers and students. Plax, Kearney, McCroskey and Richmond (1986) found that through teacher immediacy, prosocial messages (expert, referent and reward) cause greater affective learning. Similarly, antisocial messages (coercive and legitimate) reduce affective learning resulting from a decreased perceived teacher immediacy (p. 54). Overall, between teachers' power use and affective learning, immediacy was a moderating factor. Having drawn the link between verbal messages and cognitive learning, and between nonverbal messages and affective learning with Burgoon's study (1994) earlier, McCroskey et al. (2016) also convey "teachers' nonverbal immediacy behaviors, which tap into the relational dimension of communication and impact students' emotional responses, alter how students interpret and frame teachers' verbal behavior alteration messages, which convey the content of the message and impact students' cognitive responses" (p. 125). It is a very important contention that it explains the nature of relationship between nonverbal and verbal immediacy behaviors. Students' overall interpretation of teachers' verbal messages is based on teachers' nonverbal immediacy (Plax et al., 1986), emphasizing its importance over verbal messages which relates to cognitive responses.

Thus, having nonverbal immediacy as a predictor of cognitive learning and course achievement might be a theoretical and empirically valid estimation, which deserves further inquiries. Richmond, Gorham and McCroskey (1987) found that 36% variance in students' cognitive learning was accounted for by teachers' strategic use of behavior alteration messages such as prosocial or antisocial. Teacher immediacy, then, indeed has a potential to make a difference in student learning.

2.6 The Immediacy Construct

Nussbaum (1992) acknowledges that proper use of power and effective teacher behaviors are directly related to learning outcomes and students' positive evaluation of teachers. Richmond and McCroskey (2000) have also acknowledged that nearly forty years of research has found an association between increased cognitive learning, positive affect, positive student evaluations of teachers and immediacy behaviors. They also convey the *immediate communication principle* which is that the interactants will prefer, evaluate highly and like others who are immediate over the others who are not (p. 86), which guides this study as to accomplish compliance with students. Richmond, McCroskey and Johnson (2003) note that, from the point of view of immediate communication principle, immediacy behaviors can be under the control of communicators to be used as tools with which to influence the responses of others.

It should also be noted that Mehrabian (1967, 1969, 1971) is the father of contemporary view of immediacy who conveys that people are drawn to people they like and eschew the ones they do not. McCroskey et al. (2016) comment that teacher influence can be enhanced through teacher immediacy and certain generalizations can be drawn from the literature such as students will comply with immediate teachers or immediacy determines the degree of power students grant teachers. Teven (2001) also

believes that the rapport between students and teachers achieved through a good relationship determines student performance and interest (p. 159).

Teacher immediacy, as a teacher behavior, indeed has a consolidated place in the field of both communication and education informing classroom setting (Chesebro & McCroskey, 1998, 2000, 2001). Improving teachers' strategic competence over nonverbal and verbal immediacy behaviors, emphasizing its importance for teacher education programs, would positively impact learning outcomes and teacher-student interaction, resulting in course achievement and attendance to classes. McCroskey et al. (2016), as if picturing the problems and hypotheses of this study, conclude the following:

We have argued for years that the primary function of teachers' verbal behavior in the classroom is to give content to improve students' cognitive learning. The primary function of teachers' nonverbal behavior in the classroom is to improve affect or liking for the subject matter, teacher, and class, and to increase the desire to learn more about the subject matter. One step toward that is the development of a positive affective relationship between the student and teacher. When the teacher improves affect through effective nonverbal behavior, then the student is likely to listen more, learn more, and have a more positive attitude about school. Effective classroom communication between teacher and student is the key to a positive affect toward learning. As communication improves between teacher and student, so does affect. When teachers are trained to use verbal and nonverbal communication in the classroom more effectively, student-teacher relationships improve and so do the students' affective and cognitive learning. When positive affect is present, learning increases. (p. 169)

Kelley and Gorham (1988) also report and present a strong relationship between immediacy and cognitive as well as affective learning. However, as discussed earlier, this vast amount of research mostly derived data from Anglo culture of the United States and further research has always been encouraged across cultures. McCroskey et al. (2016) lament that rather than demanding more evidence for such a relationship, it

is now time to disprove it. The cross-cultural reality of this study will have a valuable contribution to the field in this regard.

This study has three latent variables namely nonverbal immediacy, teacher humor and teacher confirmation. Having mentioned nonverbal immediacy earlier, use of humor, praise, teacher's willingness to converse in and out of the classroom and willingness to give feedback, asking students about their thoughts on assignments etc., all contribute to verbal immediacy (Gorham, 1988) and directly relate to other latent variables of the study, i.e., teacher humor orientation and teacher confirmation. They overall can be considered as teacher immediacy. Apart from the present study's factor analysis of the latent variables that validated the expected correlations, there are also studies in the literature which noticed connections between confirmation and immediacy (Ellis, 2000) or humor and immediacy (Banas, Dunbar, Rodriguez & Liu, 2011). Furthermore, Bolkan and Goodboy (2014) assert that even though nonverbal immediacy, confirmation and humor are distinct behaviors, "they are frequently employed in conjunction with one another, and their collective use in the classroom may be appropriately described as reflecting a core set of behaviors" (p. 137). They also note that there are plenty of studies suggesting students' perceptions of their learning are positively associated with nonverbal immediacy (Witt, Wheelless, & Allen, 2004), humor (Ziv, 1988) and teacher confirmation (Goodboy & Myers, 2008), which may ultimately lead to affective responses and attendance the relation of which has been discussed earlier. Such findings informed the construction and combination of the variables of this study.

2.6.1 Nonverbal Immediacy

It is a well-accepted definition that immediacy is the degree of perceived physical and/or psychological closeness between teachers and students (McCroskey et al., 2016). However, as for the distinction between nonverbal and verbal immediacy, there is an interwoven relationship to delve into and clarify. It has been revealed that when physical distance is reduced, psychological closeness is fostered, which results in more immediacy (Aiello & Cooper, 1972; Burroughs, 2007). When nonverbally immediate, such distance is reduced evoking psychological closeness. It has been discussed earlier that nonverbal messages provide a basis for verbal messages to come, i.e., they are not easily controlled and thus trusted more. Teachers starting with a nonverbally immediate tone can build on verbal immediacy overall achieving teacher immediacy and fostering teacher effectiveness.

Although it is contended that immediacy should be thought of as a nonverbal construct (Richmond et al., 2003) for the fact that no measures could be developed for verbal immediacy (Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Robinson & Richmond, 1995), confirmation and humor related behaviors are still contributed to verbal immediacy (McCroskey et al., 2016), composing overall teacher immediacy with nonverbal immediacy. Thereby, even though they are not claimed to be the measurements of verbal immediacy, humor and conformation still do fall into the category of verbal immediacy for the fact that they can be utilized as tools to reduce psychological distance between students and teachers.

Richmond et al. (1987) define nonverbal immediacy as a relational language perceived to convey closeness, affective feelings of warmth, and belonging. Andersen (1979) defines it as the implicit use of closeness-inducing behavioral cues. For educational

context, Andersen (1978) conveys that the term of ‘nonverbal immediacy’ was adopted and it served as a roof term for several teaching behaviors found in isolation such as smiling, sitting near, etc. to be associated with effective teaching. Butland and Beebe (1992) also contend that nonverbal immediacy increases student learning, information recall and student perceptions of teacher effectiveness. Hence, Özmen (2010) further accentuates that nonverbal immediacy, specifically in education, stands at a critical point in terms of its impact on student learning, student motivation, nature of power and such other critical issues.

Verbal immediacy has been found to correlate with nonverbal immediacy and effective teaching (Edwards & Edwards, 2001; Gorham, 1988). Moreover, student motivation, perceived affective and cognitive learning also have been found related to verbal immediacy (Christophel, 1990). Research has also revealed that verbal immediacy increases student willingness to participate in and contribute to class discussions (Christensen, Curley, Marquez, & Menzel, 1995; Menzel & Carrell, 1999) and when applied properly to teaching, it increases student cognitive, affective, and behavioral learning (Christophel, 1990; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Richmond, Plax, McCroskey & Kearney, 1987). Studies of Butland and Beebe (1992) and Rodriguez et al. (1996) imply that when combined, these immediate behaviors increase overall student liking for the course and subject matter, which overall with aforesaid may result in attendance in our case. Herein, it should be noted that student motivation, as a significant component of student success (Brophy, 2004; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991), has also been shown to be increased by immediacy with which then course achievement can be predicted (Velez & Cano, 2008).

It has been reported that verbal immediacy is mostly expressed through overall openness and willingness to meet and interact with students, praise and humor (Edwards & Edwards, 2001; Gorham, 1988), which relates to other two latent variables of this study, namely humor and confirmation.

2.6.2 Teacher Humor Orientation

It has been discussed that immediate behaviors are significantly associated with student learning outcome and Gorham (1988) stresses that it was no surprise for humor to emerge as an aspect of teacher immediacy. With Cosner's (1959, p. 172) contention that humor is like an invitation aiming to decrease social distance, Bergler (1956) argues that humor also aims to reduce conflict and enhance interpersonal relations having a positive impact overall. Kane, Suls and Tedeschi (1977) further maintain that humor indicates a joy in relating to others and conveys the benevolence of the source. Ones who use humor are likable and perceived as attractive, engendering prosocial behaviors (p. 16). Benefits of humor in a classroom setting has been long studied (e.g., Aylor & Opplinger, 2003; Bryant & Zillman, 1989; Kaplan & Pascoe, 1977; White, 2001). The interest in research results from the fact that humor is often used by all types of teachers (primary, secondary and college) while interacting with students (Bryant, Cominsky, & Zillman, 1979; Downs, Javidi, & Nussbaum, 1988). There is a large body of evidence regarding humor's instructional benefits such as perceived intelligence (Gruner, 1966), reducing negative affective states (Smith, Ascough, Ettinger & Nelson, 1971), friendliness (Gruner & Lampton, 1972), improving student perceptions of the teacher (Scott, 1976), facilitating teacher-student rapport (Linfield, 1977; Welker, 1977) and enhancing perceptions of competence, delivery, and appeal (Bryant & Zillmann, 1983). The building of immediate relationship between teachers

and students with humor may enhance affect, arousal, attention, retention, and learning (Kelley & Gorham, 1988). Gorham (1988) comments that teachers' perceived humor is significantly related to students' affective responses and some other studies reveal that humor can increase student interest in course material, which may again lead to more participation to the classes and attendance (Baughman, 1979; Hight, 1963; Linfield, 1977; Welker, 1977). Research has also revealed a link between student learning outcomes and instructor's use of humor. (Chapman & Crompton, 1978; Davies & Apter, 1980; Vance, 1987; Wanzer & Frymier, 1999; Ziv, 1988). However, it should be noted that teachers may 'overkill' it as students perceive them as jokers. For instance, the study of Downs et al. (1988) revealed that award winning college instructors were using less humor and it is the teacher's responsibility "to differentiate moderate from excessive use of these verbal behaviors, thus contributing to their ability to relate to students and to overall perceived effectiveness" (p. 139).

Having noticed the comments of Bryant, Comisky, Crane and Zillmann (1980) that earlier research has failed to produce unequivocal results regarding beneficial use of humor, Gorham and Christophel (1990) specifically examined the relationship between humor and expected positive cognitive and affective learning outcomes and the assumption that humor enhances learning. The results of the study showed that "the relationship of teachers' use of humor in the classroom to student learning might best be understood when that use of humor is examined in conjunction with teacher immediacy" (p. 58). The results very importantly indicated;

The degree to which teachers use other immediacy behaviors along with humor may affect these humor/learning relationship and teachers with very low overall immediacy may not benefit from increasing the proportion of positive humor if they do not increase their use of other immediacy behaviors as well. (p. 61)

Thereby, their study, along with affirming the previous studies that validate the importance and benefit of teacher humor in classroom setting, suggests its composition with other immediate behaviors and encourages further research accordingly. Thus, it is safe to say more immediate teachers use more humor and engender more learning, which leads and comforts this study to include humor as a variable. Aylor and Opplinger (2003) encourage teachers to adopt a humorous communication style to facilitate outside-of-class communication and thus to achieve highly responsive demeanor from the students' side. Humor, hereby, combines and complies with teacher confirmation behaviors perfectly.

Garner's (2006) study affirms the benefits of humor usage in the classroom. However, he cautions that the positive effects of humor depend on the appropriate use of humor. When highly personal or subjective humor takes place, it may be perceived negatively by students. Same caveat comes from Lei, Cohen and Rustler (2010) that instructors should avoid negative humor behaviors. They convey that along with psychological, social and cognitive benefits of humor usage in college classrooms, there might emerge some drawbacks with excessive or offensive humor and degrading remarks. It might damage the instructor's credibility and disconnect students from the course, they conclude. In a study conducted in adult English as a Second Language classrooms, Phu Vu and Lan Vu (2012) warned to be cautious and suggested to know the learners well, being universal and keeping it short and simple while using humor.

Bryant et al.'s (1979) humor types for the classroom was investigated by the study of Torok, McMorris and Lin (2004). It has been found that types of humor such as funny comments or professional humor are considered positively while sarcasm or sexual

and ethnic humor might be perceived negatively. Thereby, various research indicate that it is not safe to say all humor is appropriate for the classroom context (Bryant et al., 1979; Bekelja, Bainbridge, Wojtaszczyk & Smith, 2006; Neuliep, 1991; Torok et al., 2004). In short, usage of humor in the classroom setting should be approached with great care by instructors since there only exists evidence for its benefits as long as it is used strategically well. The sensitive nature of this construct might offend students or disconnect them when used carelessly. It might cause students to deny humorous acts of instructors lacking appropriateness.

2.6.3 Teacher Confirmation

When literature is reviewed, it strikes as an undeniable fact that effective communication behaviors are very important on student outcome (Waldeck, Kearney & Plax, 2001). It has also been discussed that positive instructor behaviors such as humor or nonverbal immediacy increase student learning and affect (Kramer & Pier, 1999; Nussbaum, 1992). Goodboy and Myers (2008) further accentuate that one other teacher behavior that impacts learning and affect is teacher confirmation. Laing (1961) defines confirmation as to cause one to feel valued, endorsed and recognized as unique individuals. Cissna and Sieburg, (1981) defines it as “confirming behaviors are those that permit people to experience their own being and significance as well as their connectedness with others” (p. 269). In spite of the fact that confirmation is firstly studied in interpersonal communication field (Laing, 1961; Watzlawick et al., 1967), Ellis (2000, 2004) assessed its value in instructional context and conveyed that teacher confirmation transpires when students are recognized and acknowledged as significant and valuable individuals by their instructors.

Ellis (2000) found that students' cognitive and affective learning were positively related to perceived teacher confirmation. Turman and Schrodt's (2006) study revealed that perceived teacher confirmation was positively related to an instructor's perceived use of reward, expert and referent power, which can be considered as prosocial messages eliciting greater affective learning as mentioned and supported earlier by the study of Plax et al. (1986). Research (Cahn, 1984; Schrodt, Turman & Soliz, 2006) also indicate that student-centered behaviors, i.e., confirmatory behaviors, such as showing interest or responding questions lead to perceived instructor understanding and subsequently positive instructor evaluations, which may result in positive student manners and affect. Overall, the fact that confirming instructors may meet the needs of students by being approachable and open may require fewer needs for students to communicate but focus. Indeed, students are most satisfied and motivated to learn with confirming teachers (Goodboy & Myers, 2008). In light of such findings, teacher confirmation takes its place in present study.

With the research of Ellis (2000, 2004) revealing that teacher confirmation promotes active student learning and with the contention of Rosenfeld and Jarrard (1985) that classroom climate is important since it contributes student personal growth, Goodboy and Myers (2008) note that teacher confirmation may create a supportive classroom climate in this regard and ultimately it should increase positive student communication and lead to differences in learning outcomes. In their study, they came to the conclusion that competent instruction indeed involves teacher confirmation. They further suggested that, if confirmation behaviors are not employed by the instructors, it may hinder student learning and desired student communication (p. 172).

Ellis (2000) claims teacher confirmation relating student learning has been severely understudied and conveys that “little empirical attention has been paid to the confirmation construct in general and, in particular, to the role of teacher confirmation in educational contexts, such as the college classroom” (p. 265). College classroom detail is important here since preparatory school students are in a transitional period in their lives that they begin to develop their identities and seek endorsement or recognition. Affirming its attention-seeking place in the literature and students’ readiness for the impact of teacher confirmation, sample composition of this study hence comply with the variable of teacher confirmation.

Goodboy and Myers (2008, p. 174), to facilitate teacher-student communication, suggest to implement and utilize teacher confirmation behaviors in classrooms. They also maintain that student motivation was highest not in the confirming condition but in the somewhat confirming condition. Titsworth’s (2004) study supports their caveat with that high levels of teacher immediacy are not perceived as favorably by students as moderate levels, thus overuse of it may appear too confirming, unnatural and unreal. Thus, it is important to have a mild balance utilizing such behaviors and to eschew ‘overkill’ regarding nonverbal immediacy, humor and teacher confirmation. Lastly, confirmation has been claimed to be a reciprocal process (Leth, 1977; Sundell, 1972), which relates to the theory of interactional adaptation and presumably more teacher satisfaction and less attrition. Overall, along with other latent variables of this study, teacher confirmation has an important place in the context of education to be discussed and utilized properly.

2.7 Teacher Immediacy and Foreign Language Teaching

In her study, Ballester (2013) reports that learners of a foreign language feel more inclined to participate and more self-confident in their language skills with an immediate teacher. She further comments that “immediacy appears to favor affect in any classroom situation but further research is necessary, particularly in foreign language learning classrooms, where emotion plays a central role” (p. 20). She examined a sample, very simple to the sample of the present study, where first year university students taking an English as a foreign language course. She conveys that such an initial contact with a language course in the beginning of the university years creates high levels of foreign language anxiety among students and this anxiety can be eased by addressing affective domain. The relationship between teacher immediacy and affective domain has been emphasized through the previous parts of the present study. However, in the context of foreign language, the place of teacher-student interaction can be discussed through Krashen’s (1982) affective filter hypothesis. He argues anxiety may hinder input to transform into intake, i.e., transforming uttered elements into comprehension. He further postulates that the more successful methods are the ones that encourage a low filter by creating a relaxed atmosphere in which students do not feel defensive. Deneire (1995) herein notes that such high anxiety may provoke frustration and aggressive reactions for beginning foreign language learners. He urges that tension can be released through intellectual in-class humor used by the teacher and sees humor is an invaluable help in such regard. He concludes that intellectual humor serves as a great help in reaching the objectives of foreign language teaching methodology. Nonverbal communication, on the other hand, should also not be overlooked in foreign language teaching. Allen (1999) discusses nonverbal

messages as dimensions of grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence with which competency of paralinguistic elements, appropriateness and effectiveness are achieved. With Allen's assertion that nonverbal communication foster attention, provide additional context and facilitate recall in language decoding, Özmen (2010) note that it is also the teacher's duty to realize such assertion by securing attention, providing various contexts and aid recalling of information for students. Moreover, teachers' use of nonverbals may be reciprocated by students, for example, to express a word by hand that cannot be recalled, which also links to the theory of instructional adaptation. This reciprocal nature of nonverbal communication has been stressed by Darn (2005) conveying that its proper utilization fosters both language learner experiences of student and teacher effectiveness. Teacher confirmation also completes and collaborates with such a set of behaviors by reducing the distance between teachers and students, creating a rapport, an openness and a mutual understanding leading to an easiness for students to perform the target language fearlessly free of tension. Then, Ballester (2013) concludes that "teacher immediacy is indeed a key factor to motivate students, ease their pressure and favor their willingness to learn and participate in class" (p. 9).

2.8 Theory Development in Instructional Communication

Dubin (1978) notes that we need theories to impose order on unordered experiences (p. 6). Theories are sets of interrelated concepts and/or prepositions presenting a systematic view of phenomena with the purpose of explaining and helping individuals organize their experiences (Kerlinger, 1986; Shaw & Costanzo, 1970). In the study of instructional communication, regarding teaching, learning and communication, there exists such variables as teaching satisfaction, teaching motivation, student learning,

student compliance, nonverbal immediacy, humor, confirmation and so on. There is a large body of research that includes these variables in the field and studies different variations of them. An academic culture transpired within the field as time has passed. Every above-referenced variable has its own domain, myriad related research and many knowledge claims. This study tries to have an interpretation of this academic culture, composes its own philosophy stemming from the tenets of the field and tries to create its own special case by its variables and predictions. As in theorizing and imposing order on this paper to present a systematic view, rhetorical/relational goal theory and relational power and instructional influence theory from the field should be discussed as it relates to adopted interpersonal adaptation theory.

