

THE NATURE OF TEACHER-LEARNER CLASSROOM INTERACTION

by

Lizélie Pretorius

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Supervisor: Mrs Mariechen Perold

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DECLARATION

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Psalm 16:8

DANKIE DANKIE DANKIE HERE JESUS!

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ABSTRACT

THE NATURE OF TEACHER-LEARNER CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Teacher-learner classroom interactions are beautiful yet intricate. This phenomenon forms part of the lifespan of most individuals and occurs every day in classrooms worldwide. As a beginner teacher I have personally experienced a vast array of classroom interactions which at times have left me speechless, upset or confused. However this particular study enabled me to view interaction from a different angle, as I had the privilege of observing interaction from an outside(r) perspective.

In this study the aim is thus to provide its reader with greater insight and understanding of the nature of teacher-learner classroom interactions. It also sheds light on the core constituents of teacher-learner interactions and how these influence teaching and learning processes and eventually the teacher-learner relationship. Three main concepts that emerged from the onset of the study are pedagogy, power and affect which not only strongly emanated from the literature but eventually also from the research findings.

A qualitative study was undertaken by means of a collective case study research design. Observation was conducted in two grade nine classrooms at two different schools. In both cases findings in eight categories emerged, namely power, teacher behaviour, pedagogy, teacher affect, communication, learner behaviour, human qualities and characteristics and relational aspects.

The findings suggest that teachers develop Emotional Intelligence strategies not only to enhance relationship building or teacher-learner interactions but also to maintain a certain level of emotional well-being. Teachers should also aim to incorporate a critical pedagogy approach and learner empowerment in their teaching practice to prepare the contemporary adolescent for a rapidly changing modern society.

KEY WORDS: teacher-learner interaction, pedagogy, affect, power, teacher-learner relationship, Emotional Intelligence

OPSOMMING

DIE AARD VAN ONDERWYSER-LEERDER KLASKAMER INTERAKSIE

Onderwyser-leerder interaksie is besonders maar kompleks. Die fenomeen vorm deel van die lewensduur van meeste individue en speel homself daagliks uit in klaskamers wêreldwyd. As 'n beginner onderwyser het ek eerstehandse ervaring van klaskamer interaksie. By tye, het interaksies met leerders my al sprakeloos, verward en ontsteld gelaat. Hierdie studie het my egter in staat gestel om interaksie vanuit 'n ander oogpunt te beskou. Ek was bevoorreg genoeg om onderwyser-leerder klaskamer interaksie vanuit die perspektief van 'n buitestaander te aanskou.

Hierdie studie poog om die leser se kennis en begrip aangaande die aard van onderwyser-leerder klaskamer interaksie uit te brei. Dit werp ook lig op kern aspekte van dié interaksie en hoe dit onder meer onderrig- en leerprosesse, sowel as die onderwyser-leerder verhouding beïnvloed. Drie vername konsepte wat vanuit die literatuur spruit sluit in: pedagogie, mag en die affektiewe wat ook uiteindelik sterk na vore in die bevindinge kom.

'n Kwalitatiewe studie is onderneem aan die hand van 'n gesamentlike gevallestudie. Waarnemings is gemaak in twee graad nege klasse by twee verskillende skole. In albei gevalle het die data bevestigings in agt kategorieë gelewer, naamlik: mag, onderwyser gedrag, pedagogie, onderwyser affek, kommunikasie, leerder gedrag, menslike karaktereienskappe en verhoudings-aspekte.

Vanuit die bevindinge word voorgestel dat onderwysers Emosionele Intelligensie strategieë ontwikkel. Hierdie strategieë kan onder meer bydra tot 'n beter verhouding tussen onderwysers en leerders en onderwysers baat ten opsigte van hul persoonlike emosionele welstand. Daarbenewens, kan onderwysers hulself wend tot 'n kritiese pedagogiese onderrigbenadering asook die bemagtiging van hul leerders om uiteindelik die kontemporêre adolessent vir die moderne samelewing voor te berei.

SLEUTELWOORDE: onderwyser-leerder interaksie; pedagogie; mag; die affektiewe domein; onderwyser-leerder verhouding; Emosionele Intelligensie

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ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Word
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EIT	Emotional Intelligence Theory
TLI	Teacher-Learner Interaction
TLIs	Teacher-Learner Interactions
TLR	Teacher-Learner Relationship
TLRs	Teacher-Learner Relationships
V	Verbalisation/Verbatim
LQ	Learner Questionnaire
TQ	Teacher Questionnaire
RO	Researcher Observation

CHAPTER 1

CONTEXT AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Human interaction is a central endeavour of life. Whether verbal or by means of body language, emotionally laden or through silence, humans have a unique way of conveying and communicating messages. Sometimes messages come across loud and clear, yet room for error exists and misinterpretation often has severe and/or several consequences. The implication for this in classrooms is immense. With high teacher-learner ratios; different levels of development; numerous social systems, diverse cultures, beliefs, goals and dreams interaction can be both colourful and complicated.

In the light of the aforementioned, interaction as a construct or phenomenon should not be neglected and should receive the attention due to it. It can be argued that interaction forms the core of educative practices since it determines what occurs on a daily basis in classrooms worldwide. What complicates it even more is that it does not occur in a vacuum (Englehart, 2009).

Important to note is that the practice of teaching (which is inherently interactive in nature) has its roots in human relationships which can be both formal or informal, and vary in terms of expenditure (Englehart, 2009), emotional energy and emotional warmth (Gabriel, 1957). Hargreaves (2000) emphasises the notion of teaching as an emotional practice involving different role players and contends that emotions are not located in and limited to the individual mind, but "...embedded and expressed in human interactions and relationships" (p. 824). Consequently, research on emotions in the teaching and learning process can contribute to an in-depth understanding of classroom interaction. It is also important to take note of the body of research that elucidates the strong connection between emotions and cognitive processing (Pitt & Brushwood Rose, 2007; Sutton, 2005; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Hargreaves 2000).

Interaction occurs within time and space, making it fairly context dependent. Associated with the classroom context is a specific classroom climate, which contributes to a large extent to whether positive and/or successful interaction occurs between the teacher and the learners. According to Wentzel (2002) a positive emotional climate supports learners' interest in the

classroom, which directly correlates with fostering a high-quality teacher-learner relationship (as cited in O'Connor, 2010). Furthermore, La Paro, Pianta and Stuhlman (2004) found that teachers in classrooms with a more positive emotional climate tended to demonstrate a greater appreciation of learners' individual needs, and that there were more classroom interactions that are high in reciprocity. Generally, these interactions are also associated with high-quality teacher-learner relationships (as cited in O'Connor, 2010). Harvey and Evans (2003) also identified five key components of classroom emotional environments, namely interpersonal relationships, interpersonal guidelines, emotional awareness, emotional coaching and intrapersonal beliefs (as cited in Yan, Evans & Harvey 2011, p.83) once again underlining the importance and role of emotions. It seems as if emotions directly relate to the quality of interaction which then inevitably influences relationships. O'Connor (2010) concurs as he found that in classrooms that foster warm and supportive interactions there is education of a higher quality than in those where patterns of anger and insensitivity are evident in teacher-learner interaction (O'Connor, 2010).

In 2000, Andy Hargreaves coined the concept "emotional geographies". According to him, emotional understanding and misunderstanding in teaching result from geographies of schooling and human interaction, which

"...consist of the spatial and experiential patterns of closeness and/or distance in human interactions and relationships that help create, configure and colour the feelings and emotions we experience about ourselves, our world and each other (Hargreaves, 2000, p.815).

One can therefore argue that the relationship between teachers and learners is extremely influential and determines whether interaction occurs optimally. Literature further illuminates certain characteristics that enhance the quality of relationships between teachers and learners. Among others, these include trust, teacher self-efficacy, respect, humour, teachers' emotional stability, communication and ensuring a sense of comfort or belonging (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006; O'Connor, 2010; Yan et al., 2011; Gabriel, 1957; Engleheart, 2009; Polk, 2006). On the other hand, some characteristics negatively affect the quality of the teacher-learner relationship. These include learners' behaviour problems that disrupt the class and disturb teaching; shyness; complex school structures which contribute to fragmented interactions between teachers and learners and also incompatible personality types (O'Connor, 2010; Hargreaves, 2000; Polk, 2006).

It has already been mentioned that interaction is a dynamic process which occurs on a daily basis between teachers and learners. According to Englehart (2009) positive interaction has

several advantages, including a higher level of learner motivation, a sense of comfort and belonging in the classroom and the facilitation of learners' social development. He also states that teacher-learner interaction is a critical factor in determining learner outcomes, and that it extends beyond classroom time and space. Englehart (2009) made three additional noteworthy statements, namely:

- i. *Teacher exceptionalism* depends on how teachers interact with learners,
- ii. Differentiating between teachers in terms of *impact* is mainly determined by the interaction with their learners, and
- iii. According to learners view, relationships with teachers (based on the level and quality of interaction) are rated among the most important parts of learners' school experience.

Consequently, the motivation for this particular study originates from these three significant suppositions.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

I would like to argue that the main motivation for any study should firstly be the researcher's interest in and passion for exploring and widening her perspective(s) and perception(s) regarding a contemporary issue or subject of interest. During my own school days, my days spent observing during teacher training, my days as a teacher, and during discussions, I have experienced, witnessed, noticed and derived that teacher-learner classroom interaction not only influences the teaching and learning process, but also the emotional well-being of teachers and learners. Consequently, I have found that there is room to investigate how classroom interaction affects aspects such as, (i) teachers' emotional well-being (ii) classroom context and climate (iii) teaching and learning processes and (iv) the relationship between teachers and learners.

Whilst engaging with teacher-learner classroom interaction literature, I found within the literature three broad trends, namely references to what I have identified as affect, power and pedagogy. I considered that these three concepts could illuminate the phenomenon of classroom interaction that I intended to study. It seemed as though the three concepts interact with one another on a continual basis and incorporate various aspects of the teacher-learner classroom interaction phenomenon.

Hamacheck (1999) makes a statement: "Consciously, we teach what we know; unconsciously, we teach who we are" (cited in Korthagen 2004, p.77). Consequently one

may argue that the affective domain that incorporates aspects such as individual beliefs, values, emotional needs and personality types (situated within this domain) is central to the process of interaction between teachers and learners. Although both teachers and learners make contributions from their “emotional resources” (Gabriel, 1957, p. 122) research generally focuses on the role of the teacher in establishing and maintaining a sound affective domain. This includes meeting learners’ emotional needs (which may lead to reduced problem behaviour), and affirming learners’ need to belong and to be cared for, accepted and encouraged (Englehart 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Sava, 2000). Additionally teachers should be aware of behaviour and practices which may negatively affect the affective domain within the classroom. Some examples from literature include: a higher rate of negative versus positive responses, a low tolerance for errors, discrimination, disciplinary techniques based on fear and intimidation and a lack of teacher emotional support (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Sava, 2002).

It is however important to note that learners too encounter negative emotional experiences such as family upsets which may lead to higher levels of anxiety and fatigue and lower levels of concentration. As a result the teacher may experience the outlet of aggressive or recalcitrant behaviour of learners (Gabriel, 1957). This might increase the emotional load of teachers and demand a higher level of mature and wise response in order to maintain consistency in terms of affect within the classroom context.

Teaching is a socially and psychologically complex endeavour (Pianta, 2005 in Good, Wiley & Florez, 2009). Therefore, in order to successfully identify the essential components of effective teaching, one needs to incorporate and explain the social and emotional dynamics of classroom experience (Good et al., 2009).

Power was also identified as a fundamental concept within the field of classroom interaction research. Researchers generally distinguish between two analogous concepts namely power and authority. According to Burbules (1986, p.104), “Power is not simply a matter of getting people to do things (or not to do things), but a relation of human attitudes and activities against a background of conflicting interests”. Consequently, one can deduce that power is dependent on context and also the relationship between two or more parties that act interchangeably in some way or another on a regular basis.

The teacher-learner relationship can thus be viewed in terms of a power relationship. A social view of power refers to an individual’s capacity to influence others, in other words the perceived power of individuals in interpersonal relationships (Richmond & McCrosky, 1984; Garrison & Pate, 1977).

Teachers often utilise different “types” of power either to manage their classrooms, to gain learner compliance or as a behaviour control mechanism. French and Raven (1959) identifies “types” of power that are often demonstrated by teachers. These include: reward-, coercive-, legitimate-, referent-, expert- and reward power, and are discussed more comprehensively in Chapter three of this study. I also focused on displays of power-relations between teachers and learners’ that either enhance or reduce the quality of teacher-learner interaction. The concept of empowerment is also explored as a means of utilising power relations in the classroom.

Of equal importance as the notion of power is the concept of authority. Pace and Hemmings (2007) view authority as a fundamental feature of classroom life. Learner “acceptance” of teacher authority becomes evident as, in the end, they are the ones who will “... legitimate or reject their teacher’s authority” (Harjunen, 2009, p.127). Harjunen continues by emphasizing that mutual trust through caring and just interaction becomes indispensable when determining the level and intensity of teacher-learner authority relations. These relations in turn, influence the quality of the learner’s educational experience and the teachers’ work (Metz, 1978 in Pace & Hemmings, 2007).

According to Seddon and Palmieri (2009), the core of the teaching enterprise, which is primarily to get learners to learn, is a complicated process that involves emotional relationships, intellectual interactions, group dynamics and the exercise of practical judgements, all within constantly changing circumstances. These in turn are all situated in a “pedagogical relationship” that Sava (2002, p.1007) delineates as “the heart of effective teaching”. Teachers’ teaching practices, specifically referring to teaching styles, can be either harmless or harmful. These once again tend to influence the quality of the teacher-learner relationship (O’Connor, 2010; Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006).

Teachers’ pedagogical practices as described in literature are wide-ranging in fields of educational research. One major facet is to apply teaching strategies that motivate learners to become active participants in the learning process. Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) found that teacher characteristics as well their teaching styles can be effectiveness enhancing factors of classroom practice. Higher quality teaching practices are advantageous as they positively affect learner motivation, engagement in learning activities, personal development as well as academic success (Resh & Sabbagh, 2009). Research also emphasises learner-centred teaching styles. When teachers for example employ a strategy such as “classroom talk” learners are effectively engaged, their thinking is stimulated and extended, and the learning as well as their understanding becomes more advanced, both as

a group and individually (Nystrand et al., 1997 in Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Smith, 2008). Learner-centred teaching will be even more effective when teachers take into account learner concerns, interests and realities, as this positively influences learner participation (Resh & Sabbagh, 2009).

Researchers also comment on issues pertaining to negative pedagogical practices. These practices are more commonly found in the sphere of classroom management and discipline where negative emotions are evoked in teachers (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Orange (2000) found that inappropriate educational strategies and techniques contribute greatly to learner misbehaviour and may induce a general dislike for the particular subject, or cause learners to become fearful of the particular teacher (cited in Sava, 2002).

Although traditional views of pedagogy are commonplace, disparate ideas regarding pedagogy has been discussed in research. One of these views is critical pedagogy. In essence critical pedagogy proposes that learners should not absorb knowledge passively, but generate knowledge by critically engaging with ideas through dialogue (Yannuzzia & Martin, 2014). This for one is essential for adolescents who grow up in a society that is constantly changing. This is discussed elaborately in Chapter 3.

Up to this point, I have provided an overview of the background as well as the motivation for this particular study. In part, this study commenced from a determination to explore and describe effective, efficient and dynamic teacher-learner interaction, in order to establish and/or maintain quality teacher-learner relationships.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.3.1 AIM OF STUDY

According to Babbie & Mouton (2001) social science researchers usually describe situations and events by means of observation. Thereafter, researchers usually go on to examine why observed patterns exist and what their implications are.

With this study, my aim was to generate (by means of observation) an in-depth understanding of the nature of classroom interaction between teachers and learners.

One should however not be under the impression that teacher-learner classroom interaction is a discrete phenomenon that can be readily observed and easily described. It is a dynamic phenomenon that is affected by multiple influences (Aspelin, 2006). This should be remembered especially when the research question is asked, as this automatically implies

that a variety of contributing factors can be observed which are constantly interacting with one another within the interaction phenomenon as a whole. It was mentioned earlier that three concepts were identified from research that seem to provide useful lenses through which to study and understand the interactions between teachers and learners in classroom contexts, as they illumine the intricate nature of the teacher-learner interaction phenomenon. Although the formulation of the secondary research questions, stem from these three lenses one have to take into account that other influences may become evident as the research progress through an inductive research approach.

1.3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary research question that guided the study was:

- What is the nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction?

The secondary research questions include:

- What role does affect play in teacher-learner classroom interaction?
- What role does pedagogy play in teacher-learner classroom interaction?
- What role does power play in teacher-learner classroom interaction?

1.4 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Within any research study, the researcher has the prerogative when attempting to answer the research question. This process needs to be well thought through and should elucidate the nature of the research question. Another important aspect that one should take into account is the individual perspectives and frame of reference of the researcher. Bentz and Shapiro (1998) affirm the latter with their reference to the life and life world of the researcher. Within this world of the researcher, personality, social context, and conflict greatly influence the research, from the choice of research question to the final report and outcome of the study (cited in Anfara & Mertz, 2006).

Due to the qualitative nature of the research question, this study takes an interpretivist stance. Two case studies are employed and there is an attempt to answer the research question by means of qualitative methodology. The research paradigm, research design and research methodology will now be discussed briefly.

1.5 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Simply put, a research paradigm is a “basic set of beliefs that guides action” (Guba, 1990, in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p.22). Due to the social nature of this particular study, it can be argued that this research is guided by the interpretive paradigm.

Paradigms are classified in terms of ontology, epistemology and methodology, which are fundamental features in defining the “boundaries” of a particular research paradigm. It is therefore necessary to provide a short summary of each of these concepts, relevant to the interpretive paradigm, in order to clarify meaning and generate a greater understanding of the philosophical frame in which this study is situated. In short, ontology, questions the nature of reality, i.e. how it is constituted (subjectivist, interactionist, socially constructed); epistemology refers to the relationship between the researcher and what is known (it recognises multiple realities, agentic behaviours, and generates understanding through the eyes of participants) and lastly, methodology, refers to how researchers know the world or gain knowledge from it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Within an interpretivist research paradigm, a qualitative methodology ensues.

The interpretive paradigm also places a high emphasis on the level of concern for the individual and the central endeavour is to understand the subjective world of human experience (Cohen et al., 2007). As a result, I hope to enter the subjective world of the participants’ “insider’s perspective”, (Howe, 1992) in order to generate an understanding of their experiences, emotions, context and ultimately, their reality.

1.5.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

In short, a research design is a plan for collecting and analysing evidence that will make it possible for the researcher to answer the research question(s). The design of a research study touches almost all aspects of the research, from the minute details of data collection to the selection of the appropriate techniques to analyse the collected data (Ragin, 1994 as cited in Flick, 2007).

From an interpretive stance, research in this study will have a qualitative research design. As stated by Denzin and Lincoln (2005), the word *qualitative* implies an emphasis on the quality of the process and on meanings that are not examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency (as is the case with quantitative research). The main focus of qualitative research is therefore on understanding, explaining, exploring, discovering and

clarifying situations, feelings perceptions, attitudes, values, beliefs, and experiences of individuals or groups of people (Kumar, 2011).

As the research questions lead to a specific plan of action, designed in order to answer those questions, it would seem as though a design that is exploratory, descriptive (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) and which incorporates a qualitative methodology, ought to produce data that might bring about a deep understanding of the phenomenon of classroom interaction.

I have therefore chosen a collective case study as my research design, which, seems to be best suited to the particular subject under study. Hancock & Algozzine (2006) classify case study research design as intrinsic, instrumental, or collective. They state that researchers usually engage in intrinsic case study research when they want to know more about a particular individual, group, event or organization.

Case studies have a few distinctive features. For one, they are limited to time and space and are therefore referred to as “functioning specific” or as “bounded systems” (Stake, 2008 in Flyvbjerg, 2011, p.301). Another key feature is the focus on environment or context as deciding factor. Observing in real contexts, serves as a convincing determinant of identifying cause and effect. This then provides the researcher with an in-depth understanding which ultimately becomes a prerequisite in doing justice to the case (Cohen, et al., 2011).

Every context is unique and dynamic. Case studies are used for investigating and reporting the real-life, complex, and unfolding interactions of human relations and behaviour in unique instances (Cohen et al., 2011). It is also important to note that previous case studies in education have focused on, among others, teacher-learner interactions (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006), thus emphasising the appropriateness of employing this particular strategy.

Case studies are “intensive”. They comprise detail, richness, completeness, and variance i.e. depth, with regard to the unit of study (Flyvbjerg, 2011). Broadly described, case studies take multiple perspectives into account and attempt to understand the influences of various social systems on subjects’ perspectives, beliefs and behaviour (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). In the end however the whole is more than the sum of its parts (Nisbet & Watt, 1984 in Cohen et al., 2011).

Within this study, two cases pertaining to two different schools were used to gather data. In both cases, a grade 9 class was observed. I wanted to acquire an in-depth understanding of the interaction between different groups of learners and their teachers in different school contexts. Eventually, these cases were compared to explore the differences of interaction in

the two different schools, thereby adding to the richness of the findings and also providing the reader with a more comprehensive account of the phenomenon.

1.5.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is one of the most intricate parts in the research process. Harding (1987), defines it as the “theory and analysis of how research should proceed”, which justifies the methods used in research (as cited in Carter & Little, 2007). This includes the process of exactly how participants will be selected up to the point of how data will be analysed.

In general, qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape the inquiry. They also attempt to study human action from the insiders’ perspective with the sole intention of understanding particular human behaviour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In the light of the aforementioned, seven key features have been identified that provide researchers with a comprehensive overview of qualitative research, namely that research is conducted in the natural setting of social actors; the focus is on the process rather than the outcome; the “insider” view (actor’s perspective) is emphasised; the primary aim is to generate in-depth descriptions and understanding of actions and events; an inductive research approach is followed, to understand social action in terms of its specific context whilst refraining from the generalisation of findings; and finally, the researcher is seen as the “main instrument” in the research process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

It is important to note that the primary interest will be to describe the actions of the participants. In the end, I hope that the research question(s) will be addressed and/or answered adequately and contribute to my individual meaning-making process in terms of complexity and perception.

1.5.3 SELECTING PARTICIPANTS

Due to the nature of qualitative research, qualitative researchers tend to make use of non-probability sampling techniques to select the participants for the study. One such technique is purposive sampling that will be used to identify and select suitable participants for this particular study.

Within non-probability sampling some members of the wider population are (deliberately) excluded while others are (deliberately) included. In other words, every member of the population does not have an equal chance of being included in the sample. It can also be

said that the researcher *purposely* includes some and excludes others (Cohen et al., 2011). The reason for the latter can be ascribed to the qualitative nature of the research design and methodology where a desire to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of classroom interaction is envisaged.

In its simplest form, purposive sampling refers to a sample that has been chosen for a specific purpose (Cohen et al., 2011). Researchers hand-pick the cases to be included using their personal judgement and discrimination, while placing a high value on typicality and characteristics relevant to the study. Purposive sampling has numerous purposes within different types of research which include: achieving representativeness, enabling comparisons, focussing on specific or unique issues and, generating theory by means of data accumulation from a variety of sources (Teddlie & Yu, 2007 in Cohen et al., 2011). The aim is therefore to acquire in-depth information from those who are in a position to give it (Cohen et al., 2011). I selected two schools both in which a grade 9 class was observed over a period of time to gather the data. I contacted the school principals, and the classes were selected with the guidance and consent of the principals.

1.5.4 DATA GATHERING TECHNIQUES

Collecting adequate data by the correct means is essential within the research process. Within empirical research, data are necessary to give evidence of or justification for everything that is presented later within the findings of the study including, descriptions, new ideas, relationships between subjects, interpretations and explanations (Boeije, 2010). To successfully operationalise this, appropriate data collection is necessary. In short, research methods are defined as “techniques for gathering evidence” (Harding, 1987 in Carter & Little, 2007). Furthermore, it is important to note that case study research recognizes and accepts that there are many variables operating in a single case, and that to capture the interaction among these usually requires more than one tool for data collection and many sources of evidence (Cohen et al., 2011). I employed observation as a primary data gathering technique, and questionnaires completed by both teachers and learners as a secondary data gathering technique.

1.5.4.1 Observation

Direct observation seemed to be an appropriate method of collecting data, since the studies were conducted in the natural setting of the “case”, (Yin, 2009). As said by Marshall and Rossman, (2011) observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours and artefacts in the social setting. Recording these observations is crucial. These

records (frequently referred to as field notes) are detailed, non-judgemental concrete descriptions of what the researcher has observed. Observation serves as a fundamental and highly important method in all qualitative inquiry and is often used to discover complex interactions in natural social settings (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This particular method was utilised as the primary means of data collection mainly due to its potential to provide me with sufficient data. The teacher-learner interaction phenomenon was observed in two grade 9 high school classrooms over a period of five weeks.

Observer bias tends to be a serious threat when researchers use observation as a data gathering technique. Observer bias is when the researcher's subjectivity interferes with the process of observation, consequently resulting in invalid observations. Each researcher brings to the setting his/her individual background, experiences and perspectives, which in turn, not only affect what is observed and how observation takes place, but also the personal reflections and interpretations that are generated from the data (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2006). In order to refrain from observer bias, mechanisms were put in place throughout the research process.

1.5.4.2 Questionnaires

Semi-structured self-completion questionnaires were used as a secondary data gathering technique and distributed to all the participants (teachers and learners) who willingly subjected themselves to informed consent. Open-ended questions which are particularly suitable for investigating complex issues, and to which simple answers cannot be provided, were included (Cohen et al., 2007). The data obtained by means of the questionnaires not only complemented the observations made in the classroom, but also in many instances provided me with a better understanding of the interaction processes.

1.5.5 THE PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis briefly refers to the processing of data in order to answer the research questions (Boeije, 2010). Qualitative data analysis focuses on the process of reviewing, synthesizing and interpreting data to describe and explain phenomena or the social worlds being studied (Fossey, Harvey, McDermott & Davidson, 2002). As a result the data needs to be broken up, disassembled and reconstructed in such a way that the research question has been answered. This process is not linear, and steps may be revisited many times in order to refine the data and generate a meaningful whole as well as a theoretical understanding of the social phenomenon under study.

1.5.5.1 Unit of analysis

In short, the unit of analysis refers to the *what* of your study i.e. what object, phenomenon, entity, process, or event you are interested in investigating. The unit of analysis is typically also the unit of observation (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Due to the nature of the study the teacher, learners and consequently the teacher-learner interaction will all form the units of analysis, due to the inter-reliant nature of the particular units under study.

1.5.5.2 Analysing Data

Gay et al. (2006, p.469) mention that there are some guidelines and general strategies for analysing qualitative data with only a few existing rules for their application. Once data have been collected, the qualitative researcher undertakes a multi-stage process of organizing, categorizing, synthesizing, analysing and writing about data. They suggest that researchers follow a few repetitive steps within this process to familiarise themselves with the data, before undertaking the process of interpreting the data. Firstly, researchers ought to read to become familiar with the data and to identify potential themes. They then conduct an in-depth examination of the data in order to provide detailed descriptions of the context, participants and the activity. Lastly, they categorize and code pieces of data before grouping them into themes. These three steps however, do not have to occur in a set sequence.

After the researcher has familiarised himself/herself with the data, the process of data interpretation commences. Gay et al. (2006, p.481) have identified several strategies that researchers can make use of when undertaking the process of data interpretation, namely:

- (i) *Identifying themes*: a strategy that relies on the identification of ideas that have emerged from the review of literature and from the data collection;
- (ii) *Coding*: the process of categorically marking units of text with codes or labels as a way to indicate patterns and meaning in data. This involves the reduction of narrative data to a manageable form to enable the process of sorting, and
- (iii) *Concept mapping*: an approach that allows the qualitative researcher to visualize the major influences that have affected the study and to create a visual display that allows for the identification of consistencies and inconsistencies that may exist between disparate groups.

These strategies were to a lesser or greater extent used to analyse the data which were obtained by means of observations and the distributed questionnaires, and subsequently emerging themes, concepts and ideas were identified.

1.5.5.3 Data Verification Strategies

In general, data verification strategies are implemented to ensure that the researcher remains objective through the research process, especially when data are collected, analysed and interpreted. It is important that researchers remain neutral and adhere to the construct of validity that is explained by Gay et al. (2006, p.405) as “the degree to which the qualitative data we collect actually gauge what we are trying to measure”.

Triangulation (using more than one method of data collection) was used within the study to overcome what Denzin (1989, p.236) refers to as “the deficiencies that flow from one investigator or method” (in Babbie & Mouton 2001, p.275). Generally, triangulation is employed to both promote the quality of the research as well as to extend the knowledge researchers want to obtain from their studies (Flick, 2007). Triangulation also reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question (Flick, 2002 in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Another important facet of validity in qualitative research is that it should adhere to two distinctive criteria as proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1994). These include trustworthiness and authenticity. Trustworthiness is synonymous with objectivity and incorporates concepts such as “credibility”, “transferability”, “dependability”, and “confirmability” (as cited in Bryman, 2008; Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In order to achieve this, researchers should apply certain strategies. These include extensive field notes, a pilot study and subjecting the project to an audit trial (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

Although data verification strategies are employed, there is still the risk that the research will be influenced by individual biases. Declaring researcher bias not only makes the researcher aware of personal subjectivity, but also contributes to the rigour and quality of the research. I have therefore addressed possible biases in the section to follow and made mention to the ethical considerations to which I needed to adhere.

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

1.6.1 DECLARING RESEARCHER BIAS

All research should aim at excellence in terms of quality and should be of a high standard. Up to this point, the importance of reliability and validity has already been addressed. However, all researchers that conduct research projects work from their individual (subjective) frames of reference. The danger is that research may become a means to an end; where a case study simply becomes an embodiment or fulfilment of the researcher’s

initial prejudices or suspicions, with selective data being gathered, or data being used selectively i.e. a circular argument (Yin, 2009, p.72). Personally, I view learners as "...impressionable and vulnerable in their relationships with teachers". And because of this unequal power relationship, I strongly feel that teachers should be prohibited from potentially destructive actions and behaviours towards learners (Lynch, 1984 in Hart, 1987, p.169). A deliberate attempt has been made to address my potential researcher bias by means of reflexivity (a research journal) and checks by an external reviewer of the data and inferences thereby submitting it to an audit trail (Cohen et al., 2011).

1.7 OBTAINING PERMISSION

I needed to obtain permission from a few institutions as well as all participating individuals to conduct the study. The institutions include the University of Stellenbosch Research Ethics Committee as well as the Western Cape Department of Education. Written consent was also needed from both school principals, the parents/guardians of the participating learners, the teachers that participated in the study and lastly the learners themselves. Informed consent implies that participants are made adequately aware of the type of information you want from them, why the information is being sought, what purpose it will be put to, how they are to participate in the study and lastly how findings and the process will directly and indirectly affect them (Kumar, 2011). Howe and Moses (1999) maintain that informed consent is key to ethical behaviour, "as it respects the right of participants to exert control over their lives and to take decisions for themselves" (in Cohen et al., 2011, p.77). Examples of the relevant documentation, institutional as well as informed consent from the various participants are attached as Addenda A, B, C, D, E and F.

1.8 A REVIEW OF THE KEY CONCEPTS

Conceptual clarity is necessary in order to communicate efficiently and effectively. The following concepts are central to the study and when referred to adhere to the following definitions:

1.8.1 LEARNER

Any person receiving education (Copyright Schools Act, 1996).

1.8.2 TEACHER

Any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services at a school (Copyright Schools Act, 1996).

1.8.3 INTERACTION

Interaction is seen as a social exchange between two parties. It can be verbal or non-verbal, formal or informal and is located within a particular time and space.

1.8.4 AFFECT

Emotionally related behaviour displayed during interactions or those emanating from interactions.

1.8.5 PEDAGOGY

The knowledge, strategies, methods and skills that frame individual teachers' teaching practice.

1.8.6 POWER

The ability to influence someone positively or negatively within interpersonal relationships.

1.9 STRUCTURE OF PRESENTATION

1.9.1 CHAPTER 1

Chapter 1 serves as an introductory chapter to provide the reader with an outline of the study, including the background and motivation of the research. It also specifies the research questions guiding the study which are complemented by the chosen research methodology and -design.

1.9.2 CHAPTER 2

In Chapter 2, the first of two parts of the literature review are presented. The reader is informed about the theoretical framework (Emotional Intelligence Theory) that underpins the study. This is followed by an in-depth discussion of various aspects of the classroom interaction phenomenon.

1.9.3 CHAPTER 3

Chapter 3 comprises the second part of the literature review, where key concepts regarding research on teacher-learner classroom interaction are discussed. The concepts that have emerged from the literature review as relevant to the phenomenon of classroom interaction are power, pedagogy and affect.

1.9.4 CHAPTER 4

In Chapter 4 the reader is provided with respectively the research paradigm and research design within which the research study was executed. The methodology that was employed is also described.

1.9.5 CHAPTER 5

In Chapter 5 an account of the empirical data is given. The various findings which emanated from the analysis of School A is presented and described in terms of themes and categories.

1.9.6 CHAPTER 6

In Chapter 6 an account of the empirical data is given. The various findings which emanated from the analysis of School B is presented and described in terms of themes and categories.

1.9.7 CHAPTER 7

In Chapter 7 the research findings are explored and compared with relevant literature. Furthermore, a comparison is made between the two case studies in order to investigate further aspects of the teacher-learner classroom interaction phenomenon. Lastly, reference is made to the limitations of the study, the relevance of the theoretical framework and recommendations for further research.

1.10 CONCLUSION

The teacher-learner classroom interaction phenomenon, which is fundamental to classroom life, certainly affects both learners and their teachers. The aim in Chapter One was mainly to encapsulate the essence of the study. The researcher provides the reader with an overview of the context, rationale, aims, research process, most prominent concepts and the necessary ethical considerations that compose the core aspects of the study.

To follow in Chapter two, is the first part of the literature review, which is a comprehensive discussion on the theoretical framework that underpins the study, namely Emotional Intelligence Theory. I investigate several aspects of the theory, such as the background of the theory and how the theory is conceptualized in terms of (i) emotion regulation and reasoning, (ii) the personal intelligences and (iii) emotional competencies and skills.

Thereafter follows an in-depth discussion on literature pertaining to the interaction phenomenon and how it relates to various aspects of classroom life, such as the classroom context, communication as well as the individual contribution of both teachers and learners.

Reference is made to the relationship between teachers and learners as research has revealed the prominent influence this has on teacher-learner classroom interactions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW (PART ONE)

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 PRELUDE

Writing like many other things in life is a reflection of the soul. It mirrors, in a sense, who we are, what we have endured and who we have become. It is infused by a certain passion, the need for exploration and a desire for discovery. It is for this particular reason that I have decided to approach this endeavour by refraining from the familiar. My objective is not to demean the sine qua non of scientific writing – quite the contrary. My aim is to provide the reader with a snapshot from my past. I believe this to be essential as it provides the reader with a sensitive yet significant piece of my personal history...I shall, through this approach, declare a form of researcher bias and simultaneously clarify what is known as my “positionality” (Thomas, 2009, p.109).

Some memories have the ability to stand the test of time... The year is 2007. I am a second year student enrolled in a General B.Ed. course at the University of Stellenbosch. I arrive at home devastated. An article was published in *The Matie* (our weekly varsity paper) commenting on how B.Ed students only “knip en plak” – (cut and paste) pictures, in our course. My utter devastation (a combination of humiliation and anger) literally drove me to tears. However, what followed was a life-changing experience. The lady with whom I resided at that time took me aside and encouraged me through a statement that went something like this: “Lizéle, you can be the smartest person in the world and able to solve the most difficult mathematical problem, but that does not necessarily mean that you have the ability to effectively transmit that knowledge to someone else...” Inherently what she did was to introduce me to a wholly different view of the world in terms of human strengths and abilities. This view basically altered my (narrow) perspective and shed light on what I eventually came to know as Emotional Intelligence Theory. Through this incident, I recognised teachers’ need to possess an indisputable strength in this particular area within the arena of teaching and learning, as the process of interaction is essentially situated in interpersonal relationships between diverse individuals.

2.1.2 INTRODUCTION

The decision to commence with a preliminary introduction to my thesis serves multiple purposes. I wanted to share with the reader a sensitive yet significant part of my personal history so that he/she can have a greater sense of understanding whilst reading this research report. My aim was also to guide the reader to concepts that are central in answering the proposed research questions. Lastly, I wanted to introduce the core argument of this thesis.

In pursuit of this endeavour, I need to clarify a few issues. The first is to substantiate the rationale of choosing Emotional Intelligence Theory as a theoretical framework for this study. This decision was influenced by many observations, personal experiences and conversations with key role players. It is also well suited to be used as a framework through which to view and analyse data. It will most importantly be supported with a review of relevant literature. I do believe it is well suited to substantiate and infiltrate the research questions that will be used to guide this particular study.

The second is to elucidate the relationship between classroom interaction, emotional intelligence theory and the teacher-learner relationship. In this regard the literature has guided me to further exploration of the following: (1) How teachers' and learners' emotional intelligence influences the quality of teacher-learner interaction; (2) Whether or to what extent high-quality teacher-learner interaction positively affects the teacher-learner relationship; and (3), If a stronger relationship between the teacher and learner enhances learner preparedness for the teaching and learning situation. Consequently, Emotional Intelligence Theory, interaction, and teacher-learner relationships are key concepts in the study at hand and will be discussed in detail in the remainder of this chapter.