To start with, rhetorical/relational goal theory, as the names suggest, includes teachers' rhetorical and relational goals and students' relational and academic needs as variables. It has been revealed by the research that learning outcomes are influenced by the teacher communication behaviors and the student communication behaviors as well, conveying a reciprocal nature (Frymier, 1993a, 1993b; Wooten & McCroskey, 1996). Earlier in the paper, the rhetorical and relational traditions in communication have been discussed highlighting the purposes of influencing and maintaining relationships. Herein, there are two driving forces in the classroom, i.e., teacher goals and student goals/needs. The needs of students can be thought of as relational and academic. As for their academic needs, Milton, Pollio, and Eison (1986) make the distinction between learning oriented and grade oriented. Whereas for the latter the focus revolves around obtaining just grades, for the former the focus on learning the content considering the ideas and information significant. As for their relational needs, the contention is that students need to receive confirmation as persons and receive ego

support (Ellis, 2000; Frymier & Houser 2000). McCroskey et al. (2016) comment that research on immediacy always reaffirmed such relational needs of students. Yet, they propose that although students have both of these needs, different students will be driven by different needs. Teacher goals, on the other hand, are rhetorical and relational. When teachers emphasize relational goals, they consider learning as a collaborative work and try to engage students in dialogue whereas with rhetorical goals, they act as disseminators of knowledge relying on the lecture method. Similar to the previous proposition, McCroskey et al. (2016) also propose that teachers have both types of goals and only differ in the emphasis. They follow a pattern in propositions and further report that effective teaching takes place when teachers have these goals and utilize communication strategies to reach them. Moreover, when students' needs are met, they become more satisfied. In order to do so, communication behaviors such as immediacy are used strategically by the teachers. Overall, students have their needs and teachers have their goals. For an effective teaching and accomplishing rhetorical and/or relational goals, teachers can utilize their communication behaviors and meet students' needs.

Relational power and instructional influence theory discusses power as a property of social relation and focuses on how teachers and students influence each other through relational power. As relationships involve influence (Berger, 1994), power is negotiated on the basis of how well students' as well as teachers' needs are met. For long-term influence, affective domain of the students may be targeted by the teachers. Plax and Kearney (1992) note that teachers' ability to influence relies on the relational power that students yield to them. Then, students' ability to influence and demand their needs would again depend on how much they comply with teachers' needs. Thus, there

is a constant, relational and reciprocal negotiation as to which teacher can accomplish effective teaching. It is believed that the quality of teacher-student relationship is positively related to relational power (Barracough & Stewart, 1992; McCroskey & Richmond, 1992) and this relational development can be enhanced through verbal and nonverbal communication (McCroskey et al., 2016).

2.9 Interpersonal Adaptation Theory

It has been noted earlier that integration of other theories in the field of instructional communication is valuable and, till this point, the attempt to link this to IAT has been founded mostly on the concept of reciprocity. Therefore, it is appropriate to delve into the tenets of IAT and consolidate its place in the present study.

Although the terms (interpersonal-interactional) might be used interchangeably, it should be noted that interpersonal adaptation theories and interactional adaptation theory have an interesting and intertwined nature to be discussed. Interpersonal adaptation theory exists as a greater construct and referred to as the theory of theories. It overall examines dyadic interaction patterns. In the study of interpersonal communication and behavioral adaptation, there are different types of models and theories derived from biological, neurophysiological, psychological, sociological and communicative domains. Among these various interpersonal adaptation models, interactional adaptation theory falls into the category of communicative models. However, Burgoon et al.'s (1995) seminal work on the emergence of interactional adaptation theory discusses all the pre-existing models, detects their possible lacks and, with the lessons learned, offers a comprehensive final model. In this way, it connects the end to the source with a review of the field's research path. It might be the reason why they (interpersonal-interactional) are used alternatively as in

terminology. However, it should be noted that interactional adaptation theory is a communicative model among the other models of interpersonal adaptation theories and, depending on the scope of a research, it can be exploited in conjunction with the other adaptation models.

Interpersonal adaptation can be posited as a fundamental and pervasive human behavior. Interpersonal adaptation is the process where one interactant aligns his or her behavior to the other's. Such adaptation takes different forms namely reciprocity, compensation, accommodation, convergence, divergence, mimicry, matching, interactional synchrony and mirroring. Cappella (1991) asserts that with a range of behaviors such as proximity, posture changes, loudness, etc., interactants adjust to each other and develop a pattern of interaction defining and reflecting their relationship. Bernieri and Rosenthal (1991) concludes that these behaviors are “non-random, patterned or synchronized in both time and form” (p. 403). Cappella's work (1997) provides evidence regarding the importance of the theory such as that mutual adaptation is pervasive, happens in the earliest forms of encounter (like a teacher stepping into a class before a new cohort of students), relates to important relational outcomes and engenders individual differences in social skills. Therefore, Burgoon, Dunbar and White (2014) note that such a pervasive process expectedly has led to wide-ranging applicability and multidisciplinary attention. In light and spite of such facts, the field of education has still a lot to benefit from behavioral adaptation theories and models.

Interpersonal adaptation has advantages such as relationship development, social influence, marking of cultural and individual differences, maintaining social organization as well as some adverse effects. Firstly, one way of developing a close

relationship can be the rapport created and assisted by interpersonal adaptation. Research indicates that when behaviors are in coordination and sync, the interaction becomes more pleasant and engaging (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999; Lakin & Chartrand, 2003). Postulating further, it promotes attractiveness, empathy and prosocial attitudes (Fischer-Lokou, Martin, Guéguen & Lamy, 2011; Gueguen 2009; van Baaren, Holland, Kawakami & van Knippenberg, 2004). Secondly, as for social influence, it may cause to higher tips for waiters, better negotiation outcomes or a change in voting behaviors due to its prosocial concepts such as mimicry etc. (Maddux, Mullin, & Galinsky, 2008; Stel & Harinck, 2011; van Baaren, Holland, Steenaert & van Knippenberg, 2003). Thirdly, Lumsden et al. (2012) found that synchronization of nonverbal behaviors depends on individuals with or without prosocial motivations. Sanchez-Burks, Bartel and Blount's (2009) study reported a difference in the anxiety level between Anglo and Latino managers when they experience a high level of mirroring from interviewees. These last two studies put an emphasis on individual and cross-cultural differences that adaptation patterns might mark and inform about. Finally, Gouldner (1960) believes that in the sense of preserving cooperative relations in society and maintaining social organization, reciprocity is a fundamental and universal principle. However, along with these good parts, adaptation may have detrimental effects on relationships resulting from negative reciprocity (this negativity here relates to the outcomes of the form rather than the form itself) such as abuse or verbal aggressiveness (Cordova et al., 1993; Sabourin, 1995). Let's take mimicry as an example of adaptation strategy. It might translate into empathy or mockery. It depends on the magnitude of performing it and the background of the situation. Which is to say, when one mimics the other exaggeratedly and/or without a reason to do so, it will be annoying and perceived as mockery. Herein, the strategic dimension of

adaptation patterns emerges for the ones who try to study and understand its nature. Delving into such patterns occurring through interactions might let teachers to be more aware and competent to mark and tweak it for instructional purposes. As to conclude the importance of interaction adaptation, Cappella (1981) delivers beautifully:

“The one incontrovertible conclusion derived from this review is that mutual influence in expressive behaviors is a pervasive feature of social interaction, found across a variety of behaviors. This pervasiveness extends not only across behaviors but across developmental time. Very young infants, in their 1st weeks of life, and their adult caretakers show the kind of compensatory and reciprocal influences that adults exhibit later. I find such evidence striking testimony to the fundamental nature of mutual influence in human social behavior. One must be awed by the flexible yet patterned responses that social actors make to one another.” (p. 123)

Such patterned nature and its flexibility of behavior adaptation offers a lot to social science studies to be understood and functionalized and especially to education where teachers and students are in constant interaction with one another.

The theory has been introduced by Burgoon, Stern, and Dillman (1995) to address the undervalued effect of interactional behaviors on dyads and it is designed to predict and explain the patterns of adaptation that occur in interaction. Even though it mostly focuses on daily dyadic interactions, and is comprised of two people, it is not difficult to perceive that their work has such a heuristic value to be interpreted and integrated. This integration happens into family relations or business interactions but also into teacher-student exchanges (Burgoon et al., 1995, p. 15). Herein, immediacy and thus enhanced affection will help teachers to exist on a more individualistic dimension with students paving the way for interactional adaptation's dyadic nature to be integrated and exploited both theoretically and practically. The theory has mainly nine guiding

principles and five fundamental concepts. The fourth, fifth and sixth guiding principles can be discussed as it can be directly linked to teacher-student interaction.

As the fourth principle conveys, on a polite social dimension, people tend to match and reciprocate each other's behaviors. However, it has been argued that it happens more when there are no role-related behaviors, such as two strangers would smile at each other at a gathering, yet not in a routine task interaction in a workplace where compensatory patterns take place instead or in a classroom. For instance, Mahl (1987) found that extreme close or far distances led to failure in therapy sessions since this extreme degree of distance created some urge to compensate by moving closer or farther. Such urges may distract people from being fulfilled. Thereby, in the education context, teachers' proxemics and physical being with students can be perceived similarly that letting such urge to emerge may lead to discomfort and loss of focus.

As for the fifth guiding principle, on the communication level, both reciprocity and compensation may occur. For instance, to create rapport an interactant might perform reciprocity like responding to a smile with a smile, while a librarian might compensate by lowering his or her voice to send a message to one who speaks loudly. At this juncture, Palmer and Simmons (1993) acknowledge that for eliciting the intended behaviors, such nonverbal behaviors can be strategically utilized. However, they note that selection of such strategies occurs automatically and in a covert way. Burgoon et al. (1995) presume here that the same applies for adaptation patterns. Nevertheless, at the end, interactants achieve their interactional goals. Teachers then perhaps with the right training, may become autonomous to apply such nonverbal behaviors to achieve instructional objectives.

The sixth principle communicates that despite biological and sociological pressures to adapt and change, there are several other factors such as awareness, ability or culture affecting the degree of adaptation. Which is to say, early establishment of interaction patterns will probably show consistency over time. Teachers and students' early interactions therefore gains importance as to establishing perpetual patterns.

The fundamental concepts of the theory, on the other hand, might take up a prescriptive mission as well as descriptive, which may help us to delineate and predict interaction patterns among teachers and students along with possible strategic moves to be applied when the system of the model is understood. Burgoon et al. (1995) follow the principle Ockham's razor for a parsimonious model and try to use as few as possible terms to avoid confusion. Ockham's razor principle dictates to use no more assumptions than necessary. Burgoon and others also acknowledge the probable hazards of such simplification and invite readers to join developing the model in the future. With the experience and critique of previous models, they come up with five fundamental concepts, the first three of which are *required (R)*, *expected (E)* and *desired (D)* levels of behavior. Required level refers to basic human drives and needs such as safety, comfort, survival, affiliation, etc. Biological factors strongly influence *R* level. Expectation level is based on social norms and it mostly reflects social factors, stemming from cultural norms. It is the expected norm, for instance, to salute back. Desired level, on the other hand, is quite personalized including one's goals, likes and dislikes. *D* level is about personal-specific factors. As in the example of saluting, it becomes an idiosyncratic behavior (e.g. fist-bump) between two close friends. These three levels are interrelated, that is, one may be influenced by the other two. *RED* levels come together and combine to predict the fourth concept, which is the

interactional position, or *IP*. It is the behavioral predisposition of a person. It might be self's likely behavioral choice or the partner's. It can be considered as the expected interactional positioning of the interactants.

In classroom context, for example, when students' biological needs are not satisfied, their *IP* will be conditioned out of hunger or need for the bathroom. Teachers then cannot expect students to be interactionally positioned to comply with the instructional objectives. Thus, they should consider such needs, be in an open communication with students and try to eliminate such hurdles before starting lessons.

Burgoon et al. (1995) accentuate that in time "interaction patterns become less restrained by cultural norms and biological imperatives (less ritualistic) and more governed by individual psychological differences; that is, they become more idiosyncratic and dyadically negotiated" (p. 269). In an educational context then, when teachers and students meet for the first time, *E* is the dominant behavioral level on the *IP*. However, say, towards the end of a semester, *D* level reveals itself and students abide less and there transpires a negotiation between them and teachers regarding their personal desires. It implies the importance of the interaction from the beginning of the semester to the end since the negotiation settles itself along the way in an idiosyncratic fashion.

In the case of education, since it cannot be the students, it is the teachers who are the agents to be trained aware of such possible interaction patterns and communicatively thus strategically competent. In a way, teaching is causing behavioral adaptation already by definition. However, the direction the students adapt their behaviors to is what IAT might inform us about.

The theory posits that the direction of behavioral adaptation is toward whichever more positively valenced, that is, liked, the *IP* or *A*. Students' *IP* and teachers' *A* can be compared here. Teachers and students spend a relatively long time together. As mentioned before, among *RED* levels of behavior, desired (*D*) level of behaviors has its superior influence on the *IP* with the increased familiarity. Thereby, it results in the negotiation of interaction patterns between teachers and students through the semesters, which highlights the importance of communication in class if it is to aim to cause a change in student behavior.

From another perspective, initially, students' *IP* is more positively valenced and liked than teachers' *A* since they do not know him or her fully and trust their *IP*. Most of the time, their anti-learning dispositions consolidate their *IP*. Thus, it makes things difficult for teachers to accomplish compliance in the classroom due to students' divergent behaviors. However, as mentioned earlier, interaction patterns are open to negotiation as students spend time with teachers and it gives a chance to teachers to have the impact. Burgoon et al. (1995) contend that the objective is to minimize the gap between *A* and *IP* by modelling the desired behavior and expecting a reciprocal response. To direct valencing/liking towards teachers' *A*, then, teachers' prosocial messages may play an important role. As though it was a desired behavioral adaptation case for classrooms, they note that;

“Consider the alternative where the discrepancy is positively valenced (i.e., $A > IP$) and may be a positive violation of expectations. We predict that interactants will be propelled in the direction of *A*, that is, they will converge behavior toward that of the partner, resulting in matching or reciprocity. Such movements have the advantage of shifting own behavior toward a more desired objective and possibly achieving greater behavioral meshing”. (p. 270)

Such discrepancy and a valence shift toward teachers' A will result from teacher immediacy and their prosocial approach and thus result in matching and reciprocity creating harmonious teacher-student interactions. Enhanced immediacy will also be an aid for teachers to exist on a dyadic level with students.

Burgoon et al. (1995) also stress that IAT does not imply causality or linearity and state that behaviors have a curvilinear relationship with evaluation. However, the heuristic value of the model is evident and integration of it to the field of education may indeed lead to ripple effects both theoretically and practically. These discussed and interpreted assumptions of IAT will be tested on the case of this study.

2.10 Attendance

Attendance, especially as students get older, stands as a major concern for educators (Devadoss & Foltz; 1996; Romer, 1993). There have been a body of literature engendered through time, which revealed student-related reasons for absenteeism such as students' feeling that class was boring, the presence of other ways to learn or having notes, weather conditions, feeling tired or sick, student motivation, usage of drugs or alcohol, doing work for other classes and paying for one's own education (Devadoss & Foltz, 1996; Galichon & Friedman, 1985; Romer, 1993; Van Blerkom, 1992). Same body of literature also notes class meeting times and days as other variables that are beyond the control of students influencing attendance. Rocca (2004) accentuates that, even though it is important to take student-related factors into account to understand absenteeism, the impact of instructors on attendance did not get enough attention and related research is rare. It has been found that teacher liking, teachers with awards and teachers who receive good student evaluations are signs of better student attendance (Devadoss & Foltz, 1996; Galichon & Friedman, 1985; Romer, 1993). However, there

certainly exists a need for further research investigating instructor variables. Since research is mostly on student related factors in the literature, Beaulieu (1984) also conveys that other variables of other populations such as instructors ought to be examined further. Herein, Rocca (2004) did a study on the relationship between attendance and teacher immediacy in higher education and found immediacy positively related to attendance. The study utilized self-reports attendance measures and it has been revealed that when instructors are perceived as immediate, students reported missing fewer classes and attending more. The results have been supported by the real absenteeism data obtained from the institution. In another study, Mottet et al. (2006) found that nonverbal immediacy preserved student affect toward the instructor regardless of the workload. The connection between affective domain and attendance has been tried to be drawn through the present study and thereby hypotheses have been formed accordingly. At this juncture, the cultural dimension of the teacher immediacy interpretations and its relation to affective learning is an important aspect to consider. Research exists regarding this issue and suggests differences among cultural backgrounds of students (McCroskey et al., 1996; Powell & Harville, 1990; Sanders & Wiseman, 1990). Thus, the present study carries a cultural value to contribute to the literature in this regard. Teacher immediacy, by reducing psychological distance, positively influence student motivation, their desire to seek out-of-class contact and ultimately decrease absenteeism (Christophel, 1990; Jaasma & Koper, 1999; Rocca, 2004). The present study therefore forms its own case in its own cultural background. Rocca (2004) uses nonverbal immediacy as a variable of teacher immediacy. Nevertheless, she concludes her study with the future directions that other instructor communication variables, which are humor or confirmation in our case, should be included to investigate the impact of teacher-student interaction on

student attendance. Overall, it is a plain fact that attendance is a fundamental condition for classroom communication to take place and research on it is warranted. The significant relationship between attendance and class performance has been confirmed (Romer, 1993; White, 1992). Thus, Devadoss and Foltz (1996) urge that “the clear challenge to educators is to identify and implement measures that will increase class attendance” (p. 506). The present study confronts this challenge.

2.11 Summary

The approach of the present study and related studies have been conveyed and discussed through the chapter. After the introductory chapter, this chapter has investigated and delved into the basic concepts, theories and related studies of the thesis deeper. Instructional communication forms the biggest portion of the study. Thus, the chapter begins with it and provides a base to build on. Then, panecastic philosophy has been discussed as it relates to the approach of thesis and delineates a bigger picture to pursue after. The immediacy construct has been examined in detail next since it serves as a center of gravity that the thesis revolves around. Having shed light on the variables, foreign language teaching and its relations to the study have been discussed since the study is conducted in such a setting. It is followed by theoretical perspectives that guide the thesis after which a transition to interactional adaptation theory took place. After setting the intertwined theoretical framework, the attendance issue and its related literature concludes the chapter.

While the study prepares itself for its specific case, a preparatory school in a Turkish university, the chapter alone provides insights for educational practitioners and researchers across grades thanks to its attempt to present an overall composition of readers’ possible interests. Houser (2002) points out that immediacy research, datum

point of this thesis, and its related variables has always caused positive responses from students of all ages for immediate and approachable teachers. Therefore, the chapter informs a variety of populations, say, practitioners of K-12, preparatory school instructors and researchers from related fields thanks to the merits of such a compilation. Moreover, educational leaders as well play an important role in the system and they might also consider the tenets of the present study. For instance, Shulman (1986) indicates a disagreement among educational leaders regarding their perception on what constitutes teacher effectiveness in spite of the presence of such assessment instruments. McCroskey and Richmond (1991) convey that it is a responsibility of instructional leaders that they should model effective instructional communication behaviors, i.e., they ought to walk the talk. Thereby, educational leaders too reserve their places as an audience in this study. At his juncture, what this study tries to convey about teachers can be easily conceived as being nice, thus there exists a misperception toward effective instructors. In case of an instructor who is relational and rhetorically effective, students feel free to make demands but comply with instructional demands in return whereas such negotiation does not transpire with less effective teachers. McCroskey et al. (2016, p. 304) herein lament that effective teachers are misperceived as being easy and/or lacking rigor in their classes. However, they further comment that those are the teachers in demand and utilizing such communication principles make them more rigorous. Exceptional teachers are always a bit marginal due to the nature of communication they are able to develop with students. Such misperception on communicatively able teachers should be obviated.

The chapter then can be concluded with the postulation of Bregman (1977) who views all behavior as the novel compositions of established properties. From this standpoint,

Greene (1984) argues that “if we are to develop models of the communicative output system, then we must come to grips with the concurrent novel and repetitive aspects of social behavior, suggesting two basic processes: selection of old elements and construction of novel patterns” (p. 290). Even if such understanding mostly informs research in cognition and language, it evidently relates to student outcomes as communicative outputs. Hence, the methodology part of the present study with its instrumentation indeed presents a combination of pre-existing immediacy elements and provide a novel communication pattern for teachers to follow to achieve instructional goals and effectiveness.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter presents information about the overall design of the study, sampling, instrumentation, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.2 Overall Design of the Study

For a study to truly follow a mixed method research design and to be called so, there needs to be a true integration of findings and inferences of both types (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007, p. 4). Thus, the nature of a mixed research design, which has both quantitative and qualitative components, depends upon this integration issue. Herein, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006) convey that when there is little or no integration of findings that are collected both qualitatively and quantitatively, the design can be labelled as quasi-mixed. The present study has the focus on mostly its quantitative component with the questionnaire, which is followed by interviews conducted with students. Therefore, the design of the present study is Quasi-Mixed, since there is no true integration of qualitative findings that is treated as merely supplementary. The qualitative side of the design simply aims to enhance the study.

The aim of the present study is to delineate the nature of teacher-student interaction at a foundation Turkish university's preparatory school, seek relationship between this

interaction and students' perceived attendance and uncover some anecdotal data to gain some insights regarding this interaction through students' perceptions. Thence, to find answers for such issues, both quantitative and qualitative data were necessary. For the quantitative part, the researcher has developed a scale named The TSIS (Teacher-Student Interaction Scale). Descriptive and inferential analyses further have taken place to find some answers for the research questions. IBM SPSS Statistics 24 was used to conduct the analyses. As for the qualitative part, the researcher has followed the suggestions of Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 200) regarding structuring the interviews.

3.3 Research Questions

The research questions regarding the purpose of this study are listed below:

1. What is the nature of teacher-student interaction in a preparatory school of a foundation university in Turkey?
2. Is there a significant relationship between teacher-student interaction and students' level of perceived attendance?
3. What are the views of students about the salient themes of teacher-student interaction surveys conducted in their university and about the effect of these themes on their attendance?