2.1.3 CONCEPTUALIZING A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

I initially saw fit to address the concepts *theory* and *framework* separately, before attempting to define the concept as a whole. However, what I found was that these two concepts are inextricably entwined and cannot easily necessarily be separated.

According to Rex & Schiller:

A frame is a theory. It is a way of categorizing and seeing the world. What sense we make of a particular situation depends on our frame of reference. Framing allows certain interpretations and rules out others (2009, p.4).

From this, one may gather that theoretical frameworks are central when doing research as they play a key role in our individual meaning-making processes. This specifically refers to the way we view, analyse and address our literature and obtained data.

Silverman (2000, p.78) states that “theory provides a footing for considering the world, separate from, yet about that world”. Consequently, theory provides both a framework to critically understand phenomena and serves as a basis to consider how what is unknown might be organized (Silverman, 2000). Researchers therefore utilise a specific theory to look at their research from a specific angle.

At this point it seems apparent that theoretical frameworks provide researchers with guidelines when conducting a research study. Researchers are allowed in an explorative fashion and within certain boundaries to generate an understanding of the phenomena they are studying. Merriam (1998, p.45-46) defines a theoretical framework as “...the structure, the scaffolding, the frame of your study”. She continues by explaining that the theoretical framework is derived from the “concepts, terms, definitions, models and theories of a particular literature base and disciplinary orientation” and affects every aspect of the study, from how the purpose and problem is framed, what to look at and what to look for, and finally how we construct meaning of the data that are eventually collected.

In a personal sense, a conceptual framework is constructed from the theories and experiences the researcher brings to and draws upon when conceptualizing the study. These theories, implicit and explicit, include grand theories, “middle range-concepts such as culture”, as well as “preconceptions, biases, values, frames and rhetorical habits” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.91 in Anfara & Mertz 2006, p.xxiv). The narrative provided above is not only reinforced by Miles and Huberman but also serves as a means to explain why and how researchers take a certain stance or entry when they investigate a certain phenomenon.

Within this study, Emotional Intelligence Theory has been identified as a suitable framework and probable angle to support me in gaining greater clarity, insight and understanding into the phenomenon being studied.

2.1.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE THEORY (EIT)

In the last few decades Emotional Intelligence Theory (EIT) has escalated and grown in terms of complexity and conviction. Research on EIT accelerated especially after the influential book

Frames of Mind by Howard Gardner (1983) was released, wherein he brought to light the idea of multiple intelligences. Gardner identified two types of intelligence, inter- and intrapersonal intelligence. These later became known as the Emotional Intelligences. Gardner (1989) distinguishes between these two intelligences in the following way: Interpersonal intelligence includes the “capacities to discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations, and desires of other people” whereas intrapersonal intelligence include “access to one’s own feelings and the ability to discriminate among them and draw upon them to guide behaviour” (cited in Goleman, 1996, p.39).

Since the popularization of the term which primarily came about after the publication of Daniel Goleman’s bestseller: *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ* (1995) there has been a vast amount of interpretation and assimilation of the term. In many instances this may have led to a shallow plethora of questionable information due to various reasons such as premature experimentation and also the commercialization of EIT.

In order to generate a better understanding of the term EIT I need to reach back a bit further in history, as this may help us to gain insight into how the concept of EIT was initially developed.

2.1.4.1 Background and History

As early as 1927, Charles Spearman noted the following:

“The most enthusiastic advocates of intelligence become doubtful of it themselves. From having naively assumed that its nature is straightway conveyed by its name, they now set out to discover what this nature really is. In the last act the truth stands revealed, that this name really has no definite meaning at all; it shows itself to be nothing more than a hypostatized word, applied indiscriminately to all sorts of things” (cited in Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000, p.398).

Questioning the status quo of what was formally known and accepted as intelligence might have led to further investigation into human potential, strengths and abilities. Although it is hard to determine exactly when the concept of EI was coined (or who can be accredited for it), commentators suppose that it is derived from a broader construct known as social intelligence (Bechara, Damasio, & Bar-On, 2007; Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews, 2001), which was initiated by Thorndike as early as 1920. This model of intelligence not only included traditional intellectual factors, but also behavioural elements. In essence he defined social intelligence as “...the ability

to perceive one's own and others' internal states, motives and behaviours and to act toward them optimally on the basis of that information" (cited in Landy, 2005, p.414).

2.1.4.2 Emotion Meets Intelligence

Whilst uncovering EIT I found that, usually, researchers tend to take two opposite stances in a continuum, those who view intelligence and emotion separately, and those who don't.

In my attempt to bring across condensed versions of intelligence and emotion, I by no means intend to undermine the complexity of these significant constructs or processes. I do however hope to reveal the common ground where these two constructs can meet and connect powerfully.

Emotions are recognized as one of four fundamental classes of mental operations including cognition, motivation and consciousness (Mayer et al., 2000, p.937). Emotion comprises at least four components, namely an expressive or motor component, an experiential component, a regulatory component and lastly a recognition or processing component, which are all recognized as involving particular neural or brain processes (Greenberg & Snell 1997, p.96-97). It would therefore make sense that a canonical definition of emotion includes physiological, experiential and cognitive aspects that typically occur in a relational context (Lazarus, 1991 cited in Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001, p.233-234).

Greenberg & Snell (1997, p.96-97) have made an attempt to break down the process of emotional processing. In their opinion, emotional processing usually includes four steps. Firstly, one tends to express emotion through facial expression, body posture and vocal tone. Secondly one consciously recognizes emotions also known as "feelings", which are the direct result of cues that come from the central nervous system, the environment and also what is being experienced internally (only after the process of language acquisition do individuals have the ability to "verbalize" what they "feel"). It is important to mention that the processing of one's emotional context often occurs unconsciously and that feelings are often complex. Consequently we are not necessarily able to report our conscious experience(s). The third component of emotional processing refers to the regulation of one's own emotions. Lastly, the fourth component is an ability to recognize emotions in others by means of processing their facial expressions, body posture and vocal tone. Similarly, Roberts, Zeidner and Matthews (2001, p.197) find, that when processing affective information, the following come into play: the verbal

and nonverbal appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and others; regulating emotion in oneself and others and utilizing emotion to facilitate thought.

Intelligence usually indicates how well the cognitive sphere functions and refers to the ability to combine and separate concepts, to judge and reason and to engage in abstract thought (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.4). Intelligence has also been defined as one's capacity to learn (McCown, Driscoll, & Roop, 1996) and the "ability or abilities to acquire and use knowledge for solving problems and adapting to the world" (Woolfolk, 2010, p.114). Higher level thinking processes such as abstract reasoning, problem-solving and decision-making are also common aspects of intelligence and from what has been mentioned one can see why it is obvious that controversy exists whether intelligence is a single ability, or many separate abilities (Gustafsson & Undheim, 1996 cited in Woolfolk, 2010). This only explicates the intricacy of intelligence and what yet remains to be explored.

It would seem as though emotion and intelligence create a crevice wherein Emotional Intelligence (EI) can be comfortably situated. It is for this particular reason that I would like to explore the convergence of both intelligence and emotion and whether or not both attribute to EIT.

In their conceptualization of EI, Mayer and Salovey (1997, p.8-9) convey the unison of emotion and intelligence as follows:

The conceptual development of E.I. required relating it not only to intelligence research but also to research on emotion. For example, the idea that the mind is "hijacked" by intense emotional experiences - although true in some instances - emphasizes how emotions disrupt thought. In many instances, however, extreme emotional reactions promote intelligence by interrupting ongoing processing and directing attention toward what may be important. In this sense they prioritize cognition. We view emotions of all sorts as potentially contributing to thought rather than disorganizing it.

Mayer and Salovey thus view the connection between and confluence of the two constructs as quite obvious and prominent. Elsewhere, it has been stated that cognition and emotion will meet especially whilst processing or solving intellectual problems that contain emotional information (Mayer & Salovey, 1993), and, that constructive thinking underlies EI (Epstein, 1998, p.5).

EI serves as a common ground where both intelligence and emotion can unite. This serves as a crucial argument when I attempt to unpack the phenomenon of interaction and how it may be

influenced by concepts such as power, affect and pedagogy as manifested in the classroom interaction phenomenon.

2.1.5 CONCEPTUALIZING EIT

More often than not new theories and/or concepts do not survive academic scrutiny. Therefore, in order for EI to gain credibility, certain aspects need to be accounted for. In the first place, the content domain must be defined clearly. Secondly users of the construct should agree on what is included within the domain and thirdly, measurement instruments (based on the definition) must be developed and evaluated (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2007 Mayer & Cobb, 2000). I will thus attempt to provide the reader with an accurate description of EIT according to the aforementioned criteria.

Whilst studying the EIT literature, I found that recurring notions seem to resurface within this research domain. Overlaps in various models on EI usually include an *awareness* and *management* of one's own emotions as well as those of others (Cherniss et al., 2010). In certain instances researchers tend to focus on emotion regulation and reasoning whilst in other cases they focus on emotional competencies and skills. I have decided to include these in my discussion on EIT.

2.1.5.1 Conceptualizing EIT in terms of Emotion Regulation and Reasoning

Since the early 70's the definition of EI has grown in complexity and become much more comprehensive in terms of clarifying, emphasizing and identifying its core constituents (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). In an attempt to conceptualise EI theory, one has to refer to heightened emotional or mental abilities (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Initially, three components were highlighted by Mayer and Salovey namely (i) the ability to monitor one's own and the emotions of others, (ii) discriminating amongst these emotions, and (iii) using this information to guide thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer 1990 cited in Mayer & Salovey, 1993, p.433). Although these three components give us a strong indication of the core components of EIT, Mayer and Salovey later expanded this scope by including more components namely: (i) expressing and/or appraising emotion both verbally or non-verbally, (ii) regulating emotion in oneself or others and (iii) utilizing emotional content when solving problems (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, p.443).

A few years later, in 1997, Mayer and Salovey expanded and refined the original version once more. The new definition clearly emphasises elements of regulating and using one's abilities to reason during emotional processing, as can be seen in the following: "The ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p.5). In the light of this definition they combine the ideas that emotion makes thinking more intelligent as well as thinking intelligently about emotions. In both instances intelligence and emotion connect.

When analysing EIT from this particular vantage point, one may argue that EI only enables individuals to critically engage with their emotions in order to generate meaning and understanding. Consequently one may argue that up to now, EI only addresses internal processes and does not necessarily direct individuals as to *how* to effectively engage or interact with other human beings. This particular reasoning sheds some light on why individuals require certain skills and/or abilities when engaging in everyday life activities with other individuals.

2.1.5.2 Conceptualizing EIT in terms of Personal Intelligence

In my attempt to unravel the EI literature, the question crossed my mind as to whether or not it was possible to distinguish between levels of emotional intelligence in different individuals. Further investigation, once again led me to Howard Gardener's *Theory of Multiple Intelligences*, specifically the intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences.

Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews (2001, p.1999) argue that EI overlaps considerably with inter- and intrapersonal forms of intelligence. The core components of *interpersonal* intelligence specifically refer to the ability to notice and make distinctions among the motivations, intentions, thoughts, moods and temperaments of others (Hatch, 1997, p.71), whereas *intrapersonal* intelligence refers to the process of being able to introspectively access our own feelings, discriminate among them and to draw upon them to guide individual behaviour (Gardner, 1989 as cited in Goleman, 1996). This seems to suggest that some people might be more adept when it comes to observing, analysing and directing positive as well as negative emotions in themselves, whilst other people again might be more adept at observing, analysing and directing emotions in others. However, both these intelligences might also be present in the same person. This may serve as an indication as to why some individuals are more proficient when it comes to interaction, managing themselves and managing relationships with others.

At a later stage, Goleman (2001b) specifies that a definitive definition of EI may involve four higher order factors, namely: (i) the capacity to recognise emotions in the self (Self-Awareness); (ii) the capacity to regulate emotions in the self (Self-Management); (iii) the capacity to recognise emotions in others (Social Awareness) and (iv) the capacity to regulate emotion in others (Relationship Management) (cited in Palmer, Gignac, Ekermans & Stough, 2008, p.19). This definition incorporates both the elements of inter- and intrapersonal intelligences, and it is also suggested that certain skills and/or competencies may be nurtured, refined, developed or lastly learnt, in order to optimise individual and interactional behaviours. It also prompts ideas regarding individuals' emotional capacities and how these can assist or limit us in interactive processes.

2.1.5.3 Conceptualizing EIT in terms of Competencies and Relational Skills

The third trend that I identified in the research regarding EI is focussed on individual competencies and relational skills. This pertains more to the physical manifestation of EI in highly emotional situations. Reuven Bar-On (2000, p.385), states that: "...emotional and social intelligence is a multifactorial array of interrelated emotional, personal, and social abilities that influence our overall ability to actively and effectively cope with daily demands and pressures". Strangely enough, many of these abilities form a part of our daily lives, yet we may not necessarily be aware of this.

In literature, certain competencies and/or skills are usually captured within instruments that have been created to measure EQ (Emotional Quotient). One that was created by Reuven Bar-On (2006) includes various EQ scales that measure aspects such as intrapersonal (self-regard, emotional awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-actualization), interpersonal (empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal relationship), stress management (stress tolerance, impulse control), adaptability (reality testing, flexibility, problem-solving) and general mood (optimism, happiness). In his research, Goleman (1996) recognised abilities such as self-motivation, persistence when facing difficult circumstances, impulse control, mood regulation and the ability to hope. Therefore, if you take into account the uniqueness of individuals, it becomes evident that individuals' capacity in terms of their skills and competencies may differ. The positive side to this exchange is that this capacity is not static or fixed. This may be of great use to those individuals who are confronted daily with emotionally charged contexts, as they can learn and/or grow in terms of individual EQ, which may eventually contribute to more positive interactions.

These following words clearly summarise the EI construct:

Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent means to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions. To do this, we need to manage emotions so that they work for us and not against us, and we need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated (Bar-on, 2006, p.3-4).

One should not forget that these actions and tendencies to think and/or act in a specific manner sometimes occur within a split-second! I am therefore of the opinion that individuals who possess significant levels of emotional intelligence can effectively make decisions while incorporating and utilising their emotions to promote constructive interaction and effective communication. It is irrefutable that this has an effect on the building of healthy relationships, especially within a classroom context.

2.1.6 MODELS AND MEASUREMENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

2.1.6.1 Measuring in the Social Sciences

It was mentioned earlier that in order for a theory to gain certain credibility, it must be seen to adhere three criteria, one being that measurement instruments of the construct (based on the definition) must be developed and evaluated. Although an in-depth discussion of EI models and measurements does not fall within the scope of this thesis, I saw fit to provide the reader with a general background of this field. It is also important to note that the three most popular conceptual models as proposed by Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1998) and Mayer & Salovey (1997) (cited in Bechara, Damasio & Bar-On, 2007) indirectly guided me to process and conceptualize EI in terms of emotion regulation and reasoning, personal intelligences and lastly, skills and competencies.

Due to the abstract nature of interpretive social science research, it may seem almost impossible to develop a scale to measure nonconcrete constructs. Consequently, we can only infer the presence of the construct from assessing potential manifestations of that construct (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2007). The danger is that this may lead to the generalisation of the entire content domain, and it is for this reason that careful consideration should be taken regarding the measurement of for example psychometric characteristics (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2007).

Generally, various measures of EI cover four distinct areas, namely perception of emotion, regulation of emotion, understanding of emotion and utilization of emotion (Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar, 2001, p.1106). Usually, these measures include pencil and paper tests, which may seem incongruent when applied to measuring intricate concepts such as emotions. Mayer & Cobb (2000) however argue that the most direct measures of EI are in the form of what is known as “ability tests” where people are asked to solve emotional problems. I would venture to make the statement that, a more accurate reflection of EI can only be achieved when behaviour displayed in emotionally challenging or stressful situations is evaluated and assessed by a third party.

2.1.6.2 EI Models

It would seem as though contemporary EI models are generally categorized into two main theoretical approaches, namely ‘ability’ or ‘mental ability’ models, and what is known as ‘mixed models’.

Ability models of EI are defined in terms of a variety of conceptually related sets of mental abilities that have to do with emotions and the processing of emotional information. A stronger correlation exists with cognitive ability and a weaker correlation with personality. This model is also known as the ‘mental ability’ model of EI according to which makes predictions about the internal structure of the intelligence and its implications for a person’s life are made (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2007; Caruso, 2004 in Palmer et al., 2008; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

Mixed models of EI are substantially different from mental ability models. These models incorporate a wide range of personality variables, and treat mental abilities, socio-emotional traits and other characteristics (e.g. motivation or assertiveness) as a single entity. Mixed models of EI correlate more strongly with personality and less with cognitive ability. As a result, one can argue that the core conception of EI has been expanded by deliberately mixing in non-ability traits such as personal independence, mood and self-regard (Mayer et al., 2000 in Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000; Caruso 2004 in Palmer et al., 2008; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2007).

2.1.6.3 Measuring EI

Many researchers have attempted to develop instruments to measure EI. The four most well-known are: (1) The Emotional Competence Inventory; (2) The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence

Scale; (3) The Emotional Quotient Inventory and (4) The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test V.2 (Conte, 2005). What follows is a basic description of these particular tests.

- i. Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) was developed by Boyatzis, Goleman and colleagues, and is designed to assess emotional competencies and positive social behaviours. The ECI consists of 110 items and assesses 20 competencies which are organized into four clusters, namely self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and social skills (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000 cited in Conte, 2005, p.434).
- ii. According to Bar-On (2000) the development of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) began in 1983. The aim was to examine various factors thought to be key components of effective social and emotional functioning. The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), is a self-report measure that consists of 133-items. This test yields an overall EQ score as well as scores for five composite scales: i.e. intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, general mood, and (5) stress management (cited in Conte, 2005, p.434).
- iii. The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) is an ability test developed by Mayer and Salovey (later updated by the MSCEIT). The MEIS consists of 402 items divided into four subscales i.e. perception, assimilation, understanding and managing emotions (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000 cited in Conte, 2005, p.435).
- iv. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), an update of the MEIS, is also designed to measure the four branches of Mayer and Salovey's 1993 and 1997 emotional intelligence ability model. The MSCEIT (revised once thus now V.2) consists of 141 items that provide an overall EI score as well as individual scores. Individual scores are divided into various categories which include: (1) perception of emotion, (2) integration and assimilation of emotion, (3) knowledge about emotions, and (4) management of emotions (Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, & Lopes, 2003 cited in Conte, 2005, p.435).

Although these tests measure different sets of EI abilities they still appear to fall within the same broad scope of inter- and intrapersonal intelligence that was mentioned earlier.

Up to the present, my objective was to unpack the "constituents" of emotional intelligence theory and to provide the reader with a holistic view of the construct as a whole. My discussion has also covered general tendencies and interests in research regarding EIT. After addressing mostly the

theoretical foundations of the theoretical framework (EI) it is important to discuss its applicability to the current research on interaction in the classroom.

2.1.7 EI AND THE SOCIAL SPHERE

In the last two decades the interest in EI has escalated. Its popularity has grown in various fields including the business sector and education. This may be due to the increasing importance of emotion management in modern society or the evidence that suggests EI as predictor of life success (Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews, 2001; Williams, Daley, Burnside & Hammond-Rowley, 2009).

Earlier the question was asked whether higher or lower levels of EI can influence interaction, human relationships and interpersonal communications. It would seem as though EIT can assist me to find answers to the questions being sought.

2.1.7.1 EI and Social Relationships

Due to the inherent social emotional nature of relationships, one may reason that the presence of EI implicitly and explicitly influences how we engage in social relationships. This was affirmed by Saarni (1997, p.38) who stated that "...our relationships influence our emotions, and our emotions reciprocally influence our relationships".

Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey and Palfai (1993) assert that individuals, who are able to regulate their own affect, seem to be able to repair their moods more quickly and effectively after experiencing failure and/or disturbing experiences (cited in Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Emotional management or regulation which may serve the purpose of limiting one's emotional experiences are thus highlighted (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). These are traditionally referred to as defence mechanisms. This concept was later extended by Fernández-Berrocal & Ruiz (2008) who stated that higher levels of EI enable us to offer those around us with adequate information about our psychological state. They also highlight the idea that "...in order to manage the psychological state of others, it is first necessary to manage well one's own emotional state" (Fernández-Berrocal & Ruiz, 2008, p.429).

One may consequently infer that EI (at the very least) plays a basic role in establishing and maintaining quality interpersonal relationships.

2.1.7.2 Emotional Skills and Competencies

As mentioned earlier, emotional skills and competencies are a prominent component of EI research. An important question may therefore be whether these skills and competencies are innate and whether they can be taught and/or learnt.

Whilst studying EIT, Mayer and Salovey (1997) found that individuals operate from different emotional starting places known as individual knowledge bases. Therefore, although opportunities for learning emotional skills are not always equal, they do exist.

Saarni (1990) defines emotional competence as "...the demonstration of self-efficacy in emotion-eliciting social transactions" (cited in Saarni, 1997, p.38), where self-efficacy refers to the knowledge and conviction about one's abilities to get assignments done successfully (Woolfolk, 2010). Self-efficacy, when applied to emotion-eliciting social situations, enables individuals to respond to these situations by strategically applying their knowledge about emotions.

Emotional skills/competencies are advantageous in the sense that they provide individuals with distinct and complementary perspectives. This for one contributes to their ability to adapt better on a social and emotional level (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schütz, Sellin, & Salovey, 2004). Defalco (1997, p.33) identifies a variety of these skills/competencies, which include impulse control, anger management, empathy, recognizing similarities and differences among people, complimenting, self-monitoring, communication, evaluating risks, positive self-talk, problem-solving, decision-making, goal-setting and resisting peer pressure. When individuals successfully utilise these competencies, this aids them when they negotiate their way through interpersonal exchanges and whilst regulating their emotional experiences (Saarni, 1997, p.38).

At this point one can infer that emotional skills and competencies play a central part in social relationships, and that individuals with higher levels of EI possibly demonstrate greater levels of emotional competency. These individuals are also able to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change through addressing immediate problems (of an interpersonal nature) in a realistic and flexible way. Doing this is simpler when individuals manage their emotions effectively and demonstrate a high level of optimism and self-motivation Bar-On (2007). Lastly, it is important to highlight the role that personal values can play, as they partly determine a person's conscious knowledge of emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

EIT is regarded as relevant to this study, since the EI of the participants in a classroom setting can directly influence the quality of interaction in the classroom. The level or extent of influence however may vary: “EI covers ways in which people differ in their ability to understand and make use both of their own emotions and the emotions of the people they interact with” (Austin, 2005, p. 404). This indicates the possibility of various levels of capability and proficiency in terms of displaying individual EI that may ultimately affect the nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction. Moreover, EIT may assist teachers and learners with interaction in complex meso-systems (such as the classroom) as these individuals do not necessarily have control over or even an awareness of macro-systemic influences (such as globalisation, politics or the economy) that influence their lives.

It is however important to note that EI as a theory has been critiqued. Some of the main arguments that have been raised against the theory includes: (i) Questions regarding moral agency, i.e. the *conformity issue* where EI only measures individuals’ tendency to fit with received ideas and practices in their emotional lives. Thus, individuals behave in a certain way because there is a certain social expectation. In other instances individuals adopt deliberate strategies to manipulate individuals (Rietti, 2009); (ii) self-report measures are affected by desirability factors and emotional competence is not consciously accessible (Matthews et al., 2004); (iii) both of the aforementioned critiques influences the reliability of EI tests (Matthews et al., 2004).

Thus far, I have provided the reader with an explanation of EI theory as well as my rationale for selecting this particular theory as the underlining theory for this study. Consequently, the focus will now move to an examination of the core constituents situated within the phenomenon of teacher-learner classroom interaction.

2.2 CLASSROOM INTERACTION

2.2.1 INTRODUCTION

Capturing the essence of classroom interaction is not a simple endeavour. Characterized and influenced by various aspects such as human behaviour, individual perception, opinions, personality, time, context, change and diversity, this particular phenomenon can be rigorously complex as it continuously evolves and changes during classroom interactions. Nevertheless, driven by an interest in exploring the nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction and the

analogous influence of this interaction on the teacher-learner relationship, I continue on this journey of discovery.

2.2.2 BACKGROUND: RESEARCH AND THEORIES REGARDING CLASSROOM INTERACTION

“Research on teacher-student interaction is truly international” (Fraser & Walberg, 2005, p.105). From these words one can deduce that research on teacher-learner interaction is gaining prominence.

Research on teacher-learner classroom interaction can partly be described as being disjointed due to its multifaceted nature and the extensive influential sphere of the phenomenon. It is therefore understandable that research within this field is often characterised by a wide array of focal points and numerous points of origin. In this section, I shall present a brief overview of the research regarding the key elements of the phenomenon under study as well as current and past research influencing teacher-learner classroom interaction.

According to Gorman (1974, p.39), a theory of interaction begins with the actors and the pattern within which they interact. One can therefore derive that teachers, learners and the classroom context are central in the study of classroom interaction. Well-known in the field of research regarding interaction between teachers and learners is the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) (Refer to Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995, p. 11 for a shortened version of the QTI). The QTI has been used in multiple studies regarding classroom interaction and has been translated into at least 15 languages (Kokkinos, Charalambous & Davazoglou, 2009; Fraser & Walberg, 2005; Van Tartwijk, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 1998; Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995).

In short, the QTI is theoretically founded on Warwick, Beavin and Jackson’s (1967) systems theory of communication combined with Leary’s (1957) research on the interpersonal diagnosis of personality, from which a two-dimensional model on interactional teacher behaviour was created. The two main dimensions referred to are *influence* and *proximity*, whereas the *influence dimension* is used to measure the degree of dominance or control over the communication process, and the *proximity dimension* measures cooperation, closeness, or interpersonal warmth as experienced by those partaking in the communication process. These dimensions are further divided into eight sections depicting different behavioural patterns, namely (i) directive, (ii)

authoritative, (iii) tolerant/ authoritative, (iv) tolerant, (v) uncertain/tolerant, (vi) uncertain/aggressive, (vii) repressive, and (viii) drudging.

In 1993, Wubbels and Levy constructed the QTI based on these behavioural patterns and categorised teacher interpersonal behaviour in terms of: (i) leadership, (ii) helping/friendly, (iii) understanding, (iv) learner responsibility/freedom, (v) uncertain, (vi) dissatisfied, (vii) admonishing and (viii) strict behaviour. Subsequently, the QTI has been administered to assess these interpersonal behaviours (Fraser & Walberg, 2005; Lee, Fraser & Fisher, 2003).

The QTI is a resource with great potential. It provides teachers as well as learners with opportunities to communicate their perceptions regarding teacher interpersonal classroom behaviour and/or illuminate possible (positive or negative) behavioural patterns that are unique to the teacher under study. The greatest advantage, however resides in the value that QTI can add when teachers are presented with insight into the depth and quality of teacher-learner relationships. Eventually this benefits and support teachers when they build classroom relationships that are essential for quality interaction (Fisher et al., 1995).

Another framework which is used to conceptualize teacher-learner interactions was designed by Hamre & Pianta (2007). The CLASS Framework (Classroom Assessment Scoring System) categorizes teacher-learner interactions into three domains, namely emotional support, classroom organization and instructional support. The quality of interaction that learners experience on average is then operationalised in terms of these three domains (cited in Luckner & Pianta, 2011).

Literature pertaining to classroom interaction ranges far and wide and covers many areas, topics and/or domains in educational research. The manifold nature of psychology, leadership, management, pedagogy, learning, human behaviour, social interaction, human characteristics as well as the influence of emotions, gender, culture, personality, etc. might tempt one to think that the list is limitless. It is for this particular reason that I have decided to summarise the reviewed literature in a compact design, thus presenting it in a table format. This is to provide the reader with a simple yet detailed version of the literature, and to provide a comprehensive outline of what will be discussed in greater depth in the remainder of this chapter. I do believe that through this attempt, the complex and intricate nature of the phenomenon of teacher-learner classroom interaction can be illuminated.

TABLE 2-1: EXPLICATING THE NATURE OF TEACHER-LEARNER INTERACTION

Theme	Attribute under study	References
Teachers and Communication	Non-Verbal	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Face visibility and expression including laughter • Aggressive or neutral expression • The strategy of ignoring • Approval (smile) • Body language 	<p>Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Vandeyar & Killen, 2006; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003.</p>
	Verbal	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice including volume, tone and style (e.g. lecturing tone) • Engaging in intellectual, academic and personal discussions • Teacher command (verbal instruction) • Teacher reprimand • Teacher ultimatum (in terms of negative learner behaviour) • Teacher consequence (in terms of negative learner behaviour) • Leave requests • Informal communication style • Calling upon learners to provide answers • Critical evaluation of learners' responses in class • Dealing with feelings • Jokes • Praising or encouraging • Using the ideas of learners • Correcting without rejection • Directing patterned drills • Giving directions • Criticising learner behaviour/ response • Miscommunication 	<p>Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005; Giddan, Lovell, Haimson & Hatton, 1968; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Kennedy, 2011; Kyuchukov, 1999; Gorman, 1974.</p>
	Questioning Technique or Feedback Strategies	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher order vs. lower order questions • Waiting time (learner response) • Rephrasing learner questions • Question-Answer- Feedback sequences also known as IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback/ Follow up • Repeating learner response verbatim • Feedback strategies including: praise, 	<p>Colvin, 1998; Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Smith, 2008; Giddan, Lovell, Haimson & Hatton; 1968; Kyuchukov, 1999; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005; Kyuchukov, 1999;</p>

	<p>teacher commentary, repeat question and repeat answer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Error correction: who/ when/ where/how? • Closed questions vs. open questions • Recall vs. higher order thinking 	Rubie-Davies, 2007.
Teachers and the Social Sphere	Values	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appreciation and respect • Respect for learners • Honesty • Being conscientious • Fair • Unselfish • Tolerant • Helpful • Sharing • Being sensitive to learner problems • “Good” intentions/ motives 	Çermik, 2011; Aspelin, 2006.
	Self-Values	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-confidence • Being unprejudiced • Being open for criticism • Being non-judgemental • Patience • Responsibility 	Çermik, 2011, Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Vandeyar & Killen, 2006.
	Beliefs	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • View of the past & the future • Determining learner outcomes • Expectations of learners 	Kennedy, 2011; Englehart 2009; De Jong, Van Tartwijk, Verloop, Veldman & Wubbels, 2012.
Teacher Knowledge and Teaching Skills	Subject or Content Knowledge	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good knowledge of subject matter and use • Clear explanations • Pedagogical knowledge • Thorough and appropriate learner evaluation and assessment • Lessons that are reiterative vs. lessons that are developmental in nature • Ability to relate new information, experiences, and new ways of understanding effectively 	Çermik, 2011, Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Polk, 2006; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005.
	The Teaching and Learning Process	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encouraging learner autonomy • Capturing the attention of learners • Willingness to explain again • Efficiency in addressing learner distractions • Realizing when learners do not understand • Encouraging and maintaining high standards • Identifying and addressing academic needs (providing academic rigor and determining a useful curriculum) • Decisions that demonstrate consideration for learners, knowledge/interest in learners lives • Decisions that keep class running smoothly (reading climate/ sufficient amount of supplies) • Ability to identify learner progress • Individual attention to learners • Quality of interaction which directly correlates with learners' peer relationships • Acknowledging learner attempts or efforts • Engaging learners in the teaching and learning process • Defining learning outcomes • Active listening • Linking new information to learners prior knowledge or to previous lessons • Helping learners to develop skills such as critical thinking, clarity of expression and logical expression of ideas • Explaining, informing, demonstrating, questioning, suggesting 	<p>Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Kennedy, 2011; Blatchford, Basset & Brown, 2011; Luckner & Pianta, 2011; Morganett, 1991; Strong, Gargani & Hacifazlioglu, 2011; Alderman & Green, 2011; Rubie-Davies, 2007; Giddan, Lovell, Haimson & Hatton; 1968; Kalu & Ali, 2004.</p>
	Cultural and Scientific Knowledge	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being open to change with modern outlook • Awareness of current issues • Awareness of technology 	<p>Çermik, 2011.</p>
Teacher Participation	Engaging with Learners	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender preference (boys/girls) • Preference in terms of encounters with learners • Relating to skill or behaviour • High and low achievers 	<p>Colvin, 1998; Leder, 1987; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Kennedy, 2011; Jansen, Jensen & Mylof, 1972; Le Cornu & Collins,</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers lose passion • Warm and responsive attitude • Fostering caring and authentic relationships • Ability to deal with emotional issues • Dealing with negative behaviour and low attaining learners • Teacher likeability (e.g. increased through engaging in fun activities, remembering learners' birthdays, finding out about learners' personal interests, spending time outside class) • Potential influence on learners' adjustment to school 	2004; Yan, Evans & Harvey 2011; Blatchford, Basset & Brown, 2011; Rhode, Jenson & Reavis, 1993 cited in Alderman & Green, 2011.
Teacher Competencies & Beliefs	General	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alertness or awareness • Level of training • Engaging in self-development and lifelong learning • High-expectation, average-progress or low-expectation teacher 	Jansen, Jensen & Mylof, 1972; Polk, 2006; Rubie-Davies, 2007.
Teacher Dispositions, Characteristics and Qualities	Personal (Positive)	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude, optimistic • Being hardworking • Tidy • Creative • Consistent • Enthusiasm towards subject • Being open to learner opinion/ disagreement • Being hesitant • A good listener • A good leader • Confident • Lenient • Pleasant • Dependable • Having a sense of humour • Being helpful • Friendly • Tolerant • Confident when engaging with learners from a culture other than the teachers' own 	Çermik, 2011; Kennedy, 2011; Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Jansen, Jensen & Mylof, 1972; Kyuchukov, 1999; Hargreaves 2000; Gabriel, 1957; Englehart, 2009; Polk, 2006; Kennedy, 2006.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having a high level of emotional understanding • Emotional stability • Including learners through positive affect • Good prior academic performance • Personality • Teacher professionalism • Communication skills • Tender-heartedness 	
	Personal (Negative)	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anger outbursts • Hesitant • Over reacting • Too quick to correct errors • Allowing learners to boss him/her around • Being impatient • Sarcastic • Oversensitive • Intimidating • Easily persuadable • Patronizing • Unreasonable • Over suspicious • Putting learners down • Low tolerance level • Lack of support • Unreasonable standards • High level of uncertainty & dissatisfaction • Admonishing • Unpleasant personality • Low self-esteem • Prone to emotional misunderstandings 	Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Jansen, Jensen & Mylof, 1972; Cardoso, Ferreira, Abrantes, Seabra & Costa, 2011; Hargreaves 2000.
Learner Behaviour	High Attention Demand or Disruptive Behaviour	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Attention grabbers” • Time wasters • High attention demands • Non-compliance • Making the teacher look foolish • Picking fights with the teacher • Negative response (e.g. criticism/verbal comment) • Non-compliance • Verbal aggression (threatening/ abusive) • Need for immediate gratification • Disengagement 	Colvin, 1998; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Kennedy, 2011.

	Positive Behaviour or Compliance	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compliance in terms of disruptive behaviour • Engagement • Positive learning attitude 	Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Kennedy, 2011; Moola & Willoughby, 1978; Kalu & Ali, 2004.
	Other	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manipulating teacher for hints or information regarding tests 	Giddan, Lovell, Haimson & Hatton; 1968.
Learner Competencies and Beliefs	Beliefs	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • View of the past and the future • Low academic skills • Doubts and limitations 	Kennedy, 2011.
Learner Participation or Behaviour		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active involvement vs. passive/uninvolved; • Influenced by whether graded or not while interacting • Behavioural styles: aggressive, hyperactive, distractible, prosocial, asocial attitudes and shyness inhibit learner-initiated interactions • Learner performance 	Blatchford, Basset & Brown, 2011; Giddan, Lovell, Haimson & Hatton; 1968; Birch & Ladd, 1998; Moritz, Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009; Cardoso, Ferreira, Abrantes, Seabra & Costa, 2011.
Learner's View of the Teacher		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation of adults • Influenced by level of experience 	Kennedy, 2011; Giddan, Lovell, Haimson & Hatton; 1968.
Learners and the Social Sphere	Values	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflicting values 	Kennedy, 2011.
Learner Dispositions, Characteristics and Traits	Positive	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-belief, ability to motivate • Eagerness to learn • Ability to make positive decisions 	Kennedy, 2011; Aspelin, 2006.
	Negative	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anger • History of behaviour problems • History of academic problems • Defiance authority 	Kennedy, 2011; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Cardoso, Ferreira, Abrantes, Seabra & Costa, 2011;

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disruptive • Inflammatory actions • Low self-esteem 	Baker, Moola & Willoughby, 1978.
Classroom Context	Teachers and Learners	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating a safe environment for learners • Pleasant • Creating a climate where learners can be themselves • Room for teacher-learner camaraderie • Effective classroom control and management • Accommodation of cultural diversity • Ability to provide learners with a sense of comfort or belonging • Supportive(ness) • Free from ridicule • Facilitating participation • Class size • Classroom conditions • Feel accepted • Sense of belonging • Respectful • Responsive • Warm • The number of interruptions • The rate and intensity of disruptive behaviour • Climate • Access to resources (instructional & socialization) • Seating arrangement • Free from threat/ isolation 	Kennedy, 2011; Fisher, Fraser & Cresswell, 1995; Blatchford, Basset & Brown, 2011; Kyuchukov, 1999; Englehart, 2009; Morganett, 1991; Kennedy, 2006; Luckner & Pianta, 2011; Beutel, 2010; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Vandeyar & Killen, 2006; Bovard, 1951; Baker, 1999.
Interaction	Types of Interaction	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demanding • Engaging • Endearing • Modelling • Trust Building • Teacher initiated vs. learner initiated 	Kennedy, 2011; Moritz, Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009.
Outcomes of Interaction	Positive	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved self-esteem • Positive shift in affect or attitude • Improved academic skills • Safe environment for learning • Trust building 	Kennedy, 2011.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encouraging/ Receptive • Guidance 	
	Negative	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical defiant 	Kennedy, 2011.
Other factors Influencing Classroom Interactions	Social Behaviour and Development	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Biological changes such as puberty • Antisocial, Asocial, Prosocial, Aggressive, Anxious-fearful and Hyperactive-distractible attitudes • Level of social maturity 	Wigfield, Eccles & Pintrich, 1996; Birch & Ladd, 1998; Luckner & Pianta, 2011.
	School Structures and Policies	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High level of complexity 	Hargreaves, 2000.
External Factors influencing classroom interaction	Societal or the Community	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home/outside school vs. school identity • School policies • Changes in government/ politics • View of elders/adults in society 	Kennedy, 2011; Yiar & Khatab, 1995; Lee, Fraser & Fisher, 2003.

According to the collection of influences on classroom interaction mentioned above, it would seem as though non-verbal as well as verbal communication, questioning techniques/feedback strategies, values, cultures, teacher participation, subject content, teachers' characteristics and competencies as well as learner's behaviour, participation, competencies and characteristics can all contribute to the complex phenomenon of classroom interaction. It is however important to note that the information as categorized above can by no means be restricted to certain themes or categories and is by no means exhausted. Every case, class, situation and context is unique and influenced by factors that cannot necessarily be predicted, seen, or is often unaccounted for such as physical setting or even the time of day. It is furthermore important to mention that all the themes and attributes listed above are not necessarily constituents of interaction per se, but the possibility exists that they may, to a degree, influence the quality of teacher-learner classroom interaction. The next challenge is to reduce all the components as mentioned earlier into a single and, if possible, uncomplicated definition of interaction.

2.2.3 DEFINING INTERACTION

Interazione; interakcija; koostoime; entèraksyon; interaction; bashkëveprim; kölcsönhatás; samskipti; idirghníomhaíocht; interaksie; גומלין פעולת; mwingiliano. Words are saturated with meaning. Yet this meaning is lost when one lacks a sense of understanding - whatever the reason may be. In this specific case, all of the words mentioned above have similar meanings with language being the only variable. Although it may be argued that interaction is a well-known universal construct, coining and conceptualising the construct is not necessarily straight forward. Nevertheless, in my meaning-making processes I have identified commonalities that seem to have bearing on the possibility of coming to terms with the meaning of this construct. This makes it possible to uncover a sense of clarity, perception and understanding of the phenomenon of interaction.

According to Kennedy (2011, p.10) *classroom processes* and *interactions* are “any events that either occur on a regular basis or spontaneously between at least one teacher and one student”. Elsewhere, the importance of communication is highlighted, where interaction is defined as “...a process of communication between two or more people where both the linguistic meaning and the emotional response are mutually clarified whenever clarification seems necessary” (Gorman, 1974, p.28-29).

The definition of interaction is extended by Wedin (2010, p.148) who identified various *purposes* of interaction namely, information sharing, problem-solving and/or social exchange, thereby also calling attention to the cognitive and/or social purpose of interactions. Berge (1999) included three more purposes in his definition while specifically referring to the teaching context: “Interaction is the two-way communication among two or more people with the purposes of problem solving, teaching or social relationship building” (cited in Hwang, Hsu, Tretiakov, Chou, & Lee, 2009, p.224). This sheds new light on ideas such as the depth of the interaction, the flow or direction of the interaction, the goal of the interaction as well as the focus of the interaction.

Hwang, Hsu, Tretiakov, Chou and Lee (2009, p. 224), takes the definition to a new level when they distinguished between *interaction*, *intra-action* and *outer-action*. They argue that these three concepts do not appear independently but are all related to each other in the process of interaction, and that one may consequently open a way for the other. Through these definitions, interaction is uncovered as a multidimensional construct. Interaction is thus not a means to an end, but an ongoing process.

Although not captured in formal definition, Gorman (1974, p.30) highlights a series of features that are important when considering a formal definition of interaction. These features have been summarised as follow:

Interaction:

- is not a series of one-way actions;
- includes feelings and perceptions in addition to messages;
- occurs only when messages and assumptions of the sender's intent are clarified;
- may be driven or sustained by reactions such as acting defensively to words or not taking the speaker into account;
- is not as effective before people form relationships and explores their initial assumptions about each other;
- may be complicated by a group situation;
- always includes a *situation, self* and *other*;
- is supported by communication which plays a central part and
- is influenced by individual perception.

From the literature regarding interaction discussed up to this point, my individual contribution while defining the construct is as follows: "Interaction, is a social exchange between at least two parties, that is either verbal or non-verbal, formal or informal and located within a particular time and space". For the remainder of this discussion, this is the definition that will be drawn upon when referring to interaction within the classroom.

2.3 THE NATURE OF TEACHER-LEARNER INTERACTION (TLI)

2.3.1 THE INFLUENCE OF HUMAN FACTORS AND SOCIAL PROCESSES

The main idea behind my attempt to deconstruct the phenomenon of classroom interaction into various sections is to generate an in-depth understanding of what interaction "looks like" and how it manifests in the classroom context. It is also in line with what Kelley (1992) says, that one approach, when examining social phenomena, is to decompose it into its microlevel constituent elements (cited in Snyder & Stukas, 1999). However, it is once more important to caution the reader from the start that, in the case of interaction, the whole is not equal to, but much more than the sum of its parts (Nisbet & Watt, 1984 cited in Cohen et al., 2011). This may be due to

the inherent reciprocal nature of interactions between teachers and learners (Aultman, Williams-Johnson & Schutz, 2009).

Another idea that I would like to bring to the readers' attention is that every interaction is unique. Say for example the teacher has a similar situation with two different learners in two classes. What are the odds that the outcome of the interaction or the interaction *per se* will even be remotely similar? Now taking into account that by the age of 18, the average learner has spent approximately 10 000 hours in direct contact with classroom teachers (De Jong, Van Tartwijk, Verloop, Veldman & Wubbels, 2012), and that the average teacher-learner ratios vary from 1:20 to 1:45 (estimate), a significant question may be: What does all of this amount to? The answer - an infinite sum of TLI possibilities.

TLI does not occur in a vacuum. It manifests within a social-cultural ecology between individuals from a variety of cultural backgrounds, which can make interaction so complicated that it can even move beyond the point of understanding (Englehart, 2009; Vandeyar & Killen, 2006). Aspelin (2006, p. 228) provides us with a deeper insight: "...social life in great part is built up beneath the surface of interaction" and one therefore needs to "look behind the exterior" and into the "microworld of the classroom", which refers to the imbedded, largely unconscious, nearly invisible and somewhat suppressed social processes of teaching and learning.

If this "foundation" or "core" of social processes that subtly underlie interaction are taken into account, emotion(s) are bound to play an important role. Emotional processes are complex and include components such as appraisal, subjective feeling, physiological changes, facial expression and action tendencies (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). In 2000, Hargreaves (p.815) coined the concept *emotional geographies* of schooling and interaction. These geographies exist of spatial and experiential patterns of closeness and/or distance in human interactions and relationships that help create, organize and colour the feelings and emotions we experience about ourselves, the world and others. As a result, emotions and feelings strongly influences our behaviour, actions and decision-making processes, which (in)directly affects our interactions with others.

Interactions are greatly influenced by the acts and nature of human behaviour and are also highly reactive. Gorman (1974) found that people tend to treat one another in a formal ritualistic manner where interaction is blocked, whereas the opposite was found where interaction was unhindered. In such instances, people get to know each other better, there is less need for

careful screening, and problems that may arise are more easily dealt with. Fiske, Cuddy and Glick (2007) found that when humans spontaneously interpret behaviour or form impressions of others, warmth and competence form the basic dimensions whereby individuals (or groups) are characterised. Another aspect that hinders or enhances the flow of interactions is what Aspelin (2006, p.232) refers to as “the implicature,” i.e. the meaning that lies in words and gestures without being shown openly.

Each and every individual is unique, which necessitates the need to focus on personal characteristics and how these affect the process of interaction. Research has shown that teacher- and learner decisions, beliefs, self-esteem and characteristics greatly influence the nature and quality of interactions. Combined with interaction rules (or a lack thereof), personality as well as the purpose of the interaction, not only affects the course and outcomes of the interaction, but also how individual participants perceive one another. Moreover, these perceptions have the strength to channel our thoughts and consequently our actions towards others before we are necessarily provided with a behavioural basis for our impressions. As humans, we have therefore learnt to make use of cues that may signal a likely direction that will guide the flow of the interaction. One of these cues is our expectations. Preconceived expectations strongly influence beginning interactions in the sense that they possess the power to channel our thoughts and behaviour towards others - even before we have had the chance to establish a behavioural ground for our impressions. Another cue is to determine the intentions of the group/individual we are encountering and then to decide how to act on those intentions. Consequently, by means of our interactions, behaviour continually cultivates behaviour which leads to the perception that interaction multiplies exponentially (Kennedy, 2011; Cardoso, Ferreira, Abrantes, Seabra & Costa, 2011; Fiske et al., 2007; Aspelin, 2006; Snyder & Stukas, 1998; Snyder 1984 in Snyder & Stukas, 1998).

Within this process of identifying the constituents of human interaction, it is easy to overlook important factors because they have become so familiar to our existence. Influences such as one’s level of emotional-, social-, academic- and physical development, language preference, body language, gender, differing roles as well as the norms and standards of society as a whole should not be neglected when unpacking the TLI phenomenon (Luckner & Pianta, 2011; Vandeyar & Killen, 2006; Lee, Fraser & Fisher, 2003; Wigfield, Eccles & Pintrich, 1996). Often these factors are easily underestimated as they tend to disappear in the daily ebb and flow of classroom life.

As a result, one can summarise the influence of human factors and social processes as follows: there is *always* more than what meets the eye.

2.3.2 THE ROLE OF CONTEXT IN CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Classrooms are alive. Thriving with activity, chatter, thoughts, actions, discipline, disagreement, laughter and reactions, one may thus argue that context, *per se*, not only situates, but, also encapsulates teaching, learning and interaction processes. Although not confined to a particular space, interaction takes on a new meaning when the role of the classroom comes into play. This dimension sets the stage for quality interaction and is therefore crucial to this discussion.

One can easily overlook the impact of the classroom environment. This may have severe consequences for classroom interaction when, especially teachers, lose focus and sight of the whole environment wherein interaction occurs. According to Kennedy (2006), classroom conditions may play a more important role than teachers' skills and qualifications. This makes sense if one takes into account humans' innate need for safety and security, and how the emotional state of a learner affects his/her learning processes. Although not solely responsible, the onus primarily rests on the teacher to ensure that learners feel safe and secure in the classroom.

Teachers are able to create a positive classroom environment by conveying an interest in both the teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction (Williams-Johnson, Cross, Hong, Aultman, Osbon & Schutz, 2008). Through establishing a welcoming emotional classroom context, teachers set the "conditions for learning" (Inglis & Aers, 2008, p.147). In order to achieve a welcoming environment, teachers need to create an environment where learners are happy, engaged, emotionally secure and enjoy coming to class (Andersen, Evans & Harvey, 2012); good teacher-learner relationships are evident (Yan et al., 2011; Inglis & Aers, 2008); learners can engage in dialogue and reflection (Leach & Moon, 2008) and one that is enriching and supportive (Dotterer & Lowe, 2011). A classroom environment as such encourages learner motivation, participation, and contribution that may possibly lead to an increase in positive classroom interactions.

In their attempt to create a supportive environment, teachers need to be sensitive towards and, pay attention to learners' need for belonging and acceptance. This is crucial especially when teachers want to provide learners with opportune circumstances to participate in classroom

activities and/or when they want to advance TLI. Here, "...establishing the tone and feeling of the classroom atmosphere" (Englehart, 2009, p.714), comes into play. Whenever learners' participation is welcomed, valued and free from ridicule, or where mistakes are viewed as a natural part of teaching and learning, TLI will be positively affected. In addition, teachers should aim to (i) provide support that fosters positive learning, (ii) aspire to sincerely acknowledge learner attempts and (iii) diminish any room for put-downs and/or negative comments that may inhibit the essential process of risk-taking (Beutel, 2010; Engleheart, 2009; Rubie-Davies, 2007; Baker, 1999; Morganett, 1991).

Gorman (1974, p.33) emphasizes the importance of a "warm supportive setting" for learners to work towards reaching their potential. In settings such as these, learners can, according to him, concentrate on their learning without worrying too much about their needs. Although learning can occur in a "cold, formal setting, it is not often very efficient in terms of depth and retention" (Gorman, 1974, p.33). He continues by underlining the importance of group cohesion as a crucial component of learner participation, -and mention that where learners are hesitant to participate, teachers often have to persuade, coax or threaten them to gain participation, which once again has a negative effect on the learning environment. It therefore makes sense that the classroom context is seen as a predictor of school engagement and that it influences the extent to which learners engage mentally and behaviourally in the classroom context (Dotterer & Lowe, 2011).

Up to this point one may presuppose that a safe and secure classroom context depends more strongly on the emotional dimension than the physical outlay and organization thereof. Teachers should therefore aim to establish and maintain a sense of relative emotional warmth and stability in their classrooms. Wentzel (2002 cited in O' Conner, 2010) argues that a positive emotional climate supports learner interest in the classroom which has the potential to directly impact the teacher-learner relationship. A model constructed by Harvey and Evans' (2003) identifies five key dimensions that accurately reflect the fundamental components of a classroom emotional environment. They are interpersonal relationships, interpersonal guidelines, emotional awareness, emotional coaching and intrapersonal beliefs (in Yan et al., 2011). These dimensions recognise Emotional Intelligence as relevant and important in order to create a safe and secure learning environment.

Establishing a classroom environment that is receptive, enjoyable and that welcomes learning can be challenging. Certain factors or influences may counter, obstruct or limit the establishment of a safe and welcoming classroom environment as they are often camouflaged in the natural state of daily classroom affairs. Some that have been identified include: unnecessary interruptions caused by telephone calls or announcements (Kennedy, 2006); difficulty with accessing resources (Hamre & Pianta, 2001); seating arrangements (Vandeyar & Killen, 2006); class size (teacher-learner ratio) (Blatchford, Bassett & Brown, 2011); excessive disruptive behaviour or low teacher expectations (Rubie-Davies, 2007) and complex school structures that do not allow time for relationship building (Hargreaves, 2000).

The powerful influence of the classroom atmosphere on TLI should not be taken lightly. The classroom context not only influences inter-class achievement, attitudes and outcomes, but also academic- and affective outcomes of schooling (Kalu & Ali, 2004; Baker, 1999). The contextual domains' invisible potential to influence relationship building between teachers and learners and its strength to guide TLI, can easily be overlooked. Teachers therefore ought to deliberately invest in establishing a sound environment for quality TLI.

2.3.3 TEACHERS AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION

The way teachers and learners interact seems to be a critical factor in determining learner outcomes and has also been associated with teacher exceptionality (Englehart, 2009). Yet one may be tempted to ask *how* and/or *what* exactly it is that teachers do (or not), that enhances or hinders quality TLI. In order to gain deeper insight into this phenomenon, one first has to gain understanding of the classroom life of teachers. Collinson (1999, p.10) portrays it (aesthetically) as follows: "Teaching is so personal, so dependent on human interactions, and so full of uncertainties that it requires intelligent thinking and behaviour at every turn". With this, Collinson already highlights two crucial skills that teachers should be able to demonstrate when teaching, which are, being well-balanced and highly adaptable.

Research on teachers, classrooms and the teaching profession often focuses on similar trends and issues thus once again reinforcing the universality of the themes regarding the TLI phenomenon. Consequently, the themes under discussion within this section include teachers' knowledge, skills, competencies, beliefs, behaviours and actions.

2.3.3.1 Teacher Knowledge and Teaching

The teacher can transform understanding, performance skills, or desired attitudes or values into pedagogical representations and actions. These are ways of talking, showing, enacting, or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern, and the unskilled can become adept (Shulman, 1999, p.63).

Pedagogy is the professional practice of pedagogues. Teachers, as professionals, are central in the process of knowledge transfer. Teacher proficiency (in terms of knowledge and skills), not only proliferates the process of developing learners' potential, but also enhances the quality of teaching and learning processes.

Teacher professional knowledge, -skills, -effectiveness and quality teaching is a popular research topic (Çermik, 2011; Strong, Gargani & Hacifazlioglu, 2011; Kennedy, 2006; Polk, 2006; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005; Yoon, 2002; Collinson, 1999; Fisher et al., 1995), where the focus often centres around teacher excellence. An interesting approach is to consider the idea that a group of pre-service teachers may "possess" a certain amount of knowledge and skills, but how this is brought across in their individual classrooms may differ quite dramatically.

In terms of teachers' teaching skills and -knowledge, TLI is influenced by a variety of factors that include: teachers' curricular organizing strategies (Bennet, 1973); teaching style (Myhill, 2002); classroom management (Colvin, 1998; Baker, Moola & Willoughby, 1978); disciplinary measures or techniques (Nizielski, Hallum, Lopes & Schütz, 2012); behaviour management techniques; an ability to link lesson content with learners' prior knowledge or previous lessons and the number of teaching statements made (Rubie-Davies, 2007); teachers' level of adaptability (Corno, 2008); subject knowledge; the ability to read cues from learners; having knowledge of learners' cognitive abilities and effectively modifying learner goals (Berliner, 2004); proficiency in terms of reaching learners across a broad spectrum of special needs, talents, linguistic backgrounds and sociocultural conditions (Corno, 2008); the ability to actively listen to learners (Alderman & Green, 2011); the ability to encourage dialogical patterns (this includes opportunities for learners to listen and speak to each other in the classroom) (Newberry, 2010; Collinson, 1999); effective time organization (Luckner & Pianta, 2011); and years of teaching experience (Aultman, et al., 2009). Although the factors mentioned can only be regarded as introductory, they do provide us with deeper insight into the domain of prerequisite teacher competency and adeptness.

If and when teachers successfully apply their knowledge and skills, learning and teaching are positively affected. The following was found in literature: teachers effectively accommodate learner diversity and address them as individuals (Corno, 2008; Voss, Kunter, Baumert, 2011), underachievers are more engaged in positive classroom interactions (Myhill, 2002); disruptive and/or oppositional learner behaviour was reduced (Nizielski et al., 2012; Luckner & Pianta, 2011); greater teacher effectiveness (Strong, et al., 2011); and improved communication between learners (Collinson, 1999). However, in order for teachers to achieve the aforesaid, they have to gain the necessary experience. Through experience, teachers continually modify and/or build on their pedagogic knowledge base. During this process teachers mature while gaining understanding and wisdom through both positive and negative classroom experiences. These experiences become especially useful when they are derived from teachers' individual cases, -incidents, -successes, as well as -failures and are then reflected upon to guide future practices. Also, teachers with a great array of experience have the ability to view situations more holistically and may therefore act more efficiently (Berliner, 2004).

Some popular discourses regarding teaching also address certain negative effects or hindrances in teaching processes. De Jong et al. (2012, p.954) for one warns about the "ingrained lessons" teachers have learnt over time. These lessons may have become part of teaching traditions that are often left unquestioned, which may ultimately reinforce reiterate interaction. Teachers should therefore make a deliberate attempt to continually refine and work to progress in terms of their pedagogic actions to ensure that learning occurs at an optimal level. This is essential as teachers mostly take precedence when it comes to initiating direction or managing classroom interaction processes.

In concluding this section, I would like to figuratively state that teachers are "symphony conductors" in their classrooms. Teachers orchestrate the tone, regulate the tempo and finally maintain a certain sense of pedagogic harmony/concord through employing their knowledge and expertise. This is essential for optimal TLI.

2.3.3.2 Teacher Participation and Behaviour

Most teachers might agree that teaching requires a very high level of emotional stamina. The age difference between teachers and learners, being but one variable, may place an even higher demand on teachers to act tactfully and to lead by example, especially in terms of their

behaviour. How teachers therefore choose to behave in highly emotional situations, will impact TLI considerably.

Many aspects of teacher's actions or behaviours have been investigated in research. The scope includes: (i) general teacher behavioural characteristics (Kovalainen & Kumpulainen, 2007; Kalu & Ali, 2004; Colvin, 1998), (ii) teachers' ability to influence learners through their behaviour/participation (Nizielski et al., 2012; Luckner & Pianta, 2011; Baker, 1999; Van Tartwijk, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 1998; Edwards & Kern, 1995; Baker, Moola & Willoughby, 1978), and learners' ability to influence teacher behaviour (Nurmi, 2012; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Leder, 1987).

Behaviour and participation (or a lack thereof) has a direct influence on the amount and/or quality of interaction occurring within the classroom. Hayes, Hindle & Withington (2007, p.162) state that "teachers' behaviour is a significant factor in achieving positive outcomes and that verbal behaviour, what teachers say, could be a key factor in successful outcomes". Positive interaction, displayed to a great extent via positive teacher behaviour, thus has the potential to move and influence individuals significantly. Englehart (2009) found that it can provide learners with a sense of comfort and belonging in the classroom which may ultimately enhance their level of motivation and/or facilitate their social development. Luckner and Pianta (2011), encourage studies on the interactions between teachers and learners, since the information obtained provides both teachers and outsiders with a direct indicator of what the teacher does that impacts learner behaviour. This, for one then provides teachers with direction in terms of suitable intervention strategies that are powerful when they involve proximal classroom processes (Baker, 1999, p.59).

Research further indicates a variety of behavioural tendencies which are commonly associated with how teachers operate in their classrooms. A few of these include individual factors such as a positive or negative outlook, concern for their learners or a personal sense of self-worth (Edwards & Kern, 1995); teachers' conscious efforts to include all learners (Colvin, 1998); their ability to encourage learners (Edwards & Kern, 1995); their ability to encourage learner participation (Kovalainen & Kumpulainen, 2007); whether they display rational behaviour and are fast, fluid and/or flexible in their behaviours (Berliner, 2004); teachers' expectations (Brophy & Good, 1974) and also the "action zone" of the teacher i.e. the area of the classroom where teachers position themselves most of the time while they teach (Adams & Biddle, 1970 cited in

Brophy & Good, 1974, p. 21). These findings once again illustrate some important skills/competencies as discussed in the EI literature, such as impulse control, anger management and flexibility (Bar-On, 2006; Defalco, 1997).

Human behaviour, in general, has a strong communicative aspect. Through behaviour we (unknowingly) convey messages, whether implicit or explicit and consequently affect one another mutually within interaction processes (Van Tartwijk et al., 1998). One example is teachers' communication of learner expectations. Shortly, teacher expectations refer to the "...inferences that teachers make about the present and future academic achievement and general classroom behaviour of their students..." (Brophy & Good, 1974, p.32). Expectations are very powerful as they possess moderate strength to alter both parties' behaviour. Brophy and Good also caution about the danger of expectations. Teacher expectations can become self-fulfilling prophecies when they "[function] as an antecedent or cause of student behaviour rather than as a result of observed student behaviour" (1974, p.35). Expectations can therefore be utilised as a powerful educational tool to motivate learners yet teachers should take care that they do not nurse negative labelling of either individual learners or whole classes. Teachers' expectations of themselves and of their learners should be realistic and applied to encourage learners.

Teacher misbehaviour serves as a possible threat to positive TLI. Kearney et al. (1991) depict teacher misbehaviour as behaviours that interfere with learners' learning (cited in Sava, 2002). Sava also mentions a "negative conflict-inducing attitude" that includes teacher misbehaviour, a lack of teacher emotional support and hostility. Such an attitude encourages defensive and negative learner responses, i.e. a "win-lose approach to education" (Sava, 2002, p.1015). Learner influence on these behaviours is also recognised: "On their part, students do not remain indifferent before every teacher's behaviour, as they may appreciate some interactive patterns and dislike others" (Molinari, Speltini & Passini, 2013, p.59). What complicates this even further is that not all learners experience teachers' behaviours in the same way, where some of them prefer strict teachers while others favour teachers who are friendlier (Molinari et al., 2013).

Teacher behaviour is not static. It can continually be altered to encourage positive TLI. According to research, teachers possess the ability to modify and control the behaviour of their learners through controlling their own reactions towards learners' behaviour (Van Tartwijk, et al., 1998; Baker, Moola, & Willoughby, 1978). This is asserted by Doyle (1983):

...teacher behaviour in classrooms is most probably a product of teacher-student interaction and is shaped by the demands of securing co-operation in classroom activities. As teacher-student interactions are of course also influenced by teacher behavior, the process is circular (cited in Wubbels, Créton & Holvast, 1988, p.26).

This extract underlines the reciprocal nature of TLI anew. One may therefore infer that positive or negative teacher behaviour reinforces positive or negative learner behaviour. Similarly, how teachers interpret their learners' behaviour, as well as the responses that teachers expect from them influence their own behaviour, directly relating to TLI (De Jong et al., 2012; Rubie-Davies, 2007; Wubbels et al., 1988 cited in Newberry, 2010). Alternatively when teachers demonstrate behaviours such as a cooperative attitude, positive sense of self, and general concern for others, they perceive learner misbehaviour to a lesser degree, -which ultimately results in a more productive and satisfying classroom (Edwards & Kern, 1995). Teachers' general mood (optimism and happiness) (Bar-On, 2006) that forms part of the spectrum of EI competencies may benefit teachers in this regard as it may initiate more positive interactions.

In the classroom, teachers are seriously outnumbered! Learners make out a big part of our daily routine since much time is spent in their company and vice versa. Maintaining a level of consistency and keeping up a high level of proficiency and professionalism at all times may at times prove to be challenging. Learners inevitably influence teacher behaviour in classrooms. Learners' levels of performance, the need for learner support, learners who wilfully engage in offensive/ disruptive behaviours, or, the flip of the coin, the best learners as perceived by their teachers, are only a few examples of learner behaviour that can affect or influence teachers' behavioural tendencies (Nurmi, 2012; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Leder, 1987).

As potential role models, teachers have the ability to influence learner conduct and increase the level of impact through their behaviour (Nizielski et al., 2012; Englehart, 2009). Teachers are not perfect, but should aim to be genuine, consistent and motivated. Often, learners' behaviour may (figuratively) serve as a barometer to provide teachers with an indication of what they need to change, adapt or reformulate. This necessitates the need for continual reflection on one's own teaching practices as well as to regularly engage in meta-cognitive evaluation practices based on classroom participation. If not attended to, negative and ongoing reciprocal interactions may increase systematically or escalate to a point where effective learning ceases (Kovalainen & Kumpulainen, 2007; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Van Tartwijk et al., 1998).

2.3.3.3 Teacher Individuality

What it means to be a teacher... varies depending on how teachers define themselves in the lives of their students. Some teachers think of themselves as experts in their academic fields, who emphasize content learning and skill development. Others define themselves as guides who offer students emotional support and advice. Some are positive and encouraging, whereas others are strict and demanding (Kennedy, 2011, p.14).

Individuality is an abstract noun, which is significant in the sense that it distinguishes one individual from another. It is the *what*, *how*, and *why* of teachers - evident in classrooms worldwide.

Inherently, teachers' characteristics, beliefs, dispositions, competencies and qualities distinguish them in terms of impact and effectiveness. Their general demeanour and how they operate in classrooms either simplifies or complicates reciprocal TLIs.

The concept of teacher individuality proves to be difficult to break down into constituent parts. According to Collinson (1999, p.7), teachers' dispositions "...influence their decisions and the lives of all their students". Awareness and articulation of how "...dispositions shape judgments, behaviour, and decisions require accurate self-understanding and the capacity for introspection and reflection". Who we are and how we act may influence what others become and believe. The teachers' dispositions therefore directly influence and potentially shape learning outcomes (Collinson, 1998).

What can be added to the excerpt quoted earlier in this section is the influence of teachers' personalities and how this may contribute to more effective TLI. In the research arena, teacher personality seems to be a popular research topic. As stated by Polk (2006, p.26), "Personality provides a conduit through which humans interact", and Kennedy (2006, p.14) "One of the most prominent hypotheses is that teaching depends on personality - that some people have a form of charisma that enables them to connect with kids, inspire them, and communicate with them". Personality is mainly what distinguishes one teacher from another and cannot be manufactured, copied or learnt. Through their uniqueness, teachers should aim at establishing healthy relationships with their learners, while drawing on their personal resources.

Characterization, in general, varies according to the perspectives, interests and focus of writers, and may reside in (i) the teacher as a reflection of competence, (ii) the personal or psychological qualities of the teacher, (iii) the pedagogical standards that a teacher exhibits, or (iv) the

teacher's ability to raise learners' learning ability (Strong, 2011, p.12). Certain characteristics have been measured and/or studied and the ones that are regarded as favourable in terms of TLI include: teachers' level of respect for learners, their passion for teaching and their sensitivity to the classroom context (Berliner, 2004); teachers' degree of professionalism (Polk, 2006); whether teachers are funny, charismatic or personable (Alderman & Green, 2011); creative, intuitive and tender-hearted (Kennedy, 2006); flexible (Witty, 1947 in Strong 2011); and being non-judgemental (Kennedy 2011).

Teachers' knowledge and teaching skills, their behaviour and participation as well as their individual characteristics and qualities all significantly influence the level, intensity and ultimately the quality of classroom interaction between themselves and their learners. A high level of quality interaction reinforces the relationship between teachers and learners, which is vital in determining learner success and educating learners for life (Çermik, 2011).

Lastly, Collinson (1999, p.10) emphasises that excellent teachers "...purposefully develop interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge as well as professional knowledge", thus not only reiterating EIT, but also highlighting the importance of teachers' wilful intentions to build their individual EI. She continues by stating that "They seem to grasp the balance between intellectual and emotional intelligence and the importance of both in the many roles required of teachers" (1999, p.10). When teachers integrate both their EI and intellectual intelligences, they may eventually be more prepared to face the many challenges often associated with their profession, be more balanced and display higher levels of resilience.

2.3.4 LEARNERS AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Each time a learner enters the classroom a whole new demographical composition ensues. If one takes into account individual resources, such as gifts, talents, attitudes and beliefs, individual experiences, and also the problems and challenges of everyday life, learners become extremely influential when it comes to discovering the nature of TLI.

In the classroom, learners do not only operate in an individual capacity. They also form part of groups, which may differ across different settings. Just like teachers, learners as unique individuals behave in ways based on their individual characteristics, personality and phase of development. This may openly, covertly, directly or indirectly influence their interactions in the classroom, for instance their level of participation and compliance.

2.3.4.1 Learner Behaviour, Characteristics and Participation

Learners play a key role in classroom interaction through either their willingness or refusal to participate in classroom interaction processes. Nurmi (2012, p.3) has designated the term “active agents” to learners and emphasises their involvement in what actually happens in classrooms. Individual learner characteristics tend to evoke different responses from teachers (Nurmi, 2012) and contribute to the frequency of teacher- and learner-initiated interactions (Moritz Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009). Learner personalities are also important for effective teaching (Polk, 2006).

In a discussion on learner behaviour, one cannot omit referring to the role of learners’ emotions. Individual emotions significantly influence and/or contribute to the extensiveness of learners’ behaviours:

...many individual students are likely to experience a complex range of feelings within any given day. At any time, children can feel anxious, worried, jealous, sad, angry, hurt, and so on - sometimes in response to things happening among peers, sometimes in response to their interaction with the teacher, and sometimes related to more distal causes, such as a result of events happening at home or in their community. A teacher has to make repeated and rapid decision as to how to handle these emotional expressions, whether to attend to them, whether to validate them, and whether to suggest strategies for the children to manage them (Andersen et al., 2012, p.200).

In order to manage learner’s emotions effectively, teachers have to be adept at handling a variety of emotions that manifest via learner behaviour. Socio-emotional skills (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009) may assist teachers to make the correct decisions in interactions that display high levels of emotionality.

Brophy and Good (1974) state that learner attributes influence the teacher’s perception of their learners and consequently also their patterns of interaction. They also group attributes as group- (social class, race, sex) or individual- (behaviour, level of achievement) related. Some characteristics that have been identified include shyness, learner-teacher compatibility, learner engagement and motivation; self-esteem; and also developmental processes such as puberty (Moritz et al. 2009; Polk 2006; Nurmi, 2012; Cardoso, et al., 2011; Wigfield, Eccles & Pintrich, 1996). As mentioned earlier, these characteristics greatly influence the type of behaviour that learners demonstrate in the context of the classroom, thereby possessing the power to influence the course of interactions.

From literature it becomes evident that teachers are prone to act in certain ways when they are confronted with specific learner behaviours. Teachers and learners simultaneously influence learner behaviour. According to the research learners who tend to be either off task, misbehaving and/or learners with a lower level of attainment receive more teacher attention (i.e. demand more attention from teachers) (Blatchford et al., 2011); learner behaviour (participatory vs. non-participatory) strongly relates with teacher's actions and behaviour (Le Cornu & Collins, 2004); disruptive learner behaviour tends to elicit negative and/or inappropriate teacher responses (Nelson & Roberts, 2002); underachievers are more inclined to participate in off-task interactions than their high-achieving counterparts (Myhill, 2002); high-achievers tend to dominate positive classroom interactions whilst underachievers tend to dominate negative classroom interactions (Myhill, 2002); where learners elicit a high amount of teacher disapproval in a context of very little positive attention, teacher disapproval may become a reinforcer of negative learner behaviour (Baker, Moola & Willoughby, 1978); learners that display lower levels of attentional focusing, inhibitory control and shyness display higher levels of conflict-induced interactions (Moritz Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009) and learners change their behaviour if they predict something is going to be fun (Alderman & Green, 2011). Although teachers cannot control learner behaviour, they can influence it positively through their deliberate attempts to counteract negative interactions while constantly reinforcing positive interactions.

2.3.4.2 Learners Behavioural Styles and Modes of Participation

Learners tend to display certain behavioural styles while they interact. These behavioural styles that are known as; asocial (moving away); prosocial (moving toward); and antisocial (moving against) serve as important indicators. They have the potential to warn teachers in time about maladaptive interactional patterns which may lead to persistent negative relational outcomes if not attended to (Birtch & Ladd, 1998, p.944).

In their study, Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2007) pinpoint four main modes in which learners participate, namely vocal, responsive, bilateral or in a silent way. According to them, these modes become evident, especially when the amount of TLI increases. They also identify other factors that augment or inhibit modes of participation among learners such as the direction of conversational exchanges between all participants in the classroom, and learner diversity.

In short, *vocal participants* tend to activate and promote interactions among peers. They display high levels of enthusiasm whilst they actively initiate, respond and/or engage in classroom

discussions, and consequently their level of interaction is high. With *responsive participants* teachers tend to initiate the discussion by prompting learners to express individual views and perspectives regarding certain matters, topics and aspects of the content. These learners usually build on others' comments and opinions, thus responding to the on-going dialogue. They, however, seldom initiate discussions or present individual opinions or views. *Bilateral* (two-sided) *participants* do not demonstrate a natural tendency to participate in multilateral interaction sequences with their peers in the classroom. These learners generally demonstrate a medium to low inclination towards classroom interaction processes, and will wait on teachers to orchestrate their speaking terms after they have raised their hands. Lastly, *silent participants* seldom participate in classroom interaction activities. Instances where interaction and participation do occur are where teachers deliberately aim to engage them via bilateral interaction such as specifically asking them for information, views and opinions. Their interactions or responses are thus limited to teacher initiated requests (Kovalainen & Kumpulainen, 2007, p.148-155). Of these four modes, non-participation (silent participants) is the most problematic especially in bigger classes, because it does not disrupt the smooth running of the classroom and unknowingly becomes a form of social exclusion (Le Cornu & Collins, 2004).

Developing learners' repertoire of participatory skills as mentioned above, is extremely important both for the teaching and learning process, and to prepare learners for life after school. Social interactions influence individual perceptions, feelings and interpersonal relationships and may support the development of democratic citizenship (Bovard, 1951).

2.3.5 INTERACTION AND COMMUNICATION

Classroom life is built up by measureless amounts of verbal and nonverbal signs that flow between those who are participating (Aspelin, 2006). This is especially visible in the "...local, moment-by-moment classroom interactions" which explicate and signal what counts as effective learning, participation and communication in the classroom (Kovalainen & Kumpulainen, 2007, p.142).

"Communication is at the heart of a quality classroom environment" (Levy et al. 1992 in Polk 2006, p.25). Consequently, "communication is the most immediate and significant of all teaching processes and practices from the point of view of the child and are perhaps the most challenging for the teacher" (Winch-Dummett, 2006, p. 786). Needless to say, communication plays a key

role in transferring information and also sustaining the process and flow of interaction between different agents in the classroom.