3.4 Sample

The sample of the study consists of 180 university preparatory school students at a foundation university in Turkey. The nature of teacher student interaction at a specific institution and students' perceptions regarding such interaction have been examined descriptively without further generalizability claims. Therefore, convenience sampling

has been chosen for this study to exploit the readily available participants to the researcher and to collect data in a practical way. This sampling method can also be considered effective for scale construction processes and piloting. The student population of the preparatory school in the studied university was already not large. Thus, the researcher tried to reach them all. The university had two campuses, one in Nevşehir and one in İstanbul. The researcher himself visited every classroom in Nevşehir campus and conducted the questionnaire. For the campus in İstanbul, previously informed instructors applied the questionnaires in their classrooms and sent them back to the researcher. Very few classes were not included since they were taking lessons at the time of data collection.

Demographic characteristics of the participant were gathered with the scale applied such as gender, age, department, employment status and English proficiency of students, gender of the teachers and class size. There were 117 (65%) female and 63 (35%) male students. The teachers that the questionnaires filled for were all female. The mean value for the age of the students was 19.7 and for the size of the classroom it was 23. As for the students' employment status, 144 (80%) of them stated 'not working' while 32 (17.8%) of them responded working as 'part-time' and 3 (1.7%) of them as 'full-time'. Overall department distribution can be classified as 120 (66.6%) natural sciences students, 28 (15.6%) social sciences students and 32 (17.8%) non-respondents. As for participants' high school type, it is observed that 41 (22.8%) of them graduated from a private high school, 63 (35%) students from anatolian high school, 59 (32.8%) students from vocational high school, 3 (1.7%) students from science high school and 13 (7.2%) of them stated as 'other' namely open high school or religious vocational high school. For the English proficiency level of students, 40

(22.2%) of them marked Elementary, 64 (35.6%) students marked Pre-Intermediate, 55 (30.6%) students marked Intermediate, 55 (30.6%) students marked Upper-Intermediate. For the number of the year students have known English follows as 77 (42.8%) for 1-5 years, 68 (37.8%) for 5-10 years and 34 (18.9%) for above 10 years. Finally, 23 (12.8%) of the students also stated that they knew an extra language rather than their native tongue or English, which were mostly German and Arabic.

3.5 Instrumentation

The TSIS (Teacher-Student Interaction Scale) was designed to understand the nature of interaction between the instructors and the students as well as to inquire about students' perceived attendance. First of all, it was needed to understand such an interaction and to decide the underlying constructs of it. Herein, instructional communication literature lays the groundwork. It is a field of study which benefits from three research areas, i.e., educational psychology, pedagogy, and communication studies (Mottet & Beebe, 2006). Instructional communication literature focuses on the learner, the instructor and the meaning exchanged either verbal or nonverbal. Therefore, it centers on the communicative factors in the teaching-learning process (Friedrich, 1989; Staton, 1989). After the review of literature, three dimensions appeared to be proposed, namely Nonverbal Immediacy, Humor and Teacher Confirmation. For Nonverbal Immediacy, *Nonverbal Immediacy Scale - Observer Report* (Richmond, McCroskey & Johnson, 2003), for Humor, *Humor Orientation Scale* (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1991), and for Teacher Confirmation, *Teacher Confirmation Scale* (Ellis, 2000) have been taken as references to create a new scale. For nonverbal immediacy scale, the developer of the scale states its public availability without permission. (Appendix G). For humor scale permission, see

Appendix F. For teacher confirmation scale, an email was sent to the developer for permission. The items in the TSIS scale were adapted from these original scales. The scale was administered in Turkish to assure that they were understood fully even if the students were learning English at the time. The chosen items were translated into Turkish by the help of two English instructors, one of whom is an English-Turkish translator. The translations were compared and the best versions were picked accordingly. Expert opinions have been gathered regarding the validity of the newly constructed scale. Having chosen three dimensions, an item pool with five-point rating scale from “totally disagree” to “totally agree” emerged with 32-items.

3.5.1 Pilot Study

291 university preparatory school students apart from the ones of the main study participated in this pilot study. Some demographic information was gathered before conducting the TSIS (Teacher-Student Interaction Scale) so that the underlying dynamics of the sample can be understood clearly from the perspective of this study, some of which are gender, age, department, employment status and English proficiency of students, gender of the teachers and class size. There were 199 (68,4%) female and 90 (30.9%) male students. 2 (0.7%) students did not prefer to state their genders. For the gender of their teachers, 147 (50,5%) participants stated their teachers as male and 144 (49,5%) participants stated as female. 19.2 was the mean value for the age of the students and 20.74 was the mean value for the size of the classrooms. As for the students' employment status, 275 (94,5%) of them stated ‘not working’ while 12 (4.1%) of them responded as ‘part-time’ and 4 (1.4%) of them as ‘full-time’. Overall department distribution can be classified as 96 (33%) natural sciences students, 176 (57,4%) social sciences students and 28 (9,6%) non-respondents. When it comes

to participants' high school type, it is observed that 137 (47.1%) of them graduated from a private high school, 115 (39,5%) students from anatolian high school, 11 (3.8%) students from vocational high school, 8 (2.7%) students from science high school, 4 (1.4%) students from social sciences high school and 14 (4.8%) of them stated as 'other' namely open high school or religious vocational high school. For the English proficiency level of students, 11 (3.8%) of them marked Elementary, 103 (35.4%) students marked Pre-Intermediate, 69 (23.7%) students marked Intermediate, 107 (36.8%) students marked Upper-Intermediate and 1 (0.3%) student marked Advanced while for the number of the year students have known English follows as 107 (36.8%) for 1-5 years, 128 (44%) for 5-10 years and 55 (18.9%) for above 10 years. Lastly, 41 (24.1%) of the students also stated that they knew an extra language rather than their native tongue or English, which were Arabic, French, Russian, Spanish, Kurdish, Greek, Korean, Urdu, Persian and mostly German (14 students).

3.5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of the TSIS

Exploratory factor analysis is conducted with principal axis factoring that is chosen as the extraction method to reveal the underlying structures of the scale and to explore the data. It is a descriptive method, which will be used for descriptive purposes in our case, and assuming that the sample used is the population itself so the results are restricted to the sample collected (Field, 2000). Another reason to choose principal axis factoring over principal component factoring is to seek the least number of factors to emerge. The early trials with other extraction methods showed an abundant number of factors which is over the expected number of factors by the researcher. Moreover, last but not least, Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999) recommend principal factor methods when the assumption of normality is severely violated. Since

the TSIS is a non-parametric Likert type response scale and it is so difficult to meet multivariate normality assumption (Hoyle & Panter, 1995), it leads us to the principal axis factoring for SPSS software (Osborne, 2014). The results of KMO measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity revealed that it was appropriate to conduct a factor analysis with the BTS value= 2802,874, $p < 001$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy with the value of 0.93, which was 'marvelous' as it is evaluated so by Kaiser and Rice (2014). 32 items were factor analyzed, yet the explained total variance was quite low, i.e., cumulatively it was under %45 for the first 3 factors Eigenvalues of which greater than 1. In the social sciences, it is the trend to consider a solution that accounts for 60 percent of the total variance as satisfactory (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2019). Therefore, items were examined individually and many trials with different variations were carried out. To understand the problematic items better, individual items' communalities, which is the proportion of common variance within a variable, were examined initially. When the low ones, each under 0.350, are removed from the analysis, there was a substantial increase in the total variance explained, from which it can be understood that those were the weak items regarding explaining the variance. However, the problem is not only with the communalities of the items. Some items did not get together with their expected dimensions and formed different and mixed dimensions, which is labeled as 'Cross-Loading' in Appendix C. Multicollinearity and singularity are common issues which threaten the fair correlation between variables and cause undesired high or perfect correlations between them. This problem also revealed itself in the piloting of the TSIS. Some variables' significance values in the correlation matrix are scanned and the ones for which the majority of values are greater than 0.05 were removed to avoid singularity in the data (Field, 2000). As for the normality of the variables, it was

not checked since there was no desire to generalize the results of this survey and non-parametric statistics like Likert-type scales are distribution free. Finally, for sub-dimensions to occur was not expected. Thereby, item 27 and item 30 which are not appropriate to the emerged factors have been dismissed. These two items, labeled as 'Not Compatible', were loaded onto unsuitable factors that they were not compatible with the name and the emerging nature of the dimension.

After all, 19 items were left and analysis was conducted accordingly. In the reproduced correlations table, there were 5 (2,0%) nonredundant residuals with absolute values greater than 0.05 which is quite below %50 as Field (2000) suggests it to be. When an oblique rotation was applied with direct oblimin, factor score indeterminacy, a controversial phenomenon, occurred with the items negatively loading to a factor, which is problematic since there is no consensus on whether factor score indeterminacy should remain plausible or not (Schönemann & Steiger, 1978). The correlation between factors, on the other hand, was also negative and relatively low with direct oblimin rotation. When promax was chosen as the rotation, the negative loadings disappeared and the correlation between variables increased. So conducted with promax rotation method, four factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1. The cumulative percentage of variance explained was over %65 this time, which is sufficient and conceptually valid as mentioned earlier.

There were originally 3 dimensions expected to be interpreted as Humor, Nonverbal Immediacy and Teacher Confirmation. However, Teacher Confirmation was divided into two dimensions. Field (2000) says it is due to the fact that the scale either failed to measure what it is meant to or they are sub-components. When the article is examined where the scale of Teacher Confirmation is developed (Ellis, 2000), it is

seen that it indeed corresponds to sub-components of Teacher Confirmation, i.e., Teaching Style, Response to Questions and Demonstrated Interest. Please see Table 3.1 below for the pattern matrix. All items had pattern coefficients higher than 0.45.

Stevens (1992) contends that squaring factor loading gives an estimate of the amount of variance in a factor accounted for by a variable. Thus, the absolute value of 0.45 explains around %20 of variance which is quite optimal. Suppressed absolute value has been chosen accordingly. The values are suppressed for the easy interpretation of the matrix. Table 3.2 shows Cronbach's Alpha coefficients calculated in the pilot according to the dimensions.

Table 3.2

Cronbach's Alpha Values of the Factors According to Pilot Study

Dimensions	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Nonverbal Immediacy	2	.72
Humor	6	.82
Teacher Confirmation (Response to Questions)	4	.84
Teacher Confirmation (Demonstrated Interest and Style)	7	.89

There only emerged 2 items for Nonverbal Immediacy latent construct. Although literature is not much in favor of such low number of items for a construct and suggesting minimum of 3 items (Cook, Wall, Warr & Hepworth, 1981) or 4 items (Harvey, Billings & Nilan, 1985), there does not exist a rule of thumb regarding this cut-off value.

Table 3.1

EFA Pattern Matrix of the TSIS

Items	Teacher Confirmation (Interest - St)	Humor	Teacher Confirmation (Response)	Nonverbal Immediacy
19. checks on my understanding before going on to the next point.	.885			
16. asks me how the class is going or how assignments are coming along.	.858			
9. communicates that he/she is interested whether I am learning.	.769			
32. makes an effort to get to know me.	.712			
13. uses a variety of teaching techniques to help me understand material.	.667			
31. communicates that s/he believes I can do well in the class.	.592			
2. gives oral or written feedback on my work.	.529			
20. can be funny without having to rehearse a joke.		.816		
7. I usually laugh when s/he tells a joke or story.		.658		
22. of all the instructors I know, s/he is the funniest.		.631		
29. cannot tell a joke well.		.588		
17. being funny is a natural communication style of him/her.		.573		
4. use humor to communicate in a variety of situations.		.572		
28. takes time to answer my questions fully.			.793	
25. is available for questions before and after class.			.777	
26. indicates that s/he appreciates my questions or comments.			.572	
23. listens attentively when I ask questions or make comments during class.			.469	
3. uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.				.735
1. gestures while talking to the class.				.691

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations. Suppressed by size: .45

For instance, Yoo and Dontu (2001) developed a scale with 4 dimensions 3 of which have 2 items. It may even be advantageous to keep a short measure for biased

responses resulting from boredom (Schmitt & Stults, 1985; Schriesheim & Eisenbach, 1990). Moreover, these 2 items were always together in pattern matrices of different variations and with a relatively high correlation in between for the final matrix of EFA ($r > .570$). Cronbach's alpha value for these items is above .70 which is acceptable in the sense that this set of items are closely related as a group (Cortina, 1993). Worthington and Whittaker (2006) contend that it does not matter much as long as it is interpreted meaningfully at the end.

Hair et al. (2019, p. 668) also convey that although having multiple items is the safest approach, even a single item can be sufficient for a construct provided that they are easily understood and distinct. These 2 items have proven themselves distinctive with early EFA trials, which led to the belief that the construct is adequately represented. However, it is risky to have a 2-item construct since the probability of a good fit model for CFA is low.

Field (2000) notes that the determinant of the correlation matrix should be greater than the value of 0.00001. It is presumed that it is better to check the determinant at the end since the cluster of items always change. In our case, the determinant value, 0.00003723 is greater than the limit, i.e., 0.00001. Thus, multicollinearity is not an issue for this set of data, which makes it appropriate for factor analysis.

After the exploratory factor analysis, the final version of the TSIS (See Appendix D) emerged with 19 items on four dimensions as follows;

1. Nonverbal Immediacy (IMM) (2 items): Having students report on their instructors' behaviors that make them able to decrease physical, thus, psychological distance with students; "e.g. *Our instructor uses a lot of*

vocal variety when he/she talks to class.” and “e.g. Our instructor gestures while talking to the class.”

2. Teacher Humor Orientation (HM) (6 items): Having students report on their instructors regarding how frequently and/or successfully they use humor in class; *“e.g. Being funny is a natural communication style of our instructor.”* or *“e.g. I usually laugh when my instructor tells a joke or story.”*
3. Teacher Confirmation - Demonstrated Interest and Style (DI) (7 items): Having students report on behaviors that their instructors use to show interest and to show that they are using an interactive teaching style; *“e.g. Our instructor asks me how the class is going and/or how assignments are coming along.”* or *“e.g. Our instructor uses a variety of teaching techniques to help students understand course material.”*
4. Teacher Confirmation – Response to Questions (RQ) (4 items): Having students report on behaviors that their instructors use to show that they are responding to questions; *“e.g. Our instructor takes time to answer my questions fully.”* or *“e.g. Our instructor listens attentively when I ask questions or make comments during class.”*

3.5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of the TSIS

The modified and final 19-item version of the TSIS was administered to 180 university preparatory school students who are the participants of the main study as well. The demographics were similar to those of EFA. The analysis was done with the linear structural relations (LISREL) version 8.8 (Vieira, 2011) statistical package. As it is for most of the statistical packages, the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation technique

is used as the default option. ML estimation technique has the assumption of normality (Cortina, Chin & Dunlap, 2001) and in structural equation modelling (SEM) practices, it is important to pay attention to issues regarding this assumption (Hoyle & Panter, 1995; Vieira, 2011) since it may cause problems such as inflating chi-square statistics or affecting standard errors (Baumgartner & Homburg 1996; Hair et al., 2019; Steenkamp & van Trijp 1991). With the help of SPSS, firstly, the Shapiro-Wilk test values were checked and it is seen that all the p -values were significant ($p < .05$) rejecting the assumption of normal distribution. Then, the frequency tables were used to check skewness and kurtosis values of the data set and the skewness index was found between -2 and +2 and kurtosis index between -3 and +3. The assumption of normal distribution can be perceived as a controversial topic regarding its necessity or its cut-off values when the literature is read thoroughly. For instance, Bryne (2010) suggested the indices for skewness to be between - 2 to +2 and for kurtosis to be between - 7 to +7 to meet normality assumption. Kline (2011) suggested the values of skewness to be between -3 and +3 and for kurtosis to be between -10 and +10. Nevertheless, it is also seen in the literature that skewness and kurtosis values between -2 to +2 can be acceptable (George & Mallery, 2010; Khan, 2015) or it should be between -3 and +3 for skewness and between -2 and +2 for kurtosis (Chemingui & Ben lallouna, 2013). When the values are analyzed in our case, some individual kurtosis values do not seem to be fit for normality. However, Hair et al. (2019) contend that with large sample sizes, violation caused by kurtosis might be mitigated, which is not excessive already with our data set since there are only 3 items right above the index value of 2. ML as an estimation technique that is robust against moderate violations of the normality (Bollen, 1989; Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2009). Moreover, as mentioned above, Hair et al. (2019) communicate that with large sample

sizes, which should be above 100 or more (Anderson & Gerbing 1988; Steenkamp & van Trijp 1991) and it is 180 participants in our case, we are safe against the violations of the multivariate normality assumption. Herein, Barnes, Cote, Cudeck and Malthouse (2001) convey that “the distribution of variables measured on such scales (Likert-type) are often skewed toward one end of the scale, uniform, or even bimodal” (p. 80) and, thus, non-normal distribution is a non-issue in the first place. It is about robustness. They suggest to go on with the analysis sticking to ML estimation technique if the distributions are not ‘wildly’ non-normal, which seems to be the case with our data set. Thereby, we can expect the results of analysis to be trustworthy.

In order to evaluate how close of a fit the model has, Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non-normed fit index (NNFI or known as the Tucker-Lewis index; TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) values have been taken into account. (Bentler & Bonett 1980; Bentler, 1990; Steiger & Lind, 1980; Tucker & Lewis, 1973). Chi-square statistics have been avoided since it is quite sensitive to sample size (Gatignon, 2009). Kline (1998) advocates that values of NFI and CFI should be higher than .90 to indicate a good fit. Hu and Bentler (1999), on the other hand, claim NFI, TLI and CFI to be higher than .95 to be considered as a close fit. In any case, the goodness of fit indices of the present CFA are already above such cutoff criteria (NFI = 0.97; TLI = 0.99 CFI = 0.99). Along with supporting CFI value to be higher than .95, Salkind (2010, p. 692) suggests RMSEA value be less than .06. Browne and Cudeck (1993) note that up until .08 is acceptable for Root Mean Square Error Approximation index. Hu and Bentler (1999) also agree on this limit. The present CFA has an RMSEA value of .053, which easily satisfies such conditions. Salkind (2010) accentuates that “RMSEA is probably the most respected measure of a close

fit” (p. 692). Along with other fit indices, RMSEA perfectly meets the cutoff criteria. Therefore, it can be said that what is explored by EFA has been confirmed by CFA with above indices indicating a good fit (See Appendix D). For the model specification and the parameter estimates, please see Figure 1. The dimensions as well have been allowed to correlate within each other and standardized coefficients have been chosen to be reported due to its easiness to interpret. It has been suggested that standardized coefficients should be .5 or higher to indicate convergent validity. (Hair et al., 2019, p. 663; Hildebrandt, 1987; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991) Which is to say, higher the coefficient value better the convergent validity. It should also be noted that Garver and Mentzer (1999) show .70 as a benchmark value to indicate convergent validity for loadings of items. For the present analysis, most of the items are above this benchmark. Steenkamp and van Trijp (1991) further comment that overall good fit of the model strengthens the evidence of convergent validity. Therefore, standardized coefficient values of the model seem satisfactory.

When internal consistency reliabilities of the items are examined, Cronbach alpha coefficient values have been found as .85 for HM, .87 for RQ, .89 for DI and lastly .67 for IMM. Nonverbal immediacy construct value seems to be problematic since it is below Nunnally’s rule-of-thumb, that is, .07 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p. 264). However, in such cases, inter-item correlation matrix is advised to be consulted to see if the mean values range from .20 to .40 within the construct (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). Briggs and Cheek (1986) emphasize that if the correlation is too high, there might not be new information yielded by individual items. On the other hand, if the correlation is too low, heterogeneity may arise as a problem. This value for IMM construct is .46, slightly above the suggested range, which might be acceptable believing their power

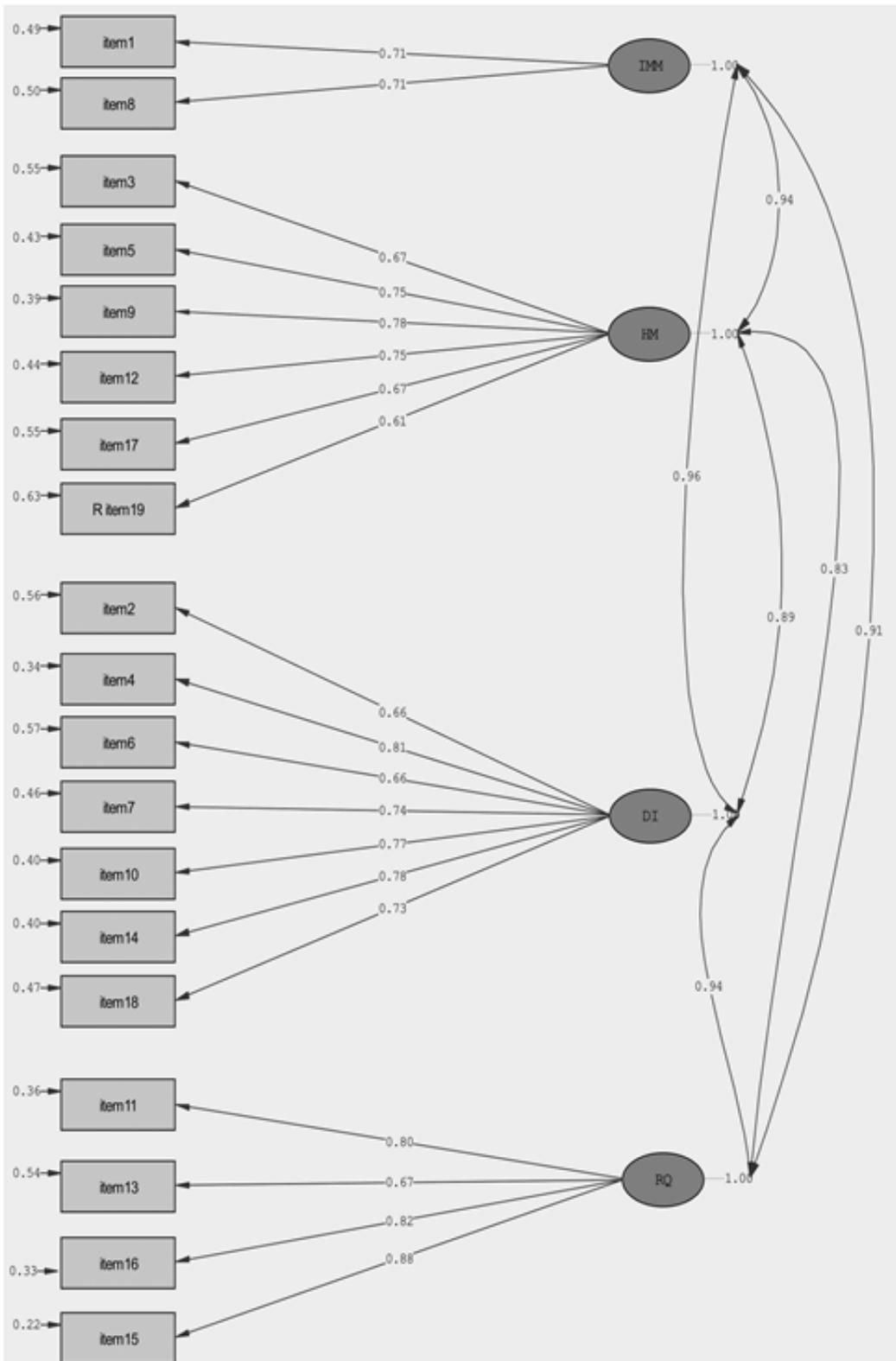


Figure 3.1. Standardized Coefficients for the Four-Factor Model of the TSIS. Chi-square = 219.09, $df = 146$, $p < 0.01$, Normed FIT Index = 0.97; Tucker-Lewis Index = 0.99; Comparative Fit Index = 0.99; Root Mean Square Error Approximation: 0.05.

to differentiate from each other. Moreover, when the items of this construct are deleted, there does not seem any improvement on item-total Cronbach's alpha value, which is encouraging as well to preserve the construct. Finally, item-total correlations for each item is above .60, only two slightly below, which contributes to the supposition that there is overall satisfactory reliability.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

Before data collection, as for satisfying institutional review board (IRB) standards, Human Research Ethical Committee (HREC) of Middle East Technical University has revised the present study and provided the approval in January, 2020. Please see Appendix A. Hassan, Schattner and Mazza (2006) convey:

“A pilot study should preferably be done using subjects from a population that is different from those recruited for the main study since experience gained by subjects in the pilot study may bias the results of the main study if the same subjects are included.” (p. 71)

Therefore, two data collection phases have taken place in two foundation universities. Thanks to the first one, exploratory factor analysis has been applied and the last version of the scale was formed. Then, the main analyses along with confirmatory factor analysis have been applied with the students from another university where the nature of teacher student interaction was tried to be examined. For both of the phases of data collection, Volunteer Consent Forms (Appendix B) have been gathered. This form explained the objectives of the study to the students and confirmed the approval of Human Research Ethical Committee (HREC) of Middle East Technical University for the study. They were also informed about the fact that confidentiality and anonymity will be ensured and their information will not be shared with third parties. The consent

form conveyed that they could withdraw from the study any time they wanted as well. All students accepted to take part in the research and signed the consent forms.

3.6.1 Student Interviews

Having conducted the questionnaires, interviews took place to be able to collect student reflections on the results. After notifying the university about this procedure, students were contacted firstly via messages thanks to their phone numbers that they shared with the researcher on their consent forms. The researcher informed them about the interview in the messages and asked if they were willing to participate. Randomly chosen and gender-wise equally distributed 20 students were contacted with messages. 15 students representing each classroom accepted to participate, which was already the target number for the interviewees. The interviews were recorded in order to be analyzed later on and students were informed for it directly in the beginning of the call. Between 10 and 20 minutes of interviews were conducted with the students and following questions were chosen as the main structure of the calls:

- Were you overall happy with your instructors?
- We have observed that a better teacher student interaction, the instructors who got better scores from the survey, relates to higher perceived attendance of students. What could be the reasons?
- Do you think that with the instructors that you like the interaction of, like the items from the questionnaire, you learn more as well?
- The humor construct in the questionnaire had the lowest scores and thus a successful humor usage for your instructors was not observed. Why?
- There are also items which got low scores such as 's/he tries to get to know me' or 'asks about how the lesson and homework go' or 'believes in my success'. Why?
- How was your distant learning journey? Was it effective? Why?

3.7 Data Analysis

With IBM SPSS Statistics 24, descriptive and inferential statistical procedures have been applied. Principal Axis Factoring and One-Way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance were utilized to analyze the data. In order to group the latent variables, factor analysis was applied with promax rotation. Confirmatory factor analysis has also been applied for overall scale validation with linear structural relations (LISREL) software and a good model fit has been observed. One-Way Repeated Measures of Analysis of Variance has been conducted to compare the mean differences of teacher student interaction dimensions. Finally, open-ended questions have been asked to students via interviews and some anecdotal data was sought to provide deeper insights regarding the emerging themes of quantitative results.

3.8 Limitations

Generalizability of the results may have been inhibited mainly by two factors. The first of which is the nature of this study as being a descriptive design, lacking causality and predictive conclusions. The second is the sample of the study. Even if it is large enough statistically to have a representative distribution, being able to generalize the results to all other Turkish universities does not seem possible with all other possibly different sample characteristics taken into account. A more comprehensive sample composition is needed for such an attempt. Real attendance ratios of the students were not gathered to focus on teacher-related reasons. Perceived level of attendance is believed to be more appropriate with regards to teacher effect.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter presents information concerning the results of descriptive statistics along with the interpretation of qualitative data collected thanks to the interviews conducted with students and open-ended questions from the questionnaire. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

4.2 Results Regarding the Nature of Teacher Student Interaction at the Studied University

Having completed the principal axis factoring in the exploratory factor analysis phase, there emerged 4 dimensions of teacher student interaction namely nonverbal immediacy, teacher humor orientation, teachers' demonstrated interest and teaching style and teachers' response to questions, last two of which can be considered under the construct of teacher confirmation. Having ordered the items of dimensions according to their mean differences, Table 4.1 shows the means and standard deviations of the items. To be able to differentiate dimensions in the table, items had initials in bold namely 'H' for humor orientation, 'D' for demonstrated interest and teaching style, 'N' for nonverbal immediacy and 'R' for response to questions. The means that were under the value of 4 were also provided in bold case.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics of the Items of TSIS

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mn</i>	<i>Mx</i>	\bar{X}	<i>SD</i>
H - of all the instructors I know, s/he is the funniest.	179	1	5	3.01	1.289
H - cannot tell a joke well (reversed item).	180	1	5	3.52	1.284
D - makes an effort to get to know me.	180	1	5	3.60	1.185
D - asks me how I think the class is going and/or how assignments are coming along.	179	1	5	3.61	1.269
H - can be funny without having to rehearse a joke.	180	1	5	3.70	1.108
H - I usually laugh when s/he tells a joke or story.	180	1	5	3.77	1.084
H - being funny is a natural communication style of him/her.	179	1	5	3.85	1.117
D - communicates that s/he believes I can do well in the class.	179	1	5	3.91	1.118
R - indicates that s/he appreciates my questions or comments.	180	1	5	4.02	1.051
R - takes time to answer my questions fully.	179	1	5	4.03	.982
D - gives oral or written feedback on my work.	180	1	5	4.08	.942
D - communicates that he/she is interested whether I am learning.	179	1	5	4.09	.944
D - uses a variety of teaching techniques to help me understand course material.	178	1	5	4.10	.862
H - use humor to communicate in a variety of situations.	175	1	5	4.10	.983
D - checks on my understanding before going on to the next point.	178	1	5	4.13	.974
R - is available for questions before and after class.	178	1	5	4.24	.951
N - gestures while talking to the class.	178	1	5	4.30	.801
N - uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.	180	1	5	4.37	.865
R - listens attentively when I ask questions or make comments during class.	177	1	5	4.39	.853
<i>Valid N (listwise)</i>	<i>165</i>				
H - Humor Orientation D - Demonstrated Interest and Style N - Nonverbal Immediacy R - Response to Questions					

When the lowest and highest scored four items are examined, the lowest scored items which had the mean values between 3.01 and 3.61 belong to the dimensions of humor and demonstrated interest. The highest scored items which had the mean values between 4.24 and 4.39 belong to the dimensions of nonverbal immediacy and response to questions. Although the overall mean of the dimension of demonstrated interest and

teaching style was higher than response to questions (See Table 4.2), the items below the mean of 4 were the items of demonstrated interest and not response to questions. Thus, with that fact that humor orientation is the lowest scored construct, items such as instructors “communicates that s/he believes I can do well in the class” or “asks me how the class is going or how assignments are coming along” or “makes an effort to get to know me.” are particularly scored low compared to other items, which raises the question of why and delineates a theme to be probed.

In order to decide if there are significant mean differences among the dimensions, a one-way repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) has been applied. Thanks to this analysis, some insights have been obtained regarding the nature of the teacher student interaction at the university which the present study focuses on.

One of the assumptions of repeated measures ANOVA, sphericity assumption, i.e., “the variances of all difference scores among the test variables must be equal in the population” (Field, 2013; Howell, 2002), has been checked via Mauchly’s test. The test revealed that the sphericity assumption has been violated ($\chi^2(5) = 25.128, p < .05$). Thus, Greenhouse-Geisser estimate of sphericity was used for the correction of degrees of freedom ($\epsilon = .92$). Field (2013) notes that when the epsilon value is closer to 1.00, which is the case in the data set, sphericity of the data and the homogeneity of the variances of differences can be assumed. Overall, it is safe to say then there does not exist any deviation from sphericity for the data. The multivariate tests of repeated measures ANOVA is also robust to rejecting the Mauchly’s test of sphericity assumption and thereby the results indicated a significant difference among the means of 4 dimensions of teacher immediacy (Wilk’s $\lambda = .43, F(3,177) = 77.13, p < .05$,

partial $\eta^2 = .57$). To go on, see Table 4.2 for the means and standard deviations of the dimensions.

Table 4.2

Means and Standard Deviations for Four Factors

Dimensions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Teacher Humor Orientation	3.66	.87
Teacher Confirmation - T's Response to Questions	3.92	.81
Teacher Confirmation - T's Demonstrated Interest and Style	4.16	.82
Nonverbal Immediacy	4.33	.72

The highest mean score was observed for the dimension of nonverbal immediacy ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .72$) and the lowest mean belonged to teacher humor orientation ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .87$). Teacher confirmation dimensions was in between humor and nonverbal immediacy. The dimension of teachers' response to students' questions was the second least observed behavior ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .81$) and followed by the dimension of teachers' demonstrated interest and teaching style ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .82$). Thereby, it can be posited that while the instructors performed a greater nonverbal immediacy in their classes, their humor orientation was not acclaimed as much. As for teacher confirmation, despite the instructors showing such behaviors with relatively high means, it seems their response to questions were not as successful as their demonstrated interest.

In order to acquire a better picture, the nature of teacher student interaction more and reveal mean differences among the dimensions, a repeated contrast test has been applied. The results showed that there were significant differences among all

dimensions. The biggest mean difference and highest partial eta squared belong to the dimension pair of nonverbal immediacy and humor orientation. Please see table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Repeated Contrast of the Dimensions

Dimensions	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
IMM vs. HM	1	212.20	.00	.54
HM vs. DI	1	40.58	.00	.18
DI vs. RQ	1	42.59	.00	.19

Having revealed a significant overall difference among the means of 4 dimensions thanks to repeated measures ANOVA, pairwise comparison results have been consulted to examine the mean differences individually. Table 4.4 below shows significant differences between every pair ($p < .05$).

Table 4.4

Pairwise Comparisons of Nonverbal Immediacy, Humor, Teacher Confirmation (DI-RQ)

(I) Immediacy	(J) Immediacy	Mean Diff. (I-J)	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
Nonverbal Imm.	Humor	.67*	.046	.000
	Demonstrated I.	.40*	.042	.000
	Response to Q.	.17*	.044	.000
Humor	Nonverbal Imm.	-.67*	.046	.000
	Demonstrated I.	-.27*	.042	.000
	Response to Q.	-.50*	.049	.000
Demonstrated I.	Nonverbal Imm.	-.40*	.042	.000
	Humor	.27*	.042	.000
	Response to Q.	-.23*	.036	.000
Response to Q.	Nonverbal Imm.	-.17*	.044	.000
	Humor	.50*	.049	.000
	Demonstrated I.	.23*	.036	.000

The mean difference is significant at .05 level. Adjustment: LSD.

As for confidence interval adjustment method, Fisher's Least Significance Difference has been chosen as a less conservative, default method due to large sample size of the data ($N = 180$). Moreover, Perneger (1998) notes that the Bonferroni method, an option to LSD, is concerned with the general null hypothesis, i.e., all null hypotheses are true simultaneously. Yet, idiosyncratic formation of pairs and large sample size show no need for Bonferroni correction. He further notes that Bonferroni method increases the likelihood of type II errors.

4.3 Results Regarding the Relationship Between Teacher Student Interaction and Views of Students on Their Attendance

The attendance measure was a self-report from students. They were asked how frequently they had missed class ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .84$). The validity and reliability of self-report have been supported by several studies (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988). The research questions regarding the relationship between teacher student interaction and perception of students on their attendance have been tried to be answered with Pearson correlations. As it is also widely used in SEM procedures, item parceling, i.e., combining items with average or sum according to their latent grouping, has taken place here to compare the score of factors with the responses of students (Dattalo, 2013, p. 110). The present study predicted a positive relationship between teacher immediacy and perceived attendance. Please see Table 4.5 below. There was a statistically significant positive correlation between how frequently students reported attending class and all dimensions of the study ($p < .05$). The more teachers perform immediacy, the more students report attending classes. When the significance levels are looked at, students' perceived attendance levels correlated stronger with teacher humor orientation and teachers' demonstrated interest and teaching style. Herein, it is

valuable to highlight that these dimensions were the ones that were scored the lowest as it can be seen from the means of the individual items.

Table 4.5

Correlations between perceived level of attendance and dimensions

Dimensions	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>
Nonverbal Immediacy	178	.17*
Teacher Conformation - T's Response to Questions	178	.17*
Teacher Humor Orientation	178	.23**
Teacher Conformation - T's Demonstrated Interest and Style	178	.26**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

4.4 Students' Perceptions on Instructors, Salient Themes of the Questionnaire Results and Distant Learning Phase of the Term

In pursuit of seeking answers for the third research question, 15 students have been interviewed by phone calls, which is a method of interviewing even if face-to-face format is the traditional one (e.g., Crichton & Kinash, 2003), and several open-ended probing questions have been asked to them. Patton (2002) views using open-ended questions as interviews which “allow respondents to express their own understanding in their own terms” (p. 348). Students' own unique observations thereby have been tried to be elicited in their own words. Interviews took place for approximately between 10 to 20 minutes with each student. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 200) suggest a common sequence for conducting interviews where the researcher starts with a conversational tone to build rapport, slowly directs respondents to the related questions and finishes with a structured approach to increase response comparability. Same sequence has been tried to be followed. Students were selected randomly but in

a way that there are both genders providing insights for each classroom environment in which the survey was conducted.

Due to Covid-19 outbreak, more than half of the spring term lessons were conducted online. Thus, distant learning questions have also been integrated into the interview to hear about students' learning experiences during quarantine times. Herein, Rocca (2004) also marks the importance of immediacy related inquiries concerning its perception and success when the instructors is seen through a screen (p. 192). Apart from the questions above, some other follow-up questions related to students' previous answers have been asked as well to understand and elicit their thoughts better. Therefore, every interview took a unique form.

4.4.1 Teacher Immediacy and Affinity

Some instructors shared their contact information such as mobile phone number and e-mail addresses while some did not. Even if students had their instructors' contact information, a student reported:

“There are some instructors who are able to make us feel closer to them. They do not keep distance with us. When they do, we do as well and don't enjoy their classes. They are cold and they do not want us to reach them either with email or phone. They do not reply even if we send messages. When this is the case, you do not want to attend the classes”.

Many students conveyed that they really liked instructors who behaved 'like a friend' to them. Such instructors knew about them and their ways of learning. Therefore, several students asserted that they attend and learn more consequently since they get interested more and listen with care. Herein, a student noted:

“...I had more absenteeism in the fall term for that reason. When I asked questions, they avoided us. With the spring term, the instructors believed in me

and motivated me. I had such bad scores in the first semester. For the second one, I had higher scores thanks to the instructors”.

However, several students also noted that as for their course achievement, they were self-studying regardless of the established rapport with instructors.

A student claimed that when the lessons are fun and in a conversational tone, the knowledge stays with them longer. Another one clearly commented that “... your questions depend on whether the students like their instructor or not. When affinity between instructors and students is not achieved, learning will not take place no matter how good an instructor is”. Regarding the interaction quality and learning, a student claimed that when instructors expect a flawless performance, s/he felt stressed and withdrew whereas when s/he is provided with a relaxed atmosphere, s/he felt freer to speak thanks to this established relaxing atmosphere. Another student also mentioned this soft social zone created by the instructors, in which they were free to ask anything out of class and thus they would be more interested in this instructor’s lesson. Students placed good interaction traits always with the words of ‘motivating’ and ‘helpful’. A student mentioned an instructor who motivated them a lot and gave an example: “One day I remember, she taught me and a friend of mine a topic that we did not understand after the class time. We were in the garden and drinking tea”. Instructors who drink tea with students also was a notable theme for most of the interviews. Being with students in the break time seems to be perceived as an effective communication trait by many students. Another student noted that when students show their endeavor, instructors return the effort. At this juncture, a different student, as if contributing to the idea of reciprocation and mutual influence, asserted that students behave in accordance with instructors’ actions and conveyed: “The more they are interested in

us, the more we are interested and sincere to them. Both to themselves and to their lesson”.

Students emphasized that there were such instructors they watch the lessons of with awe. Those instructors, they believe, are flexible regarding the administration of the lessons and always integrated some general knowledge. When instructors are able to deliver intellectual discussions on life and provide different perspectives, students’ admiration increases, according to the interviews. A student conveyed that s/he had an instructor who sensed their boredom and needs always. This instructor integrated games and different activities whenever needed. This sensitivity caused the students to attend his/her classes with joy.

Students think that some instructors bear a grudge against students. They indicated that effective instructors who students like are rarely encountered. A student alleged that instructors look after their own interests to be a renowned teacher rather than working for the sake of teaching and students. Some instructors were believed to be incompetent concerning their classroom management. A student stated that when an instructor wears a sullen face, s/he feels like a soldier and cannot learn. S/he further noted even if the content conveyed was in their benefit, the way of conveying information should not have been that strict. Yet, another student argued that there should be a balance regarding their seriousness and immediacy, i.e., too much closeness brings lethargy. A student lamented that:

“... I was about to answer this question but right before it, s/he stopped me since I was not speaking in English. I really got upset at that point. S/he literally said s/he does not care if I do not say it in English. After that point, I would do nothing for him/her”.

Students' answers explicitly and repeatedly revealed that they avoid attending classes of instructors they are not fond of. When asked if this avoidance results from the interaction dynamics established with instructors, a student, for instance, conveyed:

“Exactly. You have such a mindset that when there is a lesson of a teacher you like; we say let's go. However, if it is another instructor's lesson, you have second thoughts and reluctant to attend.” Another student reported: “The more sincere, understanding, helpful an instructor gets in a balanced way, the more attendance and participation s/he gets from the students”.

It should be emphasized here that the words ‘helpful’ and ‘balance’ have been stressed repetitively by students. When students perceive their instructors as someone who is always open to help in any ways and have a balance regarding work discipline, they attend the classes and believe in learning more. The word ‘sincere’ also was used nearly in every interview. A student also commented: “We can focus on lessons of instructors who use effective communication and who understand students' mindset ... I had such instructors that I just came to the classroom for the sake of him/her”. A student also provided a similar observation: “I could observe that, for my friends, interaction was important regarding these outcomes. When there is a class of an instructor we like, there are more students in the class” and added that it was not the case for an instructor who is not liked as much. One of the interviewees simply put that when s/he feels distance, s/he prefers not to attend the class of that instructor if s/he makes a choice.

4.4.2 Inquiries for Teacher Humor Orientation

For humor construct having low scores, students had different ideas. They commented that they might have understood the items wrongly and they normally had humor in class. Some reported that instructors lack the natural ability to be humorous even if

they try to be. A student believed that students themselves have a poor understanding of humor and thereby these items got low scores. S/he observed that in spite of every effort of instructors, students were difficult to satisfy. Supporting this argumentation, a student believed that students were picking on some instructors and defaming them. Another student stressed that people would vary in the sense of humor and added that instructors might be seeing humor as a distractor which causes loss of focus. It should be noted that the relativity of humor construct has been mentioned by several students. S/he further commented that they get tired or bored and lose interest with constant focus on the content and without humor. A student claimed that the jokes were in English, which made it difficult for them to understand the joke, and thus the items got low scores.