Discussions on the role of communication in interaction include verbal and non-verbal communicative aspects, as well as a great focus on teachers questioning techniques and strategies. At the core of it all, however is the micro and often unforeseen influences of an emotional sphere that not only complicates the process of communication, but also emphasise its unpredictable nature due to events and circumstances that are current and present at that particular time.

Teachers' communication behaviours have the potential to impact learners' emotions meaningfully (Titsworth, McKenna, Mazer & Quinlan, 2013). Gorman (1974) states that in order for someone to fully concentrate on the cognitive component of the communication process he first needs to be at ease and get to know the others that are participating in the process. Aspelin (2006) argues that interaction in classrooms embraces a flowing emotional energy that is only partially reflected on, which may contribute to a high level of unpredictable and contradictory processes encapsulated within communication processes. Inevitably, this may result in miscommunication between teachers and learners, especially if a pattern such as that which has been identified by Gorman (1974, p.26) namely assumption-intent-message-reception, is followed in the teacher-learner relationship that usually varies in degrees of closeness and conflict (Thijs, Koomen, Roorda & Ten Hagen, 2011).

“Verbal communication refers to any communication that uses words. This includes the spoken or written word in all its forms” (Winch-Dummett, 2006, p.785). An ample amount of literature on communication in the classroom context has a strong pedagogical inclination in terms of questioning techniques, feedback and facilitating strategies. The aspects of verbal communication include learners recalling information or giving the expected answers; teacher feedback strategies; error correction; using redirective rather than confrontational language; and making use of soft reprimands especially to learners who are exhibiting inappropriate behaviour (Rubie-Davies, 2007; Wedin, 2010; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005; Kyuchukov, 1999; Alderman & Green, 2011; Morganett, 1991).

Kovalainen and Kumpulainen (2007, p.145) focus on verbal communicative aspects in the classroom context. They identify ten communicative functions which provide us with a deeper insight into the process by which information is verbally transferred in the classroom. These

aspects include evidence negotiation; defining; experiential (where experiences are shared); view sharing; information exchange; the orchestration of classroom interaction (e.g. managing speaking turns); non-verbal communication; neutral interaction (the repetition or echoing of ongoing interactions); confirming and evaluation. What becomes evident, is that teachers make use of various pedagogic strategies to manage the *what* and *how* that is being communicated. Not only do these aspects make differing demands on learners cognitively, but may also contribute to building their communication skills.

In terms of non-verbal communication, more than 90 percent of teacher messages are non-verbal (Mehrabian & Wiener, 1966, cited in Sadker & Sadker, 1975). Humans also tend to have less control over non-verbal than over verbal behaviour, and usually non-verbal behaviour tends to transcend verbal communications (Pennycook, 1985). In terms of the non-verbal component of communication in the classroom context, emphasis are placed on aspects such as facial expressions, glances, body-positions, kinetic aspects (gestures and body-movements), pauses, the use of physical objects, movements in the room, paralinguistic aspects (how people talk, including their voice tone or -volume), utterances, proxemics, gaze and visual contact, dress, age and physiques (Aspelin, 2006; Winch-Dummett, 2006; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005; Smith, 1979). This reinforces the idea mentioned earlier by Brekelmans & Wubbels that one cannot *not* communicate when in the presence of someone else.

Aspelin recognises the connection between interpersonal relationships and communication:

While studying interpersonal relations it is far from sufficient to note the content in communication. Every utterance and every exchange are loaded with meaning, with a meta-message regarding the present interpersonal relation. Every nonverbal sign has to be seen in relation to other nonverbal signs expressed by the individual and by others, and it also has to be related to the verbal interaction. Of course, one cannot automatically draw conclusions regarding the relation between outer signs and inner processes. But the more cues that point in a specific direction, the more plausible and consistent the interpretation will be (2006, p.234).

Both aspects of communication, verbal as well as non-verbal, play a crucial part in effective communication. Teachers should however be specifically aware of learners' non-verbal cues as this may provide them with an understanding of whether or not learners are internalizing and making sense of the content or information being transferred.

Winch-Dummett (2006) cautions teachers on two important aspects regarding communication. The first relates to teachers who share the same home language as their learners. Often communication is laden with subtleties, inferences and ambiguities that affect the way that the message is received by learners. If wrongfully interpreted by the learners, it may lead to miscommunication leading to a breakdown in the teaching process. The second relates to learners who speak a different home language to that of their teachers. Teachers often make use of rhetorical questions especially as a classroom management strategy. This may be problematic as they may be misinterpreted by the learners.

Communication between teachers and learners plays a significant part in TLI. Teachers should aim to send clear messages to their learners as this increases effective communication (Polk, 2006). Effective communication then once again, has the potential to influence TLIs significantly.

2.3.6 INTERACTION AND THE PROCESS OF LEARNING

I cannot end this review of the literature without bringing the following under the readers' attention. Eventually, all forms of classroom interaction contribute in some way or another to what may ultimately be the main objectives of education, i.e. for learners to learn and develop as holistic individuals.

As said by Gorman (1974, p.34) "True interaction produces a cohesive classroom group where teacher and students share responsibility for the defining, carrying out, and evaluating of the learning experience." Elsewhere, Myhill (2002, p.341) states that "Interactions through talk and non-verbal interactions are central to the process of learning". Although the notion of "true interaction" may be interpreted or defined in many ways it is inevitably essential for learning.

At this point in time, one may argue that interaction is a two-way process. Therefore, in order for learning to be successful, learners must play an active part in their learning (Gehlbach, 2010; Hwang, Hsu, Tretiakov, Chou & Lee, 2009; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005). This idea is expounded by Gehlbach (2010) who states that even if learners interact with inanimate objects, much of their potential learning remains unrealized until a social interaction occurs, either via the teacher or another learner. It is also important to mention that learning activities, how much learners invest in the learning process as well as their learning performance, are all influenced by aspects such as learners' perceptions of their teachers and the teacher-learner relationship (Abrantes et al., 2007 cited in Cardoso et al., 2011; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005).

2.4 INTERACTION AND THE TEACHER-LEARNER RELATIONSHIP (TLR)

The relationship between teachers and their learners can be regarded as fundamental in any discussion pertaining to TLI. Teacher-learner relationships (TLRs) develop from daily interactions between teachers and learners (Pennings, Van Tartwijk, Wubbels, Claessens, Van der Want, Brekelmans, 2013). While it is recognised that teachers influence their learners, learners may equally have an impact on the relationships between teachers and themselves (Nurmi, 2012). Warm, healthy and positive TLRs are seen as crucial in modern day teaching that is often uncertain and complex (Beutel, 2010). Conversely, when teachers develop effective relationships with their learners, this benefits classroom interactions (Gorman, 1974).

Teaching has its roots in human relationships. These relationships can both be formal or informal and range from limited intimate interchanges to more emotionally laden ones. Both have their advantages and disadvantages, specifically if one take into account the emotional resources which are drawn upon. This is especially the case when teachers have a greater - number of informal relationships with their learners (Gabriel, 1957). TLRs once again focus the attention on EIT where teachers have to develop both interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge (Collinson, 1999) to establish and maintain relationships.

Two instruments that have been developed to measure the TLR, is the Teacher-Learner Relationships Scale (TLRS) (Pianta, 1991) and the Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour (MITB) (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005). The TLRS mainly assess three constructs, namely (i) teachers perceptions about their relationships with particular learners, (ii) learners interactive behaviour and (iii) how a teacher thinks the learner feels about him or her. The MITB has been used to measure the perceptions of learners about their relationships with their teachers. These two instruments therefore provide researchers with deeper understanding and input into the relevance and influence of both teachers and learners regarding the TLR.

2.4.1 TEACHERS AND THE TEACHER-LEARNER RELATIONSHIP

Similar to interaction, relationships require input from more than one party. Whether or not teachers purposefully undertake the venture in establishing the grounds for the TLR, these are bound to form one way or another. Forming and maintaining these relationships are crucial in the teaching and learning process and learners have identified relationships with teachers as the most important part of their school experience (Alerby, 2003 cited in Englehart, 2009, p.713).

These relationships are however sensitive and exposed to risks on a continual basis - their character is not fixed and stable but continually changing (Aspelin, 2006).

According to Kesner (2000), relationship history may be one of the factors that influence the perceptions of TLI. Teaching, which depends on many interactions with various role-players, requires certain skills and/or knowledge to grow sincere and lasting relationships. Collinson adds that teachers ought to work at developing high levels of “interpersonal knowledge”, because this type of knowledge compels teachers to have a sense of maturity and wisdom. She also says that “excellent teachers rely on interpersonal knowledge for successful relationships...” (1996, p.6).

Educational contexts may increase the strain on teachers, often because of the unseen or unforeseen influences that are constantly at play. Nias reveals some of these influences that place a higher demand on the process of building an effective TLR:

The work of many teachers is unique, however, in that it involves intensive personal interactions, often in crowded conditions, with large numbers of pupils who are frequently energetic, spontaneous, immature and preoccupied with their own interests. Moreover, the social context of teachers' work requires them to demonstrate a capacity to control this effervescent mixture... (2009, p.295-296).

Most of these influences are beyond teachers’ control and require of teachers to adapt and to meet the demands and requirements of their surroundings. Teachers should be capable of continually reflecting on their own actions and analyse situations and interactions in order to build interpersonal relationships (Lahtinen, 2008). When teachers make an attempt to alter their individual interpersonal behaviours, especially towards those with whom they share unfavourable relationships, more desired responses may be elicited from these learners over time. Eventually, this may result in smoother and more satisfying TLRs (Thijs et al., 2011).

Certain factors influence teachers when it comes to establishing quality TLRs. These include: the attachment relationship between parents and their children (Kesner, 2000); gender and ethnic differences (Kesner 2000); trust between teachers and learners (Mokhele, 2006; Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006); the level of teachers’ emotional involvement (Spilt, Koomen & Thijs, 2011); the degree of teacher influence and proximity towards learners (Nurmi 2012; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005); learner characteristics (e.g. temperament) (Moritz Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009); emotional outbursts (which can harm the TLR) (Nizielski, et al., 2012);

the emotional receptivity and stress levels of teachers (Yoon, 2002); early styles of interpersonal interaction that influence learner's social-psychological adjustment (Birch & Ladd, 1998); the level of mutual respect between the teacher and the learner (Mokhele, 2006); negotiating emotional boundaries, sharing personal information, the use of humour and attending extramural activities (Williams-Johnson, et al., 2008) and the degree of relational proximity (Spilt, et al., 2011). Taking into account these factors or influences one may infer that establishing the grounds for quality TLRs takes time and effort. The influence of both teachers' and learners' levels of emotional intelligence are also recognised as vitally important.

Moritz, Rudasill and Rimm-Kaufman (2009) found that developing and sustaining quality TLRs are not only important for teaching and learning, but also for (i) learner development, (ii) teachers' professional development, (iii) to help teachers with their preparation and (iv) to make them more aware of learner characteristics that influences academic success. They continue by highlighting the importance of understanding exactly what it is that shape or modify the TLR so strongly:

Equipped with a deeper understanding of the correlates of teacher-child relationship quality, teachers may be better able to promote and foster high-quality relationships with more children. The development of positive teacher-child relationships is multi-determined. Child characteristics, teacher characteristics, and attributes of the social environment all contribute to the nature of children's relationships with teachers (2009, p.107).

Once more, teachers can benefit from EI skills and competencies such as empathy, social responsibility, flexibility and problem-solving (Bar-On, 2006) to help them initiate, establish and maintain healthy relationships with their learners.

Poor or unfavourable TLRs on the other hand can be quite problematic. Not only do unfavourable TLRs negatively impact classroom interactions, but they can potentially lead to long term damage. It was found that unfavourable TLRs make teachers vulnerable to personal failure (Spilt et al., 2011), that these relationships eventually become developmental risk factors (Thijs et al., 2008) and that they become predictive in terms of behavioural outcomes (Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

One needs to bear in mind that the central component initiating this whole process is interaction between teachers and learners. This corresponds with Den Brok, Brekelmans and Wubbels (2006) who say that as interactions mature with time and become more stable, typical relational

patterns develop. These relational patterns are then once more altered and/or maintained via continuous classroom interaction.

Teachers should aim to foster positive and healthy TLRs, as this can remarkably benefit both teachers and learners. Positive TLRs contribute to the emotional environment in the class and can influence the well-being of teachers (Spilt et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2011).

2.4.2 LEARNERS AND THE TEACHER-LEARNER RELATIONSHIP

“While it is known that teachers influence their students, students may equally have an impact on their teachers’ instruction and teacher-student relationships” (Nurmi, 2012, p.2). This statement illuminates what could already have been anticipated, namely that learners play an equal part when comes to establishing and preserving TLRs by means of interaction.

Although research on the TLR tends to focus more on the role of the teacher, factors pertaining to learners were also identified. Learners tend to influence the TLR by their levels of shyness (Moritz, Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009); the level of conflict (Nurmi, 2012; Birch & Ladd, 1998); affective quality (Spilt et al., 2011); previous significant relationships (Robertson, 1999 cited in Lahtinen, 2008); problem behaviours (Nurmi, 2012; Thijs, et al., 2008); and their level of academic performance (Nurmi, 2012). Also, when learners display behaviours such as being disrespectful, conflictual or distant, this tends to increase teachers’ experience of negative affect (Spilt et al., 2011).

Humans have a basic desire to form social attachments with a powerful need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995 in Engleheart, 2009). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) found that when teachers establish supportive relationships with their learners, they promote feelings such as safety and connectedness, thus providing the learners with a sense of belonging. Learners then have the support to help them thrive on a social, emotional and academic level. Fredriksen and Rhodes (2004) agree by stating that, not only do learners influence the quality of the TLR, but reciprocally the nature and quality of these relationships also influence learners’ academic and psychosocial functioning.

What becomes obvious is that the TLR infiltrates many aspects of the classroom interaction phenomenon. One may therefore come to the conclusion that if teachers aim to build optimal TLRs with their learners, this will not only positively affect the learning process (Osborn, 1996 in Zembylas, 2005), but also the well-being of both teachers and learners.

2.5 CONCLUSION

At the start of Chapter two, Emotional Intelligence Theory was proposed as a suitable theoretical framework to guide this study. EIT incorporates both the aspects of emotions and cognitions and was conceptualized in terms of (i) emotion regulation and reasoning, (ii) personal intelligence, and (iii) competencies and relational skills. EIT is potentially seen as a key element in both teachers and learners when it comes to initiating and maintaining positive classroom interactions.

I also introduced the reader to the plethora of research relating to classroom interaction. Although the interaction phenomenon incorporates various traits and attributes I identified the classroom context, teachers, communication, learners and the TLR as core features of TLI. These were found not to only affect the quality of interaction, but also the quality of learning.

In the following chapter, I propose to discuss three broad noticeable trends of TLI namely power, affect and pedagogy. I consider that these three concepts can illuminate the phenomenon of classroom interaction and also provide the reader with a deeper insight and understanding thereof.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW (PART 2)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In section two of the literature review (Chapter 3), the focus will fall on three primary concepts which emanate strongly from existing teacher-learner classroom interaction literature. These concepts that have broadly been categorised as pedagogy, affect and power, transcend various aspects of classroom interaction. Although they are inextricably intertwined, they also have distinctive features. What follows is a basic overview of these three concepts and how they manifest subtly or overtly within the classroom, ultimately influencing, altering or directing the nature of the TLIs. The brief discussion on each also includes each concept's relevance to the nature of teacher-learner classroom interactions.

What is also included at the end of this chapter is a short overview of literature specifically pertaining to adolescents. The reason for including this section is to provide the reader with a better understanding of adolescent behaviour and demeanour, consequently shedding some light on classroom interactions pertaining to learners within this particular developmental phase. This is significant, as the respondents (learners) are in grade 9.

3.2 PEDAGOGY

When one accesses pedagogical literature one can easily be overwhelmed by the broad spectrum of theories, phenomena and the vast array of topics at hand, as pedagogy comprise an infinite number of topics. Towards the end of the previous century, Harmse (1982, p.1) defined pedagogics as "...the study of an occurrence observed in the world, namely that children are educated by adults". According to him, pedagogics is based on *fundamental pedagogics*, which concerns the philosophy regarding education; *didactic pedagogics*, which refers to the fact that an adult instructs the child; *psychological pedagogics*, which concerns a child's cognitive functioning and has to do with perception, understanding, attitude, ability and other functions which may impact the child's learning; *historical pedagogics*, that refers to how education was viewed in the past; *social pedagogics*, which assumes that every child is educated to fit into

society; *comparative pedagogics*, highlighting practices and objectives compared with identical or similar matters from a different time or place; and lastly also *orthopedagogics*, which refers to the many and varied factors which may contribute to difficulties or problems within a child's education (Harmse, 1982, p.1-3).

Within the context of this particular study the focus will be on didactic and psychological pedagogics as they are more readily observable in the classroom context and relate more directly to the primary research question as well as the secondary research question that focuses on pedagogy.

3.2.1 DEFINITION

As is the case with most concepts, a single definition of pedagogy may be difficult to capture. From the variety of definitions it became obvious that pedagogy has evolved over the years and currently comprises various aspects of teaching and learning.

In essence, pedagogy comes from the Greek *paidagogos*, which literally means “the leading of the child or slave”, (Leach & Moon, 2008, p.4). Elsewhere Harmse (1982, p.13) defines pedagogy as “the education of a child by a responsible adult person”. *Pedagogue*, also from the Greek, means “a trainer or a teacher of boys” which has now become an “archaic word for teacher” (Inglis & Aers, 2008, p. 147). From these brief definitions, it is already obvious that adults play a central role in any concept of pedagogy.

Simon (1999, p.34) refers to pedagogy as “the science of teaching”. Central to teaching is the teacher's knowledge and skills which are captured in a definition by Inglis & Aers, (2008). They state that pedagogy is “...the knowledge and skill that a person needs to develop in order to become a successful teacher”. At a later stage they also divide pedagogy into four domains including: subject and curriculum knowledge, a teaching repertoire of skills and techniques, teaching and learning models, and conditions for learning. Van Manen (1999, p.15) confirms what is said by Inglis and Aers, when he states that pedagogy “...is often simply used as a buzzword that has replaced the terms teaching, instruction, or curriculum”.

Certain definitions on pedagogy also focus on the individual learner and the process of learning. Van Manen (1999, p.14) suggests that: “The concept of pedagogy is rooted in the recognition of the human capacity for learning”. Simon concurs by saying: “From the start of the use of the

term, pedagogy has been concerned to relate the process of teaching to that of learning on the part of the child” (1999, p. 39).

Interaction per se has also been mentioned in some definitions of pedagogy. According to Smith and Lowrie, “To talk of pedagogy is to talk of the appropriate ways we interact with each other as teachers and learners” (2002, p. 18), and “the practice of pedagogy may be defined as constantly distinguishing more appropriate from less appropriate ways of being and interacting with young people” (Van Manen, 1999, p.19).

Apart from the traditional view of pedagogy, the scope in research pertaining to pedagogy also includes what is referred to as critical pedagogy. In essence, critical pedagogy proposes that learners should not absorb knowledge passively, but generate knowledge by critically engaging with ideas through dialogue (Yannuzzia & Martin, 2014). The chief aims associated with critical pedagogy are to train learners to think for themselves and to avoid blind conformity (McGuire, 2007).

Critical pedagogy aims to engage both teachers and learners in a critical examination of power relations and how they operate within school structures (Zembylas, 2013). Eventually the ultimate goal is “a transformative effect on power relations in the classroom and perhaps in society in general” (Mayes, 2010, p.190). Critical pedagogies utilise critical questioning to reveal the means by which “macro social forces play out in micro-level interactions” (Kincheloe, 2008 in Kress, 2011, 262). Critical pedagogy is evidently not confined to school structures but moves beyond the “borders” of the school environment to eventually challenge social, environmental and economic structures that “shape the conditions in which people live” (Kirylo, Thirumurthy, Smith & McLaren, 2010, p.332).

Within research critical pedagogy is not without critique. Researchers contend that critical pedagogy may be inadequate to address “troubled knowledge” in posttraumatic contexts, in other words where there is a historical past that is the source of strong emotions such as shame, guilt, resentment or loss (Zembylas, 2013). Also critical classrooms can become spaces of domination and indoctrination (Kress, 2011) and misunderstanding may arise between teachers and learners if they form part of two different groups (previously marginalized/disadvantaged compared to those who were not).

When taking the abovementioned into account, it becomes evident that pedagogy is a complex concept including aspects such as teaching, learning, curricula, individual potential, critical awareness, knowledge and skills. Within the discipline of pedagogy, many definite opinions regarding teaching-learner classroom interaction are expressed.

3.2.2 TEACHING PRACTICE

Teachers' teaching practices incorporate various aspects of pedagogy. One may argue that teaching practice already begins before there is any encounter between the teachers and their learners - such as when they create a plan of action, or when they reflect on recent experiences from classroom interactions to adapt their approach to teaching. From here, teachers make use of a variety of strategies or styles in the classroom drawing on their individual expertise to make the transfer of knowledge accessible and understandable to their learners. Leach and Moon capture this process in the following: "At the heart of the pedagogic process is the space in which the planned, enacted and experienced come together" (2008, p. 93).

What follows next is an overview on various aspects of teachers' teaching practice mentioned in the pedagogy literature.

3.2.2.1 Teacher Knowledge

When teachers enter the classroom, they possess a certain expertise in terms of knowledge. This knowledge broadly refers to subject specific knowledge, knowledge of a variety of teaching methods and to a larger extent, the curriculum. It can however be argued that teacher knowledge ranges beyond this particular scope to include knowledge regarding human behaviour and social processes. It is therefore no surprise that research on pedagogical knowledge comprises references to both aspects, when referring to this particular concept and its relation to effective teaching.

Pedagogical content knowledge is of special interest because for one, it identifies the bodies of knowledge that are specifically relevant to teaching. "It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (Shulman, 1999, p.64). Teachers' knowledge bases are further divided into detailed categories which include: (i) content knowledge, (ii) general pedagogical knowledge, strategies of classroom management and organization, (iii) curriculum knowledge with a specific grasp of

curriculum materials, (iv) knowledge of learners and their characteristics, (v) knowledge of educational contexts and (vi) knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds (Shulman, 1999). It is also important to include knowledge of assessment in Shulman's list, as assessment can be seen as "an integral component of any pedagogical relationship" (Smith, & Lowrie, 2002, p.19) and crucial when it comes to enabling teachers to judge the progress of their learners and to help them adapt their instruction to address individual learner needs (Voss et al., 2011). However, knowledge basically becomes fruitless if it does not transcend into effective learning.

In her research, Beutel (2006) reveals the shared relationship between knowledge and the approaches that teachers follow when teaching. She states that teachers draw on their individual knowledge bases to adapt their content and pedagogical approaches to meet the diverse needs and interests of their learners. This process is refined through TLI, since it assists teachers with generating an understanding of the needs of their learners, which then again enables them to choose the pedagogic practices most suitable to the learning needs and -styles of their learners.

In the words of Leach & Moon (2008) "Knowledge profoundly influences pedagogy", and "pedagogy can transform knowledge in myriad ways" (p.93). Through relevant experience teachers build their knowledge base enabling them to progress towards becoming more proficient and effective pedagogues.

3.2.2.2 Teacher Individual Styles, Methods and Strategies

Generic theories and methods of instruction and learning, as well as those of classroom management can be recognised as essential parts of general pedagogical knowledge (König & Blömeke, 2012). Teachers employ different methods, teaching styles and strategies in the process of knowledge and/or content transfer, making them central in teachers' teaching repertoires. Teaching styles are powerful, as they enhance effectiveness in classrooms (Opdenakker and Van Damme, 2006).

Generally, intellectual styles are seen as an encompassing term for constructs such as cognitive styles, learning styles, teaching styles, and thinking styles, which refer to individuals' preferred ways of processing information (Zhang, 2008). What therefore becomes evident, is the need for variety in terms of styles (whether teaching or learning) to accommodate learner diversity and make provision for individual learner needs. Apart from this, learners also vary in terms of

responsiveness towards methods and if teachers want to teach them certain skills or awareness, they have to draw on a variety of contexts, thus making it basically impossible for one method to meet all the demands of learning (Gregory, 2001).

Building on Gregory's idea, Hopkins et al. (1997), assert that those teachers who possess a range of teaching skills, -styles, -models and -approaches in their teaching repertoire are generally more effective (cited in Beresford, 1999). It thus becomes evident that teachers cannot follow a "one size fit all" approach. Teachers therefore need to work vigorously to find the right means to help learners achieve (Haas, 2008), as research also shows the relation between academic achievement and learners' preferred teaching styles, regardless of their individual abilities (Zhang, 2008).

Teachers' questioning patterns play a fundamental part in utilising methods and styles effectively. Questioning patterns seem to affect learner outcomes (Rubie-Davies, 2007). More specifically, it was found that teachers' questions vary from simply recalling information (closed questions) to engaging learners through open questions where they are expected to make inferences and also think beyond the information they have been given. What this also revealed is that high-expectation teachers were more prone to ask their learners open-ended questions making a higher demand on their cognitive reasoning (Rubie-Davies, 2007).

Many researchers demonstrate concern about what is known as "whole class teaching" that has become a "dominant pedagogy". Whole class teaching poses an inherent threat towards individual learning and the development of learner identity, as learners often play a "passive role" (Le Cornu & Collins, 2004, p.27-28). This often results in "teacher-led recitations" (Ackers & Hardman, 2001, p.258) which is advantageous for the knowledge transfer process, but which inhibits independent and active learning, since learners are compelled to follow their teachers' line of thinking (Le Cornu & Collins, 2004). A possible suggestion is to rather focus on incorporating learner-centred teaching styles, as these styles positively affect teachers' instructional support, the quality of the TLR and provide learners with better learning opportunities (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006). Also, when teachers display a high amount of differentiation in terms of learning activities and -materials they are proactive in terms of addressing problematic learner behaviour. Pifarré and Li (2012, p.10), mention that teachers should be motivated to create a "dialogic space" where learners are encouraged by their teacher to participate in classroom discussions via interactive strategies such as seeking clarification,

recycling ideas and making suggestions. Eventually, quality instructional practices lead to higher quality TLRs (O'Connor, 2010).

In their research, Treagust and Harrison (1999, p.37) identify a variety of factors that may influence the way teachers explain in the classroom. They divide these factors into four categories i.e. content-, context-, learner- and teacher factors. In short, content factors include the importance of the concept and the relevance of the topic at hand. Contextual factors include the type of school, the availability of time and resources, parental and societal expectations and the curriculum. The learner factors that influenced teachers' explanations were found to be learners' individual abilities, their general attitude to learning, preferred personal learning styles, cultural influences and learners' language skills. Lastly, the teacher factors that influenced teachers' explanations include the teacher's pedagogical expertise, explanatory style, subject matter expertise and their aesthetic preferences. These factors once again accentuate the idea that teachers' pedagogic practices are influenced by various seen and unseen factors. Although teachers are usually forced to take sole responsibility for their teaching practice, they are often faced with factors that are uncontrollable. Teachers therefore need to be experts in the field of pedagogy including being able to adapt and interpret, (especially in terms of behaviour) and also be highly aware. In the end, these aspects all influence the success and extent to which teachers eventually utilise their individual teaching methods, styles and/or strategies.

3.2.2.3 Classroom Organisation and Management

Closely associated with their knowledge and teaching strategies is a teacher's ability to control or manage a class. Classroom management includes a variety of aspects and often teachers are not fully prepared or equipped to effectively manage their classrooms (Del Guercio, 2011; Freiberg, 2002). They tend to choose the wrong course of action in the situation and this often leads to an increase in disruptive learner behaviour (Barbetta, Leong Norona & Bicard, 2005; Wubbels, et al., 1988).

In short, Allen (2010, p.2) states that: "A narrow view of classroom management sees it primarily as discipline and management of student misbehaviour". Although this may cover the essence of classroom management, this viewpoint seems reactive rather than proactive. Teachers therefore need sufficient knowledge of organizing strategies to ensure a learning environment that promotes constructive and positive interactions. Organizing strategies help teachers to

create the conditions that are necessary for learning and may include planning, lesson design and effective time management (Freiberg, 2002, p.57).

Colvin (1998) cautions that if teachers' interactions are predominantly related to behaviour, they should re-examine their discipline plan. An ineffective classroom management plan or an unorganized approach to teaching may have disastrous consequences for both teachers and their learners. Research by Kaplan, Gheen and Midgley reveal that "...when disruptive behaviour is prevalent in classrooms, often teachers are blamed for class mismanagement..." (2002, p.203). If teachers are unable to manage their classrooms effectively this may contribute to learner discipline problems, sustained learner misbehaviours, and inhibit teachers from using teaching strategies that foster learner achievement (Freiberg, 2002).

The source of learner misbehaviour is often difficult to distinguish. Learners may misbehave for various reasons. "A disruptive interaction between teacher and student can sometimes trigger a chain of actions and reactions that spirals out of control, leading to coercion, chaos, and damage" (Allen, 2010, p.8). Although there may be many reasons or causes for learners' misbehaviour, Barbetta et al. (2005, p.12) found that most misbehaviour originates from a "getting or "avoiding function". Teachers therefore have to be adept at interpreting learner behaviour to address the actual cause of a particular learner's misbehaviour. This however, may be easier said than done.

Teachers have been warned of ineffective means of addressing learner misbehaviour. Lewis (2001) finds that when teachers use aggressive techniques, for example yelling, to combat misbehaviour, this results in increased levels of disruption and misbehaviour (cited in Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Barbetta et al. (2005) agree by saying that often teachers use negative means to get learners to comply with their commands or demands. This may include loud disapproving statements, an increase in negative consequences or removing learner privileges. Instead of teaching the appropriate behaviour this may severely damage the TLR as it increases a sense of defeat in learners.

Managing and organizing one's classroom effectively requires a number of strategies, skills and individual ability. Barbetta et al., (2005, p.17) state that "The first line of defence in managing student behaviour is effective instruction". Apart from effective instruction, teachers should also be consciously aware of their individual assumptions about learners and the models which they

adopt when teaching, as these influence the way that they manage learner behaviour in their classrooms (Allen, 2010).

Researchers identify more effective means to manage classrooms and individual learner behaviour. Strategies or approaches which seem to have aided teachers well include: having clear expectations, ensuring that activities are on the correct level and pacing activities appropriately (O'Connor, 2010); setting reasonable boundaries (Mundschenk, Miner & Nastally, 2011); realizing that learner misbehaviour is often a sign of the learners' individual needs, a lack of skills, or emotional difficulties which should not be taken personally (Barbetta et al., 2005); recognising silence as a professional tool (Ollin, 2008); having a comprehensive understanding of the status of relationships with adolescents, using humour, wilfully ignoring negative or disruptive behaviour and making a shift from reactive to proactive strategies to combat negative behaviours (Battalio, Dalhoe & Shirer, 2013); being prepared, interesting, consistent and fair (Peterson, 1960); allowing learners to take leadership roles and role modelling expected learner behaviour (Mokhele, 2006); encouraging learners and giving them due recognition (Van Manen, 1999); and never pretending that you know everything, or bluffing (Peterson, 1960).

The ability to manage and organise one's classroom well is a core component of individual teacher pedagogy. A well-managed classroom results in TLIs that are associated with higher quality relationships (O'Connor, 2010) and an increase in positive peer behaviour together with a decrease in negative peer behaviour (Luckner & Pianta, 2011). Classroom management and organization forms a key element of learning and the sustaining of academic achievement and therefore plays vital role in orchestrating quality classroom interactions.

3.2.2.4 A Critical Pedagogy Approach

It was mentioned earlier that that a critical approach to pedagogy developed during the 20th century. This became more evident after Freire (1970) exposed what became known as "banking education" where learners are seen as void of knowledge and life experiences. With banking education, teachers presume to know what learners need without asking or consulting them about their experiences or lives. Consequently, knowledge transfer becomes a process of depositing information in learners who are seen as empty vessels. Later, learners have to give this knowledge back in the form of a test or assessment. This has serious consequences for learner agency as well as the development of critical and abstract thought (Kirylo, et al., 2010).

Since then, critical pedagogues have encouraged teachers to analyse their own ideologies and learn to examine the curriculum, materials and also their verbal and non-verbal interactions to see whether they are promoting inequalities (Graziano, 2008). Teaching thus moved beyond the scope of only focussing on knowledge and skills development and includes aspects such as critical reflection, the distribution of voice, and includes lessons on how social worlds are constructed and potentially transformed (Thomas et al., 2014).

McGuire (2007) identifies various advantages of critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy potentially promotes individual autonomy, helps to resolve ethical dilemmas, enhances self-confidence, and can increase intellectual independence. Also, the idea that learners become empowered outside the borders of the classroom, makes critical pedagogy even more powerful when it comes to creating possibilities for social change (Mayes, 2010).

Teachers should therefore aim at developing habits in learners to question that which is often taken for granted and an ability to view something critically (Leach & Moon, 2008). They should also balance their knowledge, styles, methods, organizational and management strategies as well as aspects of critical pedagogy to direct their approach to teaching in the classroom.

3.3 AFFECT

Teaching is an emotional practice. Interacting with numerous children and adults each working day, teachers use their emotions all the time. This use of emotion can be helpful or harmful, raising classroom standards or lowering them; building collegiality and parent partnerships or putting other adults at a distance... Emotions are located not just in the individual mind; they are embedded and expressed in human interactions and relationships (Hargreaves, 2000, p.824).

When studying the phenomenon of TLI, one cannot neglect the role of emotions. Emotions often colour interactions, -whether in a grim or an attractive way. In the context of this research project however, the term affect is used when the emotional aspect of TLIs is discussed. Feelings, emotions and affect often have similar meanings, yet "...affect... tends to have a more objective feel, of something that can be observed rather than experienced" (Music, 2001, p.4). Within this particular study, observations will be used as primary data gathering technique and therefore the term 'affect' enjoy preference over 'emotion'. It is however important to note that the literature overview in this section includes research on emotions "...given the blurring of the boundaries" (Music, 2001, p. 4-5).

3.3.1 DEFINITION

As early as the 1950's Bloom made clear distinctions between the cognitive domain and the affective domain. According to him, the affective domain was associated with feelings and emotions (Bloom, 1956 cited in Van Valkenburg & Holden, 2004). Do and Lemonnier Schallert (2004, p.631) portray affect as "...a dynamic, interactive, and reciprocal process", and elsewhere, Levin, Kurtzberg, Phillips and Lount, Jr. (2010, p.124) argue that "...positive affective states broaden and build, negative ones narrow and defend."

In a divergent definition by Van Valkenburg & Holden (2004) the focus falls on specific internal aspects of individuals such as attitude, creativity, self-development and motivation. This particular definition reflects certain aspects of the internal or unseen nature of affect. These aspects indirectly give direction to the outward manifestation of emotions, thus affecting interactions between humans. This was asserted by Sylwester (2000, p. 20) who states that "[e]motion is an innate, powerful, and principally unconscious process" and "perceptible in body language". Emotion originally comes from the word *emovere* which means 'to move out' or, 'to stir up'.

In order to gain greater clarity on the various aspects of the affective domain, I would like to draw attention to the opinions of Do and Lemonnier Schallert, (2004, p.619), who shed light on the interconnection between emotion, mood and affect:

Emotions are usually described as intense, short-lived affective states in response to particular stimuli. Moods, by contrast, are more diffuse and longer lasting, and it is often more difficult for an individual to describe the particular cause of his or her mood. The terms affect and affective state are broader and more inclusive, encompassing emotions, mood, and some aspects of motivational processes.

Excluded from the definition is a reference to 'feelings'. Feelings can also be included within the affective domain. Feelings differ from emotions, as "[e]motions can often be publicly observed, but our feelings remain a private mental experience of the emotion" (Sylwester, 2000, p.22).

I would therefore like to argue that not only does affect correspond with the dynamic and reciprocal nature of interaction, it is also linked to EIT which makes it relevant in the discussion at hand.

3.3.2 AFFECT, TEACHING AND LEARNING

Emotions are a well-researched topic, especially in terms of teaching and learning (Titsworth, Mazer, McKenna-Buchanan & Quinlan, 2014; Andersen, Evans & Harvey, 2012; Dunn & Stinson, 2012; Perry & Ball, 2007; Pitt & Brushwood, 2007; Poulou, 2005; Sutton, 2005; Do & Lemonnier Schallert, 2004; Le Cornu & Collins, 2004; Meyer & Turner, 2002; Day & Leitch, 2001; Hargreaves, 1998). Research topics within the arena of emotions and teaching reach far and wide and range from a broader or general reference to emotions, such as the role of emotion in the daily lives of teachers (Day & Leitch, 2001) to the more specific such as the role of emotion in motivation (Meyer & Turner, 2002). The affective domain is relevant as teaching is essentially an interpersonal activity (Sadker & Sadker, 1975).

Whilst discussing pedagogy, I referred to the specific knowledge, skills and methods (in other words the more cognitive aspects of teaching) that teachers need to acquire or possess to be proficient in their profession. However, reference was also made to the knowledge of and insight into human behaviour and how this may influence teachers' pedagogic approaches within a classroom setting. Inherent to human behaviour is the affective domain of individuals that may continually be changing. I would like to build on this discussion by exploring the extent to which the affective state of both the teacher and the learners form a somewhat unseen foundation for interactions and knowledge transfer in the classroom.

Kravas (1977, p.257) reveals the intricate interdependency between cognition and affect by stating that:

[t]he affective domain and cognitive domains are separable logically, but they are inseparable in actuality. In any classroom, during any lesson, on any subject, a subtle dimension - the feelings of the students and the teacher - is always present. Each pupil reacts to the class members, to the teacher, to the subject content, and to the instructional methodology both intellectually and emotionally. Feelings and attitudes are learned early in life and each student enters the class with a large repertoire of emotions.

It would therefore seem as though the affective states of teachers and learners alike, influence interactions in the classroom in important ways.

In the literature, a connection is often made between affect and the learning process (Titsworth et al., 2013). Osborn (1996) stated that "effective teaching and learning is necessarily affective" and "...involves human interaction" (cited in Zembylas, 2005, p.7). Affect often serves to act as a

“transformative agent” and a “catalyst of the thinking and actions students [are] engaged in” (Do & Lemonnier Schallert, 2004, p.631). Furthermore, a relation was found between high levels of affect and individuals’ will to participate in activities (Mottet et al., 2006 in Titsworth et al., 2013). Positive affect within its immediate context also increased the attention of college students and their ability to listen in a focused way and contribute to discussions (Do & Lemonnier Schallert, 2004).

In their research, Levin, Kurtzberg, Phillips and Lount, Jr. (2010) found that affect has a greater effect on those receiving knowledge than on the sender of the message. When the “receivers” experienced positive affect, such as elation or happiness, knowledge transfer occurred more successfully compared to when they experienced negative affect states such as anger or frustration. As teachers often play the role of “the sender” in the classroom, it would seem imperative for them to be fully aware of the affective nature of their messages while they teach or interact with their learners.

Personal factors in teachers can impact individual behaviour (Do & Lemonnier Schallert, 2004). The challenge regarding personal factors is that they are not easy to identify, and more often than not they originate from outside the classroom, in other words they form part of the personal lives of the teachers and learners. “Emotions are dynamic parts of ourselves, and whether they are positive or negative, all organizations including schools are full of them” (Hargreaves, 1998, p.835). Exploring the different effects of negative affective states is therefore appropriate at this stage.

3.3.3 NEGATIVE AFFECT

In a study conducted by Branan (1972), 150 college students had to recount their most negative experiences whilst studying. The results revealed that in most instances teachers could be accounted for these experiences which included “destroying self-confidence, personality conflicts, and humiliation in front of class” (p.81). Ultimately these interactions had a negative impact on the lives of the individuals.

Frustrations or negative feelings often appear if teachers’ understanding of the dynamics of interaction is lacking, or if they have unrealistic expectations (Lahtinen, 2008). Negative feelings or affect, may pose a great threat to effective TLIs, and as seen above, can have a long term effect. Possible dangers however are that the power of emotions and teachers’ difficulty in

regulating their negative emotions while teaching, are rarely discussed (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Teachers' therefore have to be aware of the dangerous effects of negative affect in themselves and also their learners during interactions in the classroom.

Long ago, Gabriel (1957) made a noteworthy statement that is still relevant today. He warned that learner misbehaviour is not necessarily directed at the teacher. Learners bring their personal lives to the classrooms. They face, among others, family feuds, disagreement and/or argument with their parents. This adds to higher levels of anxiety, fatigue and inattention, or a need for an outlet which is then directed towards teachers. Although such behaviour can be challenging, objective and neutral responses might defuse conflictual interactions.

It would seem as though negative affect in the classroom context can potentially restrain the learning experiences of both teachers and learners (Titsworth et al. 2013) and encourage avoiding behaviours, thus resulting in a decrease in participation (Mottet et al., 2006 cited in Titsworth et al., 2013). Yoon (2002) recognises a link between teacher stress, negative affect and negative relationships. It seems as if a recurring cycle of teacher stress, and an inappropriate display of negative affect, set the tone in classrooms, affecting the interactions that take place. Such inappropriate displays of anger and hostility can result in negative TLRs (Yoon, 2002). Blase (1986) agrees, and argues that teachers can become overwhelmed by negative emotions, and then not try to form positive relationships with their learners. This can result in less motivation, less involvement, less tolerance, and less caring on the side of the teachers (cited in Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). This may cyclically lead to more negative affective classroom interactions (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Apart from influencing teaching and learning, negative affect in teachers also has long term effects on learners' individual development and can influence the nature of the TLR. It would seem that teachers therefore need to secure effective means to deal with their own and others' negative affect in order to protect both themselves and their learners from negative affective interactions. This resonates strongly with the need for the emotional intelligence skills such as assertiveness, stress tolerance, impulse control and mood regulation (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1996) as discussed in the previous chapter.

3.3.4 POSITIVE AFFECT: QUALITIES AND CHARACTERISTICS

To interact successfully with students [learners] the teachers need interpersonal skills that consist of the professional's ability to work effectively with people, to treat them with respect as individuals and to help them develop their social potential. In addition, the teacher ought to aim at creating an atmosphere of approval and security, being sensitive to the needs and motivations of others... (Lahtinen, 2008, p.483).

Positive affect usually manifests through positive emotional qualities and characteristics. These traits and characteristics generally form part of the personality of teachers and play significant roles in the way that learners perceive their teachers. Learners often care more about who their teachers are as persons than the methods they employ while teaching (Gregory, 2001).

Sutton and Wheatley (2003) found that love and caring are the most prominent positive affective emotions discussed in literature. Gregory identified a list of ten qualities to guide and help teachers understand the relation between curriculum, pedagogy and what he refers to as "teacherly ethos". The list includes: honesty, unpretentiousness, curiosity, humour, tolerance, courage, indignation, passion, charity and love (2001, p. 83-86). Teachers as individuals will reveal higher inclination towards certain characteristics and also vary in degrees to which they demonstrate these affective qualities.

The ways in which positive affective characteristics influence the learning process of learners are addressed in literature. Madsen (2003) found that teacher enthusiasm has a great effect on learners' attention and perception (cited in Polk, 2006), while Sava (2002) discovered that teacher care, acceptance, and encouragement may enhance learners' self-esteem. Related is Van Manen's opinion (1999), that teacher belief has the strength to transform learners positively or negatively, whereas negative beliefs can weaken, and positive beliefs can strengthen learner performance.

Lastly I will draw on the work of Jennings and Greenberg (2009, p.405) who have studied (in detail) the characteristics of socially and emotionally competent teachers. According to them teachers who are socially and emotionally competent have (i) high levels of self-awareness; (ii) are realistic in terms of their capabilities and have the ability to identify their emotional strengths and weaknesses; (iii) are capable of building supportive relationships and know how to handle conflicting situations; (iv) exhibit prosocial values and make responsible decisions; (v) know how to manage their emotions, behaviour and existing relationships; (vi) have the ability to control

themselves when faced with emotionally challenging situations; (vii) set limits where necessary; (viii) take responsibility for their actions and (ix) allow learners to figure things out on their own. This strongly correlates with the EIT skills identified earlier such as decision-making, goal-setting, self-monitoring, anger management impulse control, the evaluation of risks and problem-solving (Defalco, 1997).

Being a socially and emotionally competent teacher is advantageous. For one, when learners' emotional and psychological needs are met, they are less likely to display problematic behaviour in the classroom (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) thus automatically making management and discipline less-demanding. This ought to have a positive effect on the classroom atmosphere and will leave fewer spaces for miscommunication and/or misunderstanding.

3.4 POWER

In literature, authority often appears to be presented as a bifurcation of power (Macleod, MacAllister & Pirrie, 2012; Couchenour & Dimino, 1999). I have therefore made a decision to use 'power' in preference to 'authority', although reference to authority has been included to give a more comprehensive overview of the power concept.

Teacher power can be considered to be an abstract concept (Horvat, 1968) and upon deeper reflection is not necessarily easily defined. The work of French and Raven (1959) on bases of power was included in a series of studies that were conducted by McCroskey and Richmond in the mid 1980's. They adapted these "bases of power" to suit the classroom context. *Coercive power* refers to learners' belief that they will be punished if they do not conform to the influence attempt of the teacher, or if they fail to comply with the teacher's demands. Exceptions seem to be environments where strong peer-group pressure exists against the teacher. *Reward power* is based on compliance, where the learner receives something pleasant or when something unpleasant is removed when they respond to the influence of the teacher. *Legitimate power* stems from the notion that the teacher is entitled to power due to the position that they hold in the classroom. *Referent power*, originates from a learner's ability to identify with the teacher, thus it is based on relationships. *Expert power* emerges from the idea that learners view their teachers as knowledgeable and competent individuals.

Although these distinctive categories of power provide the reader with a comprehensive overview of the 'power' concept, they however remain far from exhaustive.

3.4.1 DEFINITION

Within this study, intra- and interpersonal notions of power will be considered. Power, seen as a social construct, refers to the capacity to influence others. In other words, it refers to perceived power of individuals in socially constructed interpersonal relationships (Richmond & McCrosky, 1984; Garrison & Pate, 1977; Smith, 1977). Burbules (1986, p.104) extend this idea of influence, as his definition recognises human individuality: “Power is not simply a matter of getting people to do things (or not do things), but a relation of human attitudes and activities against a background of conflicting interests”.

Other definitions of power highlight ideas such as interaction, context and history, where “...power is not simply held by the dominant agent in relation to the subordinated. Instead, it is present in social alignments, represented in the interaction of the dominant, the subordinated, other interested individuals, and the historical and physical reality of the encounter” (Winograd, 2002, p.344). Also acknowledged are an individuals’ ability to negotiate (Horvat, 1968) or to be capable of doing something and possessing control over others (Couchenour & Dimino, 1999).

Elsewhere, power is defined in terms of empowerment. Empowerment is intrinsically seen as emancipatory, and focuses on the transformative capacity of active ways of learning and teaching” (Lawson, 2004, p.4). In order to empower individuals, great emphasis is placed on critical skills development, and teachers are required to pass control of learning to those learners who are engaged in the process thereof (Lawson, 2004).

3.4.2 POWER IN THE CLASSROOM

In their research, Couchenour and Dimino (1999) state that teachers may not even be aware that power plays a role in effective teaching. They continue by stating that power can have a negative connotation among teachers. If we take into consideration the view that power refers to the ability to influence and empower learners (Lawson, 2004; Richmond & McCroskey, 1984; Smith, 1977), the construct cannot be avoided. It seems important that teachers recognise and accept their responsibility to effectively establish and maintain the power relations in the classroom.

The role of learners in the power relationship cannot be neglected. According to McCroskey and Richmond, teacher power is based on learners’ perceptions. Thus, if a learner “...does not perceive the teacher to have a certain type of power, a teacher’s appeal to that power, whether

direct or implied, is not likely to result in influence” (1983, p.178). Elsewhere, Harjunen states that learners are the ones who will either “legitimate or reject their teacher’s authority” (2009, p.127). One may therefore argue that teachers should be sensitive and smart in their negotiations of power in the classroom.

Literature on power reveals that internal or external factors with regard to power are at play during interactions in classrooms. Cothran and Ennis (1997) identify two factors that influence the way in which teachers use their power in the classroom, namely their knowledge about the development of their learners as well as their own individual qualities and characteristics, once again reiterating the importance of EIT. The way that teachers handle interactions is also seen as central to whether they influence learners to take a positive or negative view of authority. Thus if the interactions of the teacher favours the sharing of power, this will positively influence learners’ view of authority, whereas teachers who impose or renounce their power, negatively affect learners’ views of authority (Harjunen, 2009). McNaughton’s (2001) research on power extends beyond the classroom and recognises ‘conditions of power’ that she argues interfere with learning. These include power of (i) pre-existing cultural meanings, (ii) expectations, (iii) position and (iv) market-place (cited in Le Cornu & Collins, 2004). Teachers therefore need to be knowledgeable and aware of these factors as they are constantly at play, also within the classroom.

The role of power relations also seems to filter into other aspects of classroom life. Teachers have the ability to mark or grade their learners, thereby possessing power to influence learners’ self-concept (Van Manen, 1999). Also an existing or non-existing power relationship can affect the level of learner participation (Le Cornu & Collins, 2004). Teachers need to recognise the power that they have to influence various aspects of classroom life and how their power is reflected through their interactions.

3.4.2.1 Power and Communication

Power is intricately entwined with communication. The way that teachers communicate with their learners, not only determines the type and extent of power that they exert over their learners, but also impact the quality of teacher-learner communication (McCroskey & Richmond, 1983). It has furthermore been found that the way teachers communicate power in the classroom can strongly be associated with the affective and cognitive learning of learners (Richmond & McCroskey, 1984).

Communication in this sense does not necessarily have to be verbal. Southgate (2003) whose study focussed on emotions and power relations in individuals' school memories found that a teacher's body was significant in the use of power (cited in Uitto, 2011). Additionally, Alderman and Green (2011) argue that the body language of the teacher needs to be relaxed and not threatening, as learners who feel physically overpowered tend to become inattentive. A teacher's voice might also indicate and enforce a dominant power position. Teachers should also take care that their tone of voice is assertive rather than sarcastic or filled with criticism (Alderman & Green, 2011) as this may negatively impact communication between teachers and learners. When, and if utilised effectively, this may continually refine teacher-learner communications that may ultimately assist teachers with classroom management.

3.4.2.2 Negative Power

"Historically, teachers have represented the most powerful element in the classroom" whereas learners, "...have generally been regarded as powerless" (Smith, 1977, p.202). Although this view may have been altered in modern times teachers inherently possess a power position whether it is accepted or rejected. This often places teachers in a position where they can be harmful, intentionally or not. Even years after finishing school individuals can recall teachers who "exercised power unfairly or hurtfully, treating students in an arbitrary way, humiliating and forcing them, physically assaulting them, punishing them unfairly, showing favour, and discouraging them" (Uitto, 2011, p.274).

Learners however, cannot be exempted from this discussion. Romi, Lewis, Roache & Riley (2011, p.232) accurately capture the influence of the learner in teacher display of negative power:

It is commonly accepted that teachers often face serious provocation from their students and that such provocations require an effective and timely response to protect the rights of those in the class, including the rights of teachers themselves. Some respond in a reasoned and calm manner, whereas others may employ responses that are inappropriate.

When teachers respond to provocation aggressively or by increasing punishment, this may not only negatively affect TLI but may also result in a decrease in learner responsibility (Lewis, 2001 cited in Romi et al., 2011). Also, some learners rebel against or question teachers' use of power (Uitto, 2011). This does not imply that teachers should not be strict. They should however refrain from being "mean, punitive and unreasonable" (Woolfolk-Hoy & Weinstein, 2006 cited in Romi et

al. 2011, p.231). As mentioned in the previous section, the negative use of power usually displayed in communications (sarcasm or yelling), negatively affects the TLR as it eventually contributes to a decrease in teacher proximity (Mainhard, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2011).

3.4.2.3 Power Characteristics

What is meant by 'power characteristics' is that teachers often display characteristics that positively influence or enhance the power relationship between teachers and their learners. According to Berry (1995), teachers who demonstrate power exhibit characteristics such as (i) high motivation, (ii) creative problem-solving, (iii) assertiveness, (iv) commitment to their learners, (v) an understanding of learners' needs and (vi) regard for professional development (Couchenour & Dimino, 1999).

Mokhele (2006) emphasises the importance of respect. According to him, today's learners will not accept an authority figure who does not respect them. Also, the presence of respect in the classroom positively affects the classroom climate, once again providing teachers with the opportunity to establish their authority. Teachers can demonstrate respect by, (i) getting to know their learners, (ii) sharing personal information with them, (iii) using humour, (iv) and using terms of endearment (Yan et al., 2011).

Harjunen (2009) underlines the need for mutual trust between teachers and learners in order for teachers to acquire pedagogical authority, which in her opinion is achieved through "caring and just interaction" (p.123). These characteristics are only preliminary yet they have the potential to set teachers on a course of action to establish a positive power relationship in their classroom.

3.4.2.4 Control and Discipline

The most prominent reason why teachers should not neglect the concept of power in the classroom, is that successful negotiations of power might make it possible to maintain a greater sense of order and control in the classroom. Learners test teachers through their misbehaviour for a variety of reasons. Usually new teachers are the ones who struggle the most to establish and maintain a healthy power relationship with the class (Peterson, 1960). Teachers should not aim to control the class *per se*, but rather to guide their learners and eventually promote learning (Mundschenk, Miner & Nastally, 2011). This once again relates with teachers' abilities to influence learners as implied by the previous description of power.

Effective discipline reflects teachers' understanding of people and their ability to work with them (Rivlin, 1961). Discipline should therefore be positive, constructive and inspire self-discipline (Mokhele, 2006), as coercive disciplinary actions negatively affect the social climate and learning processes (Mainhard et al., 2011). Sometimes acts of teacher hostility may be justifiable, especially when they are in the learner's best interest, or when circumstances warrant them (De Jong et al., 2012). (If learners are about to break something or hurt someone, by all means, jump in!) Teachers should however take care as they hold the power to be oppressive (Uitto, 2011).

Power is a prominent concept in the discussion on teacher-learner classroom interaction. In the past, power has been equated with teacher professionalism, where "...the most professional teachers used to be those who have the greatest degree of power to cause beneficial change" (Horvat, 1968, p.52). Teachers should therefore exercise their power influence in such a way that it eventually enables learner empowerment.

3.4.2.5 Empowering Learners

As mentioned earlier, certain views of power encapsulate the notion of learner empowerment. This entails a move beyond the scope of bare knowledge acquisition, familiar every day methods of thinking, and internalizing intrinsic motivation. It moves toward developing the individual voice of the learner as well as self-efficacy, which eventually lead to a higher level of personal effectiveness (Cody & McGary, 2012; Schrodt, Witt, Myers, Turman, Barton & Jernberg, 2008). This strongly resembles intrapersonal EI competencies such as independence, self-regard and self-actualization (Bar-On, 2006).

Learner empowerment usually develops from internal factors such as personality or teacher behaviours that are aimed at empowering learners (Houser & Frymier, 2009). These teacher behaviours stem from deliberate actions such as confirming learner identities, building rapport or the facilitation of interpersonal relationships (Turman & Schrodt, 2006). In addition, Cody and McGary (2012) make suggestions such as building a classroom environment where learners feel comfortable to express their ideas; treating learners with respect and showing them that their contributions are valued; and to assisting them with improving their strengths and weaknesses.

However, the notion of empowerment has been criticised. According to Leach, Neutze and Zepke (2001) empowerment is complex. They continue by saying that a process of

empowerment for some may be disempowering for others. Eventually they may ultimately resist empowerment. Also, some learners may display a lack or rejection of a desire for empowerment due to various reasons. The school for one may function in such a way or maintain practices that sustain the forms and effects through which hegemony is lived and experienced (Zembylas, 2013).

Empowered learners are more readily able to see the meaningfulness of activities, feel a greater sense of self-belief or competency when they have to perform tasks and are likely to perceive that the content can bring about positive impact (Schrodt et al., 2008). When learners consequently develop an individual drive as well as a sense of confidence and agency, they can make meaningful contributions to classroom interactions, thereby influencing interactions positively.

3.5 TEACHING ADOLESCENTS

Since the aim of this study is to gain an understanding of the nature of TLIs within a high school context, I saw fit the necessity to include a brief overview of the adolescent developmental phase. This may at a later stage provide a deeper or more meaningful understanding of the collected data and findings.

3.5.1 DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE OF ADOLESCENCE

“Puberty marks the beginning of sexual maturity. It is not a single event, but a series of changes involving almost every part of the body” (Woolfolk, 2007, p. 65). Puberty can simply be regarded as the onset of the adolescent phase.

The word ‘adolescence’ comes from the Latin *adolescere* which means ‘to grow up’ or ‘to grow to adulthood’ (Gouws, Kruger & Burger, 2008, p.2). Adolescence can therefore broadly be described as a transition phase from childhood to adulthood (Brown & Larson, 2002; Nordberg, Bradfield & Odell, 1962).

Hines & Paulson, (2006, p.598) states that:

...the predominant theoretical views that have evolved since the early twentieth century have conceptualized "storm and stress" in terms of three specific characteristics: (a) parent adolescent conflict, (b) emotional moodiness, and (c) risk-taking behaviors. The views of adolescents voiced by parents, teachers, and even health professionals, and presented in

the media and in fictional literature, have perpetuated the stereotypic portrayal of adolescents as moody, emotional, and rebellious.

This “storm and stress” may be because of the series of emotional, cognitive, social and physical changes that adolescents undergo which impact their daily lives to a great extent. As seen from Hines and Paulson, negative emotions become a more common occurrence thereby placing an even higher demand on teachers’ emotionally.

Generally, adolescence starts between the ages 11 and 13 and usually ends between the ages of 17 and 22 (Gouws et al., 2008). The physical changes that individuals in his age group undergo are most often the first indicator of the onset of puberty. However, physical changes often bring about psychological problems stemming from the more specific (voice change, acne) to the wider (early vs. late development) (Blair, 1950).

Cognitively, adolescents’ thinking becomes more rationalized. They become capable of higher levels of complex thinking and they tend to evaluate or criticize before coming to a definite conclusion. Adolescents gradually start to question things, argue and formulate individual opinions (Gouws et al., 2008). They also develop the ability to think about their own thinking as well as the thinking of other people (Smart & Smart, 1978).

These changes in the brain and neurological system also influence adolescents’ personal and social development (Woolfolk, 2007). All of a sudden peer influence starts playing a more prominent role in the life of the adolescent. Adolescents are influenced specifically by the actions and attitudes of the group that they identify themselves with. Their peers often offer resources such as companionship, emotional support and a safe place to learn and experiment with social skills. However, peers may also encourage consumerism, negative attitudes toward school, or behaviours that may compromise their well-being (e.g. drugs or violence) (Brown & Larson, 2002; Rivlin, 1961). Within this process, adolescents also start to identify, evaluate and select core values and roles for their adult lives. At times, this may cause them to seem somewhat rebellious as they are exploring possibilities for self-definition that usually entails questioning or rejecting previously held beliefs (Hamman & Hendricks, 2005).

Emotionally, adolescents are uncertain about what they should and should not do. They also do not know what is expected in terms of their actions, or which responsibilities and/or privileges they have. Louw, Louw and Ferns (2007) highlight, that during the period of adolescence, adolescents are prone to experience fewer extremely positive emotions and at the same time

experience more negative emotions. Fargher and Dooley (2010) refer to their emotions as “polarised” where the one pole reflects their vulnerability and their childhood state of dependence whereas the other reflects their need to be grown up. This may shed light on the increase of mood swings or displays of emotional instability during this period. Adolescents may therefore especially have trouble with controlling their emotions and avoiding risky behaviour (Woolfolk, 2007).

From this short overview of the adolescent developmental phase, one must recognise not only the physical, social, emotional and cognitive changes, but also the significance of establishing a unique identity. This is essential in the world of adolescents, as they now start to view themselves as “autonomous agents” who are capable of making their own decisions (Hamman & Hendricks, 2005).

3.5.2 THE MODERN ADOLESCENT

Growing up in the 21st century is significantly different from growing up even a decade ago. The rapid speed of our changing world in terms of technology, consumerism and social media are major influences that affect the daily lives of adolescents. The role of new media and information communication technologies are becoming more and more prominent and are mediating areas such as education and interpersonal relationships. Today one can barely imagine adolescents without mobile phones or the internet (Collin & Burns, 2009). In 2010, Johnson, building on Bronfenbrenners’ (1979) ecological systems theory, even proposed a ‘techno- microsystem’ due to the increasing presence of digital technologies in the immediate environments of youth once again underlining the impact and importance of technology in the daily lives of adolescents.

Globalisation, modernized identities and change are the living reality of contemporary global youth, necessarily impacting teaching and learning. The rise of this new era has brought new challenges to the table of education which lies therein that, “...many of the children now growing into adolescence and young adulthood around the world are challenging the ethos of an institution which appears to have little relevance to their daily lives and fails to recognise their individual identity and needs” (Broadfoot, 2001, p.262). Consequently, this places new demands on teachers in terms of their approach to teaching, managing their classes and their ability to adapt as today’s adolescents are becoming less content with traditional methods of teaching.

Technology, mass media and multimedia have equipped the youth of today with unique skills and abilities. “They have new powerful tools for inquiry, analysis, self-expression, influence and play. They have unprecedented mobility and “are the actors in the digital world” (Tapscott, 1998, cited in Buckingham, 2000, p.47). In order to guide the provision of more effective teaching, teachers need new ways of thinking of, and working with learners, otherwise they may become irrelevant as they provide education for learners that no longer exist in the postmodern world (Besley, 2003, p.174)

3.5.3 ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOUR IN THE CLASSROOM

Teaching adolescents who are all at their unique stages of puberty can be amusing and challenging all at the same time. This not only has implications for how teachers teach adolescents, but also presents them with a better understanding why adolescents more readily challenge certain boundaries and engage in risk-taking while striving for independence (Beutel, 2006).

According to Nordberg et al., teachers ought to recognise individual behaviour as emergent of building a self-image, popularity and acceptance:

Since he is acutely sensitive to status and popularity and acceptance, he reacts to statements, pictures, writing, gestures that touch upon these matters as if they were red and green lights. Anything said about his dress, physical appearance, economic status, family situation, what is right or wrong for his group serves to stop or start him. Since he is self-conscious, often to an agonizing degree, anything that sustains or injures his ego is overtly significant (1962, p. 31).

Nordberg et al. also recognise an additional danger of this phase. Adolescents’ desire for independence is often in conflict with a high schools’ need for order, restriction and regulation. Problematic is that adolescents tend to believe that because they are approaching physical maturity, this automatically implies that they have all the other phases of maturity, yet this is not necessarily the case, as “[t]hey still lack knowledge, experience and effectual habits of self-direction and control” (Nordberg et al., 1962, p.28). Teachers therefore need to exercise caution in the utilisation of classroom management and organizational strategies to ensure effective discipline and control in their classrooms.

In terms of their attitudes, adolescents may seem highly critical, and they often seem to be mistrustful of the actions of their teachers (Gouws et al., 2008). This may contribute to disputes

or disagreements and eventually hinder effective relationship building. Adolescents are especially sensitive to the use of teacher power and particularly dislike unfairness and humiliation (Jenkins & Lippit, 1952 cited in Nordberg et al., 1962).

Beutel (2006, p.53) reiterates what was mentioned earlier, namely that there may be a “mismatch” between teachers’ knowledge and skills in terms of working with adolescents and what is known as “traditional classroom practices”. She also emphasises the need to recognise and cater for the needs of the contemporary adolescent. One suggestion is that teachers should aim to identify and uncover what adolescents do well, as well as recognise and acknowledge individual talents (Hamman & Hendricks, 2005). Teachers should also understand the strength of interpersonal relationships, as positive interpersonal relationships increase the likelihood of adolescents being supportive and accepting the authority of others (Beutel, 2006).

Teachers should also be aware of the external influences that may influence modern adolescents’ behaviours and attitudes. Mass media, “...have been seen to possess an overweening power to govern behaviour, to mould attitudes and to construct and define children’s identities” (Buckingham, 2000, p.145). Another warning is that “...youth culture is to a large extent morally constituted by the media”, as the media often display “moral expectations of right and wrong and the bounds of acceptability” (Besley, 2003, p.157). Teachers should keep this in mind and recognise the need for developing critical thinking skills, or EI social skills such as self-monitoring, evaluating risks and resisting peer pressure (Defalco, 1997).

Teachers should not only be consciously aware of the process of transition from childhood to adulthood, but also remember that today’s adolescents live in a world that is constantly changing. These uncertainties and instabilities may eventually put extra pressure on both teachers and learners in classroom interactions.

3.6 CONCLUSION

In Chapter 3 an attempt was made to elucidate three broad trends pertaining to research on teacher-learner classroom interaction namely pedagogy, affect and power. These concepts seem fundamental to classroom interactions and provided a deeper insight into the nature of TLI. This discussion anew illustrates the complexity and multifaceted nature of the phenomenon under study. It seems as though the three concepts interact with one another on a continual basis and incorporate or build on various aspects of the teacher-learner classroom interaction

phenomenon. It also appear as if teachers' EI may impact the way that they approach pedagogics, the power relationship between themselves and their learners and their affective state, whether positive or negative.

I also provided the reader with a basic oversight of adolescent literature. This was to provide a background of the developmental phase of the participants as this may be a significant factor when it comes to analysing and interpreting the data.

In Chapter 4, I will give a full account of the methodological approaches that has been employed to complete the process of data collection. This includes an overview of the research paradigm, a detailed description of the research design, the data gathering techniques and how the process of data analysis will be approached.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the researcher during this study has already been determined, i.e. to generate an in-depth understanding of the nature of classroom interaction between teachers and learners. It has also been stated that the research will be guided by a primary research question and three secondary research questions, which are as follows:

Primary research question:

- What is the nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction? and

Secondary research questions:

- What role does affect play in teacher-learner classroom interaction?
- What role does pedagogy play in teacher-learner classroom interaction?
- What role does power play in teacher-learner classroom interaction?

Within any research study, a researcher holds the prerogative in her attempt to answer the research questions. This process needs to be well thought through and the nature of the research question must be elucidated. Another important aspect that one should take into account is the individual perspectives and frame of reference of the researcher. This is asserted by Bentz and Shapiro (1998) who makes reference to the life and lifeworld of the researcher. Within this particular “lifeworld” the personality, social context, and conflicts, greatly influence the research, from the choice of research question to the final report and outcome of the study.

Due to the qualitative nature of the research question, this study takes an interpretivist stance. The research will be executed in the form of a twofold case study design and there will be an attempt to answer the research question by means of qualitative methodology. The research paradigm, research design and research methodology will now be discussed in much more detail.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A research paradigm is a “basic set of beliefs that guides action” (Guba, 1990, in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p.22). Due to the social and descriptive nature of this particular study, it can be argued that this research is guided by the interpretive paradigm.

Paradigms provide an overall framework for how we look at reality (Silverman, 2000) and are classified in terms of ontology, epistemology and methodology. These are fundamental features when defining the “boundaries” of a particular research paradigm. It is therefore necessary to provide a short summary of each of these concepts, relevant to the interpretive paradigm, in order to clarify meaning and generate a greater understanding of the philosophical frame in which this study is situated.

In short, *ontology* questions the nature of reality, how it is constituted (subjectivist, interactionist, socially constructed). Ontological questions seek clarity on what there is or what exists in the social world. *Epistemology* refers to the relationship between the researcher and what is known i.e. how do we know about the world that we have defined ontologically (thus recognising multiple realities and generating understanding through the eyes of the participants). Lastly, *methodology* refers to how researchers know the world or gain knowledge from it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Thomas, 2009).

According to Thomas (2009), the core of an interpretivist research paradigm, is an interest in people, the way they interrelate, and how their worlds are constructed. In this process, understanding is the key. Researchers need to recognise that different individuals have different understandings of the world, and therefore they need to make a deliberate attempt to understand these. The interpretive paradigm thus places strong emphasis on the level of concern for the individual and the central endeavour is to understand the subjective world of human experience (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007)

In the words of Bassey (1999, p.44) the purpose of interpretive research should be:

...to advance knowledge by describing and interpreting the phenomena of the world in attempts to get shared meanings with others. Interpretation is a search for deep perspectives on particular events and for theoretical insights. It may offer possibilities, but not certainties as to the outcome of future events.

As a result, I hoped to enter the subjective world of the participants and their “insider’s perspectives”, (Howe, 1992, p. 238) in order to generate a better understanding of their experiences, emotions, context and ultimately their reality.

Within an interpretivist research paradigm, a qualitative methodology ensues. Qualitative researchers use methods to study people in their natural settings whilst trying to make sense of a specific phenomenon. Multiple methods are employed and a variety of empirical materials are used to assist researchers with this process of meaning-making (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994 in Basse, 1999).

4.2.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative Research is a form of social inquiry that focuses on how individuals interpret and make sense of their experience and the world in which they live. Although a number of different approaches exist, most have the same aim, i.e. to understand the social reality of individuals, groups and sometimes cultures. Researchers tend to use qualitative approaches to explore (and study) human behaviours, perspectives and experiences (Holloway, 1997 cited in Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013).

A research design is a plan for collecting and analysing evidence that will make it possible for the researcher to gain the above-mentioned understanding and thereafter answer the research question(s). The design of a research study touches almost all aspects of the research, from the minute details of data collection to the selection of the appropriate techniques to analyse the collected data (Ragin, 1994).

It has already been stated that due to the interpretive stance, the researcher used a qualitative methodology. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p.10) the word *qualitative* implies an emphasis on the quality of the process and on meanings that are not examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency (as is the case with quantitative research). There is also no talk of variables in interpretive research as it is considered artificial to fracture the social world into various categories (Thomas, 2009). The main focus of qualitative research is therefore to understand, explain, explore, discover and clarify situations, feelings, perceptions, attitudes, values, beliefs, and experiences of individuals or a group of people (Kumar, 2011).

As a specific plan of action is needed in order to answer these questions, it would seem as though a design that is exploratory, descriptive (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) and incorporates a

qualitative methodology, ought to provide data that might bring about a deep understanding of the phenomenon of classroom interaction. I have therefore chosen a collective case study as my research design, which, I believe, is best suited to explore the subject under study.

The word 'case' originates from the Latin 'casus' (*cadere* = to fall) which means 'event', 'situation' or 'condition'. The case study has been defined as "...the study of a phenomenon or a process as it develops within one case" (Swanborn, 2010, p.9), and elsewhere as "... a generic term for the investigation of an individual, group or phenomenon" (Sturman, 1994 cited in Bassey, 1999, p. 26). This intensive approach can involve a single 'case', or more (a multiple-case study), depending on whether one or more than one instance of the case or phenomenon is studied (Swanborn, 2010).

Swanborn (2013) has identifies key features when studying a social phenomenon at the hand of a case study. According to him,

- case studies are carried out within the boundaries of a social system within the natural context of the case(s);
- the phenomenon is monitored for a specific period with respect to the development of the phenomenon during this period, during which the researcher focuses on describing and explaining social processes that unfold between persons participating in the process, (including values, expectations, opinions, perceptions, resources, controversies, decisions, mutual relations and behaviour of individuals);
- the researcher, who is initially guided by an broader research question, keeps an open mind regarding unexpected aspects of the process; and
- the researcher makes use of several data sources.

Other researchers have added to this list, and so more distinctive case study features include: a limitation to time and space which bring about the notion of a "functioning specific" or a "bounded system" (Stake, 2008 in Flyvbjerg, 2011, p.301); a focus on environment or context as deciding factor, since observing in real contexts serves as a convincing determinant of identifying cause and effect (Cohen, et al., 2011) and collecting sufficient data to be able to explore significant features of the case and to put forward an interpretation for what the researcher has observed (Bassey, 1999). Ultimately, an in-depth understanding is a prerequisite to do justice to the case(s) (Cohen, et al., 2011).

Stenhouse (1985) identifies four broad styles of case study research, namely ethnographic, evaluative, educational and action research case studies (Bassegy, 1999, p. 27). This may answer the question as to *why* a certain case study is conducted. An educational case study is designed to be used by many researchers who are not concerned with social theory or with evaluative judgement, but rather with the understanding of educational action. The idea is to enrich the thinking and discourse of teachers either through developing educational theory or refining prudence through systematically and reflectively documenting evidence (Stenhouse, 1985 cited in Bassegy, 1999).

Case studies are “intensive”. They comprise more detail, richness, completeness, and variance i.e. depth, for the unit of study (Flyvbjerg, 2011). Babbie and Mouton (2001) add to this by stating that “thickly” described case studies take multiple perspectives into account and attempt to understand the influences of various social systems on research subjects’ perspectives, beliefs and behaviour. In the end however, the whole is more than the sum of its parts (Nisbet & Watt, 1984 in Cohen et al., 2011).

Every context is unique and dynamic. Case studies are aimed at investigating and reporting the real-life, complex, and unfolding interactions of human relations and behaviour in unique instances (Cohen et al., 2011). It is also important to note that previous case studies in education have also focused on, among others, TLIs (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006), thus recognising the appropriateness of employing this particular strategy.

During this particular study the researcher made use of two cases to gather data. Both involved a grade 9 class, but the studies were executed in two different high schools. The researcher wanted to acquire an in-depth understanding of the nature of classroom interaction, and since the research was conducted in more than one natural context where the phenomenon was to be found, the researcher aimed to explore the significance of differing social and physical contexts, as well as their impact on social processes. It is important to note that phenomena are studied in their natural settings so that participants are not set apart from their normal life situation, and face as little as possible disruption during the time that the study is undertaken (Swanborn, 2010).

Lastly, I need to emphasise the notion of *positionality*. It was mentioned earlier that in interpretivist research, the assumption exists that knowledge is situated in relations between people. This implies that whoever does the research takes a central role in the interpretation

thereof. The researcher therefore has an irrefutable *position* and thus, this position affects the nature of observations and the interpretations that are made (Thomas, 2009). The researcher is "...an active not passive agent in acquiring knowledge of the process, histories, events, language and biographies of the research context" (Thomas, 2009, p.109-110). Ultimately, understanding will be affected by my positionality which was made clear when I declared my possible researcher bias.

4.2.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is one of the most intricate parts in the research process. Harding (1987), defines it as the "theory and analysis of how research should proceed", which justifies the methods used in research (in Carter & Little, 2007). This includes the process of exactly how participants will be selected up to the point of how data will be analysed. The researcher should therefore take great care in planning this section of the study.