4.4.3 Inquiries for Teacher Confirmation

For other low scored items such as ‘s/he tries to get to know me’ or ‘asks about how the lesson and homework go’, students provided different insights. A student who is studying his/her second university observed that:

“Let’s say that there is a student who participates in the lesson most of the time and is perceived as hardworking by his/her instructor. When this student goes and asks questions after lessons, the instructor replies with detail and care for them. However, when another student, who is perceived as lazy, goes and asks questions to the instructor, the instructor may think that why s/he should take cares of him /her since this student does not pay attention to her/his lesson. Then the instructor answers abruptly or says they s/he is not available to answer. This is about the instructor’s character and personality and changes from one to one”.

Another student stressed that instructors cannot get the full blame for these item scores since they do not have much time and there are many students in class. Because of the class sizes, it might be natural to have low scores for these items, it has been noted. A

student believed that instructors were in a mood of teach and go, thus might have gotten low scores on these items. One student emphasized the adaptation of instructors' behaviors according to the students and believed that instructors get frustrated and give up when their effort is not recognized regarding these items. Concerning these questionnaire items, two students mentioned instructors' pretentious behaviors such as "... some instructors may even drink tea with us while some do not even say hello when encountered, which shows us their egocentric behavior" or "they try to satisfy their ego on us". Such ego complexes according to these students caused low scores.

4.4.4 Distant Learning Experiences of the Students

For distant learning there were problems such as internet disconnection and distracting crowded house environments, which was a recurring theme in several interviews. A student stated that s/he lost the connection during an examination and became greatly demoralized. Another stated that it was difficult to concentrate in such a distracting house environment. It was also mentioned in the interviews that instructors struggled to deliver the content due to disconnections. Another student noted that s/he was not used to online learning and it took time to learn in such a fashion.

The software called 'Advancity' also was problematic for some of them. They had a chat bar to converse with instructors and other students. Even if they had the option of participating with microphone or with camera, most of the students used the chat bar. By the time they wrote something there, the topic was over. A student also lamented that s/he could not express him/herself with the software and could not ask questions as desired. They were able to watch the recorded lessons later, thus attendance dropped in time due to this synchronization problem. Synchronization was a salient problem

for most of the students. Another student highlighted that since instructors did not see and hear them all, they could not observe their reactions and this hindered interactional dynamism. Nevertheless, for the software, a student commented that there were ways to participate visually or aurally and it was good enough for the students who genuinely want to learn.

Several students found it so difficult to wake up early hours since the days were considered as holidays. On the other hand, some found it easier since they were at home and did not have to commute to school. Several students highlighted that they had more time to study during the distant learning phase of the term due to Covid-19 quarantine measures. Many stated that their responsibility concerning their learning really increased with distant learning and it switched onto their shoulders.

4.4.5 Teacher Immediacy and Distant Learning

Regarding the teacher immediacy inquiries for their distant learning experience, there were again different ideas. Some thought that immediacy cannot be achieved online whereas some thought they were able to observe teachers' faces anyways whether it is virtual or real and they felt no distance. Herein, a student pointed out:

“Our online instructor gave us a briefing for each day regarding the content of the day and asked about us like how it is going and if we are doing fine. When I did not participate for a long time, s/he realized it and called me out with my name. S/he asked me to connect with my camera and I felt like s/he was interested in me. I liked it a lot. S/he recognized us. S/he discussed our mistakes which we made on the exams. S/he asked about our opinions regarding how to conduct the lesson ... S/he used sincere and friendly language and asked about us when we missed some lessons if we are okay. It felt like s/he really cared for us. Rather than discouraging and intimidating, s/he encouraged and motivated us by saying that we can do it”.

Another student acknowledged that s/he felt close to the instructors since the instructor was always open to communication and gave immediate feedback to any kind of inquiry. Some students stressed the importance of physical setting and instructor behaviors like touching, which makes them more alert to the lesson.

4.4.6 Concluding Comments of the Students

Regarding students' summarizing comments, many students believed that a good instructor is a good instructor on any platform. A student added that nationality of an instructor does not matter when it comes to feeling close or distant. Another student claimed that they get motivated when instructors know about students' daily interests and be up to date. Similarly, a student stressed that instructors should catch up with their generation. The researcher had a quite comprehensive interview especially with one student who is older than other students thus more experienced with a critical eye. He thought that the small size of the campuses of the university led to an overall better interaction establishment and close relationships between instructors and students naturally. The effort mostly came from the instructors. Yet, students were the ones who lost focus in time regardless of the instructors. Lastly, he concluded that the instructors who created a balance between students' needs of entertainment and the needs of the syllabus were liked more.

Among 15 students, all were overall happy with their instructors, 13 of them preferred face-to-face education over distant one. 2 of them mentioned they were happier with distant learning when compared. Regarding the online and individual learning phase, 9 of the students were not satisfied at all whereas 6 of them conveyed that they liked their distant learning journey overall.

4.5 Students' Entries on the Open-ended Questions of the Survey Regarding Reasons for Students' Absenteeism

180 students have completed the questionnaire in total. There was a part which had an open-ended question asking students about the possible reasons for their absenteeism. Therefore, the reasons for absenteeism regardless of teacher interaction can be delved into with students' own words. Not all completed this section of the questionnaire but there were enough answers to engender some themes.

The most salient reason for not being able to attend classes, which was mentioned for 32 times, was early classes and oversleeping. The second most mentioned reason, for 22 times, was commuting. Sickness (19) followed these two reasons. A small number of students also mentioned workload of courses (4), knowing the topics already (2), personal issues (10), their jobs (6) and irregular class hours (9) as the reasons for their absenteeism. The fact that students do not want to miss topics and lag behind and thus they attended was mentioned 12 times.

For this section, 7 students noted that they attend more because they love their teachers. 5 students, on the other hand, stated that they miss classes more since they do not like their teachers. In total, 12 students reported instructor related reasons for their absenteeism in the open-ended part of the questionnaire. However, it is obvious that student related reasons for absenteeism were reported more than instructor related attendance. As for the item left for students to fill in, there were again a small amount of answers. Students conveyed their instructors are smiling, debonair, lively or competent and they like their instructors. They scored them with 5 regarding these attributes. Yet, some stated that instructors deliberately try hard to mark them as absent.

4.6 Summary of the Findings

This chapter investigated the data collected both quantitatively and qualitatively from preparatory school students of a foundation university in Turkey thanks to a questionnaire and semi-structured phone interviews. Questionnaire results showed that instructors' use of humor was relatively a less observed behavior whereas nonverbal immediacy of the instructors transpired as the most utilized behavior. Instructors' demonstrated interest for students was observed low such that students reported instructors did not make an effort to get to know them or ask about their opinions on the lesson. However, it has also been reported that instructors were available for questions before or after classes and listened attentively when questions asked as it corresponds to the dimension of response to questions. Correlation results, on the other hand, indicated that immediate teacher behaviors such as humor, nonverbal immediacy and teacher confirmation as in response to questions and demonstrated interest with teaching style were considered relating to higher perceived attendance of students. Interestingly, the results from the student questionnaire inferred that less frequently observed behaviors such as instructor humor orientation and demonstrated interest were related to students' level of perceived attendance stronger than nonverbal immediacy and response to questions.

In order to consolidate and probe into the results of quantitative data, student interviews revealed the importance of the atmosphere of the created in the classroom, how the set tone continues through term, how the instructors and students affect each other, how they enjoyed drinking tea with their instructors, how the teacher interaction positively affects their attendance and how their responsibility increased with distant learning. They provided insights for the low scored constructs and items. The relativity

of humor was a dominant theme and students mentioned some instructors behaved in an egocentric way that they even avoided saluting them when encountered, which may delineate the reason for other low scored items. The open-ended questions in the questionnaire also revealed student related factors regarding their absenteeism such as oversleeping, commuting or sickness. Emergence remote teaching also had been criticized that it did not facilitate learning enough although some students contented that the ones who were eager to learn exploited the software and this remote teaching phase very well.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter provides and discusses interpretations of the findings thanks to data which were both collected quantitatively and qualitatively. The chapter concludes with implications for practice and further research.

5.2 Discussion

The present study aimed to probe into the literature of instructional communication and sought answers for its uniquely formed research questions. Interactional adaptation theory greatly informed this extracted research case from the field of instructional communication and integration of student attendance completed the scope of the study. Social behaviors naturally and expectedly have cultural relativity. Focusing on the interactional adaptations of individuals and communicative practices, ergo, may form an idiosyncratic case for the culture in which a study takes place. When the literature is reviewed, teacher immediacy studies in Turkey is rather rare. Especially, the contribution of interpersonal adaptation theory and inclusion of student attendance into the immediacy domain is indeed a unique case.

The study aimed to investigate: (1) the nature of teacher-student interaction at the university under focus, (2) the relationship between teacher immediacy and perceived

attendance of students and (3) students' overall perceptions on the salient themes of the survey results and its relation to their attendance and achievement as well as instructor behaviors.

5.3 The Difference among the Dimensions of Teacher-Student Interaction

One-way repeated measure analysis of variance results revealed that there was a significant mean difference among the means of four dimensions of teacher-student interaction. The greatest mean difference was found between Humor and Nonverbal Immediacy constructs thanks to the repeated contrast test. According to their mean differences, the dimensions can be ordered as follows: Nonverbal Immediacy (IMM) ($M = 4.33$), Demonstrated Interest and Teaching Style (DI) ($M = 4.16$), Response to Questions (RQ) ($M = 3.92$) and Humor Orientation (HM) ($M = 3.66$).

The results of the survey show that the students 'strongly agree' with the items regarding instructors' nonverbal immediacy (IMM) along with their demonstrated interest and teaching style (DI). Nonverbal immediacy items namely using vocal variety or gestures have been scored highly. Thus, it can be quantitatively concluded that instructors were nonverbally immediate in the preparatory school of the university. As for the dimension of demonstrated interest and teaching style, even if students strongly agree, some demonstrated interest items got low scored such as believing students can do well in the class" or "asking students how they think the class is going and/or how assignments are coming along" or "making an effort to get to know students" relative to the other items. Thereby, even if instructors apply an interactive teaching style, when it comes to the interest they demonstrate for students, they might not be as successful. The results also revealed that the students 'agree' with the items concerning instructors' humor orientation (HM) and response to questions (RQ).

While the items for instructors' response to students' questions are right below the mean of 4, the humor orientation items are especially low making itself distinct. It can be inferred that while instructors try to provide response to questions, they might not be perceived as humorous by students.

When mean differences are examined among the factors and among the individual items, it has been observed that instructors are nonverbally immediate, trying to provide answers to students' questions and using an interactive teaching style but failing to be humorous or to show interest to students.

Every educational environment is unique with their own characteristics. Having taken such a snapshot with regard to the nature of the teacher-student interaction in this preparatory school, the reasons behind these results were better understood when the observers, i.e., students were interviewed.

5.4 Students' Perceived Attendance in Relation to Instructor Immediacy

The questionnaire had a part where students reported on the frequency they attended their instructor's class. When their answers were matched with the reported instructor immediacy scores, a significant relationship has been revealed. This result obviously shows that students are happy to attend the classes of the instructors more where immediate teacher behaviors are existent such as having a close relationship with students or being interested and helpful.

A similar analysis has been carried out by Rocca (2004) in the United States and her hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between teacher immediacy and perceived attendance were proved to be correct. It is safe to say that such a finding is also valid in a Turkish context. However, while it is plausible to say that immediate

instructors mostly diminish instructor related reasons for student absenteeism, student related factors will continue to have a huge effect on attendance issues.

What this study contributes to this rare inquiry of attendance and immediacy relationship can be that different dimensions of immediacy might have different effects. It has been observed that humor orientation and demonstrated interest of the instructors have a stronger relationship to perceived attendance than nonverbal immediacy and instructors' response to questions. Rocca's (2004) study has a focus on one side of immediacy, i.e., nonverbal immediacy. However, the present study had 4 dimensions for teacher immediacy, only one of which is nonverbal immediacy. Her study was one of the rare inquiries for the relationship between attendance and immediacy. The present study affirms her findings that instructor nonverbal immediacy and student attendance have a positive relationship, yet, adds that some other immediate teacher behaviors such as humor orientation and demonstrated interest might be more useful to assure student attendance. These two immediate teacher behaviors are also the ones that were scored low for the instructors observed. Thus, it might be inferred that such behaviors are the ones that students are sensitive and attend for. After all, when instructors show immediate behaviors, especially when they use humor to demonstrate interest to their students, they might achieve a greater student attendance pattern and naturally have a better chance to reach a higher course achievement.

5.5 Students' Overall Views on the Salient Themes of the Survey Results and on Their Attendance, Achievement and Instructors

Thanks to one-way repeated measure analysis of variance and Person correlations, aforementioned results have been obtained quantitatively. However, the curiosity

regarding reasons behind such findings required a qualitative inquiry to provide in-depth, supportive and complementary data. Therefore, randomly selected, yet representative enough as in genders and observed instructor diversity, with a sample of 15 students have been phone interviewed. They indeed conveyed an informing picture. The questions were formed according to the first two research questions and their results. The distant learning experience they had due to Covid-19 and immediacy-achievement relationship have also been tried to be delved into.

5.5.1 Introductory Remarks

First of all, they have been asked to comment on their instructors generally before the outbreak. They seemed to be overall happy with their instructors. However, when deeper insights were elicited, students used the phrase ‘like a friend’ frequently for instructors they admired and attended their lessons more. When instructors reduce the distance by sharing their contact information or by drinking tea in break times, affinity increases. This closeness with students appears to be appreciated a lot. When such an affinity is achieved, students are motivated for both attending the classes and follow enthusiastically as well regarding what is being taught in the lessons for the sake of the instructor. Without this closeness, students with relational goals might be overlooked. Students with academic goals will continue to be interested in the lesson as long as their needs are met as well. However, the period that preparatory school students are in their life mostly causes them to be more on social sides of everything and neglect academic requirements. Thereby, being relationally immediate as an instructor might really work like a hook to guide and direct them academically. Teacher confirmation construct has also been chosen in the present study as a variable

to be able to unearth such teacher qualities that satisfy preparatory school students' desire for recognition as individuals.

Students familiarize themselves with academic environment in preparatory school time and it is such a transitional period of time that they are sensitive to instructor behaviors and ready to fall apart academically. Thus, students were successful at feeling instructors' distance adjustment. Herein, words like motivating or helpful had a pattern. Being sincere and helpful indeed motivated students a lot. Moreover, since the campus of the students were not that big, encounters happened frequently. Hence, it was easier for them to observe instructors' immediacy in and out class. It can be concluded that being communicatively available and ready to help with a sincere attitude in a balanced manner professionally in and out class is quite important for instructional effectiveness and immediacy.

5.5.2 Importance of the First Encounters

Wilson, Stadler, Schwartz and Goff (2009) sought after the question whether a first day handshake changed students' impressions concerning the course and the instructor. They found that while female professors were able to establish immediacy through this act and scored high on teaching skills and ability to motivate, it had reverse effects for male professors. This study indicates that first encounters are important with regard to immediacy issue and it may set the tone for the term. Student interviews in the present study also supported this point that how they feel in the beginning for an instructor continues the same through the term. Student interviews also revealed an issue of balance that a bit of seriousness should be included in the conduct of lessons. This might be translated into the fact that there are also students with academic goals and they should as well not be ignored. Instructors' interactional

realities were really a factor. For example, wearing a sullen face, acting like a soldier or bearing a grudge against students have always been felt and felt negatively by students and affected their positioning towards school. Thus, it is important for instructors to be sensitive concerning their immediate behaviors or absence of them. To be able to create a relational rapport with students, a communication strategy should be laid out diligently beginning from the first moments of encounter.

Herein, early establishment of interaction patterns and its functional value is in parallel with the principles of interpersonal adaptation theory. Moreover, the quantitative findings and follow-up student interviews revealed that instructors and students constantly adapt their behaviors and mutual influence takes place accordingly. Their behaviors communicate with each other and create a common ground, especially for instructors to be able to negotiate towards their instructional goals. Thereby, the present study, taking it as a reference point, has tested the theory of interpersonal adaptation on its own case and found consistent.

5.5.3 Teacher Sensitivity

It can be inferred from the findings that immediate teachers are sensitive to student needs and tailor a teaching style accordingly. They conduct the lesson with a balance and integrate fun and different activities whenever needed. Sharing some anecdotes from life and discussing deeper topics rather than the lesson itself with students appears to increase the immediacy students yield to the instructors. Such flexibility concerning the conduct of the lesson in accordance with the needs of students causes students to have better instructor evaluations. Therefore, teacher immediacy includes an adaptive teaching style as well, which is always in negotiation with students. At this juncture, a student lamented that s/he was stopped speaking while sharing a memory

since s/he was not speaking in English. Students' social faces and commonsense status quo regarding these faces should be preserved and not be disregarded if a longitudinal instructional effectiveness is desired.

5.5.4 Immediacy and Attendance

What the results clearly indicate is that students' attendance for the classes for immediate teachers have been supported by the interviews as well. Students feel to be understood and recognized by sincere immediate teachers and thus attend a more where s/he feels communicatively safe. Herein, students frequently mentioned a relaxing atmosphere created by the instructors. This creation of such an atmosphere requires teachers to be communicatively immediate. Thus, teacher education programs should integrate such tenets into the curriculum so that teachers perform the art of teaching wholly and build an interactional rapport to engender this relaxing, yet balanced, atmosphere to increase student attendance along with course achievement. However, although it can be overall inferred that an established interactional rapport with students directly affects their attendance, course achievement seems to be affected indirectly. When asked explicitly, students always agreed on the fact that they attend the class of such immediate instructors who scored higher in the questionnaire. When their possible relation to the course achievement was questioned, students mostly reported that it indirectly affects their success since they listen attentively and participate more. Yet, a direct link is hard to establish since they, as most of them mentioned, study their lessons regardless of the instructors' communicative abilities to pass the preparatory year.

5.5.5 Reviewing Humor Orientation

For the reasons of humor construct to be scored low, there were many ideas. The relativity of sense of humor was mentioned many times and some instructors had been criticized for lacking natural ability to be humorous. Items of the questionnaire were at this point might be too frequent and assertive as well that led students to be cautious. Some students might also deliberately have been scored low since these items were socially different than others, i.e., it might be translated as the conflict of authority. The importance of culture in such immediacy studies have been mentioned throughout the present study. The low scored humor construct, therefore, might be an egocentric reaction of Turkish students. In some interviews, when the reasons asked behind this issue, it has been stated that some students were not happy no matter how humorous an instructor is. Being funny in Turkish culture can be considered as something to be bragged about and this praise might not be yielded to the instructors easily. Being in a conservative culture, humor in Turkish classes is surely a relative and ramified construct. Some other reasons could be that the instructors did not want any distractions in the flow of lessons or English jokes did not translate into the mind of Turkish students according to the interviews.

In their study, Bekelja et al. (2006) put a strong emphasis on appropriateness for using humor in the classroom. They convey that “a verbal attack from an authority figure (instructor) in a public context (classroom) violates classroom norms and expectations, making such behavior inappropriate by most standards” (p. 192). They believe humor should be used to accomplish a goal regarding lesson outcomes rather than attacking students. They remind that %47 of the appropriate examples of humorous acts were related to course content. Students believed it is the most appropriate way of being

funny since it helps them recall course related information. Attention-gaining way of humor use in the classroom is the most welcomed, appreciated and recognized strategy by students and research as well (Davies & Apter, 1980; Ziv, 1979). The relatively low scored humor construct in the present study, thereby, might have emerged due to the way of integration of it. In parallel with what Bekelja et al. (2006) suggest, the present study too indicates that when instructors use humor, they should assess their level of appropriateness carefully.

Frequently mentioned cross-cultural value of the present study can be discussed here. Lu's (1997) study put an emphasis on the concept of authority across cultures. The findings of his study revealed that Chinese instructors who are members of a society in which authority is acclaimed will be considered incapable if they please students. Humorous behaviors taken to mean pleasure (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1991), may harm this authoritarian stance in the same way and both instructors and students seemed aware of this probability in the present study's Turkish context. The findings of Goldman et al. (2014) pointed out the stronger effect of confirmation on American and Chinese students than on Turkish students. The present study, with significant mean differences among dimensions, confronts this with the fact that students are sensitive to confirming behaviors such as demonstrated interest and such behaviors are positively correlated with their level of perceived attendance.

To conclude, the study of Bryant et al. (1980), without asserting any direct link, inferred that competent teachers feel more relaxed in the classroom and thus use humor more as well. While teacher competency might be related with more frequent humor usage in the classroom, it is an undeniable assertion that humor is a natural faculty and

strategic tool for competent instructors. After all, humor construct deserves special attention especially when examined through different cultures.