Silverman's (2000, p.79) definition of methodology highlights the essence thereof. According to him, "...a methodology defines how one will go about studying any phenomenon". Once again, his reference to the phenomenon suggests that certain methods or approaches will be better suited than others to generate a thorough understanding of what is being studied.

In general, qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. They also attempt to study human action from the insiders' perspective with the sole intention of understanding particular human behaviour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

In the light of the aforementioned, seven key features have been identified that provide researchers with a comprehensive overview of qualitative research, namely that; (i) research is conducted in the natural setting of social actors; (ii) the focus is on the process rather than the outcome; (iii) an "insider" view (actor's perspective) is emphasised; (iv) the aim is to generate in-depth ("thick") descriptions and understanding of actions and events, (v) an inductive research approach is followed; (vi) to understand social action in terms of its specific context and to refrain from the generalisation of findings; and finally, (vii) the researcher is seen as the "main instrument" in the research process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

It is important to note that the primary interest will be to describe the actions of the participants, and later an attempt will be made to draw meaning and understanding from the participants'

beliefs, culture, history and context (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In the end, I hope that the research question(s) will be addressed and/or answered adequately and contribute to my individual meaning-making process in terms of complexity and perception.

4.2.2.1 Selecting Participants

In order to acquire participants for a study, researchers make use of different methods to select their participants. The method employed is commonly known as sampling. Sampling may be defined as "...the selection of a subset of a population for inclusion in a study" (Daniel, 2012, p.1).

Due to the nature of research, there is no doubt that sampling techniques in qualitative and quantitative studies will differ. According to Daniel (2012, p.14),

[s]ampling choices for qualitative research tend to be different than sampling choices for quantitative research. Qualitative research primarily involves the collection and analysis of non-numerical data, with more attention focussed on understanding the nature of the elements selected for a study than to generalising to a target population. It is characterised by in-depth inquiry; immersion into the social of that being studied; emphasis on the understanding of the participants' perspectives; and comprehensive description of the study's topic.

Due to the nature of qualitative research, qualitative researchers tend to make use of non-probability sampling techniques to select the participants for the study. One such technique is purposive sampling, which was used in this study to identify and select suitable participants for this particular study.

Within non-probability sampling some members of the wider population are (deliberately) excluded while others are (deliberately) included. In other words, every member of the population does not have an equal chance of being included in the sample. It can also be said that the researcher *purposely* includes some and excludes others, which is considered a strength of this particular sampling technique (Cohen et al., 2011; Daniel, 2012). The reason for this can be ascribed to the qualitative nature of the research design and methodology where a desire to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of classroom interaction is envisaged.

Purposive sampling refers to a sample that has been chosen for a specific purpose (Cohen et al., 2011). Researchers' hand-pick the cases to be included using their personal judgement and

discrimination, while placing a high value on typicality and characteristics relevant to the study. Purposive sampling also allows the researcher to choose a case that illustrates features or processes in which they are interested. Purposive sampling requires that as researchers we “...think critically about the parameters of the population we are interested in and choose our sample case carefully on this basis” (Silverman, 2000, p .104).

Purposive sampling has numerous purposes within different types of research. These include achieving representativeness, enabling comparisons, focussing on specific or unique issues, and generating theory by means of data accumulation from a variety of sources (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Purposive sampling may also be classified into several subtypes depending on the criteria used for including or excluding certain elements of the population. These criteria are grouped into four categories namely central tendency, variability, theory or model development, and judgement or reputation (Daniel, 2012, p.88).

The main aim of purposive sampling is therefore to acquire in-depth information from those who are in a position to give it (Cohen et al., 2011). Typically, when researchers undertake case sampling, an attempt is made to select elements that are considered “average”, typical, or have the highest frequency of occurrence (Daniel, 2012, p.90). This was the case with exploring the nature of TLI. I selected two schools and observed one grade 9 class that was known for displaying higher levels of disruptive behaviour in each school. The reason for selecting this particular sample is the belief that in these classes a greater depth and variety of the phenomenon could be observed. I contacted the principals, and the classes were selected based to some extent on their guidance and consent.

4.2.2.2 Data Gathering Techniques

Collecting adequate data by the correct means is essential within the research process. Within empirical research, data is necessary to give evidence or justification for everything that is presented later within the findings of the study - including descriptions, new ideas, relationships between subjects, interpretations and explanations (Boeije, 2010). Successfully operationalizing this process of data collection, necessitates appropriate methods of data collection.

In short, research methods are defined as “techniques for gathering evidence” (Harding, 1987 in Carter & Little, 2007). Especially regarding case study research, it is recognized and accepted that there are many variables operating within a single case, and to capture the interaction

among these usually requires more than one tool for data collection and many sources of evidence (Cohen et al., 2011). The researcher used observation as a primary data gathering technique, and distributed questionnaires to both the teachers and learners as secondary data gathering techniques.

Observation

Observation means “watching carefully” (Thomas, 2009, p.183) and since studies are conducted in the natural setting of the “case”, direct observation seemed an appropriate method of collecting data (Yin, 2009).

As stated by Marshall and Rossman, (2011) observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours and artefacts in the social setting. Recording these observations is crucial. Observation serves as a fundamental and highly important method in all qualitative inquiry and is often used to discover complex interactions in natural social settings (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This particular method was thus utilised as the primary means of data collection, mainly due to its potential to provide the researcher with sufficient data regarding the process of interaction. I observed classroom life in two grade 9 high school classrooms over a period of four weeks.

As is the case with any research method, observation has its strengths and weaknesses. It is important that researchers take care in order to utilise the strengths and stay away from or take preventative measures to minimize the potential pitfalls of a particular research method. A few of the advantages of using observation as a research method in terms of classroom interactions include:

- A direct recording can be made about the physical environment and human behaviour so that it will not be necessary to rely on the retrospective or anticipatory accounts of others. Since researchers are able to take note of what they see as it occurs, observational data are often more accurate;
- The observer has the ability to “see” what participants do not necessarily see, including important features of their environment and behaviour which are easily taken for granted;
- Observation provides a “lens” into the “lived experiences” of the classroom life and eventually it is possible to see patterns emerge;

- Observations can help researchers to better understand the “social dynamics” that influence classroom relations; and
- Observation provides information on behalf of those who cannot speak for themselves. It may also be the only way to collect information on the behaviour of people who might be extremely busy, deviant, or hostile towards the research process (Foster, 2006; Killen, 2006, p.385; Kesner, 2000).

Foster (2006) also identifies a few limitations of using observation as research method namely:

- Participants may consciously or unconsciously change their behaviour because they are being observed, which may result in inaccurate accounts of how they behave ‘naturally’;
- The observations that are made are filtered through the interpretive lens of the researcher. Consequently, observations cannot provide us with an exact representation of reality. What the observer obtains is merely a constructed representation of the world; and
- Observers continuously have to make a selection as to what they observe and ultimately what observations they record. The basis for these selections is made clear, but sometimes it is not. This then poses the danger that the observer’s preconceptions and existing knowledge will bias the observations made.

Whilst making use of observation to gather data, two general approaches are utilised. *Structured observation*, briefly refers to when the observer specifically and systematically looks for certain types and/or kinds of behaviour, and the assumption is made that the social world and social activity can be broken down into quantifiable elements which can be counted. In contrast, when conducting *unstructured observation* observers immerse themselves in a social situation usually as some kind of participant, in order to find out what is going on in that particular context, time and space (Thomas, 2009). Due to the qualitative nature of this research the idea is not to quantify the findings, but rather to attain a deeper understanding and thorough conceptualisation of the phenomena through examining the data that have been gathered.

Whilst conducting unstructured observation the idea was to *not* break down the situation, but to become part of it and to see it as a whole and to generate detailed qualitative descriptions of human behaviours that “illuminate social meanings and shared culture” (Thomas, 2009; Glaser & Strauss, 1967 in Foster 2006, p.62). This was achieved by combining the data obtained from

various sources to create a comprehensive picture of the group and phenomenon under study. This undertaking also demonstrates the complexity and richness of the participants' social world. Although the observer needs to be flexible, this does not mean that research is undertaken without certain aims ideas as to what to observe. However, I needed to approach the research with a relatively open mind in order to lessen the influence of my preconceptions and also to refrain from imposing existing preconceived categories (Glaser & Strauss 1967 in Foster 2006, p.63).

A strength of unstructured observation is that when one combines it with other data gathering methods, it has the ability to provide deeper insight into the social and cultural basis of interactions (Foster, 2006). Unstructured observation also gives researchers "...an opportunity to examine the way interactions and social meanings change and develop over time, and the way in which social order is actively constructed by social actors through interaction" (Foster, 2006, p. 63).

Central to the process of gathering data by means of observation, is the recording process. The idea is to describe, as accurately as possible and as comprehensively as possible, all relevant aspects of what is being observed. Field notes contain two basic types of information, namely descriptive information (records of what the observer has specifically seen or heard on-site) and, reflective information (records of the researcher's personal reactions to observations, experiences and thoughts during an observation session). These provide the description and lead to an understanding of the context of the study and the participants and should therefore be as extensive, clear, and detailed as possible (Gay, Mills, Airasian, 2006). The researcher should be mindful of what is actually recorded.

Some researchers recommend a protocol (list of issues) to guide observation, since this provides the researcher with a focus during the observation (Gay et al., 2006, p.415). I decided against the use of a protocol seeing that this could have limited or set certain boundaries when the phenomenon of classroom interaction was observed. Instead I created a simple template (see Addendum G) to capture my visual observations. This later assisted in the transcription of my audio recordings. The use of audio recorders is common among researchers, as it is less tedious than writing, and allows the researcher to focus on what is happening. Furthermore, it enables researchers to record detail, which might have been left out, at a later stage and thus move beyond the limitations of a checklist (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). The audio records are

transcribed (see Addendum H), and the transcripts ultimately play a central part in the process of data analysis. A transcript can be seen as “[a] written form of something that was originally spoken words” (Thomas, 2009, p.161).

Researchers should be wary of what is known as observer bias. Observer bias tends to occur when the observer’s subjectivity interferes with the process of observation and as a result, invalid observations are made. Each researcher brings to a setting a highly individual background, set of experiences, and perspectives, which in turn, not only affect what and how observation takes place, but also the personal reflections and interpretations that are generated from the data (Gay *et al.*, 2006). The researcher should be aware of individual biases and take care to address this issue deliberately during the research process.

Questionnaires

The researcher also employed questionnaires as a secondary data collection strategy. Questionnaires are defined as “...lists of pre-written questions” (Walsh, 2001, p.63). Asking the right questions is therefore an important aspect as it determines whether the data obtained is useful and applicable to the study. It also assists researchers in making decisions, testing theories and/or investigating topics (Peterson, 2000). Peterson (2000, p.13) identifies certain criteria which effective questions supposedly adhere to. According to him, effective questions are brief, relevant, unambiguous, specific and objective.

Semi-structured, self-completion questionnaires, which mostly consisted of open-ended questions, were distributed for completion by the participants. Open-ended questions, which are particularly suitable for investigating complex issues to which simple answers cannot be provided, were used (Cohen *et al.*, 2007) (see Addenda I & J). In general, open-ended questions allow for a greater variety of responses from participants, and assist the researcher to obtain an ‘insider view’. Moreover, these questions also help the researcher to maintain a high level of validity, because the likelihood of introducing any individual preconceptions is lessened (Walsh, 2001).

In terms of a data gathering technique, questionnaires can be advantageous. Walsh (2001, p. 64) contends that questionnaires are advantageous as they present a cheap and efficient way to collect data; are relatively reliable as a method of data collection; enable the researcher to

collect a large amount of data relatively quickly; and also enable the researcher to compare respondents' answers.

Questionnaires were distributed to the teachers and learners who had willingly provided informed consent. These questionnaires took approximately 25 minutes to complete. The information obtained through this particular method of data collection provided the researcher, either with a comprehensive overview, or a detailed description of the interaction processes that took place in the classroom, which at the same time complemented the observations recorded in the classroom.

4.2.2.3 The Process of Data Analysis

Data analysis briefly refers to the processing of data in order to answer the research questions (Boeije, 2010). Qualitative data analysis focuses on the process of reviewing, synthesizing and interpreting data to describe and explain the phenomena or social worlds being studied (Fossey, Harvey, McDermott & Davidson, 2002). As a result the data needs to be broken up, disassembled and reconstructed in such a way that it sheds light on the research question. This process is not linear, and may be revisited many times in order to refine the data and generate a meaningful whole as well as a theoretical understanding of the social phenomenon under study. The idea is to systematically search for meaning (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013).

Data analysis in qualitative research is usually an inductive process where the researcher moves from the larger to the smaller. It also has a tendency to be iterative and cyclical, implying, to a certain extent, that the process needs to be repeated (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). While engaging with the data, the researcher tried to "...see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanations, make interpretations, mount critiques, [and] generate theories" (Hatch, 2002, p. 148 in Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013, p. 435).

Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis refers to the *what* of your study, i.e. what object, phenomenon, entity, process, or event you are interested in investigating. The unit of analysis is typically also the unit of observation (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The unit of analysis along with the research questions provide a definite focus as to what is being studied, observed and eventually analysed. With regards to this study the teacher, learners and consequently the TLI all formed the unit of analysis, due to the inter-reliant nature of the particular units under study.

Approaching data analysis

Gay et al. (2006, p.469) mention that there are some guidelines and general strategies for analysing qualitative data, with only a few existing rules for their application. Once data have been collected, the qualitative researcher undertakes a multi-stage process of organizing, categorizing, synthesizing, analysing and writing about their data. They also suggest that researchers follow a few repetitive steps when beginning with this process: (i) reading, to become familiar with the data and to identify potential themes; (ii) conducting an in-depth examination of the data in order to provide detailed descriptions of the context, participants and the activity; and (iii) categorizing and coding pieces of data and then grouping them into themes which classify the research findings.

This may be seen or viewed as a form of preliminary analysis. Ideally this provides researchers with a holistic view of the data they have gathered and helps them to become familiar with the data through actively engaging with it. Ultimately, this may pave the way for a further or deeper form of analysis, and finally interpretation of the data. In order to clarify these steps, (Gay et al., 2006, p.481) have put the following strategies in place to assist researchers:

- *Coding* - the process of categorically marking units of text with codes or labels as a way to indicate patterns and meaning in data. This involves the reduction of narrative data to a manageable form to enable the process of sorting (see Addendum H);
- *Identifying themes* - a strategy that relies on the identification of ideas that have emerged from the review of literature and in the data collection (see Addenda K - N);
- *Concept mapping* - an approach that allows the qualitative researcher to visualize the major influences that have affected the study and to create a visual display that allows for the identification of consistencies and inconsistencies that may exist between disparate groups (see Addendum O) and
- *Analysing antecedents and consequences* - a strategy that allows the researcher to map the causes and effects that have emerged throughout the study.

It was mentioned earlier that qualitative data analysis is an on-going process, which involves data being broken into parts for the purpose of in-depth examination (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). Researchers usually begin the process with coding, which refers to how researchers define what the data under analysis are about. This usually includes identifying or recording pieces of text that represent similar theoretical or descriptive ideas. Through coding,

the data is categorized in such a way that a framework of thematic ideas is established (Gibbs, 2009).

Once researchers have finished the process of coding and developing categories, these are converted into themes. Savin-Baden and Howell Major say that themes are those dominant ideas that unify the data, and that finding themes is considered “the heart of the data analysis process” (2013, p.427).

Data analysis strategy

The strategy that is utilised after the completion of coding is what is known as the constant comparison method. The main idea behind this strategy is that comparisons are constant and continue throughout the period of analysis. These comparisons are not only used to develop theory and clear explanations but also to increase the richness of the analysis and to ensure that it accurately captures what happened as well as the views and opinions of the participants (Gibbs, 2009).

There are two key aspects to this process. The first is that comparisons are used to check the *consistency* and *accuracy* of the application of codes. This refers to ensuring that passages with the same codes are actually similar. However, at the same time, researchers should be on the lookout for ways that they differ, since this may guide the researcher to further codes and ideas about the variations that have been identified. This is a circular process where codes are constantly revised, adapted and/or expanded where necessary (Gibbs, 2009). The second is to explicitly look for *differences* and *variations* in the activities, experiences, actions, communications, behaviour etc. of the participants that have been coded. The idea is to find differences across the cases, contexts and similar events to see how social and psychological factors affect the coding of the phenomena (Gibbs, 2009, p. 96).

In the final stage of analysis, the identified themes are compared with the relevant literature in order to develop a rich understanding of the topic studied.

Interpreting data

In the words of Coffey and Atkinson (1996, p.46) “The move from coding to interpretation is a crucial one... Interpretation involves the transcendence of “factual” data and cautious analysis of what is to be made of them” (in Silverman 2010, p.233). While the aim of analysis requires researchers to break data into parts to find relevant concepts and themes to describe what was

said, interpretation involves an attempt to translate concepts and themes to explain what *underlies* what was said (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013).

Data interpretation can shortly be defined as “...the act of explication, explanation and elucidation” (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013, p. 451). This is elaborated on by Peshkin (1993), who states that interpretation allows for various sub-categories of the outcomes including elaborating on existing concepts, developing new concepts, providing insights, refining knowledge, clarification and lastly, to developing theory (cited in Savin-Baden, & Howell Major, 2013, p. 452).

Within the process of data interpretation, researchers often use their theoretical frameworks as a guide. Theories provide researchers with a definite focus as to what may be important and what ought to be excluded. What is important is the way in which the theory helps researchers to understand meaning (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013).

These processes (data analysis and data interpretation) should however adhere to a certain level of quality. The data verification strategies that follow in the next section help to ensure that this is the case.

Data Verification

In general, data verification strategies are implemented to make sure that the researcher remains objective through the research process, especially when data are collected, analysed and interpreted. It is important that researchers remain neutral and that the research findings are valid.

In simple terms, Walsh (2001, p.15) says that, validity refers to the issue of “...whether the data collected is a ‘true’ picture of what is being studied”. It has also been defined as “[t]he extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomenon to which it refers” (Gibbs, 2009, p. 152).

With regard to the constant comparative method, Gibbs (2009, p.96) highlights two aspects that researchers should take into account in order to assist them in maintaining a high level of validity. The first is comprehensive data treatment, which simply suggests that as the researcher you need to keep analysing the data to make sure about the explanations and generalisations that you want to make and to check whether you have not missed anything that could lead you

to question whether your findings are essentially applicable. The second refers to negative cases, which are situations and/or examples that just do not fit in with the theory or support what you are trying to bring across. These should not be rejected as further investigation may lead the researcher to extend the richness of their coding as new ideas, concepts or categories may emerge.

Foster (2006, p.87) cautions researchers about a few threats to the validity of observational data. Reactivity, whether personal or procedural means that although the observations of the behaviours may be accurate, research participants do not necessarily behave the way that they normally do. Personal reactivity occurs when the behaviour of participants is affected by the personal characteristics of the researcher such as race, sex, or the conduct of the researcher whereas procedural reactivity occurs when participants behave in a different manner because they know they are being studied or observed. Another threat exists, namely that the researcher may wrongfully perceive and consequently misinterpret or -represent the real nature of what is being observed. This may be the case when researchers are observing highly complex behaviour, or if they are unfamiliar with the innate meanings at play in the social situation that is observed (Foster, 2006).

Strategies to verify data

There are several strategies that researchers can employ to address the issue of validity in their study. This may not necessarily guarantee that the work is a true picture of reality, but puts measures in place to eliminate obvious mistakes, and generates a richer set of explanations for the data (Gibbs, 2009).

Guba and Lincoln (1994) as well as Denzin and Lincoln (1994) highlight important facets of validity in qualitative research that should adhere to three distinctive criteria namely, trustworthiness, authenticity and objectivity. Trustworthiness is synonymous with objectivity and incorporates concepts such as “credibility”, “transferability”, “dependability”, and “confirmability”, whereas objectivity refers to the extent to which research findings are free from bias (cited in Bryman, 2008; Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Silverman, 2000). In order to achieve this the researcher conducted a pilot study, took field notes, made audio recordings, kept a research diary and subjected the findings to an audit trial to ensure that these criteria of validity were maintained (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Triangulation (using more than one method of data collection) was used to overcome what Denzin (1989) refers to as “the deficiencies that flow from one investigator or method” (cited in Babbie & Mouton 2001, p. 275). In short, triangulation is defined as “seeing things from different angles” (Thomas, 2009, p.111), where the research topic is observed “...from at least two different points” (Flick, 2004, p.178).

In this study, between-method triangulation (Denzin, 1978 in Flick, 2004) was used, which means that different methods were utilised to obtain the data. These methods included acquiring data primarily from observation and attaining information from both teachers and learners by means of questionnaires.

Generally, triangulation is employed to both promote the quality of the research and to extend the knowledge researchers want to obtain from their studies (Flick, 2007). It also reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question (Flick, 2002 in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) and enables researchers to capture different aspects of the questions under study (Flick, 2004).

4.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher has focussed on the various aspects flowing from qualitative enquiry. This particular framework is well suited to finally reach answers to the proposed research questions. From an interpretive stance, the idea is to enter into the subjective world of the research participants by means of a case study research design. The case study method was chosen in order to obtain an intensive perspective of the unit under study, namely teachers, learners and TLI. The research methodology was well thought through, not only to support the research design, but also to elucidate the phenomenon under study. What follows in Chapter 5 and 6 respectively is a careful and in-depth analysis and interpretation of the research findings of both cases [School A & School B] in order to find an answer to the main research question: What is the nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction like?

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS SCHOOL A

5.1 INTRODUCTION

When I started the process of data analysis I reached a deeper understanding and realization of the uniqueness of the phenomenon I had been studying for the last two years. I had to find my way through a maze of data and carefully break up sequences of actions into constituents of the phenomenon at hand. This proved to be a great challenge! In some instances however, I refused to do exactly that. My concern was that the essence of that which was being reflected through the interaction sequence, may actually be lost. I also came to see the true intricacy of classroom interaction and how easily the interaction can be affected by simple actions or words which then has the power to set the reciprocal nature of interaction on a different course altogether.

In order to provide the reader with a clear understanding of what I mean by the above I have decided to give you a sneak peek. Look at the following insert:

*T[eacher]: “ *, and you are sitting there why?”*

T: [Walks to desk to fetch daily report of learner and picks it up]

T: “It is looking so pretty today.”

L[earner]: “OK.”

T: “It will be a real pity.” [Smiles at learner with a funny facial expression] [A girl laugh]

T: “Ok, has everybody got down the title?”

In a different class, with a different teacher, the outcome may have been totally different...

What is to follow is my attempt to present the activity of categorising and thematically analysing the sets of data in order to reveal the fundamental nature of the phenomenon of classroom interaction as observed in two classes from two different schools.

They layout of the following two chapters will be as follows: The data from School A and School B will be discussed separately following the same outline and approach. First, I shall present a basic description of the context. This will be followed by a visual representation in order to help readers familiarize themselves with the findings which emerged from the data. Next, there will be a description of the respective categories and the themes of which they consist as well as a brief discussion of each category.

In chapter 7, the reader will be provided with a more in-depth discussion of all the findings, which will be weighed up against the theory as presented in Chapters two and three. I will now commence with my attempt to give an in-depth description of classroom interaction in School A.

5.2 CONTEXT OF SCHOOL A

The first case study [School A] was conducted in August 2013. Of the 36 Grade 9 learners, two did not consent to participate in the study. Of the 34 remaining learners 20 were male and 14 were female. The learners were taught by 11 different teachers of whom 10 participated [Life Orientation practical was excluded]. All the teachers consented to participate in the study.

School A is situated in a low-income area. Many of the learners come from low or moderate income families and use public transport to get to school. The Grade 9 class which was selected has been labelled as a class with disciplinary problems. Nine learners were aged 16 (one year older than the average age for the grade). The classroom was multicultural and included black, coloured, and white learners and one learner who classified his/her race as other.

Of the 10 teachers who participated in the study, four were male (three white and one coloured) and six were female (five white and one coloured). Eight of the ten teachers taught in their second language, and the years of experience ranged from one year to thirty-seven years.

The Grade 9 class was observed for 16 periods (excluding the 3 periods that formed part of a mini-pilot study preceding this study). In terms of the data analysis, the verbalisations of 3 periods (V) were transcribed, coded and finally used for identifying sub-themes. The periods that were selected for analysis were different in nature and included Mathematics, English (Home Language) and Natural Science (which can be regarded as a content subject), and the teachers were both male and female.

In addition, I received 32 completed questionnaires from learners (LQ) and three completed questionnaires from the teachers (TQ) who participated in the study. A similar process was followed as with the transcriptions in terms of coding the data in order to identify the sub-themes which emanated from them.

Thus the categories and relevant sub-themes which are presented in the following visual representation came from the transcriptions of the communication during three lessons, questionnaires filled in by the teachers and learners, as well as my own research observations (RO) gathered whilst doing research at School A.



FIGURE 5-1: VISUAL PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS: CATEGORIES (1-8) AND THEMES SCHOOL A

5.3 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS: SCHOOL A

As depicted in the above visual presentation, eight categories of findings emerged from the data for School A, namely Power, Teacher Behaviour, Pedagogy, Teacher Affect, Communication, Learner Behaviour, Human Qualities and Characteristics as well as Relational Aspects. I shall proceed to present each of these categories by describing the respective themes which were clustered together to form these categories.

5.3.1 POWER

From the data obtained power emerged as a convincing category. Although there is a common assumption that teachers possess most of the power in the classroom, the findings proved otherwise. Power seemed to reside in either teachers or learners. Furthermore, a strong connection was found between power, teachers' pedagogical actions and learner responses. Taking this into account, the various forms in which power was displayed, will now be presented.

Theme 1: Instructions

The teachers seemed to use instructions for various reasons, which included:

- Maintaining classroom flow, where teachers made use of instructions to direct learners' actions, or to gain cooperation or learners' focus:

T: "Look for me on the board please. On the board I have..." (V) &

T: "Take out your Biology books." (V)

- Addressing learner behaviour, where instructions were used to maintain discipline and order in the classroom:

T: "Shush guys." (V) &

T: "Hands up, hands up, hands up ja?" (V)

In some instances however, learners gave instructions to classmates:

- This usually related to some form of disciplinary action or to assist the teacher:

Learners often “shushed” one another when the teacher waited for silence or wanted to explain test related work. (V)

Theme 2: Control

Times when teachers took positions of teacher control, are demonstrated by the following:

- Teachers mostly assume control, stemming from a position of being the source of knowledge in the classroom and learners being dependent on them for the effective transfer of this knowledge:

T: “You can’t sleep I’m sorry. Come please, this is very important work.” (V)

- Teachers made use of structuring activities to establish a definite routine. These directed learner actions and supported teachers in terms of control in the classroom. The activities that were observed included the following:

Learners waiting behind their desks to greet the teacher before and/or after lessons, and checking, (from a class list), whether learners have brought their books to class. (RO)

- Reprimanding learners who are misbehaving:

T: “Why not?...You have English every day, except for one day in two weeks so it’s like every day. Ok, this is your one warning, yah?” (V)

- One teacher regularly made personal jokes with learners and demonstrated a high knowledge level of the development phase of this age group. There was a particularly high level of control in this class:

*T: “Now, * I put that one up there **especially** for you my boy.” (V)*

L[earner]s: “Woo-hoo!”

*T: “Now, I’ve got your back.” [Makes a funny move with hand on chest and points to the boy]
[Learners laugh]*

T: “What do we associate a rose with?”

L: [Most learners shout out] "Love, love at first sight."

T: [Responds to the boy he just spoke to] "I thought you were going to mention something else that starts with an 'L'." [Referring to a girl in the class]

- Learners included the following in their definitions of important teacher qualities:

"She should be ... a bit intimidating." (LQ) &

"...control & discipline." (LQ)

Teacher lack of control was also prevalent at times:

- Learners demonstrated a high level of disruption and/or misbehaviour, and teachers struggled to get learners to respond or to cooperate:

T: "How long am I going to beg you to start?" (V) &

T: "If you don't have the answers you might as well copy them now..." (V) &

In one class the teacher asked learners (as group and/or individually) to keep quiet approximately 33 times - this excluded addressing learner misbehaviour. (RO)

- Learners demonstrated provocative or eliciting behaviour, mostly challenging the teacher:

T: "Are you done?" (V)

L: "I'm getting a piece of paper." &

In another instance learners were studying for a different subject in class. The teacher moved between them, and they didn't make any attempt whatsoever to put away the books they were studying from. (RO) &

Learners also showed a higher tendency to disagree with teachers or to get involved in arguments. (RO)

- When giving a definition of negative classroom interaction, learners included the following in their questionnaires:

“...out of control.” (LQ) &

“Arguing and fight, shouting in the class...” (LQ)

Power: Discussion of findings

Teachers who effectively maintained positive control in their classrooms did not have to work hard at maintaining order in their classes. Learners seemed to obey or respond to these teachers' requests instantaneously, were generally compliant and did not challenge the teachers' authority. Teachers also did not seem to struggle with maintaining an effective “flow” of classroom activities. Especially in the classes of teachers where many positive interactions occurred, it seemed as if the learners exercised a form of control over one another to assist the teacher with disciplinary actions. This may indicate a strong and positive relationship that the particular teacher has with the learners. Mutual respect was seen as a strong contributor towards a healthy power relationship between teachers and learners.

However, teachers who struggled to maintain control in their classrooms were not able to effectively gain learner compliance. Learners mostly ignored the teachers' requests and dictated the flow of classroom activity. Challenging the teacher's authority was seen more as a rule than an exception. In order to gain control, teachers' negative responses accelerated which in the end contributed to more provocative learner actions. The relationship between the teachers and learners seemed to be non-existent and there also seemed to be a lack of mutual respect.

Consequently, it would seem as though a relationship exists between the TLR and the teachers' ability to maintain discipline and order in the classroom. Whoever takes up the power position seems to dictate the interaction in the classroom.

5.3.2 TEACHER BEHAVIOUR

Teacher behaviour was identified as the key to classroom interaction. It seems as if teachers' actions and reactions gave direction to reciprocal interactions. Whether these actions were directed to learners or were a response to learner(s) actions, teacher behaviour is an important theme in this discussion.

Theme 1: Neutral Actions

Teachers demonstrated general tendencies in terms of where they position themselves in the classroom:

1. *Some were stationed in front of the class when teaching, either standing or sitting behind their desks. (RO)*
2. *Some were mostly stationed in front of the class when teaching, either standing or sitting down and occasionally moving between learners to check up on them or to give individual explanations. (RO)*
3. *Others were continually moving or stationed between learners whether they were teaching or not. (RO)*

Teachers also made use of various body movements to achieve different outcomes:

1. *Funny movements were made to draw learners' attention (e.g. doing a funny dance) or to make the lesson more interesting (e.g. when reading literature - trying to impersonate different characters). (RO)*
2. *Excessive hand-movements were used while speaking or explaining. (RO)*
3. *Body movement were used in a threatening way when a teacher moved between learners to see whether they were on task and to check up on them. (RO)*

As with body movements, bodily actions were used by teachers:

- Eye contact was used effectively during explanations, when feedback was given, or when learners were reprimanded:

*T: “ *, come and sit in front.” [again] “ *, come and sit in front.” (V)*

L: “Which one miss?” [Two boys with the same name]

T: “The one I’m looking at.”

- Teacher sticking out his tongue:

One teacher stuck out his tongue when making a joke in class. (RO)

Theme 2: Negative Actions

In certain instances, teachers displayed negative actions which included physical, communicative and affective actions. The following was observed by the researcher.

Negative physical actions displayed by teachers included:

Slaps a learner on the arm for doing other work in class. (RO)

Negative communicative, affective and/or behavioural actions displayed by teachers included:

- Raising their voice or shouting when frustrated or irritated; being curt; being aggressive and/or threatening:

T: "I said it is enough!" (V) &

T: "Stop talking and you people will have enough time!" (V)

- Labelling learners by generalising:

T: [Shouting] "Listen gr. 9, stop it! You misbehave all the time and we are way behind." (V)

- Denying learner's request:

L: "No miss go back please. Please!" (V)

T: "I won't go back forget about it."

- Reinforcing negative expectations:

T: "Show me it wasn't a vloek [curse] yesterday." (V)

- Learners included the following in their definitions on negative classroom interaction:

"They just sit in their chairs and ignore the learners." (LQ) &

"...teacher shouting and swearing." (LQ)

Theme 3: Positive Actions

Positive teacher actions were frequently visible and included the following:

- Apologizing for the disruption:

T: [Moves over to door and speaks to another teacher at the door, when done]

T: "Ah, sorry about that." (V)

- Rewarding learner compliance:

L: "Sir, can I go get the announcements?" (V)

T: "Then read out your answer first, then you can go."

T: "Let's go, quickly, quick quick."

L: "His love for her is strong, and she is very beautiful, and he think she's [pause] hot."

T: "Yah, but now you haven't spoken about the words, and you haven't spoken about the connotations. Go fetch it quickly."

- Redirecting focus after one learner exposes another in class:

T: "Now, look at this one." [Puts up a picture of an old hag] (V)

L: [A learner starts calling out the name of one of the girls in the class] [There is a lot of reaction from a large part of the class]

*T: "Ok it's not * shush." [Refers to the girl whose name was just called out]*

T: "Ok now, when you see." [Waits for learners to quiet down]

Ls: [Start quieting one another]

*T: "No it is not * either, his wife?" [Refers to a boy in class with whom he regularly jokes]*

Ls: [Start to laugh]

T: *"His mother? No, I say no, I do not agree with you on that one. His mom is a lovely woman. The only thing that is a mystery is where he came from."*

Ls: *[Laughing out loud]*

T: *[Turns to boy and jokingly says] "Ah I love you."*

- Communicating high expectations:

T: *"It must be spot on good." (V)*

- Drawing learners in who have not participated in the classroom activities:

T: *"Ah who can I ask who can I ask who hasn't spoken to me today." [Looking for a learner to ask the question] (V)*

- Not responding to/ignoring provocative learner behaviour:

T: *"Ok listen here quickly, just look there at the * [School circular]" (V)*

L: *[In the background] "Anus."*

T: *"Especially." [pause] "Annas."*

L: *"Oh." [Laughs]*

L: *"What's Annas?"*

T: *"Ok, listen here. That is that test that your language teacher and your Maths teacher now are preparing you for. Ok. You know what I am talking about now."*

- Praising learners and building their self-esteem:

T: *"I like the way he is thinking. He's right, because there is two parts to this..." (V) &*

T: *"I will accept that, well done." (V)*

Theme 4: Learner Directed Actions

- Accepting learner correction:

T: "Minus four plus two will give us plus two." (V)

L: [Calls out] "Noooo." [Another learner] "Sir isn't it... minus two?"

- Accepting help from learners:

T: "What is wrong with this? It is two constonants. Two constonants. Con..." [Does not complete word - realises something is wrong, waiting for learners' help] (V)

*Ls: [Help teacher] "**Constants**".*

T: [Laughs] "Constants".

L: [Repeat again] "Constants".

Teacher Behaviour: Discussion of findings

It appeared as if teacher behaviour has a direct influence on the classroom atmosphere and whether or not effective learning occurs. Teachers' general action tendencies possibly create safe environments where learners feel comfortable enough to eagerly and freely participate in the learning process. In situations where teachers displayed self-confidence, wisdom and a high level of learner interest, classroom interactions were positively affected.

Positive TLIs were more commonly observed where teachers demonstrated positive actions towards their learners, and/or were actively engaged in their learners' learning processes. It also seemed as if praising learners, having a high regard for learner opinion, communicating high expectations to learners and constantly moving between the learners, were frequently part of these teachers' repertoires. These teachers also showed a high interest in learners' opinions, and provided feedback or support, which once again had a positive effect on reciprocal teacher-learner classroom interaction.

In classrooms with fewer positive TLIs, teachers still provided learners with support and acknowledged individual learners, however teachers were generally stationed at the front of the class and did not frequently move between the learners. Although learners felt comfortable

enough to voice their opinions such as to correct teacher errors, they did not often voice their individual opinions or engage in academic risk-taking behaviours. Teachers did in some instances make attempts to establish rapport by praising their learners.

In classrooms with limited positive TLIs, teachers demonstrated a greater inclination towards negative demeanour. This often contributed to an unpleasant classroom environment which then minimized effective learning opportunities as the teachers actions were mostly directed to (re)gaining a degree of control through addressing a vast array of disciplinary problems.

5.3.3 PEDAGOGY

Surprisingly, pedagogy emerged as an important theme. After careful analysis of the data, pedagogy emerged and developed as a prominent theme greatly influencing what actually happens between teachers and learners in classrooms. Although many may deem subject knowledge, teaching strategies and the organising of classroom activities as major and often determining components of strong teacher pedagogy, the findings suggested that teacher awareness and a teacher's ability to adapt also played an important role in knowledge transfer and teaching in general. Pedagogy, to a great extent, reflected teachers' personality and individuality. Pedagogical strategies seemed to be individualistic.

Theme 1: Lesson Structure

Some characteristics that were apparent in terms of teachers lesson structuring were as follows:

- Introducing a new lesson:

Introductions consisted mostly of revising the previous days' work or introducing/explaining new content. (RO)

- In terms of the way lessons progressed, two examples were observed. The first example showed an increase in complexity and the second showed the application of new concepts:

After the teacher introduced a new concept, the Maths sums became more and more complex. (RO)

T: "Ok we are going to push that into Romeo and Juliet now." (V)

- Another observation that was made by the researcher is that:

Few lessons demonstrated a definite introduction, middle and end. (RO)

- One of the teachers said the following with regard to the role of pedagogy in the teaching and learning process:

“A good planned lesson creates confidence in class, and ensures effective learning. Not all learners benefit from the same learning process. Therefore different methods will ensure learning depending on the ability of the class.” (TQ)

Theme 2: Knowledge Transfer

Teachers made use of different strategies to explain new content to learners. From the way that teachers taught, it became clear that teachers revealed a strong inclination towards certain strategies and styles when they taught. This became more evident once they were observed over time.

Teachers utilised various strategies in the process of knowledge transfer. These included:

- Engaging learners in a conversation by mainly using lower order questions:

T: “We’ve got how many terms here?” (V)

- Generating patterns:

One teacher continually followed exactly the same steps with each example after introducing a new concept in Maths. (RO)

- Engaging learners in a conversation by asking their opinion:

T: “What do you think the thorn symbolises?” (V)

- Correcting mistakes:

1. Where the teacher immediately corrected the learner:

T: “No...not all of them have x... not all of them can be divided by 5...” (V) &

2. Where the teacher did not correct the learner's answer, but instead altered it:

T: "Can I change a word? Lightens his heart." (V)

- Other examples of knowledge transfer included:

The teacher explains while the learners are listening (both revision and new content). (RO)

It was furthermore observed that teachers also made use of diverse strategies to make content more easily understandable and inviting for the learners:

- Referring to common mistakes that learners have made in the past:

T: "I'm just gonna go through this, and I'm going to show you a common mistake what people do." (V)

- Drawing comparisons between the subject content and learners personal experiences:

T: "You work with what you got. Don't throw things away. Ok. They're all new clothing in your cupboard; you're not going to throw them away. You want to put it somewhere where you can find it. That's what you're doing with the 2 there." (V)

- Highlighting the relevancy of content:

T: "Everything in Romeo and Juliet, everything in language has to do with connotations." (V)

- In terms of the most important teacher qualities, learners stated that:

"A teacher should be able to explain properly." (LQ) &

"The teacher should make the subject fun to listen to." (LQ)

- Learners defined positive classroom interaction in the following ways:

"...teachers teach properly by asking the learners questions." (LQ) &

"...be willing to teach..." (LQ) &

“When the teacher explains what you must do and then gives you a fair time to do it...” (LQ)

Theme 3: Teacher Adaptability

Teachers seemed to display a sense of flexibility in terms of their teaching practice when classroom interactions made this necessary. There were instances when teachers were more flexible, and instances where teachers did not let interactions between themselves and their learners change or alter the course of action in the classroom.

The following was observed of teachers in terms of adapting to and improvising during classroom interactions:

- Instead of providing learners with the “correct” answer the teacher rather used another example:

*T: “Ok, now if I had to ask you, would you say the sun, is it overriding **positive** things you think about, or negative things?” (V)*

Ls: [Shout out] “Positive and negative.”

T: “Ok, lets’ come back to this in a second.”

T: [Gives another example before repeating the question]

- Elaborating on learners’ answers:

In some cases the teacher used the responses from the class to broaden the learners’ knowledge without straying from the focus of the lesson. (RO)

- Simplifying the content in order to improve learner understanding:

L: [One learner makes a comment about being confused/not understanding]

T: “Who said that? You?” (V)

L: “Yes.”

T: “Can you see that both these signs are a plus?”

L: "Yes sir."

T: "OK, so therefore if both the signs are plus, both the signs in the brackets must be plus."

- Breaking the planned sequence/flow of the lesson because the answer of the learner made such an action from the teacher necessary:

T: "Now, because you are [Pause]" "Because you are so good at this now, what do you associate with that?" (V)

Ls: [Quick response - hands in the air]

T: "One, two..." [Points to learners to identify the sequence in which they have to give their answers]

L: "Sir, can I be honest with you. That light that you just pulled up now that doesn't remind me of love or anything. That reminds me of God and of heaven."

T: "You are not far off there. I'll tell you why you're not far off."

L: [Another learner shouts out] "Goddess."

T: "Because, sorry just hold on." [The teacher moves to a different slide in the PowerPoint presentation - pictures of Juliet, one from a recent movie and one from a play a longer time ago]

T: "Hey don't look close your eyes!" [While he passes through some of the slides that the learners are not supposed to see yet]

T: "Couple of lines later he describes, 'And touching hers makes blessed my rude hand', so he goes about using this whole god imagery about describing her as an **angel** and all these kind of things. So yah, not far. Well done."

On other occasions the teacher's actions did not demonstrate flexibility or immediate improvisation:

- Using the same method throughout the lesson to introduce/explain a new concept:

In one instance learners struggled with an important concept throughout the lesson. The teacher repeatedly explained the concept using the same method/approach. At the end of the lesson, some learners still seemed confused, as if they had not mastered the concept. (RO)

- When a learner works ahead of the rest of the class:

In one instance a learner seemed to continually “jump ahead” of the teacher. The teacher kept on restraining the learner so that he would stay with the rest of the group. (RO)

T: “We’ll get there now. Don’t confuse them; let’s just keep it to x^2 , just x^2 . Let’s not work with any numbers in front of x^2 , because then you are going to start getting confused.” (V)

Theme 4: Teacher Awareness

This is a theme that was included after seeing that some teachers demonstrated what is termed a form of awareness in terms of their classroom surroundings. I realized that being alert, is a noteworthy aspect of a teacher’s pedagogy. Teacher awareness was demonstrated in the following instances:

- The teachers’ ability to multi-task:

T: “You should be writing down the title for me.” [Then continues reading learner names from the list to check whether their books are in class.] (V)

- Checking up on learners:

T: [One specific learner] “ Books here? You remember what happened last lesson yah? You lied to me.” [Non- threatening] (V)*

L: “But I’m not lying now.”

T: “OK.”

Realising at the beginning of the lesson that learners are not sitting in their allocated seats. (RO)

- Being alert to the way that learners respond after the introduction of new content:

L: [One of the learners makes a comment about being confused/not understanding]

T: *"Who said that, you?" (V)*

L: *"Yes."*

T: *"Can you see that both these signs are a plus?"*

L: *"Yes sir."*

T: *"OK, so therefore if both the signs are plus, both the signs in the brackets must be plus."*

- In terms of the most important teacher qualities one of the learners stated that teachers should be able to:

"...judge a situation properly." (LQ)

Theme 5: Strategies to Address Non-compliance or Misbehaviour of Learners

It was observed that teachers made use of a variety of strategies in their attempt to gain the attention of their learners or when addressing learner misbehaviour. The context of the classroom seemed to be a prevalent factor as to whether learners complied with the request of the teacher by altering their behaviour to obtain the desired outcome.

- Polite request:

T: *"Shush guys, come on." (V)*

- Persuasive threat:

T: *[A second time to the boy who is still lying on his arms] "Sit up please, otherwise you are going to [leave class]. You can't sleep, I'm sorry. Come please, it is very important work." (V) &*

T: *"I gave a merit to you guys yesterday for extremely good behaviour and today, today actually I can't say that." (V)*

- Sarcastic/humoristic:

T: *"Why are you shouting at me now?" [To a learner who shouted out an answer] (V)*

- Indirect/implicit:

T: "I'm sorry, I do apologise for stopping you midsentence there, because apparently I can listen to you and several other people." (V)

- Reprimanding:

T: "You know what the big story is? You are talking while you are supposed to work. That's what's going on. I'm not waiting for you!" (V)

- Angry commands:

T: [Shouting] "That's enough!" (V) &

T: "Shut up the two of you." (V)

- Questioning learner actions:

T: "Uh, listen since when can you eat in my class?" (V) &

T: "Are you done?" (V)

L: "No miss."

T: "Then why are you talking?"

- Threatening:

*T: [Angry] "I am just going to report this, you guys are **not** the same people of yesterday." (V)*

- Sending learners out:

In some instances the teacher sent learners who misbehaved out of the class to stand in the hallway. (RO)

Theme 6: Strategies to Gain Learner Attention

It was observed that teachers incorporated a range of strategies in order to gain the attention of the learners before commencing with their lessons.

- Making use of silence:

If learners did not quiet down after the teacher asked them to do so, the teacher stood back and waited for learners to respond. In certain instances the learners started to quiet one another, and the noise level dropped. The teacher then continued with the lesson. (RO)

- Making reference to exams:

T: "I think this one will go in the test, hey." (V)

- Threatening to report to the school principal:

*T: "I am just going to report this, you guys are **not** the same people of yesterday." (V)*

- Addressing learners by their first names:

*T: "Ok hurry up! Hurry up *." (V)*

Theme 7: Resources

It was observed that teachers usually made use of resources to assist their teaching especially in the knowledge transfer process.

- The range of resources used by teachers included:

1. Teacher and learner textbooks (RO)

2. Blackboards (RO)

3. Data projectors (RO)

Blackboards and data projectors were mainly employed to transmit content. In one instance a teacher used the data projector to show learners a content related movie. (RO)

During my observation period I observed that teachers rarely made use of more than one resource when teaching. Teachers also tended to demonstrate a high affinity for a particular resource, and that resource was then usually incorporated in their lessons. (RO)

Theme 8: Motivation

Motivation in relation to pedagogy may seem a bit out of place, however it became obvious that although one generally associates motivation with a strong affective component, it was also utilised subtly by teachers in different ways to achieve pedagogical outcomes.

The following were observed by teachers who integrated motivation in their pedagogical actions:

- Creating a positive attitude towards the curriculum content:

1. T: "Ok. Easy?" (V) &

2. T: "Is this easy?" (V)

Ls: [shouts out] "Yes!"

- Exaggerating:

T: "Ok, has everybody got down the title?" (V)

Ls: [Some shout out] "Noo!"

T: "What, it has been on there for what, 10 minutes now?" [Actual time being +- 4:30 minutes]

- Making references to the examinations:

T: "Ok 5 minutes on the clock. Comment on the line [loud voice]. Imagine it is the exams." (V)

- Simplifying content to improve learner mastery:

T: "The signs are once again going to want to catch us out, but we know that they are grade 4 or grade 5 sums." (V)

Theme 9: Teacher Expertise

Learners made reference to aspects of teacher expertise when asked to identify the most important teacher qualities. According to learners it was important that teachers demonstrate the following in terms of their pedagogical ability:

"Know what their teaching." (LQ) &

“Good teaching.” (LQ) &

“Disciplined in his/her teaching subject.” (LQ)

Pedagogy: Discussion of findings

The emergent themes once again emphasise an important facet of teaching - teacher individuality. Teachers as individuals demonstrated unique ways, and utilised various strategies to convey new content to learners and to generate learning opportunities in their classrooms. Pedagogy was however found to be very much dependent on effective communication, a positive learning atmosphere and learners that are receptive to teachers' pedagogical actions.

Teacher pedagogy thrived in classes where teachers maintained effective control of the learning situation, and pedagogical competencies such as awareness and adaptability were found to be crucial in the teaching processes.

Knowledge transfer was highly dependent on a teacher's ability to relate new content to learners and, along with the way lessons were structured, demonstrated teachers' dominant teaching styles.

In order to maintain the pedagogical flow in the classroom, teachers had to multitask in terms of their teaching while simultaneously maintaining learners' focus, attention and discipline in the classroom. Learners demonstrated a greater interest in lesson material where visual stimuli were used.

Where teachers had a positive attitude and displayed a high level of enthusiasm, this seemed to contribute effectively to the teaching and learning process in the class. It supported knowledge acquisition, deeper levels of understanding and ultimately successful mastery of the content in the classroom. In the end it appears as if successful pedagogy manifests itself in terms of effective learning.

Positive TLIs were more commonly observed where the pedagogy of the teacher included a two-way flow of communication, where the teacher had a high regard for learner individuality and where learners responded to the teachers' cues. Also associated with positive TLIs was that learners demonstrated higher levels of insight and cognition when answering the teachers' questions and giving their own opinions.

In classrooms with fewer positive TLI's it seemed that although teachers had ample opportunities to explain the content to learners, the degree to which content transfer occurred, could not be positively ascertained. A few examples of this included that learners tended to display lower levels of participation and lower response levels to the teacher (except when lower order questions were asked). A one-way flow of communication was commonplace, with the teacher being the source of knowledge and dictating the flow of the interactions.

It has been mentioned that control or classroom management is seen as an essential element to provide a basic structure for teachers to carry out their pedagogical actions. In classrooms with limited positive TLI's, it seemed as if teachers struggled to manage the class and were unable to successfully dictate pedagogical activities. This left both teachers and learners with less time to engage in content, and left no room for classroom discussions. Also, opportunities for critical and creative thinking are relinquished, ultimately deterring the learning process. In the end, teachers spent more time addressing misbehaviour than achieving educational goals.

5.3.4 TEACHER AFFECT

In some instances (usually Maths and Languages) teachers see the same class during least one period a day over a one year timespan. Needless to say, some form of relationship will form between the teacher and the class as a whole, as well as the teacher and his/her individual learners. This demands some form of emotional capital on behalf of the teacher as classroom interaction make high demands on teachers' emotional capacities.

Theme 1: Personal Connection

In certain instances, teachers displayed deliberate attempts to personally connect with their learners or to sustain the existing TLR. Learners responded positively towards these types of teacher actions and demonstrated similar actions towards some of their teachers.

In the following instances, teachers used different ways to enhance positive connections with their learners:

- Sharing their life histories:

T: [Interrupts himself - A sudden voice change] "In England, sorry I have to tell a story. There are old people..." [Teacher mimics what people look like when they walk] (V)

Ls: *[Laughs loudly]*

T: *"You can laugh at that but I keep thinking to myself - that could be me. You know, I'm heading that age now."*

L: *"Sir you're not 60."*

- Sharing their personal lives:

T: *"I love my wife dearly but if she phone me more than twice a day I get really annoyed."* (V)

- Making fun of learners with whom they get along well:

T: *"Now what have we spoken about going daddy, daddy, daddy, daddy the whole time?"* (V)

- Making use of humour:

T: *"Trust * to say you put a big sun on the board and then he says 'cool'."* (V)

- Making jokes with the learners:

L: *"Sir but the announcements."* (V)

T: *"Uh. Gr 9* have to stay behind after school today."* *[Refers to this class]*

L: *"Huh what? Boring!"*

- Making fun of stereotypical teenage behaviour:

T: *"That's phoning her 15 times a day, asking her what she did every minute of the day, who you're with, where were you? I phoned you at home. Were you seeing someone else? Does this ring a bell?"* (V)

L: *"No."*

T: *"Look at me, yes. That's probably what happened. Unfortunately sometimes we, we get so overwhelmed with emotions."*

- Establishing camaraderie:

T: "I'll tell you Leonardo (Dicaprio) is real hot isn't he?" (V)

- Building learner esteem by affirming individual responses:

L: "He saves her from marrying Paris, from which she feels captive." (V)

T: "You're just showing off now."

- Other means that teachers used to enhance positive connections with their learners:

Engaging learners in non-curriculum related discussions. (RO)

- In terms of identifying important teacher qualities, one learner stated that teachers should:

"...pay attention to what we say." (LQ)

In one instance a learner responded on a personal level revealing a sense of trust:

- Sharing personal experiences:

L: "Sir, what I experience sir, guys like when girls like - wait sir, look here, what I experience sir, if you give more love then you are going to find hate." (V)

Theme 2: Teachers' Emotional Actions

While observing, it became obvious that teachers are often confronted with situations that challenge them on an emotional level. From the latter, the observer witnessed how teachers' ability to monitor and control their own emotions and how they conduct themselves emotionally in classroom interactions, directly influences the emotional climate of the classroom.

In certain instances, teachers displayed positive emotional actions:

- Making jokes with learners:

L: "Sir, what Maths is this?" (V)

T: "Gr 9 Maths."

L: "No man..."

T: [Teacher laughs out loud]

- Teacher laughs at self:

T: "How do we get the two brackets now?" (V)

L: "We put it there."

T: "Oh yes ja, we put it there."

L: [Some laugh]

T: [Also starts to laugh] "This is my payback, I just thought to myself geez this guy is really slow to be honest..."

- Encouraging learners:

T: "Yes, this is really easy. Let me show you quickly how easy it is." (V)

- Calling learners pet names:

T: "My' boy" (V) &

T: "Lovey" (V) &

T: "Sweetie pie" (V)

- Learners included the following in their definitions of classroom interaction:

"The teacher and the student can make jokes and still get the work done." (LQ) &

"...have joeques [jokes] and fun in the lesson." (LQ)

In some instances, teachers displayed negative emotional actions:

- Signs of irritation:

T: "So please hurry up that we can go on [tone irritated] I don't want to use another period for this." (V)

- Resentment:

T: "I am ashamed to say I teach you." (V)

- Confrontational remarks:

L: "No miss go back please. Please!" (V)

T: "I won't go back, forget about it."

T: "Stop talking and you people will have enough time!"

L: "Miss can you please go back?"

*T: "No. You are talking non-stop Mr. *."*

- Reprimand with a negative expectation:

T: "It is very easy to say blame other people, but if two or three of you have a constant discussion about something, the class went haywire, is going haywire that's the biggest problem. One or two of you decide to make your move then the class are out of... You can be good and you showed me yesterday that you can be good. [pause] so I know you can do it, so I expect it from you." (V)

Ls: [Quiet down and listen to the teacher]

L: [Asks the teacher a question]

T: "There it goes."

T: "Ok. It's enough. It's enough."

- One learner included the following in his definition of negative classroom interaction:

"...a teacher with a short temper." (LQ)

- One learner included the following on the role of communication in the classroom:

"...the teachers also need to not take there anger out on us." (LQ)

Theme 3: Teacher Interest

In one instance, the teacher displayed a genuine interest in learners' personal doings:

- Questioning learners about a school activity:

T: "Was everybody here last night?" (V)

Ls: "Yes."

T: "How did it go?"

Theme 4: Motivation

It was mentioned earlier that motivation was used by teachers to achieve pedagogical aims. In other instances it was observed that teachers also incorporated motivation on an affective level to improve learner confidence, and to encourage learners.

A few of these instances include:

- Teacher optimism:

T: "x & x. OK. We're half way there." (V)

- Building learner self-esteem:

T: "Ok, good question..." (V) &

T: "Now, because you are [pause] because you are so good at this now, what do you associate with that?" (V)

- Encouraging self-trust:

*T: "Now let the lesson be from this one, because you were unsure about that one weren't you?"
(V)*

L: "Yah."

T: "If it was an exam, would you have written it down?"

Ls: [Some] "Yes." [Some] "No."

T: "Probably not. You need to start trusting yourself. Make your point, and just tell me why you say that."

- Praising learners:

T: "So yah, not far well done." (V)

- Encouraging high expectations and self-belief:

T: "Now why is when in the exam I ask you a question 'Comment on the line below: O she doth teaches the torches to burn bright' and you come up with your crappy answers?" (V)

L: "But sir..."

*T: "When **clearly** you know the answer."*

Ls: [Explain why they do not get the answers right in the exam]

T: "Comment on the line."

L: "Comment on the line?"

T: "Then I will get answers like, that's a short line."

Ls: [Laughter]

*T: "Romeo is speaking in the line. Romeo is speaking about someone. You have all the answers in you, you just really * trust yourselves."*

L: "Why?"

T: "Cause you don't."

L: "Ok."

T: "Trust yourself. Look at the imagery, look at what you think Shakespeare is trying to say and then speak about it and that is all I require."

- Regarding important teacher qualities, learners included:

"...motivating us in a positive way." (LQ) &

"Motivation." (LQ)

Theme 5: Affective Qualities

- When asked to comment on important teacher qualities, learners included the following in their questionnaires:

"To have a relationship with the class and get to know the class." (LQ) &

"She should be...outgoing..." (LQ) &

"...like have a positive attitude when coming to school..." (LQ) &

"Good attitude towards the learners." (LQ) &

"...must not always be in a bad mood." (LQ) &

"...nice attitude..." (LQ)

- Learners included teacher affective qualities in their definition on positive classroom interaction:

"When the teacher is happy and interacts nicely with us." (LQ)

Teacher Affect: Discussion of findings

In this category the emotional nature of learning processes is highlighted. Another important aspect namely teachers' contributions and influence on the emotional development of learners, are also recognised.

From these particular observations a strong interrelation was found between pedagogy, a healthy power relationship between teachers and learners, and the teacher's affective responses towards learners in the classroom. It was as if the affective atmosphere in the classroom set the stage for teachers to engage learners in general classroom activities. It also seemed, to a large extent, as if emotions cultivated emotional responses which eventually influenced individual perceptions, beliefs and learners' attitudes towards their teachers and learning.

Positive TLIs were more commonly observed in classrooms where the teacher made a deliberate attempt to connect with learners on a personal/emotional level. This not only appears to have enhanced the positive relationship between teachers and learners, but also contributed to a safe learning environment, made the learning experience more enjoyable, and encouraged learners to take risks in terms of participation regarding the subject content.

Learners responded similarly, in that they reached out to the teacher, shared their personal experiences and were eager to participate in classroom activities. Higher levels of participation in classroom activities were also commonplace.

Where mutual respect was established between a teacher and his/her class, teachers did not have to go to a great lengths to maintain control in the classroom. They could easily steer learners in the right direction without any opposition.

In classrooms with fewer positive TLIs, limited attempts were observed where teachers tried to make emotional connections with their learners. Although there were levels of mutual respect, these did not necessarily move to a level where learners made deliberate attempts to establish a strong relationship with the teacher. Generally, teachers' emotional state could be described as neutral. Unwelcome learner actions were dealt with assertively rather than in a negative manner.

In classrooms with limited positive TLIs, teacher's actions seemed to promote resistance, conflict, and non-compliant learner behaviour. This eventually contributed to the deterioration of

opportunities to build relationships between teachers and learners which, we have now seen, are an important aspect of the TLI phenomenon.

It was mentioned earlier that emotions have a direct influence on cultivating individual perceptions and beliefs. These then reinforce certain behaviours, attitudes and actions and eventually become filters through which teachers and learners interact and communicate with one another.

5.3.5 COMMUNICATION

Without some form of communication, interaction is non-existent. Communication can be seen as the means by which teachers and learners convey messages to one another, whether verbal or non-verbal. The exchange of these messages greatly reflects the nature of a relationship and either promotes or inhibits the effective transmission of future messages. Themes that were identified as relevant to this category were: teachers' voice use, teachers' use of questions, learners' use of questions, language use, and body language.

Theme 1: Teachers' use of Voice

While communicating with their learners, teachers altered the pitch and tone of their voices for various reasons.

It was observed that the teachers changed/alterd their voices in the following instances:

- To emphasise where there's room for error:

*T: "This is the tricky part here. Because I can give you one of those, with a **minus** and I'll show you after this. I'll give you another like one, another sum like this with a -6 there, and I'll show you how the signs will change."* (V)

- To provide focus:

*T: "Look, we are finding the factors **of 8** in the block."* (V)

- To ensure the correct transfer of knowledge:

*T: "No, there is a minus and a plus, then it can be anything... **But**, they have to add up to be in the middle. Minus two, minus four gives us minus six. If those two are **positive** the signs **have** to*

*be both positive. But as soon as you have got one of them a **minus**, then the signs change. K.*”
(V)

- Entertaining the class/ roleplaying:

T: “So when you see the sun you think invincible?” (V)

Ls: [Laugh]

T: “Summer morning you come outside you say: ooh the sun is out... I’m invincible!”

- When correcting a learner’s mistake:

T: “K, now what’s creditors?” (V)

L: [Only one learner that answers] “People that owe you money.” (V)

*T: “People that **you** owe money...”*

- Negative motivation/ irritable:

T: “Come, hurry up, hurry up.” (V)

- Angry messages:

*T: “I’m **not** waiting.” (V)*

- Other instances where teachers voices were altered:

One particular teacher altered his voice when repeating learners’ answers. The message that was communicated was that he liked the answer, or that it was a good answer. (RO)

Theme 2: Teachers’ use of questions

The nature of the teachers questions, which they often used while communicating with the learners, were used to achieve a variety of educational outcomes.

Some of the outcomes that were observed included the following:

- To engage learners in a content discussion by using lower order questions:

T: "Six plus one is?" (V)

- To gain "permission" from learners or to monitor learner progress:

T: "Can I move on?" (V)

- During the transfer of new content:

T: "Can you see that there is a extra step?" (V)

- To receive learner responses:

T: "You were saying?" (V) &

T: "Why perfection?" (V)

- As a strategy to revise content:

T: "So tell me quickly, journals is a summary for the?" (V)

- While addressing misbehaviour of learners:

T: "Uh, listen since when can you eat in my class?" (V)

- A definition on negative classroom interaction one learner included the following:

"...when teachers dont ask the learners any questions." (LQ)

Theme 3: Important Aspects of Teachers' Communication Continuum

The process of verbal communication is as challenging as it is delicate. Not only do teachers communicate on the basis of what they see, feel and know, but their messages are also received by learners based on what *they* see, feel and know at the time. Teachers therefore need to develop a strong sense of how to interpret messages and also how to communicate universally in order to eliminate the danger of miscommunication.

The following was observed in terms of teachers' communication:

- Sympathising with learners:

T: "It's just something to remember. It's difficult to remember because obviously I have given you a lot of things to remember. OK."

- Warning learners about content difficulty:

T: "Very tricky with the signs." (V) &

T: "The language is slightly dodgy let's admit it. It's difficult." (V)

- Conveying a team approach:

T: "Are we done?" (V) &

*T: "So that's where **we** got it y^2 over there. **We** don't worry about the y in the middle because that will come together. **We** are going to add whatever number is here and **we** are going to multiply it to y^2 there. So it is all going to add up to $6y^2$. **We** have got to do our block there of $+8$, so **we** do our block."*

- Giving indirect instructions/commands especially when they are quieting learners:

T: "Thank you." (V)

- In terms of the most important teacher qualities, one learner stated that teachers should have:

"...good speech." (LQ)

- One learner also highlighted the danger of miscommunication:

"Mis-communication on any part means it [communication] will result in shouting and screaming." (LQ)

Theme 4: Body Language

Body language is quite powerful when it comes to communicating a variety of messages. Although these messages are non-verbal the essence of the message can sometimes be easily interpreted and room for miscommunication is limited.

The following uses of body language were observed while teachers were teaching:

1. *Constantly walking around with arm on hip. (RO) &*
2. *Standing with arms crossed when addressing the class. (RO) &*
3. *An increase in eye size when reprimanding a learner who was off-task. (RO) &*
4. *Standing with a leg on top of a table, with the arm positioned on the leg, while his head were resting on his hand at the front of the class while waiting for them to quiet down. (RO)*

Theme 5: Learners on the Role of Communication in Interaction

From learners responses on the role of communication on interaction certain themes emerged. They included the following:

- Communication in relation to learning activities:

"...ask questions if we don't understand." (LQ) &

"...the teachers and the learners need to know what's going on." (LQ) &

"You learn more when you communicate." (LQ) &

"If you can't communicate with teachers you can't ask for help." (LQ) &

"...it is important to know what teachers and learners think of the work." (LQ) &

"...when teachers communicate properly with the learners. The learner will listen better." (LQ) &

"...so that you can communicate with a teacher if you don't know your work..." (LQ)

- Affective or relational component:

"To tell the teacher if something is wrong." (LQ) &

“...then there is no fighting or confrontation.” (LQ) &

“...the teacher must get to know you and understand you even more.” (LQ)

- Ineffective communication:

Learners included the following in their definitions of negative classroom interaction:

“Bad communication.” (LQ) &

“Were nobody understand each other...” (LQ)

Communication: Discussion of findings

Before I continue with this discussion please look at the following two statements that were made by different teachers in their classrooms:

1. T: *“I just want to do something then you can show of your reading skills.” (V) &*

2. T: *“What do you get if you don't get enough of that substance in?” (V)*

Ls: *“Lack of energy.”*

T: *“Some of you have too much energy.”*

What is captured here is not necessarily the essence of what was initially communicated. What is important, however, is how these messages are perceived and/or received by the recipient(s). Both messages have the potential to improve or inhibit effective communication depending on how they are interpreted. Thus, context, the TLR and emotions play a key role in classroom communication.

In the first scenario the message was seen as positive, almost a compliment or form of motivation to build learner's esteem before attempting the often arduous task of reading in front of the class. In the second scenario, the comment was not received well as it was seen as personal. Eventually this contributed to a decline in effective communication between teachers and learners.

Effective two-way communications can be associated with classes where the levels of positive interactions were high. As a result, learners contributed more in terms of individual input and knowledge exchange in the classroom.

In classrooms with fewer positive TLIs, it seemed as if communications were more fragmented and messages were often misread or misunderstood. This usually contributed to the adverse attitudes of the learners.

The danger of communication thus resides in the possibility of misinterpretation and misrepresentation. This seemed to be the case more often than not where teachers and learners did not appear to have a good relationship.

5.3.6 LEARNER BEHAVIOUR

Up to this point, the focal point of observation generally was the teachers rather than learners. Observing learners was an interesting endeavour, as learners often revealed elements of classroom interactions that could not be controlled by the teacher, because they emanated from elsewhere. For example, teachers might have altered their behaviour because of the researcher's presence. Learners on the other hand did not have as much at stake and their responses were not necessarily controllable. This is what I found.

Theme 1: Learner Compliancy

In certain instances the researcher observed that learners demonstrated compliant behaviour:

- Responding to teachers requests:

T: "...who can I ask who hasn't spoken to me today?" (V)

T: [Walks between learners] [Calls on girl]

L: "What? No."

T: [Ignores reply - continues to ask the question]

T: "What two words jump out to you from that?" [Refers to an insert from Shakespeare on the whiteboard] "Two words that jump out at you. And just don't choose the first two. They must actually jump out at you."

L: *"Oh, ok. [pause] Burn and bright."*

- Responding to teachers' questions:

T: *"What do you start with? (V)*

Ls: *[Simultaneously call out] "Brackets."*

- Other instances where learner compliancy was displayed include:

In one instance learners started to read with the teacher even though he didn't ask them to. (RO)

- Learners' definition of classroom interaction included:

"Learners keep quiet when a teacher is teaching." (LQ) &

"Learners keeps quiet and lets others complete their work." (LQ) &

"Following instructions." (LQ) &

"Students listen in class, they follow rules." (LQ)

In other instances non-compliant learner behaviour was observed by the researcher which ranged from passive to punishable behaviour:

1. *Sleeping in class or lying on arms. (RO) &*

2. *Not sitting in the allocated seat. (RO) &*

3. *Not working during class time. (RO)*

- Disregarding teacher's request:

L: *[Calls teacher to ask question] (V)*

T: *"Wait."*

L: *[Directly calls on teacher and starts to ask the question about what to copy]*

- Not executing the teacher's instruction correctly:

*T: " * Come and sit in front." [again] " * Come and sit in front." (V)*

L: [Moves to the middle of the class]

*T: " * I said in front! There."*

- Learners included the following in their definitions on negative classroom interaction:

"A noisy classroom..." & (LQ)

"People making a noise..." & (LQ)

"Pupils who don't listen in class..." (LQ)

Theme 2: Learner Responsiveness

Similar to learner compliancy, learners demonstrated responsive behaviour. Learners more often than not respond to their teachers however this response is strongly influenced by the TLR, the affective state of both the teacher and the learner and also the classroom atmosphere.

From the observations made, learner's responsive behaviour (both positive and negative) included:

- Responding to the teacher's individual explanation:

T: "Can you see that both these signs are a plus?" (V)

L: "Yes sir."

- Demonstrates understanding:

T: "Let's start from the front. From here, we're going to multiply that. From here we're gonna multiply that. OK." (V)

L: "O-K."

- Back chatting:

T: *[Call out names of learners who are talking]* (V)

L: *[To her friend]* "What did I do now?"

- Other examples of learner's responsive behaviour includes:

1. *Quieting one another when the teacher is waiting for silence.* (RO) &

2. *Apologising for misbehaviour although the teacher did not address the learner directly.* (RO) &

3. *Listening or paying attention as the teacher explains the content.* (RO) &

4. *Acknowledging confusion or uncertainty.* (RO)

- Definitions by learners on positive classroom interaction included:

"...speaking out." (LQ) &

"...students listen in class." (LQ) &

"Learners keep quiet when a teacher is teaching." (LQ)

Theme 3: Learner Actions

Apart from being responsive and compliant learners demonstrate certain actions as the flow of interaction proceeds in the classroom. A distinction can be made between constructive and destructive actions. These actions reinforce or give new directions to reciprocal TLLs.

In some instances learners displayed constructive or positive actions which included:

- Identifying teacher mistakes:

T: *"OK. So, now we gotta say minus six minus one is minus nine."* (V)

L: *"Minus nine?"*

- An eagerness to participate:

T: *"Last..."* (V)

L: *[Calls out loudly] "Sir me! Sir me! Sir me!"*

- Making another attempt at answering the initial question without motivation from the teacher:

T: *"I'm not so sure about that *."* (V)

L: *"Ok, perfection."*

T: *"Why perfection? I like that one more."*

- A display of learner confidence:

L: *"Sir can you come mark mine?"* (V)

T: *"Good."* *[Gives feedback to the learner]*

- The courage to disagree with the teacher:

T: *"Because you fall into the little stereotypical nature of things that the men are the protectors and you are the weak bystanders."* (V)

T: *[Looks at a specific girl] "Yah?"*

L: *[Shakes her head sideways - 'no' indication]*

T: *[Again] "Yah?"*

L: *[Repeats action]*

T: *"Yah?"*

L: *[Still shakes her head]*

T: *"Good! Good answer!"*

- Other positive or constructive actions that were displayed by learners included:

Raising hand and waiting for the teacher to respond. (RO)

In some instances the researcher observed learners displaying destructive or negative actions. These included:

- Making fun of the teacher:

While teacher explains one girl clears her throat and another one starts laughing. [This regularly happens in this teacher's class] (RO) &

T: "Ok. Thank you." (V)

Ls: [Becomes more talkative]

T: [Frustrated] "And back to square one."

L: "Square one?" "I also won."

- Making disruptive noises:

T: "Um, who is making noises? (V)

Ls: [No response]

T: [shouts] "I just want to know, who is making noises?"

- Provoking the teacher through denial:

L: "Miss can you please go back?" (V)

*T: "No. You are talking non-stop Mr. *."*

L: "Me?"

- Other negative or destructive actions that was displayed by learners included:

1. Being late for class. (RO) &

2. Being extremely noisy. (RO) &

3. Constantly talking in class. (RO) &

4. *Doing other work in class. (RO) &*
5. *Throwing a paper plane in class. (RO) &*
6. *Walking around in class without permission. (RO) &*
7. *Laughing at teacher reprimand. (RO)*

- Definitions from learners on negative classroom interaction included:

“Bad influence.” (LQ) &

“Backchatting.” (LQ) &

“...bunking.” (LQ) &

“When pupils dislike each other within the class and make horrible remarks...” (LQ) &

“People or pupils...who disturb other learners.” (LQ) &

“Most of the children are slacking off and not taking the work seriously.” (LQ) &

“...everyone talking...throwing things across the class room.” (LQ) &

“When students are unruly... and unmannered.” (LQ) &

“Children that talks all the time, walk around, shouting.” (LQ) &

“...throwing papers around...” (LQ)

Theme 4: Learner Participation

Learners' participation in learning activities is crucial to the teaching and learning process. Not only is classroom interaction dependent on the effort and/or contribution of both parties, but partaking in learning activities also helps learners to conceptualise the learning content and to generate individual understanding. In certain cases, learner participation can be voluntary and in other instances teachers have to go to great lengths to get learners to participate. Learner participation is not restricted to learning activities and can also be personal in nature.

The various aspects of learner participation that were observed included:

- Sharing aspects from their personal lives:

L: "Sir when a boy is going to phones you every time and goes on and on about it, it's irritating and you get bored by it." (V)

- Eagerness to participate:

L: "Sir, let's start reading." (V)

- Helping one another:

L: [Uncertain] "Um, she brighten up his, his heart, like I don't know, I don't know." (V)

T: "Can I change a word? Lightens his heart."

L: "Ja [pause] and um, meaning, she's his angel."

T: "Tell me, how you got to this angel from bright?"

L: "Because she said that...is like god." [Other learners helping]

- Definitions by learners on positive classroom interaction included:

"The kids should participate in classroom activities." (LQ)

Theme 5: Learner Awareness

Learner awareness in this instance does not only refer to a learner's ability to pay special attention to what happens in class. It also means that learners display the unique ability to perceive beyond what meets the eye and that they can sensibly judge a situation appropriately. They often question what they observe especially when something seems out of place.

- Checking up on the teacher:

L: "Sir, you said in the first one sir you say that the signs must be the same sir." (V)

T: "Because they're 2 plusses they have to be two plusses."

L: *"Sir, but there at the bottom sir it, it doesn't have to be the same..."*

- Commenting on the teacher's emotional state:

L: *"Sir, I think you are a bit angry today." (V)*

T: *"No I'm not angry, why?"*

L: *"Yes, just supressing the anger. I think you are being professional about it."*

T: *"Am I being professional about it?"*

L: *"Yesss."*

- Questioning the teacher's opinion:

T: *"...I don't agree with that yet, but yah, it is everlasting and they do commit suicide and probably the assumption is that they will be together in death." (V)*

L: *"So sir you do not believe that Romeo really love her?"*

T: *"No I don't believe Romeo loves Juliet as in real love, I believe it is an infatuation."*

Learner Behaviour: Discussion of findings

Interpreting human behaviour is no easy task, as many unforeseen and unseen elements simultaneously influence how or why humans act and/or react in a certain manner at a specific time. In the case of analysing and interpreting learner behaviour in a classroom context, the complexity is amplified by the fact that group and individual factors need to be taken into account. That being said, one can only imagine the challenge of observing and capturing 35 learners' nuances in a classroom while keeping an eye on the teacher!