5.5.6 Teacher Characteristics

As for the other low scored items of teachers' demonstrated interest, when asked, students reported an issue of egocentric instructor behaviors. The items were 's/he tries to get to know me' and 'asks about how the lesson and homework go'. Even if some students believed it is not their sole job to create a relational rapport with students, instructors' possibly conceited behaviors were a theme in the interviews. However, this might all translate into the concept of reciprocity. Following the tenets of interpersonal adaptation (Burgoon, 1995), it can be discussed that there exists a mutual influence. Students mentioned frequently that when a prosocial effort comes from the students, instructors follow. The same applies when the subjects change places. Some students believed that instructors got frustrated and stopped behaving in accordance with these items since students were not returning the effort. The problem which emerged might be conceived as ego wars from students' side even if this was not the case. Rather than speculating on student profiles who break this cycle of prosocial messages and mutual influence, the principle of "*mea maxima culpa*" can be followed by instructors, that is to say the fault is mine as a professional, and strategic interpersonal adaptation theories might be applied to avoid such loss of student interest as discussed in the literature review chapter.

5.5.7 Teacher Education Programs

Teacher education plays a crucial role here to give way to resilient teacher characteristics to emerge. Herein, tenets of interpersonal and instructional

communication need to be integrated into the curricula of teacher education programs. For example, in her doctoral thesis, Yeşilel (2012) constructed and suggested syllabi for effective communication courses to be integrated into the English language teacher education programs. Herein, it should be noted that such a need exists for most of the teacher education programs. In her study, she revealed the importance of relational power that teachers might make use of in their professional lives guided by the notions from the field of instructional communication. These studies are so important and need to be recognized by policy makers of the country. In fact, such courses named ‘instructional communication’ are already being taught in the departments of communication and ready to be adapted into the Turkish system. The advantages of having a similar course, whether adapted or constructed, in teacher education programs with the tenets discussed in the present study are huge. However, it is also necessary to mention the debate on personal development of teacher candidates versus their technical competence when it comes to teacher education. As it is a humanistic-based stance, immediate teacher trainers may touch their student teachers’ personas and value their personal growth supplementing what is to be studied as a course.

5.5.8 Emergency Remote Teaching

As for their distant learning journey, it might be safe to start with the fact that this was an Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT). For a regular online learning experience, there should be preplanned, well-organized and ready to deliver instructional content. However, Hodges et al. (2020) make a distinction and point out that “ERT is a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis circumstances” such as the crisis of Covid-19. Due to its quick nature and delivery, the online instruction students had can be categorized as an emergency distant

teaching, thus, lacks a preplanned design of instruction. Bodie and Michel (2014) explored the effects of manipulated immediacy on students' cognitive learning in an online setting. They found that higher-immediacy groups showed better learning performances compared to lower-immediacy groups. Rocca (2004) wondered the deliverance of immediacy on a platform where the instructor is seen through a screen and its possible responses on students' side. The study of Bodie and Michel (2014) found evidence of effects of immediacy delivered virtually. However, their online classroom had an organized setting from the beginning to be delivered. Herein, Hodge et al. (2020) claim that "the rapid approach necessary for ERT may diminish the quality of the courses delivered". This might also be a problem for instructors and their immediate style of teaching. Thereby, the interviews of the present study revealed some anecdotal evidence regarding the dark side of this issue. Although some students mentioned that they required the physical existence of instructor behaviors such as touch or direct eye contact, instructor immediacy, according to the interviews, might be achieved online as well. Students noted that they felt no distance with some instructors as they would not face-to-face. Such instructors were always open to give feedback anytime, made them feel they were there for them always and motivated them that they could do it. Many students reported such effective and immediate instructors can keep their qualities on online platforms too. Apart from the unplanned instructional content or technical-environmental problems caused by the emergency remote teaching circumstances, immediate instructors were like a friend to the students and conveyed the feeling they were in this together with students. This marks the importance of teachers and their training to be able to apply such a pedagogy.

The software that is in use for online teaching also is an important factor which establishes the circumstances of learning. In the case of the present study, 'Advancity' was used as a software. Students had the instructor teaching on the screen and a chat-bar to participate by typing anything anytime. They had the option of participating by their camera or voice as well whenever they wanted to. However, most of the students were not that eager to participate and only few participated visually or aurally. The one who typed something lamented the fact they caused some problems regarding synchronization. The fact that instructors could not follow students' reactions with visual clues caused some instructional ineffectiveness as well. This overall created some disturbance on students' distant learning experience. Some students were happy and free to participate, ergo, had some learning gains regardless of such insufficiencies resulting from the nature of the software. Therefore, even if the choice of the software is important, student motivation was required more than ever. Herein, the students' answer also had a pattern which delineated the notion of responsibility. They repeatedly noted that their responsibility to give an effort and learn increased compared to face-to-face learning setting. Thus, it can be concluded that in emergency remote teaching phases, the choice of the software requires more attention to diminish such student complaints. Moreover, another conclusion can be the habit of students regarding spoon-feeding style of teaching. Throughout their learning experiences, they got used to being presented with a readily available knowledge and content which did not require them to put much effort to deconstruct and build their own understanding. Rote-learning systems might have made them lazy learners and thus they had the feeling of increased responsibility. Coming from the contention that every cloud has a silver lining, Covid-19 outbreak and the results of the present study consequently made us question how much we were able to create autodidact learners. Apparently, there is

still a need in the system of the Turkish education which is to facilitate student curiosity and endeavor to go after knowledge regardless of the platform of learning.

Distant education has some other issues as well. The technical problems such as internet disconnections affected negatively the instructional dynamism at both ends of learning. Students might lose the connection during exams or instructors might lose it as well at a critical point of instruction. Distracting environments students might be in also were an important factor in the evaluation of this distant learning phase. Apart from these issues, students who had pen and paper fashion learning till this day were not used to learning in an online setting. It took some time for them to get adjusted. These problems might result from the fact that it was an emergency remote teaching and both institutions and students were not ready theoretically or technically. The harsh circumstances of Covid-19 measures also might have made it even more difficult to resolve such issues since the ability of mobility was restricted and thus crowded house environments or disconnections were inevitable. Nevertheless, the inference might be that every educational system should be ready to deliver education in such times of crisis. Apparently, the Turkish education system was caught unprepared.

5.6 Implications for Practice

The present study used the paradigm of teacher immediacy to anatomize the teacher-student interaction in a preparatory school of a foundation university in Turkey. The sample thereby was a special case. Dynamic variables of this interaction are surely diverse depending on socioeconomic backgrounds of students or teachers, ages of students, etc. Thus, interpretation of the results should be done with caution. Nevertheless, this study provides a quick mirroring of such an interaction and offers some implications for sure.

After piloting studies and constructing the TSIS (Teacher-Student Interaction Scale), the existing situation of teacher immediacy at a preparatory has been thoroughly discussed. The design of the study and its literature review aimed to find some answers regarding a possible link between teacher immediacy and students' level of perceived attendance. A snapshot of teacher immediacy has been taken quantitatively thanks to the scale, TSIS. The survey also had a part where the perceived attendance relationship can be analyzed quantitatively. A final qualitative endeavor with student interviews completed the data pool of the study.

When the literature of immediacy construct and instructional communication is read diligently, it bears numerous merits. However, it has been always noted that the results were mostly obtained in west cultures. Such immediacy inquiries were rare in the Turkish context, an oriental culture. Thus, the present study contributes to this puzzle of literature as one of the missing pieces. Indeed, the interpersonal nature of educational settings is culturally relative and always deserves attention.

Quantitative results revealed that immediate instructors were able to achieve a better perceived attendance and questionnaire results obtained by one-way repeated measures analysis of variance guided most of the qualitative inquiries. Interviews indicated that a better attendance and indirectly a better course achievement is expected when immediate instructor behaviors are adapted.

Being immediate might be interpreted in many ways. William Glasser's quotation in the beginning of the paper that suggests instructors to relate students and Carl Rogers' plea for instructors to be real persons while interacting with students might sum up some possible interpretations. In order to engender student praise for professional

profiles of instructors, their social faces provide a groundwork to grow on. For instance, being available for students to be communicated like a friend and keeping a balance of professionalism such as satisfying the needs of syllabi of the lesson speak to both academic and relational minded students in the class. When the possible tension of teacher-student positioning is governed strategically, i.e., drinking tea with students, yet, being able to orchestrate the classroom at need, is what instructors should educate themselves for. Rather than hustling as instructors, sliding on an ice puddle in the campus just because you enjoy doing so is so welcomed and praised by students that they become even more open to be guided and adapted towards instructional requirements. Herein, William Arthur Ward should be quoted: “The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires”. Above instructional requirements, by integrating in-depth discussions into the lessons regarding their interests and life overall, inspiring students should also be aimed for. It must not be that difficult to inspire students with the notion of “*Carpe Diem*” as John Keating conveys to his students in the movie of Dead Poets Society. The quotation from Burgoon et al. (1995) might be deconstructed here again for the purposes of emerging implications.

“Consider the alternative where the discrepancy is positively valenced (i.e., $A > IP$) and may be a positive violation of expectations. We predict that interactants will be propelled in the direction of A, that is, they will converge behavior toward that of the partner, resulting in matching or reciprocity. Such movements have the advantage of shifting own behavior toward a more desired objective and possibly achieving greater behavioral meshing”. (p. 270)

Students have their own expectations and positioning for instructors in the beginning of a term. Interviews revealed the importance of the first impressions and how it lasted through a term. As mentioned earlier, Wilson, Stadler, Schwartz and Goff (2009) also

reported how a small act of handshaking with students at first classroom encounters might have effects throughout the term. In order to achieve desired student behavior and seek reciprocity, a relatable persona should be portrayed right in the beginning of the first lesson. A discrepancy might be evoked in this way to have students adapt their behaviors towards positively valenced teacher actual behavior. When affinity is initially earned by the teacher and a teaching competency is conveyed through the term, students surely attend the classes more and have indirect learning gains too as the results of the present study suggest.

Since the items of the questionnaire have a statistically significant positive relationship with perceived attendance and possible course achievement, as the interviews indicated, teachers can be overall encouraged to use humor for generating support, approval, and goal-attainment, teacher confirmation to arouse, in the students, feelings of being real, recognized and valued and teacher's nonverbal immediacy reducing the physical, thus, psychological distance with students.

The literature review of the present study offers definitions and items of questionnaire convey the practical translations. Lastly, it ought to be mentioned that humor should be utilized cautiously in a Turkish context since it might have the chance to be construed as pretentious.

5.7 Implications for Further Research

The recommendations for future research can listed as follows:

1. The present study only studied the data collected from young adult students of a preparatory school in a foundation university. For generalizability purposes, a diverse data is required to be analyzed from different populations such as

from the departments of both foundation and state universities or from K-12 grades.

2. Immediacy is a comprehensive construct and teacher immediacy has other variables as well such as credibility, verbal aggressiveness etc. Further research might integrate these variables into the design and can adapt or construct scales accordingly.
3. The present study obtained a descriptive nature. Further research might be advised to design an experimental path and have stronger evidence by reaching causality.
4. Students constitute only a half of the sphere. Teachers' perceptions on mutual influence and on their immediate behaviors should be inquired to complete the other half of the sphere.
5. The integration of instructional communication and teacher education fields must be recognized and further research should be designed to achieve this endeavor.
6. The present study integrated the phase of Covid-19 emergency remote teaching and sought its ripple effects. However, in time, such effects will be more salient and thus will deserve a retrospective approach.

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APPENDICES

A. METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE PERMISSION

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



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02 Ocak 2020

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Cennet Engin DEMİR

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Deha DİRİL'in "Öğretmen-Öğrenci Etkileşiminin Algılanan Devamsızlık ve Başarı Üzerine Etkisi" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 492 ODTU 2019 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız

Doç.Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY

Başkan

Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN

Üye

Doç.Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDÜZ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL

Üye

B. VOLUNTEER CONSENT FORM

Gönüllü Katılım ve İzin Formu

Değerli Katılımcı,

Katılmış olduğunuz çalışma, yüksek lisans tezi araştırmamda kullanılmak üzere ODTÜ Etik Komisyonu tarafından etik onayı verilmiş olup, öğretmeninizin siz öğrencilerinizin derse devamlılık durumunu ve başarısı üzerindeki etkiyi çeşitli değişkenler göz önünde tutularak araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmek için sizlere bir anket uygulanacaktır. Çalışma esnasında sizi rahatsız edecek herhangi bir durumla karşılaşmanız durumunda istediğiniz zaman yardım talep edebilir ya da çalışmadan dilediğiniz zaman ayrılabilirsiniz. Araştırmadan ayrılmanız halinde sizlere hiçbir sorumluluk yüklenmeyecektir.

Bu belgeyle elde edilen bilgilerin herhangi bir üçüncü şahıs veya grupta araştırma amacı dışında paylaşılmayacağını temin ederim. Kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacak ve basılmış ya da çevrimiçi yayınlanmış herhangi bir belgede açık olarak verilmeyecektir. Veriler araştırma amaçlı olmak üzere ilgili araştırmacı ve veriye akademik katkı sunacak araştırmacılar tarafından kullanılacaktır. İşbu belgeyi, ilgili prosedürü onaylıyor ve kayıtlarınızın araştırmacı(lar) tarafından kullanımına izin veriyorsanız lütfen imzalayınız.

Saygılarımla.

Deha DİRİL

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

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Sorumlu Araştırmacı: Prof. Dr. Cennet ENGİN DEMİR

Yukarıda anlatılan çalışma için araştırmacı tarafından verilen ölçekleri içtenlikle doldurman gerektiğini, rahatsızlık hissettiğim zaman çalışmadan çıkabileceğimi ve araştırmacıyla paylaşmış olduğum tüm kişisel bilgilerimin gizli tutulacağını anlamış bulunuyorum. Bu belgeyle, çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılacağımı beyan ederim.

Tarih:

Ad-Soyad:

Telefon:

E-posta:

İmza:

C. EFA EXAMINATIONS OF THE ITEMS

1. gestures while talking to the class.	Pass
2. gives oral or written feedback on my work.	Pass
3. uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.	Pass
4. use humor to communicate in a variety of situations.	Pass
5. uses monotone/dull voice when talking to the class.	Low Communality
6. incorporates exercises into lectures when appropriate.	Low Communality
7. I usually laugh when s/he tells a joke or story.	Pass
8. looks at the class while talking.	Low Communality
9. communicates that he/she is interested whether I am learning.	Pass
10. has a very tense body position while talking to the class.	Cross Loading
11. even funny jokes seem flat when s/he tells them.	Cross Loading
12. looks at the board or notes while talking to the class.	Singularity
13. uses a variety of teaching techniques to help me understand material.	Pass
14. doesn't tell jokes or stories even when asked to.	Cross Loading
15. moves around the classroom while teaching.	Low Communality
16. asks me how the class is going or how assignments are coming along.	Pass
17. being funny is a natural communication style of him/her.	Pass
18. smiles at the class while talking..	Cross Loading
19. checks on my understanding before going on to the next point.	Pass
20. can be funny without having to rehearse a joke.	Pass
21. is willing to deviate slightly from the lecture when I ask questions.	Singularity
22. of all the instructors I know, s/he is the funniest.	Pass
23. listens attentively when I ask questions/make comments during class.	Pass
24. regularly tells jokes and funny stories when he/she is with us.	Singularity
25. is available for questions before and after class.	Pass
26. indicates that s/he appreciates my questions or comments.	Pass
27. uses an interactive teaching style.	Not Compatible
28. takes time to answer my questions fully.	Pass
29. cannot tell a joke well.	Pass
30. establishes eye contact during class lectures.	Not Compatible
31. communicates that s/he believes I can do well in the class.	Pass
32. makes an effort to get to know me.	Pass

D. THE TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION SCALE

Sevgili Hazırlık Öğrencisi,

Bu araştırmanın amacı, öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin öğrencilerin algılanan devamsızlık durumları ve başarı seviyeleri üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir. Ankette yer alan sorulara verdiğiniz yanıtlar, kesinlikle size not vermek ya da sizi eleştirmek amacıyla kullanılmayacaktır. Sonuçlar yalnızca bilimsel araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Soruları içtenlikle doldurmanız, daha doğru sonuçlara ulaşmamızı sağlayacaktır. Cevaplandırma süresi yaklaşık 5-6 dakikadır. Soruları boş bırakmamaya ve sadece tek bir seçenek işaretlemeye özen gösteriniz. Katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Deha Diril (*dirildeha@gmail.com*)
ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi
Prof. Dr. Cennet Engin Demir (*cennet@metu.edu.tr*)
ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

BÖLÜM I: KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

1. **Cinsiyetiniz:** (Lütfen belirtiniz)
2. **Yaşınız:** (Lütfen belirtiniz)
3. **Öğretmeninizin (main teacher) cinsiyeti:** (Lütfen belirtiniz)
4. **Bölümünüz:**
5. **Sınıf Mevcudu:**
6. **Çalışma durumunuz:**
 - Çalışmıyorum
 - Yarı zamanlı (Part-time)
 - Tam zamanlı
7. **Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğrenmektesiniz:**
 - 1-5 yıl
 - 5-10 yıl
 - +10 yıl
8. **Anadiliniz ve İngilizce dışında herhangi bir dil biliyor musunuz?**
 - Hayır
 - Evet: (Lütfen açıklayınız).....
9. **Şu anki İngilizce Seviyeniz:**
 - Elementary/Başlangıç
 - Pre-Intermediate/Orta Öncesi
 - Intermediate/Orta
 - Upper Intermediate/Orta Üstü
 - Advanced/İleri
10. **Mezun olduğunuz lise türü**
 - Fen Lisesi
 - Anadolu Lisesi
 - Sosyal Bilimler Lisesi
 - Meslek Lisesi
 - Özel Lise
 - Diğer: (Lütfen belirtiniz).....

BÖLÜM II: ÖĞRETMEN-ÖĞRENCİ ETKİLEŞİMİ

*Yönerge: Lütfen bu bölümü **size en çok ders saati olan hocayı (main teacher)** düşünerek doldurunuz.*

Hocamız..	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. ..sınıfa hitap ederken vücut dilini kullanır.	1	2	3	4	5
2. ..çalışmama ilişkin sözlü veya yazılı geribildirimde bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5
3. ..çeşitli durumlarda mizahi iletişim kurmak için kullanır.	1	2	3	4	5
4. ..benim öğrenip öğrenmediğimi önemseydiğini gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. ..bir şaka yaptığında veya hikaye anlattığında genellikle gülerim.	1	2	3	4	5
6. ..ders materyalini anlamama yardımcı olmak için çeşitli eğitim teknikleri kullanır.	1	2	3	4	5
7. ..dersin nasıl gittiği ve/veya ödevleri nasıl bulduğum konularında fikrimi sorar.	1	2	3	4	5
8. ..sınıfa hitap ederken çeşitli sesli ifadeler (vurgu, tonlama vb.) kullanır.	1	2	3	4	5
9. ..için eğlenceli ve komik olmak doğal bir iletişim şeklidir.	1	2	3	4	5
10. ..bir sonraki konuya geçmeden önce anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol eder.	1	2	3	4	5
11. ..ders esnasında soru sorduğumda veya yorum yaptığımda dikkatle dinler.	1	2	3	4	5
12. ..doğaçlama şaka yaparak da komik olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
13. ..dersten önce veya sonra soru sormak için müsait olur.	1	2	3	4	5
14. ..başarılı olabileceğime inandığını belli eder.	1	2	3	4	5
15. ..sorularına veya yorumlarıma değer verdiğini belirtir.	1	2	3	4	5
16. ..sorularına tamamen yanıt vermek için zaman ayırır.	1	2	3	4	5
17. ..tanıdığım bütün hocalar arasındaki en komik kişidir.	1	2	3	4	5
18. ..beni tanımak için çaba gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
19. ..iyi şaka yapamaz.	1	2	3	4	5
Başka belirtmek istedikleriniz (Yazınız) :	1	2	3	4	5

BÖLÜM III: DEVAMSIZLIK

Yönerge: Lütfen bu bölümü de, siz en çok ders saati olan hocayı (main teacher) düşünerek doldurunuz. Görüşünüzü ilgili seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

1. Bu dönem hocanızın (main teacher) dersini ne sıklıkla kaçırdınız?

- Çok sık
 Genellikle
 Neredeyse yarısını
 Nadiren
 Hiçbir zaman

2. Bu dönem hocanızın (main teacher) dersine ne sıklıkla katıldınız?

- Her zaman
 Genellikle
 Neredeyse yarısını
 Nadiren
 Hiçbir zaman

3. Bu hocanızın dersinde yaklaşık kaç saat devamsızlığınız var?:

4. Devamsızlığınız azsa ya da çoksa bunun sebepleri ne olabilir? (Lütfen açıklayınız)

Çalışmamıza katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

E. GOODNESS OF FIT STATISTICS FROM LISREL

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 146
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 217.82 (P = 0.00011)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 219.09 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 73.09
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (37.27 ; 116.89)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 1.22
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.41
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.21 ; 0.65)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.053
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.038 ; 0.067)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.36

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 1.72
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (1.52 ; 1.96)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 2.12
ECVI for Independence Model = 44.35

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 171 Degrees of Freedom = 7901.04
Independence AIC = 7939.04
Model AIC = 307.09
Saturated AIC = 380.00
Independence CAIC = 8018.71
Model CAIC = 491.58
Saturated CAIC = 1176.66

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.97
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.83
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.97

Critical N (CN) = 156.04

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.043
Standardized RMR = 0.040
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.89
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.85
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.68

F. NIS-O SCALE PUBLIC PERMISSION

COMMUNICATION RESEARCH MEASURES

These are measures that have been developed by researchers who are, or at one time were, faculty members or graduate students at West Virginia University.

They were developed for use by researchers and may be used for research or instructional purposes with no individualized permission. There is no cost for this use.

Please cite the source(s) noted at the bottom of the measure when publishing articles based on research using these instruments.

Nonverbal Immediacy Scale - Observer Report (NIS-O)

Retrieved from <http://www.jamesmccroskey.com/measures/>

G. EMAIL CORRESPONDENCE FOR HUMOR SCALE PERMISSION

06.06.2020

RE: PERMISSION FOR THE SCALE

Tarih: 26-03-2020 [18:46:00 +03]
Kimden: Melanie Booth-Butterfield <mboothbu@wvu.edu>
Kime: deha.diril@metu.edu.tr
Konu: RE: PERMISSION FOR THE SCALE

Good morning Deha; It's always great to hear from scholars who want to engage in humor research! Yes you certainly have permission to use the Humor Orientation Scale, tho I'm curious about your adaptation. The scale has been adapted to measure perceived teacher HO, perceived manager HO, & translated into other languages. How do you plan to use it? I'm interested in hearing more about your research project.

Good luck & all the best, Melanie Booth-Butterfield

-----Original Message-----

From: deha.diril@metu.edu.tr <deha.diril@metu.edu.tr>
Sent: Thursday, March 26, 2020 9:09 AM
To: mbooth@wvu.edu
Subject: PERMISSION FOR THE SCALE

Hello,

Hope this e-mail finds you in good health.

I am studying at MS program of Curriculum and Instruction department in Middle East Technical University in Ankara, Turkey. I would like to adapt Humor Orientation Scale (Booth-Butterfield and Booth-Butterfield, 1991) for my dissertation. Even if it is open to public, I would love to have a permission paper from you as well.

Warm regards,

Deha Diril

H. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKE ÖZET

BİR İLETİŞİM SANATI OLARAK ÖĞRETMENLİK: ÖĞRETMEN YAKINLIK DAVRANIŞLARI VE ALGILANAN DEVAMSIZLIK ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

1. Giriş

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, öğretmen öğrenci etkileşiminin dinamiklerini belirli açılardan tanımlamak, bu dinamiklerin hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinin algılanan devam düzeyine etkisini araştırmak ve öğretmen eğitimine bazı görüşler kazandırmaktır. Öğretmenin öğrencisiyle kurduğu etkileşimin birçok boyutu vardır ve öğretmen tarafından stratejik bir şekilde anlaşılıp kullanıldığında bu etkileşim öğretmenin sınıftaki amaçlarına büyük katkı sağlayabilir. Sosyal bir varlık olarak insanın grupça bir araya geldiği eğitim ortamlarında sağlıklı bir etkileşim kurarak daha verimli vakit geçireceği öngörülebilir. Her ne kadar bazı özel durumlarda sadece bilgi aktarımı beklenirken, öğretmenliğin çoğu alanında öğrencilerle kurulan iyi iletişimin öğrencileri derse daha çok çekebileceği ve bu iletişimin daha kaliteli bir sınıf ortamı sağlayabileceğini söylemek zor olmaz. Bu çalışmada bir hazırlık okulunda öğretmen öğrenci etkileşiminin betimlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Öğretmenin yakınlık davranışlarının öğrencilerinin algılanan devamsızlıkları üzerine de olumlu etkilerde bulunacağı ve onları derslere daha çok çekeceği varsayımından hareket edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulguların öğretmen eğitimine katkıda bulunabileceği düşünülmektedir.

1.1. Araştırmanın Amacı ve Önemi

Bu çalışma, Ankara'da bir vakıf üniversitesinin hazırlık okulunda öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Çalışma hazırlanırken eğitimsel iletişim alanyazını, ağırlık noktasını oluşturmuştur. Öğretmen davranışları için değişkenler bu alanyazından, yani öğretmen yakınlık davranışlarından seçilmiştir. Sözsüz yakınlık davranışları, mizah veya öğretmen onayı gibi seçilen öğretmen davranışları, kültürler arası değer de ortaya çıkarabilecek yapılardır. (Aydın, Miller, Xiaojun, Menteş ve Leblebici, 2013; Goldman, Bolkan ve Goodboy, 2014; Lu, 1997). Bu nedenle, öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşimi için özellikle yapılandırılmış ölçeği ile mevcut çalışma, eğitimsel iletişim ve Etkileşimli Adaptasyon Teorisinden kavramlarını birlikte kullanmayı, öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşimi ve algılanan devamsızlık arasında ilişki aramayı, öğrencilerin bu etkileşime ve devamsızlıklarına ilişkin görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Son olarak alanyazına kültürel değere sahip bir çalışma kazandırmak amaçlanmıştır.

1.2 Araştırma Soruları

Bu çalışmanın amacına ilişkin araştırma soruları aşağıda listelenmiştir:

1. Türkiye'deki bir vakıf üniversitesinin hazırlık okulunda öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin doğası nedir?
2. Öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşimi ile öğrencilerin algılanan devam düzeyi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?
3. Öğrencilerin, üniversitelerinde yürütülen öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşimi anketinin dikkat çekici temaları ve bu temaların devamları üzerindeki etkisi hakkında görüşleri nelerdir?

2. Alanyazın Taraması

Bu çalışmanın faydalandığı üç ana alanı olduğu söylenebilir. Ancak bunlardan biri, eğitimsel iletişim, diğerlerine kıyasla baskındır, çünkü daha kapsamlıdır. Eğitimsel iletişim, kendi kültürü ve araştırmacılarıyla kapsayıcı bir disiplindir. Örneğin ders başarısı, eğitimsel iletişim alanında teorik ve deneysel olarak bilişsel öğrenme olarak kendini gösterir. Duygusal öğrenme, eğitimsel iletişim araştırmacılarının zaten çalıştığı bir diğer noktadır ve bu çalışmada öğrencilerin algılanan devamsızlığı üzerinde bir etkisi olduğu varsayılmıştır. Seçilen değişkenler aynı zamanda çoğunlukla eğitimsel iletişim alanında incelenen, sözel olmayan yakınlık davranışları, öğretmen mizahı ve öğretmen onayı yapılarıdır. Bu davranış türleri, hem psikolojik hem de fiziksel olarak yakınlık olarak varsayabileceğimiz öğretmen yakınlık davranışları çatı yapısı olarak düşünülebilir. Eğitimsel iletişim öğretmen yakınlığı (bu çalışmanın değişkenleri) ile duygusal ve bilişsel öğrenmeyi iyi tartıştığında, yararlanılan alanyazınların daha büyük ve dolayısıyla baskın bir parçasını oluşturmaktadır. Eğitimsel iletişim dışında düşünülebilecek ikinci alanyazın, öğrenci devamsızlığıdır. Öğrenci devamsızlığının eğitimsel iletişim araştırmacıları arasında yeterince ilgi görmediğini iddia etmek zor değildir, bu nedenle devamsızlık durumunu eğitimsel iletişim perspektifinden okumak ve alana ilave etmek heyecan vericidir. Devamsızlık alanyazınını eğitimsel iletişim alanı teorileri ile sentezlemek ve alana özgün bir çalışma sunmak oldukça heyecan vericidir. Son olarak, Burgoon ve arkadaşlarının etkileşimli adaptasyon teorisi (1995) bu çalışmayı önemli ölçüde bilgilendirmekte ve yönlendirmektedir. Etkileşimli adaptasyon teorisinin eğitimsel iletişim ilkeleriyle entegrasyonu oldukça nadirdir. Comstock (1999), Etkileşimli Adaptasyon Teorisinin mütakabiliyet ilkesini test etmiş ve sonuçları öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin işlevsel

bir süreç olarak teyit etmiş olmasına rağmen bu durum mütakabiliyetin teorisinin tek çıkarımı olduğu anlamına gelmemektedir. Düşünüldüğünde ve fikirleri sağlam bir şekilde anlaşılmaya çalışıldığında, etkileşimle adaptasyon teorisinin kişilerarası etkileşimlerin gerçekleştiği sosyal bilgiler için sunacağı çok şey vardır. Bu nedenle, devamsızlık alanyazınını dikkate alma heyecanında olduğu gibi, etkileşimli adaptasyon ve eğitimsel iletişim ile bu çalışmanın teorik gözlüklerini oluşturmak bir özgün bir eylemdir ve bu gelecekteki çalışmalar için de bir araştırma kanalı ortaya koyabilir.

2.1 Sözsüz Yakınlık Davranışları

Öğretmen yakınlık davranışları, öğretmenler ve öğrenciler arasında algılanan fiziksel veya psikolojik yakınlık derecesidir. (McCroskey ve diğ. 2016). Bununla birlikte, sözel olmayan ve sözel yakınlık davranışları arasındaki ayırmda açıklığa kavuşturulması gereken bir ilişki vardır. Fiziksel mesafe azaldığında, psikolojik yakınlığın teşvik edildiği ve bunun da daha fazla yakınlık ile sonuçlandığı ortaya çıkmıştır (Aiello ve Cooper, 1972; Burroughs, 2007). Sözsüz yakınlık sergilendiğinde, bu mesafe psikolojik yakınlığı çağrıştırarak azalır. Sözsüz mesajların sözlü mesajlar için bir temel oluşturduğu, yani kolayca kontrol edilemediği ve bu nedenle daha fazla güvenilir olduğu söylenilebilir. Sözsüz yakınlık sergileyen bir tonla başlayan öğretmenler genel olarak sözlü yakınlık üzerine etkileşimlerini inşa edilebilir ve sınıf içi etkinliğini arttırabilir.

Her ne kadar öğretmen yakınlık davranışlarının, sözlü yakınlık için ölçek geliştirilememesi nedeniyle sözel olmayan bir yapı (Richmond ve diğ., 2003) olarak düşünülmesi gerektiği söylene de (Mottet ve Richmond, 1998; Robinson ve Richmond, 1995), onay ve mizahla ilgili davranışlar yine de sözlü yakınlık

davranışlarına katkıda bulunur (McCroskey ve diğ., 2016). Bu nedenle, mizah ve öğretmen onayı değişkenlerinin sözlü yakınlık ölçümleri oldukları iddia edilmese de, öğrenciler ve öğretmenler arasındaki psikolojik mesafeyi azaltmak için bir araç olarak kullanılabilirler için sözlü yakınlık davranışları kategorisine girmektedir. Richmond ve diğ. (1987) sözel olmayan yakınlık davranışlarını, duygusal sıcaklık duygularını ve aidiyeti iletme için algılanan ilişkisel bir dil olarak tanımlamaktadır. Andersen (1979) bunu yakınlığı yordayan davranışsal ipuçlarının örtülü kullanımı olarak tanımlar. Eğitim bağlamında, Andersen (1978) 'sözsüz yakınlık davranışları' terimini etkili öğretim ile ilişkilendirerek gülümsemek, yakın oturmak vb. gibi birbirinden bağımsız olarak bulunan çeşitli öğretim davranışları için bir çatı terimi olarak hizmet ettiğini belirtmektedir. Butland ve Beebe (1992), sözsüz yakınlık davranışlarının öğrencilerin öğrenmesini, hatırlamasını ve öğretmenin etkililik algılarını artırdığını ileri sürmektedir. Bu nedenle Özmen (2010), özellikle eğitimde sözel olmayan yakınlık davranışlarının öğrenci öğrenmesi, öğrenci motivasyonu, gücün doğası ve diğer kritik konular üzerindeki etkisi açısından kritik bir noktada durduğunu vurgulamaktadır.

2.2 Öğretmen Mizahı

Gorham (1988) mizahın öğretmen yakınlığının bir yönü olarak ortaya çıkmasının sürpriz olmadığını vurgulamaktadır. Cosner'ın (1959, s. 172) mizahın sosyal mesafeyi azaltmayı amaçlayan bir davet gibi olduğu düşüncesiyle, Bergler (1956) mizahın çatışmayı azaltmayı ve genel olarak olumlu bir etkiyle kişilerarası ilişkileri geliştirmeyi amaçladığını savunuyor. Kane, Suls ve Tedeschi (1977), mizahın başkalarıyla ilişki kurarken keyifli bir araç olduğunu ve mizahı kullanana daha çok sempati duyulduğunu ileri sürüyor. Mizah kullanan kişiler, sosyal davranışlarda bulunan, hoş ve çekici olarak algılandığını da aktarıyor (s. 16). Sınıf ortamındaki

mizahın faydaları uzun süredir araştırılmaktadır (Aylor ve Opplinger, 2003; Bryant ve Zillman, 1989; Kaplan ve Pascoe, 1977; White, 2001). Araştırmalara ilgi, mizahın öğrencilerle etkileşimde bulunurken tüm eğitim kademelerindeki öğretmenlerin (ilkokul, ortaokul ve üniversite) tarafından sıklıkla kullanılmasından kaynaklanmaktadır (Bryant, Cominsky ve Zillman, 1979; Downs, Javidi ve Nussbaum, 1988). Mizahın algılanan zeka (Gruner, 1966), olumsuz duygusal durumları azaltma (Smith, Ascough, Ettinger ve Nelson, 1971), dostluk (Gruner ve Lampton, 1972), öğrencilerin algılarını iyileştirme gibi öğretici yararları hakkında çalışmalar bulunmaktadır.

Garner'ın (2006) çalışması, sınıfta mizah kullanımının faydalarını doğrulamaktadır. Bununla birlikte, mizahın olumlu etkilerinin uygun mizah kullanımına bağlı olduğuna dikkat çekiyor. Oldukça kişisel veya öznel bir mizah gerçekleştiğinde, öğrenciler tarafından olumsuz algılanabilir. Lei, Cohen ve Rustler (2010) öğretmenlerin olumsuz mizah davranışlarından kaçınmaları gerektiğini konusunda uyarıyor. Üniversite derslerinde mizah kullanımının psikolojik, sosyal ve bilişsel faydaları ile birlikte, aşırı veya saldırgan mizah ve aşağılayıcı açıklamalar ile bazı olumsuzlukların ortaya çıkabileceğini aktarıyorlar. Sonuç olarak, doğru olmayan mizah kullanımı öğretmenin güvenilirliğine zarar verebilir ve öğrencilerin dersle olan bağlantısını kesebilir. Yetişkinlerle İngilizcenin İkinci Dil olarak okutulduğu sınıflarında yapılan bir çalışmada, Phu Vu ve Lan Vu (2012) temkinli olunması konusunda uyarıyor ve öğrenenleri iyi tanımayı, evrensel olmayı ve mizah kullanırken kısa ve basit tutmayı öneriyorlar.

2.3 Öğretmen Onayı

Alanyazın incelendiğinde, öğrenci iletişimde etkili iletişim davranışlarının çok önemli olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır (Waldeck, Kearney ve Plax, 2001). Mizah ya da sözsüz yakınlık gibi olumlu öğretmen davranışlarının öğrenmeyi arttırdığı da tartışılmıştır (Kramer ve Pier, 1999; Nussbaum, 1992). Goodboy ve Myers (2008) öğrenmeyi etkileyen ve etkileyen başka bir öğretmen davranışının da öğretmen onayı olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Laing (1961), onayı, bireyin değerli, onaylanmış ve benzersiz bireyler olarak tanınması şeklinde tanımlar. Cissna ve Sieburg, (1981) bunu “davranışları teyit etme, insanların kendi varlıklarını ve önemlerini ve başkalarıyla olan bağlantılarını deneyimlemelerine izin veren davranışlar” (s. 269) olarak tanımlamaktadır. Ellis (2000) öğrencilerin bilişsel ve duygusal öğrenmelerinin algılanan öğretmen onayı ile olumlu ilişkili kurduğunu bulmuştur. Turman ve Schrod'tun (2006) çalışması, algılanan öğretmen onayının, Plax ve arkadaşlarının (1986) çalışmasında daha önce belirttiği ve desteklediği gibi, bir öğretmenin daha fazla duygusal öğrenmeyi ortaya çıkararak, ödül, uzman ve referans gücü kullanımı ile olumlu bir şekilde ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Araştırmalar (Cahn, 1984; Schrod't, Turman ve Soliz, 2006) ayrıca öğrenci merkezli davranışların, yani ilgi göstermek veya soruları yanıtlamak gibi onaylayan davranışların algılanan öğretmen anlayışına ve daha sonra olumlu sonuç verebilecek olumlu öğretmen değerlendirmelerine yol açtığını göstermektedir. Genel olarak, öğretmenlerin onaylayan davranışları, ulaşılabilir ve açık olarak öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarını karşılayabilmesi, öğrencilerin iletişim kurması için daha az çaba sarf etmesi ve daha rahat çalışmalarına odaklanması demek olabilir. Gerçekten de öğrenciler öğretmen onayından çok memnun ve motive

olmuşlardır (Goodboy ve Myers, 2008). Bu bulgular ışığında, öğretmen onayı mevcut çalışmada bir değişken olarak yerini almaktadır.

2.4 Etkileşimli Adaptasyon Teorisi

Kişilerarası uyum, temel ve yaygın bir insan davranışı olarak gösterilebilir. Kişilerarası uyum, bir etkileşen kişinin davranışını diğerine göre düzenlediği süreçtir. Böyle bir uyum, mütakabiliyet, yakınsama, ıraksama, taklit, eşleştirme, etkileşimli senkronizasyon ve yansıtma gibi farklı biçimler alır. Cappella (1991), yakınlık, duruş değişiklikleri, ses yüksekliği vb. gibi bir dizi davranışla etkileşenlerin, birbirine uyum sağladığını ve ilişkilerini tanımlayan ve yansıtan bir etkileşim modeli geliştirdiğini ileri sürer. Bernieri ve Rosenthal (1991), bu davranışların “rasgele olmayan, desenli ve hem zaman hem de biçimde senkronize olduğu” sonucuna varmaktadır (s. 403). Cappella'nın çalışması (1997), karşılıklı uyumun yaygın olduğu, en erken karşılaşma şekillerinde (örneğin yeni bir öğrenci grubunun önüne yani bir sınıfa ilk defa adım atan bir öğretmen) olduğu gibi, teorinin önemi ile ilgili kanıtlar sağlıyor, önemli ilişkisel sonuçlar ve sosyal becerilerde bireysel farklılıkları aktarıyor. Bu nedenle, Burgoon, Dunbar ve White (2014), bu tür yaygın bir sürecin geniş kapsamlı uygulanabilirliğe ve çok disiplinli ilgiye yol açacağını belirtmektedir. Bu nedenle, eğitim alanının davranışsal adaptasyon teorilerinden ve modellerinden yararlanacağı çok şey vardır.

2.5 Devamsızlık

Devamsızlık, özellikle öğrenciler büyüdükçe, eğitimciler için büyük bir endişe kaynağıdır (Devadoss ve Foltz; 1996; Romer, 1993). Zamanla ortaya çıkan ve öğrencilerin sınıfın sıkıcı olduğunu hissetmesi, öğrenmenin veya not almanın başka yollarının bulunması, hava koşulları, yorgun veya hasta hissetme, öğrenci motivasyonu ya da uyuşturucu veya alkol kullanımı, diğer sınıflar için iş yapmak ve

kendi eğitim masraflarını karşılamak (Devadoss ve Foltz, 1996; Galichon ve Friedman, 1985; Romer, 1993; Van Blerkom, 1992) gibi öğrenciyle ilgili devamsızlık nedenlerini ortaya çıkaran bir alanyazın mevcuttur. Aynı alanyazın, derse devam sürelerini etkileyen öğrencilerin kontrolünün ötesindeki diğer değişkenler gibi sınıf toplantı zamanlarını ve günlerini de not eder. Rocca (2004) devamsızlığı anlamak için öğrenci ile ilgili faktörleri dikkate almak önemli olsa da, öğretmenlerin devam üzerindeki etkisinin yeterince ilgi görmediğini ve ilgili araştırmaların nadir olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Öğretmeni sevme, ödüllü öğretmenler ve iyi öğrenci değerlendirmesi alan öğretmenlerin daha iyi öğrenci katılımı yakaladıkları bulunmuştur (Devadoss ve Foltz, 1996; Galichon ve Friedman, 1985; Romer, 1993). Ancak, öğretmen değişkenlerini araştıran daha ileri araştırmalara kesinlikle ihtiyaç vardır. Araştırmalar çoğunlukla öğrenci ile ilgili faktörler üzerinde olduğundan, Beaulieu (1984) ayrıca öğretmenler gibi diğer popülasyonların diğer değişkenlerinin daha fazla incelenmesi gerektiğini ifade etmektedir. Burada Rocca (2004), yükseköğretime devam ve öğretmen yakınlığı arasındaki ilişki üzerine bir çalışma yapmış ve katılımı arasında olumlu ilişkili bulunmuştur. Çalışmada öz-raporlara katılım ölçütleri kullanılmıştır ve öğretmenler yakın olarak algılandığında, öğrencilerin daha az dersi kaçırdığını ve daha fazla okula devam ettiğini bildirmişlerdir. Çalışmanın sonuçları kurumdan elde edilen gerçek devamsızlık verileri ile desteklenmiştir. Başka bir çalışmada Mottet ve diğ. (2006) sözel olmayan yakınlık davranışların, öğrencinin iş yüküne bakılmaksızın öğretim elemanını üzerindeki pozitif algıyı koruduğunu bulmuşlardır.

Duyuşsal alan ve devamsızlık arasındaki bağlantı bu çalışma ile kurulmaya çalışılmış ve buna bağlı olarak hipotezler oluşturulmuştur. Bu noktada, öğretmenin yakınlık

yorumlarının kültürel boyutu ve duygusal öğrenme ile ilişkisi dikkate alınması gereken önemli bir husustur. Bu konuda arařtırmalar öğrencilerin kültürel geçmişleri arasındaki farklılıkları ortaya koyuyor (McCroskey ve diğ., 1996; Powell ve Harville, 1990; Sanders ve Wiseman, 1990). Bu nedenle, bu çalışma alanyazına bu bağlamda katkıda bulunmak için kültürel bir değer taşımaktadır. Öğretmen yakınlığı, psikolojik mesafeyi azaltarak, öğrenci motivasyonunu, sınıf dışı temas arama ve sonuçta devamsızlığı azaltma arzusunu olumlu yönde etkiler (Christophel, 1990; Jaasma ve Koper, 1999, Rocca, 2004). Dolayısıyla bu çalışma kendi vakasını kendi kültürel arka planında oluşturmaktadır. Rocca (2004) sözel olmayan yakınlık davranışlarını, öğretmen yakınlık davranışlarının bir değişkeni olarak kullanmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, çalışmasını, öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin öğrenci devamsızlığı üzerindeki etkisini arařtırmak için bizim durumumuzda mizah veya öğretmen onayı olan diğereğitsel iletişim değişkenlerinin dahil edilmesi gerektiği yönündeki tavsiyesi ile sonuçlandırmaktadır. Genel olarak, katılımın sınıf iletişiminin gerçekleşmesi için temel bir koşul olduğu açıktır ve bu konuda arařtırma yapılması gerekmektedir. Devam ve sınıf performansı arasındaki anlamlı ilişki doğrulanmıştır (Romer, 1993; White, 1992). Bu nedenle Devadoss ve Foltz (1996) “eğitimcilerle karşı gün yüzünde olan zorluğun, derse katılımı artıracak önlemleri tanımlamak ve uygulamak” olduğunu söyler (s. 506).

3. Yöntem

3.1 Desen

Bir çalışmanın karma yöntem arařtırma tasarımını takip etmesi ve böyle adlandırılması için, Tashakkori ve Creswell (2007, s. 4) her iki türün bulgu ve çıkarımlarının gerçek bir entegrasyonun olması gerektiğini söylüyor. Dolayısıyla, hem nicel hem de nitel

bileşenlere sahip karma araştırma tasarımının doğası bu entegrasyon konusuna bağlıdır. Burada, Teddlie ve Tashakkori (2006), niteliksel ve niceliksel olarak toplanan bulguların çok az veya hiç entegrasyonu olmadığında, tasarımın 'yarı karma' olarak etiketlenebileceğini belirtmektedir. Bu çalışma, çoğunlukla anketler ile elde edilmiş nicel bileşenine odaklanmaktadır ve bunu öğrencilerle yapılan görüşmeler takip etmektedir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın tasarımı yarı karmadır, çünkü sadece tamamlayıcı olan nitel bulguların gerçek bir entegrasyonu yoktur. Tasarımın nitel tarafı çalışmayı geliştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

3.2 Örneklem

Araştırmanın örneklemini Türkiye'deki bir vakıf üniversitesindeki 180 üniversite hazırlık okulu öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Belirli bir kurumdaki öğretmen öğrenci etkileşiminin doğası ve öğrencilerin bu etkileşime ilişkin algıları genelleme iddiaları olmadan betimsel olarak incelenmiştir. Bu nedenle, araştırmacı için hazır bulunan katılımcılardan faydalanmak ve pratik bir şekilde veri toplamak için bu çalışma için kolay ulaşılabilir durum örnekleme seçilmiştir. Bu örnekleme yönteminin, ölçekli yapım işlemleri ve pilot uygulama için de etkili olduğu düşünülebilir. Çalışılan üniversitedeki hazırlık okulunun öğrenci nüfusu zaten fazla değildi. Bu yüzden araştırmacı hepsine ulaşmaya çalıştı. Üniversitenin biri Nevşehir'de, diğeri İstanbul'da olmak üzere iki kampüsü vardı. Araştırmacı Nevşehir kampüsündeki her sınıfı ziyaret etti ve anketi gerçekleştirdi. İstanbul'daki kampüs için önceden bilgilendirilmiş öğretmenler anketlerini sınıflarına uyguladı ve araştırmacıya geri gönderdi. Veri toplama sırasında ders aldıkları için çok az sınıf da çalışmaya dahil edilememiştir.

3.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

TSIS (Öğretmen-Öğrenci Etkileşim Ölçeği), öğretmenler ve öğrenciler arasındaki etkileşimin doğasını anlamak ve öğrencilerin algılanan devamsızlıkları sorgulamak için tasarlanmıştır. Her şeyden önce, böyle bir etkileşimi anlamak ve bunun temel yapılarına karar vermek gerekiyordu. Bu yüzden eğitimsel iletişim alanyazını temel alındı. Eğitimsel iletişim üç araştırma alanından, yani eğitim psikolojisi, pedagoji ve iletişim çalışmalarından yararlanan bir çalışma alanıdır (Mottet ve Beebe, 2006). Eğitimsel iletişim alanyazını, öğrenciye, öğretmene ve sözlü veya sözsüz olarak değiş tokuş edilen anlama odaklanır. Bu nedenle, öğretme-öğrenme sürecindeki iletişimsel faktörlere odaklanmaktadır (Friedrich, 1989; Staton, 1989). Alanyazının gözden geçirilmesinden sonra sözel olmayan yakınlık davranışları, mizah ve öğretmen onayı olmak üzere üç boyut önerilmiştir. Sözsüz yakınlık için, Sözsüz Yakınlık Ölçeği - Gözlemci Raporu (Richmond, McCroskey ve Johnson, 2003), Mizah için, Mizah Yönlendirme Ölçeği (Booth-Butterfield ve Booth-Butterfield, 1991) ve Öğretmen Onaylama için, Öğretmen Onaylama Ölçeği (Ellis, 2000) yeni bir ölçeğin oluşumunda referans olarak alınmıştır. Sözsüz yakınlık ölçeği için, ölçeğin geliştiricisi izinsiz kamuya açık olduğunu belirtmektedir. (Ek G). Mizah ölçeği izni için Ek F'ye bakınız. Öğretmen onay ölçeği için geliştiriciye izin için bir e-posta gönderildi. TSIS ölçeğindeki maddeler bu orijinal ölçeklerden uyarlanmıştır. Ölçek, öğrenciler o sırada İngilizce öğrense bile tam olarak anlaşıldıklarından emin olmak için Türkçe olarak uygulanmıştır. Seçilen yazılar, biri İngilizce-Türkçe çevirmen olmak üzere iki İngilizce öğretmeni yardımıyla Türkçeye çevrilmiştir. Çeviriler karşılaştırılmış ve en iyi versiyonlar buna göre seçilmiştir. Yeni oluşturulan ölçeğin geçerliliği hakkında uzman görüşleri alınmıştır. Üç boyut seçildikten ve faktör analizlerinden sonra,

“tamamen katılmıyorum” dan “tamamen katılıyorum” a beş puanlık derecelendirme ölçeğinde 19 madde ortaya çıkmıştır.

3.4 Veri Toplama Süreçleri

Veri toplamadan önce, standartlarını karşılama konusunda, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu bu çalışmayı gözden geçirmiş ve Ocak 2020'de onay sağlamıştır. Lütfen Ek A'ya bakınız. İki veri toplama aşaması iki vakıf üniversitesinde yer almıştır. İlki sayesinde açıklayıcı faktör analizi uygulanmış ve ölçeğin son versiyonu oluşturulmuştur. Ardından, doğrulayıcı faktör analizi, öğretmen öğrenci etkileşiminin incelenmeye çalışıldığı ana çalışmada kullanılan başka bir üniversiteden öğrenciler ile uygulanmıştır. Her iki veri toplama aşaması için Gönüllü Onay Formları (Ek B) toplanmıştır. Bu form araştırmanın amaçlarını öğrencilere açıklamış ve Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'nun çalışma için onaylandığını doğrulamıştır. Ayrıca gizlilik ve anonimlik sağlanacağı ve bilgilerinin üçüncü taraflarla paylaşılmayacağı konusunda da bilgilendirilmişlerdir. Onay formunda katılımcıların istedikleri zaman çalışmadan ayrılacaklarını belirtilmiştir. Tüm öğrenciler araştırmaya katılmayı kabul etmiş ve onay formlarını imzalamıştır. Anketleri uyguladıktan sonra, öğrencilerin sonuçlara ilişkin düşüncelerini belirlemek için görüşmeler yapılmıştır.

3.5 Veri Analizi

IBM SPSS Statistics 24 ile tanımlayıcı ve çıkarımsal istatistiksel prosedürler uygulanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde Asal Eksen Faktör analizi ve Tek Yönlü Tekrarlanan Varyans Analizi ölçümleri kullanılmıştır. Gizli değişkenleri gruptandırmak için promax rotasyon ile faktör analizi uygulanmıştır. Doğrusal yapısal ilişkiler (LISREL) yazılımı ile genel ölçek doğrulaması için de doğrulayıcı faktör

analizi uygulanmış ve iyi bir model uyumu gözlenmiştir. Öğretmen öğrenci etkileşimi boyutlarının ortalama farklılıklarını karşılaştırmak için Tek Yönlü Tekrarlanan Varyans Analizi ölçümleri yapılmıştır. Son olarak, öğrencilere mülakatlar yoluyla açık uçlu sorular sorulmuş ve ortaya çıkan nicel sonuçların temaları hakkında daha derin bilgiler edinmek için bazı anekdotsal veriler aranmıştır.

3.6 Araştırmanın Varsayımları

Bu çalışma ile ilgili birkaç varsayımlar vardır. Her şeyden önce, bilgilerinin gizliliği ve gizliliği kendilerine bildirildiğinden ve sağlandığından, ankette toplanan cevapların öğrenciler tarafından dürüst bir şekilde verildiği varsayılmaktadır. Böylece güvenilir yanıtlar ortaya çıkarılmaya çalışılmıştır. İkinci olarak, ölçeğin maddelerinin katılımcılar tarafından tam olarak anlaşıldıktan sonra yanıtlandığı varsayılmaktadır.

3.7 Araştırmanın Sınırlılıkları

Sonuçların genellenebilirliği temel olarak iki açıdan engellenmiş olabilir. Birincisi, nedensellik ve öngörücü sonuçlardan yoksun, tanımlayıcı bir tasarım olarak bu çalışmanın doğasıdır. İkincisi çalışmanın örnekleimidir. Temsili bir dağılıma sahip olmak için istatistiksel olarak yeterince büyük olsa da, sonuçları diğer tüm Türk üniversitelerinde genelleştirebilmek, dikkate alınacak diğer tüm olası örnek özellikleri ile mümkün görünmemektedir. Böyle bir girişim için daha kapsamlı bir örnek bileşimine ihtiyaç vardır. Öğrencilerin gerçek devamsızlık durumları da öğretmenle ilgili nedenlere odaklanmak için toplanmadı.

4. Bulgular

Bulgular bir vakıf üniversitesinin hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinden anket ve yarı yapılandırılmış telefon görüşmeleri sayesinde hem niceliksel hem de niteliksel olarak

toplanan veriler sayesinde edinilmiştir. Anket sonuçları, öğretmenlerin mizah kullanımının nispeten daha az gözlenen bir davranış olduğunu, öğretmenlerin sözsüz yakınlıklarının en çok kullanılan davranış olarak ortaya çıktığını göstermiştir. Öğretmenlerin öğrencilere ilgisinin düşük olduğunu gösterdiği için öğrenciler Öğretmenlerin kendilerini tanımak veya ders hakkındaki görüşlerini sormak için çaba göstermediklerini bildirmişlerdir. Bununla birlikte, öğretmenlerin derslerden önce veya sonra sorular için hazır oldukları ve soruların soruları dikkatle dinledikleri de bildirilmiştir. Korelasyon sonuçları ise, mizah, sözsüz yakınlık ve öğretmen onayı gibi yakın öğretmen davranışlarının daha yüksek algılanan devamlılık ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. İlginç bir şekilde, öğrenci anketinden elde edilen sonuçlar, öğretmen mizah yönelimi ve gösterilen ilgi gibi daha az gözlenen davranışların öğrencilerin sözsüz katılım ve sorulara yanıtta daha güçlü olarak algılanan devamsızlık düzeyi ile ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Nicel verilerin sonuçlarını birleştirmek ve araştırmak için öğrenci görüşmeleri, sınıfta yaratılan atmosferin önemini, başlanan tonun uzun vadede nasıl devam ettiğini, öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin birbirlerini nasıl etkilediğini, çay içmekten nasıl hoşlandıklarını, öğretmenleri ile öğretmen etkileşiminin katılımlarını nasıl olumlu etkilediği ve uzaktan öğrenme ile sorumluluklarının nasıl arttığını ortaya koydu. Düşük puanlı anket maddeleri ve boyutları için görüşlerini paylaştılar. Mizah göreliliği baskın bir temaydı ve öğrenciler bazı öğretmenlerin benmerkezci bir şekilde davrandıklarını, karşılaşıldığında onları selamlamaktan bile kaçındıklarını söylediler, bu da diğer düşük puanlı maddelerin nedenini belirleyebilir. Ankette yer alan açık uçlu sorular, öğrencilerin uyuyakalma, işe gidip gelme veya hastalık gibi devamsızlıklarına ilişkin faktörleri de ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ortaya çıkan uzaktan öğretim için, bazı

öğrenciler, öğrenmeye istekli olanların, yazılımı ve bu uzaktan öğretim aşamasını çok iyi kullandıklarını bildirmesine rağmen, öğrenmeyi yeterince kolaylaştırmadığı yönünde eleştirilmiştir.

5. Tartışma ve Öneriler

5.1 Tartışma

Faktörler arasında ve maddeler arasında ortalama farklılıklar incelendiğinde, öğretim görevlilerinin sözsüz olarak yakın, öğrencilerin sorularına cevap veren ve etkileşimli bir öğretim stili kullanan, ancak mizahı ya da öğrencilere ilgi göstermede o kadar başarılı oldukları gözlenmemiştir. Her eğitim ortamı kendi özellikleriyle eşsizdir. Bu hazırlık okulunda öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin doğası ile ilgili böyle bir fotoğraf çektikten sonra, gözlemcilerle yani öğrencilerle görüşme yapıldığında bu sonuçların nedenleri daha iyi anlaşılmıştır.

Anketin, öğrencilerin öğretmenlerini sınıfa gitme sıklığını bildirdikleri bir bölümü vardı. Cevapları, bildirilen öğretmen yakınlık puanları ile eşleştğinde anlamlı bir ilişki ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu sonuç, öğrencilerin, yakın ilişki kuran ya da ilgilenen ve yardımcı olan gibi yakın öğretmen davranışlarının olduğu yerlerde öğretmenlerinin sınıflarına daha fazla katılmaktan mutluluk duyduklarını açıkça göstermektedir.

Bu çalışmanın bu eşsiz devamsızlık ve öğretmen yakınlık davranışları ilişkisine katkıda bulunduğu şey, bu yakınlık davranışların farklı boyutlarının farklı etkileri olabileceği olabilir. Mizah yöneliminin ve öğretim elemanlarının gösterdiği ilginin algılanan devamsızlıkla sözsüz yakınlıktan ve öğretim elemanlarının sorulara yanıtından daha güçlü bir ilişkisi olduğu gözlenmiştir. Rocca'nın (2004) çalışması, öğretmen yakınlık davranışlarının sadece bir açısına, yani sözsüz yakınlığa

odaklanmıştır. Ancak, bu çalışmanın öğretmen yakınlığı için 4 boyutu vardır ve bunlardan sadece biri sözsüz yakınlıktır. Rocca'nın (2004) çalışması, katılım ve yakınlık arasındaki ilişki için nadir görülen araştırmalardan biriydi. Bu tez ise, öğretmenin sözsüz yakınlık ve öğrenci katılımının pozitif bir ilişkiye sahip olduğu yönündeki bulgularını teyit etmekle birlikte, mizah yönelimi ve gösterilen ilgi gibi diğer yakın öğretmen davranışlarının öğrenci devamlılığını sağlamak için daha yararlı olabileceğini de alanyazına eklemiş oldu. Bu iki yakın öğretmen davranışı, gözlemlenen öğretmenler için düşük puanlanan davranışlardır. Dolayısıyla, bu tür davranışlara öğrencilerin duyarlı olduğu ve bunların devamlılıklarına pozitif etkide bulunduğu düşünülebilir. Sonuçta, öğretmenler yakın davranışlar sergilediğinde, özellikle öğrencilerine ilgi göstermek için mizah kullandıklarında, daha iyi bir öğrenci devamlılığı elde edebilirler ve doğal olarak daha yüksek bir ders başarısına ulaşmak için daha iyi bir şansa sahip olabilirler.

Çalışmalarında Bekelja ve diğ. (2006) mizahı sınıfta kullanırken bunun uygunluğuna büyük önem vermiştir. “Kamusal bağlamda (sınıf) bir otorite figüründen (öğretmen) sözlü bir saldırı, sınıf normlarını ve beklentilerini ihlal ederek bu davranışı çoğu standart tarafından uygunsuz hale getirir” (s. 192). Mizahın, öğrencilere saldırmaktan ziyade ders sonuçlarıyla ilgili bir hedef gerçekleştirmek için kullanılması gerektiğine inanıyorlar. Uygun mizahi davranışların %47'sinin ders içeriğiyle ilgili olduğunu hatırlatıyorlar. Öğrenciler, dersle ilgili bilgileri hatırlamalarına yardımcı olduğundan komik olmanın en uygun yolunun bu olduğuna inanıyorlardı. Sınıfta mizah kullanımının dikkat çekici yolu, öğrenciler ve araştırmalar tarafından da en memnuniyetle karşılanan, takdir edilen ve tanınan stratejidir (Davies ve Apter, 1980; Ziv, 1979). Bu nedenle, bu çalışmada nispeten düşük puanlı mizah yapısı, derse adapte

etme şekli nedeniyle ortaya çıkmış olabilir. Bekelja ve diğ. (2006) ve bu tez de öğretmenlerin mizah kullandıklarında, uygunluk düzeylerini dikkatle değerlendirmeleri gerektiğini göstermektedir. Bu çalışmanın sıkça bahsedilen kültürler arası değeri burada tartışılabilir. Lu'nun (1997) çalışması kültürler arasında otorite kavramına vurgu yaptı. Çalışmasının bulguları, otoritenin takdir edildiği bir toplumun üyesi olan Çinli öğretmenlerin öğrencileri memnun etmeleri halinde aciz sayılacağını ortaya koydu. Zevk anlamına gelen mizahi davranışlar (Booth-Butterfield ve Booth-Butterfield, 1991), bu otoriter duruşa aynı şekilde zarar verebilir ve hem öğretmenler hem de öğrenciler bu çalışmanın Türkiye bağlamında bu olasılığın farkında gibi görünmektedir. Goldman ve arkadaşları (2014) Amerikan ve Çinli öğretmen onayının öğrenciler üzerinde Türk öğrencilere göre daha güçlü olduğuna dikkat çekmiştir. Bu çalışma, boyutlar arasında anlamlı ortalama farklılıkları ile, öğrencilerin gösterilen ilgi gibi davranışları doğrulamaya duyarlı olmaları ve bu tür davranışların algılanan devamsızlık düzeyleri ile pozitif korelasyon göstermesi ile Goldman ve arkadaşlarının (2014) bulgularına zıt veriler sunmaktadır. Sonuç olarak, Bryant ve diğ. (1980), herhangi bir doğrudan bağlantıyı öne sürmeden, yetkin öğretmenlerin sınıfta daha rahat hissettiklerini ve dolayısıyla mizahı daha çok kullandıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Öğretmen yeterliliği sınıfta daha sık mizah kullanımını ile ilgili olsa da, mizahın yetkin öğretmenler için meleke ve stratejik bir araç olduğu yadsınamaz bir iddiadır. Sonuçta, mizah yapısı özellikle farklı kültürlerle incelendiğinde ilgiyi hak ediyor.

5.2 Uygulamaya ve İlerideki Araştırmalara Yönelik Öneriler

Öğretmenlerin ilk karşılaşmalarında öğrencilerle küçük bir el sıkışma eylemini gerçekleştirmesinin dönem boyunca nasıl etkileri olabileceği çalışma bulgularından anlaşılmıştır. İstenen öğrenci davranışını elde etmek ve müteakabiliyet aramak için, ilk

dersin başlangıcında ilişkilendirilebilir bir öğretmen karakteri tasvir edilmelidir. Başlangıçta öğretmen tarafından sempati kazanıldığında ve öğretmen yetkinliği dönem boyunca öğrencilere gösterildiğinde, öğrencilerin derslere daha fazla katıldığı ve bu çalışmanın sonuçlarının da önerdiği gibi dolaylı öğrenmeye yol açtığı söylenebilir. Bu çalışmada öğrencilerin görüşleri üzerinde yoğunlaşmıştır. İleride yapılacak olan çalışmalarda öğretmenlerin karşılıklı etki ve onların yakınlık davranışları hakkındaki algıları sorgulanabilir ve daha detaylı bilgi edinmek için sınıf gözlemleri yapılabilir.

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