Nevertheless, certain general patterns could be identified from learners' behaviour over the spectrum of classes and with different teachers.

Positive TLIs were more commonly observed where the flow of positive interactions between teachers and learners were high. Learners tended to display behaviours such as compliancy, positive actions towards both their teachers and fellow learners and an eagerness to participate in classroom activities.

The following were found to have had a significant influence on learners' behaviour: understanding, a good relationship with the teacher and also clear two-way communications. It seems as if there was a decline in learner misbehaviour and consequently disciplinary action, in a safe classroom environment where learners could be themselves, where the teacher regularly made jokes to lighten the atmosphere, and where learners displayed a certain amount of trust in their teacher. It also seemed as if these learners made the most of the learning experience.

In classrooms with fewer positive TLIs, learner participation, there was a definite decline in learner participation. Although learners complied with teachers' requests and misbehaviour did not seem to increase, learners tended to "push boundaries". Certain behaviours revealed lower levels of respect, such as the case where two learners made fun of the teacher. This may also be an indication of a weaker TLR.

In classrooms with limited positive TLIs high levels of learner misbehaviour and disciplinary problems were frequently observed. Learners displayed a variety of negative actions and seemed to be non-compliant and unresponsive. What was interesting was that learners who usually did not display bad behaviour, seemed to now also engage in acts of defiance. It appeared as if learners taunted and/or provoked the teacher in order to elicit negative reactions from him/her.

5.3.7 HUMAN QUALITIES AND CHARACTERISTICS

Once again, this theme reflects a component of the affective domain of interaction which is not clearly observable and therefore harder to pinpoint. Nevertheless, the qualities that humans display may influence how we see one another, perceive one another and ultimately alter or direct long term or immediate actions and responses.

Theme 1: Teacher Qualities and Characteristics

The following qualities and characteristics that were displayed by teachers could be identified by the researcher while observing the interactions between the teachers and learners:

- Politeness:

T: "Sorry what did you say?" (V)

- Being apologetic:

T: "Oh sorry, minus 8 minus 1 will give us minus 9." (V)

- Helpfulness:

Assisting learners with assessment activity, answering learners' questions and providing feedback. (RO)

- Sympathy:

T: "Until such time they allow us to do that, you have to bite it out." (V)

L: "Some people they can't..."

T: "Once again, once again, the sun will come up and the sun will go down there is nothing you can do about it, so you just adapt to it."

- Using humour or being funny:

T: "What do we put in each bracket?" (V)

Ls: "y."

T: "I was gonna say Why?" [Smiles]

- Displaying a caring attitude:

{Gr. 9 learners had a learner-parent evening the previous day}

T: "How did it go?" (V)

Ls: [Respond to the teachers' question]

T: "Did they just speak about subject choices?" [Teacher listens while learners discuss the happenings of the previous evening]

- Learner responses when identifying the most important teacher characteristics:

“understanding” (LQ), “respect”, “love”, “caring”, “patience”, “kind”, “sharing”, “fairness”, “helpful”, “polite”, “self-control”, “funny”

- One of the teachers on having a positive attitude:

“Whenever my approach was not with a positive attitude it got out of hand before it even started.” (TQ)

- Learner responses on negative classroom interaction included:

“Disrespecting teachers...” (LQ) &

“When the teachers and the learners have no respect for one another...” (LQ) &

“...where rudeness thrives.” (LQ)

Theme 2: Learner Qualities and Characteristics

The following qualities and characteristics that were displayed by learners could be identified by the researcher while observing the interactions between the teachers and learners:

- Kindness:

L: Offering a pen to the teacher without his asking. (RO)

- Care:

T: “You can laugh at that but I keep thinking to myself - that could be me. You know, I’m heading that age now.” (V)

L: “Sir you’re not 60.”

- Learner qualities that according to the teachers affect interactions positively:

“A learner with a positive attitude regardless of their ability contributes more than a learner with a negative attitude.” (TQ)

- Learner characteristics that according to learners affect interactions positively:

“respectful”, “disciplined”, “positive”, self-control”, “kindness” (LQ)

- Learner responses on negative classroom interaction included:

“When the learners have no respect...” (LQ)

- One learner on how positive classroom interaction influences the TLR:

“It gains the teachers trust...” (LQ)

Human Qualities and Characteristics: Discussion of findings

Constructive characteristics and positive teacher qualities are crucial in creating a safe classroom environment where interactions can flourish. It seems as if those teachers who demonstrate qualities such as self-control, care, friendliness and understanding establish a learning climate where learners feel safeguarded and the learners are consequently open for academic nurturing. In these instances, it also seemed as if learners responded by feeling more comfortable to voice their opinions, express themselves and to open up to teachers. Ultimately, this may lead to an improved TLR which may then positively affect the quality of learning in the classroom. In the instances where teachers displayed the affective qualities mentioned above, classroom control and management tended to be affected positively, which is crucial if teachers want to gain their learners' interest and maintain order in the classroom.

5.3.8 RELATIONAL ASPECTS

Most forms of interaction in the classroom are affected by relational aspects. Although the depth and extent of these relationships between teachers and their learners may vary, they inevitably exist. In terms of observations made, relational aspects are intertwined by what have been mentioned in the previous categories of observations. The following however, emanated from the questionnaires learners completed when they were asked to comment on how positive classroom interaction generally influences the relationship that they have with their teachers.

Theme 1: Collaboration

- Working together:

“When the class works together.” (LQ) &

“When teachers and students work hand in hand.” (LQ) &

“...help each other...” (LQ)

- Cooperation:

“When the teacher the learners must co operate.” (LQ) &

“Teachers and learners get along.” (LQ)

Theme 2: Relationship Building

- Building a relationship:

“...the teacher must get to know you...” (LQ) &

“Get to know the teacher better.” (LQ)

- Background knowledge:

“...the teachers need to know how we live and what problems we have...” (LQ)

- Respect:

“When you have a good relationship with your teacher you won’t really want to disrespect the teacher...” (LQ)

- Trust:

“...the teachers check by your behavior if they can trust you or not.” (LQ)

Theme 3: Affect

- Positivity:

"...when pupils interact with one another in a positive manner." (LQ) &

"...interact with classmates in a good and positive way." (LQ) &

"[teachers]...will want to teach us with a positive attitude." (LQ)

- Enjoyment:

"...would enjoy our time together." (LQ) &

"The teachers will enjoy having us..." (LQ)

- Passion:

"The teacher has the passion to teach with all their hart." (LQ)

- Negativity:

"When there is bad tention between students and teachers and they don't get along." (LQ)

Theme 4: Learning Process

- Teacher pedagogy:

"...it makes the lesson easier." (LQ) &

"...so that the teacher can work better with us..." (LQ)

- Influence on learning:

"...and giving us an opportunity to get work done." (LQ) &

"...the class gets a chance to get work done and learn something." (LQ) &

"Makes it pretty easy to learn..." (LQ) &

"Know we will work and learn something." (LQ)

Theme 5: Other

- Atmosphere:

"It makes us feel more welcome in the class..." (LQ)

- Communication:

"...without communication you cant get along with people..." (LQ)

- One learner:

"Doesn't influence me in any way." (LQ)

Relational Aspects: Discussion of findings

Due to the complicated nature of relationships, their influence is not always easy to observe, neither are their depth nor the variety of their components. It is for this reason that the information which is displayed in category 8 is primarily drawn from learners own comments on how positive interaction influences the TLR.

Themes that were identified included collaboration, relationship building, affect and the learning process. Learners also made mention of the classroom environment and communication. Concerning relationship building, learners communicated that teachers should get to know their learners and vice versa. Teachers should also have an understanding of their learners' backgrounds and where they live. Furthermore, learners recognised respect and trust as fundamental qualities when building the TLR relationship. In terms of affect, teachers are supposed to be positive and demonstrate passion and enjoyment when their learners come to class. Teachers should aim at creating a welcoming environment for their learners. This increases learners' sense of belonging and makes them feel safe and secure in the learning environment. One also recognises the importance of teachers' having a positive attitude in order to enhance learning.

What was generally observed is that where there seemed to be a better relationship and understanding between teachers and their learners, learners seemed to be more receptive,

responsive, disciplined and eager to participate in the classroom activities. They also displayed a higher sense of self-confidence in answering questions posed by the teacher or when attempting individual assessment activities. The classroom environment seemed to be free from quarrelling and it also seemed as if learners genuinely enjoyed the lessons.

This was not the case where an obvious positive relationship between teachers and their learners was absent. Learners tended to display higher amounts of off-task, unruly or disruptive behaviour, and did not respond to the requests of the teachers. Teachers tended to display negative affective qualities and had a negative inclination towards the class that was reinforced by continual negative behaviours both on the part of teachers and learners. Also, teachers did not seem to succeed in creating a warm and welcoming learning environment. This not only negatively influenced the communication between teachers and learners, but eventually harmed the learning process.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The case of School A was presented in this chapter. In the following chapter I shall follow a similar approach and present the findings concerning School B.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS SCHOOL B

6.1 CONTEXT OF SCHOOL B

Case study two [School B] was conducted in August/September 2013. Of the 30 Grade 9 learners, one learner's parents did not give their consent for participation in the study. Of the 29 remaining learners 13 were male and 16 were female. The learners were taught by 10 different teachers, of which all participated [Arts & Culture was excluded as the class was divided into four different groups]. All the teachers consented to participate in the study.

School B is situated in an urban area with a generally high economic income. The class was labelled by teachers as a class with disciplinary problems. Learners' ages varied from 14 - 15 years of age with one learner aged 16 (one year older than the average age for the grade). The classroom was a multicultural classroom, including learners from a variety of races. In terms of the race distribution, most learners were white while some were coloured. There was also one Asian learner, one black learner, and one Indian learner in the class.

Of the 10 teachers who participated in the study, three were male and seven were female. Nine of the ten teachers taught in their second language, and the years of experience ranged from seven years to thirty-eight years.

The learners were observed for 26 periods. The researcher also received 29 completed questionnaires from learners and nine completed questionnaires from the teachers who participated in the study. A similar process was followed as that with the transcriptions in terms of coding the data in order to identify the sub-themes which emanated from them.

Thus the categories and relevant sub-themes which are presented in the following visual representation were derived from the transcriptions of the communications during three selected lessons, the filled-in questionnaires received from the teachers and learners, as well as my own recorded observations whilst doing research at School B.



FIGURE 6-1: VISUAL PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS: CATEGORIES (1-8) AND THEMES SCHOOL B

6.2 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS: SCHOOL B

As depicted in the above visual presentation, eight categories of findings emerged from the data for School B, namely Power, Teacher Behaviour, Pedagogy, Teacher Affect, Communication, Learner Behaviour, Human Qualities and Characteristics as well as Relational Aspects. I shall proceed to present each of these categories by describing the respective themes which were clustered together to form these categories.

At present, it is also important to bring to the attention of the reader that the information provided in the questionnaires by both the teachers and the learners from School B was more comprehensive and detailed than that received from School A. The immediate result is that the data automatically reflects more detailed versions of the participants' comments (both teachers and learners), which affects the way that the data are presented in the discussion on School B.

What was exciting to note was how the findings of School B resembled but also differed from the findings of School A.

6.2.1 POWER

One teacher defined *negative power* as follows: "*Learners will undermine the authority of the teacher, have no respect, because they are not treated with respect.*" If one looks at this definition, power becomes synonymous with respect, implying that when learners have a lot of respect for teachers, teachers will have a lot of power over learners. This will probably extend to classroom control so that interactions can operate at an optimal level.

Theme 1: Teacher Control

Times when teachers took control, are demonstrated by the following:

- Verbal warnings:

T: "I'm past...I'm just giving you detention slips, I shouldn't have to ask you this many times to behave." (V)

- Serious threats:

T: "Oraait. 5 minutes of break." [Keeping learners in during break] (V)

T: *"I love this game. 6 minutes."*

Ls: *[Quiet down immediately]*

T: *"I warn you and I'll follow through."*

- Light threats:

T: *"Just remember don't laugh so loud he can choose you next, so be quiet." (V) &*

T: *"Hey, shush, don't let me raise my voice." (V)*

- Polite requests:

T: *"I don't mind when everybody's working, but when I want to say something you must listen." (V)*

- References to marks:

T: *"* I just want to go back to you. You said um the crowd consisting of men, but not only men." (V)*

Ls: *[Laugh]*

T: *"I'm sorry that doesn't make sense I'm going to take one mark away from you."*

L: *"Just for that?"*

T: *"Yes."*

- Maintaining focus:

L: *"Mam, aren't they like 14 or so?" (V)*

T: *"They're young, they're young yes."*

Ls: *[Start to murmur]*

T: *"Ok that has been dealt with, Juliet, Shush."*

T: *“As we discussed earlier, it was fairly customary in those days for a young girl to be married. Women didn’t really have an independent life.”*

- Teachers included the following in their descriptions of the implicit power relationships between teachers and learners:

“Power should be translated by “control”. The teacher must be in control of the classroom interaction.” (TQ) &

“I would ask questions. The learners would behave (not shout out answers or talk out of place) The learners would answer/give opinion and the next learner would respond.” (TQ) &

“The teachers needs to be in charge of the situation otherwise there is chaos.” (TQ) &

“If the teacher is stripped or delegate his/her power over the class, it has a very negative impact on the discipline.” (TQ)

- Teachers on the main factors that inhibit effective classroom interaction:

“Lack of classroom management.” (TQ) &

“Not strict enough.” (TQ) &

“Undermine authority of teacher.” (TQ)

- One teacher on the connection between classroom interaction and the TLR:

“Learners feel safe in a controlled environment/class.” (TQ)

- Learners definitions on power included:

“Handle a class.” (LQ) &

“Control of students.” (LQ)

- Learners definition on negative classroom interaction included:

“There is no control over the class.” (LQ) &

“Teacher gives up on teaching the class because she can’t teach under the circumstances.”
(LQ)

Theme 2: Reinforcing Implicit Classroom/Societal Rules

In this theme a reference is made to “unbecoming behaviour”. It was as if teachers were simultaneously addressing negative behaviour and reinforcing ethical/moral social rules.

The aforementioned was observed in several instances:

- Addressing unbecoming behaviour:

T: “Can I ask you not to do that. If somebody have stood up, and are getting ready to speech, and any other time, don’t get up. If you have got papers to throw away, please just wait till the end of the lesson. Ok. Let’s hear.” (V) &

T: “Shush, this is not the way you enter my classroom, remember.” (V) &

T: “I don’t mind when everybody’s working, but when I want to say something you must listen.”
(V)

Theme 3: Contentious Power

Contentious power in this case refers to when teachers embrace and execute power in a militaristic sense. The following was observed by the researcher:

- Impersonal rebukes:

T: “Ok. I’m serious now. I’m tired of this guys. [Pause] Okay you are all warned. I never want to hear -ahha it’s my first [Mimic learner] no, tough luck.” (V) &

T: “K, just think about your 6 minutes, cause she will finish her speech. Just depends when we are going to start. Might have to finish it in break. I’m not going to start unless you guys are quiet, and you’re not going to move when the bell rings. Shoot.” (V)

- Teachers included the following in their descriptions of the implicit power relationships between teachers and learners:

"I like it when I have controlled interaction - because I must speak." (TQ) &

"Somebody has to take control and preferably not the learner." (TQ) &

"Figure of authority and submissive student." (TQ) &

"Teachers should control but in such a way that learners are not fearful or disruptive." (TQ) &

"Too much power may have a negative effect on quality interaction if it makes the learners reluctant to take part." (TQ)

- One learner's definition of power included:

"Not just screaming or punishing to gain control." (LQ)

- One learners definition of negative classroom interaction included:

"Where teachers are over strict." (LQ)

Theme 4: Sharing Power

- In terms of classroom activities:

T: "Who wants to go?" (V) &

T: [To the boy who had just finished reading his assessment] "Ok, you can choose." (V)

- Allowing learners to give an explanation:

*T: "Listen, those who were late, why are you late *?" (V)*

- Teachers included the following in their descriptions of the implicit power relationships between teachers and learners:

"Opportunity must be given to learner to test the waters in mock roles of authority e.g. in groupwork. But ultimately the teacher must always be in control." (TQ)

Theme 5: Boundaries and a Balanced Approach

Although I (the researcher) did not observe this very often, teachers appear to have a high regard for a balanced approach and were aware of the crucial role that boundaries played in maintaining effective control in the classroom. A balanced approach includes a sense of give and take or else an emphasis on both parties' influence and input.

On one occasion, the researcher observed how a teacher incorporated a balanced approach in terms of placing the responsibility on the learners.

- Reinforcing learner responsibility:

T: "Those people who have already been asked, and weren't ready, well, I have to have your marks ready by next week, so you had better make a plan. I'm not doing any begging. I'm not doing any coaxing, or forcing. It's your choice not to be ready. If it means that your choice is to get nought, well, then [Pause] you must just decide for yourself. Ok." (V)

- Teachers included the following in their descriptions of the implicit power relationships between teachers and learners:

"You need to maintain the boundaries carefully so that they can feel safe and know what is expected of them." (TQ) &

"But teachers must lead the class - have balance between 'power relationship/ strict' and giving learners freedom to participate." (TQ) &

"Clear boundaries." (TQ) &

"Some learners resent the power relationship and will push boundaries." (TQ) &

"Balanced approach." (TQ)

- One learner included balance in their definition on positive classroom interaction:

"A class that get along well and know when to have fun but also listens well." (LQ)

- Teachers included the following in their responses on factors that inhibit classroom interaction:

“Learners have to know the boundaries and what is expected of them.” (TQ)

- One teacher included boundaries in their opinion of the role of pedagogy in classroom interaction:

“...and to know how to “play according to your rules”. You have to make sure that they know what the boundaries are.” (TQ)

- One learner’s definition on power included:

“Strict but fun.” (TQ)

Theme 6: Instructions

The teachers seemed to use instructions for various reasons, which included:

- Putting learners to work:

T: “Ok, just 3 people today, take Romeo & Juliet out in the meantime, while we wait to listen to all 3 people. And remember, we were Act 2 Scene 4, were the nurse meets Romeo. Shush. So while we’re waiting, you can read over that scene.” (V)

- Maintaining order and discipline in the classroom:

T: “Sit down quickly.” (V) &

T: “Ok, books out, shush.” (V)

Power: Discussion of findings

“If the teacher has positive power over learners then you would have better results. Learners would respect the relationship. Teacher would be able to work better even under difficult circumstances.” (TQ)

What exactly is meant by this teachers’ reference to “positive power” is not clear. What however becomes evident, is that teachers can exercise power over learners that positively affects their results as well as the TLR. Moreover teachers emphasised using a balanced approach and

that healthy boundaries were essential in maintaining control in the classroom. These notions bring to the fore that, in part, power is shared with the learners.

At School B, it seemed as if teachers held a level of power due to an inherent respect that came with their position. With most teachers this seemed to be the locus of control making it seemingly easier for teachers to organise activities, maintain order and impose rules in their classrooms. These rules often moved beyond the classroom space instilling behaviours that are necessary to behave suitably in the larger society. The only attribute that seemed to diverge from the aforementioned was the personality of the teacher. In cases where the teacher was too lenient or “soft”, power shifted to the learners making it more difficult for the teacher to maintain control of the classroom interactions.

At the opposite end of the continuum, power could be seen as contentious, not allowing room for learners to give their opinion, thus not easily shared. It seemed as if traits such as fear and intimidation were present in these interactions. Consequently, the learning atmosphere seemed more formal and cold with a larger affective distance between the teacher and the learners.

6.2.2 TEACHER BEHAVIOUR

In this category, teachers’ actions were divided into three themes i.e. positive, negative and neutral. This however does not imply that certain teachers “act” better than others. Actions are circumstantial and instantaneous. It is usually easier to contemplate the direction of one’s behaviour when given a retrospective opportunity.

Theme 1: Positive Actions

Positive teacher actions were frequently visible and included the following:

- Answering extraneous learner question:

L: “Mam, why didn’t the Capulets or Montagus one of them just move away?” (V)

T: “Move away? I don’t know, they both come from rich families, so they held and owned beautiful houses, I’m not sure if they wanted to move away. Once you are established in a town you stay.”

- Positive/Constructive feedback:

T: "That's good, that's decent well done." (V)

Ls: [Clap hands]

T: "Well balanced, well structured, professional approach, I like that..."

- Another assessment opportunity:

T: "I'll give you another chance at the end..." (V)

- Showing personal interest in learner from a different culture:

T: [To the Korean boy] "Some interesting Korean channel?" (V)

L: "Yes I used."

T: "Which one?"

L: "EST."

T: "Oh I... go on go on." [Nods]

[Discussion between this learner and the teacher about different Korean channels]

L: [Asks the teacher a question]

T: "I'd rather not say."

L: "MBS."

T: "Give me a second."

L: "MBC."

T: "MBC? MBC is boring too many comedy shows, it's not funny."

L: "Agggghh" [Clearly likes the channel]

T: "Oraait, anyway."

L: "Ocean."

T: "Ocean. Ah one channel Ocean." [Funny voice]

L: "Do you check it?"

T: "No. How do they say is O-see-an." [Pronounces it in a funny way]

- Emphasises/encourages individual attempt:

T: "I don't want to help you, I just want to write the question down. So you can try this on your own." (V) &

T: "Question 2." [Busy marking the questions with the learners] (V)

L: "Mam wait. Mam please wait!"

T: "No, I'm not giving you the answer."

- One learner included the following in her definition of positive classroom interaction:

"Teachers treat their kids maturely and not like little kids." (LQ)

Theme 2: Negative Actions

In certain instances, teachers displayed negative actions which included communicative and affective actions.

- Mimicking a learner that stutters:

T: "Yes, its ok, but are you ready?" (V)

L: "Ah...uh...I am."

T: "Uh...ah...uh...a...a, you are? That's good news."

Ls: "Yoh!"

- Generalising:

T: "The father would make decisions for them, they would offer the father extreme respect, the kind of respect that doesn't exist in most families today." (V)

- Stereotyping:

T: "After all, she has found Romeo in a group of very rowdy mocking young men, as some young men are apt to be." (V)

- Not acknowledging mistakes:

T: "Ok, sjo no wonder the police so many people while they were running, cause they were blind, last line, read your last line." (V)

L: "Sir it is a metaphor."

Ls: [Few comment]

T: "Shush, read the line."

L: [Re-read] "The blind police force of South Africa..."

T: "Shame, no wonder they shot the people... No, no I am being very technical. I know what you are saying. Ok, if you had more time I'm sure you would have chosen a better word. I'll keep a blind eye to that..."

- Making fun of a learner:

L: [Starts to read his report] (V)

L: [While reading] "...the police managed what?" [Cannot make out his own handwriting]

L: [Another learner clears his throat loudly, the class starts to laugh]

T: "Ja, I also have that problem when I mark your essays every time I can't read it."

Ls: [Laugh]

T: "Now it's funny, you can't even read your own handwriting."

Ls: [Laugh]

L: [Continues reading]

T: "Shush."

L: [After reading a few more sentences] "Never mind."

Ls: [Laugh] "Shussh..."

L: [Skips a piece and then continues reading]

T: "Ok *. May that be a lesson to you. I seriously advise you to get a better handwriting, so I don't know..."

Ls: [Laugh]

- Making a humiliating joke:

T: "Actually I think all the boys are done." (V)

T: " * aren't." [Boy]

L: " * isn't."

T: "Then again like I said all the boys are done." [Laughs]

Ls: [Laugh]

L: [Blushes]

T: "Why is your face the same colour as the book?"

L: "Sir * must still go."

L: "Shame sir..."

T: "I can be a magician, * turn red. One two, oh yes."

T: "Ok, let's give him a fair chance. And then * will go. We still have a few boys. Who still have to go?"

- Finding fault:

L: [Reading] "The police felt cornered and therefore had to result in pure violence." (V)

T: "Pure violence, ok what is..." [Pause]

L: "Its cold blood killing."

T: "Ok, then you say brutal or something like that."

- Being defensive:

L: "Sir you said yesterday that you should be in favour of the police or in favour of the rioters." [Teacher interrupts] (V)

T: "Of course, there are different ways, you need to be smart about that."

L: "But he was like in favour of the police."

T: "I know, but that doesn't mean, that doesn't mean you um you explain on the behalf of the police. You use words like 'the brutal' or 'the fanatic crowd' uh, attacked the poor police, you don't, [pause] there is a difference * ok. This is part of the learning process, for the purpose of this exercise you got to be technical, it's part of, we need to be able to uh write creative writing pieces in History, and this is just one of the exercises ok? Thank you, who want to go next?"

- Showing aggression:

T: "I don't care, I make the promise and I am keeping my promise." (V)

T: [To the boy] "What did you take? Give it back to her."

L: [Immediately] "There you go."

- Learners' definitions of negative classroom interaction included:

"When the teacher shouts or sends a student outside." (LQ) &

“Teachers threatening us.” (LQ) &

“Teacher belittles the children.” (LQ) &

“Always looking out for the negative.” (LQ)

- One teacher on the factors that inhibit effective classroom interaction:

“...aggression, conceited attitude, negativity, poor self-image, over-confidence.” (LQ)

Theme 3: Neutral Actions

Teachers demonstrated general tendencies in terms of where they position themselves in the classroom:

1. Some were stationed in front of the class when teaching, either standing next to the projector or just generally in front facing the class. (RO)

2. One teacher continually stood in the front of the class with either one or both hands in his pockets. (RO)

3. One teacher was stationed in front of the class when explaining new content and would afterwards move between learners to check up on them or to give individual explanations. (RO)

- Teachers also made use of various body movements to achieve different outcomes:

1. One teacher made funny movements to attract learners' attention and to make the lesson more interesting (e.g. when reading literature - trying to impersonate different characters). (RO)

2. One particularly short teacher made use of excessive gestures while speaking or explaining. This teacher also occasionally shifted her weight from her heels to her toes while she was stationary in front of the class. (RO)

Teacher Behaviour: Discussion of findings

Human behaviour is prone to patterns of recursivity. In other words humans tend to act and react in certain ways when they are confronted with certain situations. Irrespective of whether this behaviour stem from our personalities, beliefs, or personal histories, individual behaviour often

sets the foundation for how we are experienced by others and eventually sets in motion the course of the interaction that follows.

At school B it seemed as if teachers' behaviour emanated strongly from their power position. Consequently it seemed that whether teachers demonstrated negative or positive behaviours they would still retain the respect of their learners. When teachers specifically demonstrated negative behaviours, learners would question the teachers' behaviour and show their dissatisfaction, yet they would not openly act out against teachers.

Apart from displaying obvious hostility, it seems as if negative teacher actions frequently stem from learners' imprudence, which then quickly escalates to unnecessary conflicting situations. In these instances teachers usually acted out in order to regain control in the classroom. Learners on the other hand were often on the receiving end of harsh or hurtful words of teachers.

What became evident from the neutral teacher actions was that although these actions appeared to be quiescent, they communicated strong non-verbal messages. One example was the teacher who continually stood with his hand(s) in his pocket(s). It seemed as if this action positioned the teacher as superior and/or untouchable with regard to the learners, increasing the already aloof atmosphere in the classroom. Even though some teachers may use actions such as these to create definite boundaries between their learners and themselves, one needs to question whether actions such as these do not have severe implications for quality classroom interaction.

Displays of positive teacher behaviours were limited and in most instances displayed a pedagogical undertone rather than an affective undertone.

6.2.3 PEDAGOGY

Pedagogy is often underestimated. Planning the course of interaction, considering factors that inhibit teaching and learning, contemplating the means by which to address learners who are deliberately working against the teacher, accommodating technological changes and maintaining their individual knowledge base all eventually form part of the final product that teachers present to their learners when facing them in the classroom.

Theme 1: Knowledge Transfer

It was observed that teachers utilised various strategies in the process of knowledge transfer which included:

- Revision to bring learners up to date:

T: "Ok, we were reading the scene where the nurse comes to speak to Romeo, and to give him a message that Juliet wants to marry him, and what he has to say about it, what is his plans. And Romeo is totally ready for this. He tells the nurse that he does have a plan. The first part of the plan is that Juliet must get permission from her parents to go to shrift." (V)

L: "What page?"

T: "That means she must go to confession at... and there they will be married. Obviously it has to be a secret marriage."

T: "We're looking at page 83."

- Repeating the most important concepts to make sure learners have acquired the new knowledge:

*T: "Ja. Can you see, that this question, consists of 3 clear steps. You need to subtract the deposit, you need to calculate the total amount that you are going to pay back, and only then, can you calculate how much you have to pay per month. **Three steps** for this one." (V)*

- Higher order questions:

T: "What is the nurse doing here?" (V)

L: "Procrastinating."

T: "She's procrastinating, what does that mean?" [Change in voice]

L: "She doesn't want to..."

T: "Not really, but she is delaying the news yes. Why do you think she is doing it?"

- Storytelling - linking past with present:

*T: "Remember, in those days women wore long dresses, **nobody** saw their legs, and men wore tights, so their legs were obvious. So in those days, people looked at the **men's** legs and decided whether they were good or not, not the women's legs." (V)*

Ls: [Soft laughter in class]

- Authentic learning through real life example:

T: "...now I would like to take that a little bit further today, um, to show you how simple interest is actually applied, in real life." (V)

T: Now hire purchase, is listen carefully, is a way, to buy on credit. Now when you go, listen carefully, when you go to Shoprite game, that's according to the new laws, consumer laws. You'll get a whole page with information, so that will tell you, that this new smart screen tv. The cost is R 25 000."

- Building on learner questions to explain content:

L: "Mam, is that the type of deposit you get back?" (V)

T: "No, no this is a deposit, it is an upfront payment in cash. So that amount, you are not borrowing. Ok."

L: [Different learner] "So mam, with the 10% you pay deposit, does that minus the original amount we pay."

T: "Ja, so if you subtract that there, you are actually only borrowing the balance [pause] af-ter you have paid the deposit. This is the price if you buy it cash."

- Making use of questions to guide learners to discover the answers:

T: "What have I calculated?" (V)

L: "The amount."

T: "What amount?"

L: "The payment amount."

T: "Nonono. The payment means per month. You won't be paying R22500 per month."

L: [One learner is blowing on a bottle and making a whistling noise while the teacher is busy teaching]

T: "You haven't calculated the payment. **What have you calculated?**"

L: "The cost."

L: "The total."

T: "Which total? [Points to board] "That one or that one?"

L: "The P."

T: "The P, this is actually the amount [Pause] **borrowed**. I want you to write this down, which is the amount that you owe."

- Warning learners in terms of potential pitfalls regarding the content:

T: "The biggest problem, I want you to focus. The biggest problem, is that pupils read this wrong, even in gr 12 they do it. Do you know that financial calculations is now part of the syllabus from now till gr 12. Now in gr 12 the words will be much more, and there will be many more formulae that you can use. So from now onwards, you must learn to read carefully." (V)

- Personalising the examples:

T: "Here we go. Shushshushshush I'm taking out, Mrs * is taking out a loan." (V)

L: "For what mam?"

T: "Of R60 000. It's that number 1."

L: "Oh, you're crazy."

T: "I think I must be crazy. With simple interest of 12% per annum."

- Feedback on individual assessment:

*T: "Ok thank you, I love the intro, I want you to read the first 3 lines again, that was **very** good."
(V)*

L: "Uh, ok." [Starts to read again]

T: "Ok, stop stop. Ok you're reporting from Great Britain right? Ok, maybe just explain a bit more about where in South Africa."

L: "Sharpeville." [Laughs uncomfortably]

L: "Ver something."

T: "Vereeniging."

T: "Ja, ok do you understand what I am saying."

L: "Yes."

T: "Um, some person in London wouldn't exactly know where it is. They want to know, I mean. You hear about lets' say a car bomb going off in Iraq. Where in Iraq? Just want to Google it, and see where. It's a big country, ok? Anyway, you started off well, I liked the intro, then again you also ex- justified the actions. I'm gonna give you 555 for that, well done."

- Other strategies that were employed by teachers in the knowledge transfer process:

One teacher made use of a cooperative learning experience allowing the learners to solve problems together. (RO)

- One Teacher included the following in her response on how pedagogy contributes to quality interaction between teachers and learners:

"In a Mathematics class a teacher should not teach in a 'recipe' manner, but concentrate on problem solving skills, and understanding the concepts." (TQ)

- Learners included the following in their definition of classroom interaction:

“Making learners understand.” (LQ) &

“Knowledge flow with ease.” (LQ) &

“Teachers explain well and learners listen and take it in.” (LQ)

- Learners included the following in their responses on the most important teacher qualities:

“Ability to get the children to understand the work.” (LQ) &

“They should be interesting to listen to.” (LQ)

Theme 2: Strategies to Gain Learner Attention

It was observed that teachers incorporated a range of strategies in order to gain the attention of the learners whether at the beginning or during the lesson.

- Pedagogical action of silence:

T: One teacher stopped midsentence to wait for learners who were talking to keep quiet. He continued speaking once the class was completely quiet. (RO)

- Referring to tests:

*T: “But when you go to question 2, 3, 4 there may be deposits, so this is actually a simpler question. Let’s make this a class test, cause I want to allocate marks, and let’s see how many marks you can get for this if you do it on your own. Now * the example is there, so let’s do it that way.” (V)*

- Motivation through challenging learners:

T: “And I am going to challenge you today again, I would like to challenge this class. I like to challenge gr 9’s. This is a real life situation, where we use um, in simple interest.” (V)

- Asking learners to focus:

T: "Ok now, shush, let's continue please. Focus. Ok. Shusssh." (V) &

*T: "Listen, I want to quickly give you some information before you start, let's just focus again. Focus again *. Shush." (V)*

- Teachers included the following in their responses on how pedagogy contributes to quality interaction between teachers and learners:

"Learners must be challenged." (TQ)

Theme 3: Strategies to Address Misbehaviour / Non-compliance

Teachers need to be equipped to handle learners who have a tendency to display negative behaviours or who regularly misbehave in class. Disciplinary actions are in this sense, akin to control as these two themes work interchangeably to maintain a relative sense of order in the classroom.

- Positive affirmation:

T: "Now your books should be open, the work we are busy doing at the moment, I hope you will find interesting." (V) &

T: "Ok, I am going to start straight away, if you need to take out your books still, you must do it quietly." (V)

- A threat to keep learners in during break:

T: "Guys listen up." (V)

Ls: [Do not quiet down]

T: "Where are we now, 6 minutes of break time?"

Ls: "Shusssh."

T: "You have just actually reminded me of that by talking, otherwise I would have liked, let it slip, but thank you. Now I know you have got 6 minutes. Let's see how well you behave in quite

literally the last 7 minutes of the lesson. I want two people to go today, the rest will finish tomorrow. Thank you."

- Warning:

Ls: [Walk in noisily after break] (V)

T: "Hey, shush, don't let me raise my voice."

- Making use of a structuring activity:

T: "Right, may we start, or should we stand again?" (V)

T: "Listen gr 9's, can you see what happens when people come in late, it distracts the class. Shushsh."

T: "Ok let's start again. Please stand everybody."

- Persuasion:

1. T: "Shusssh, one listen to the silence, and hear that's pleasant." (V)

L: "Ja."

*T: "Listen [Pause] that's pleasant, noise is unpleasant [Pause] so let's keep it this way, because I know you actually want this to be this way, but **remember**, it is about self-control. Now let's do it again. Good morning gr 9's."*

- Over exaggeration:

"I have already asked if you'd kindly read...Shush. I only see one person in this room with a book." [In this instance the researcher could count 8 books] (V)

- Command:

T: "And no eating, put that lollipop away."(V)

- Quick individual reprimand:

*T: “ * No talking.” (V)*

*L: “Mam * threw this at me.” [Throws object back at the boy when teacher is looking away] (V)*

T: [Ignores learner and continues explaining the content]

- An emphasis on values:

T: “Ha-uh, one person talk, the rest is quiet, come on.” [Change voice tone] “We show respect.” (V)

- Highlighting expectations:

T: “Shush, this is not the way you enter my classroom, remember.” (V) &

T: “...I shouldn’t have to ask you this many times to behave.” (V)

- Teachers included the following in their responses on factors that inhibit effective classroom interaction:

“Not consistent when disciplining.” (TQ) &

“Lack of discipline from the teacher.” (TQ)

Theme 4: Teacher Adaptability

The following was observed of teachers in terms of adapting to and improvising during classroom interactions:

- Using learner “blunders” to caution learners about future exams:

*T: “Ok *, may that be a lesson to you. I seriously advise you to get a better handwriting, so I don’t know...” (V)*

Ls: [Laughing]

T: "Hey! No, it is a lesson to all of you. What happens is, I don't know if you are going on with History, but next year you will be writing 100 mark essays."

L: "Ahh."

T: "50 mark essays. Now, half way through, if I can't read what you say, it's just like I skip, I not [Pause] I don't skip the paragraph, you don't take anything in and then I lose track of the story, and get agitated by the fact that I can't read what you say. Ok, so in the end you are penalizing yourself, you get what I'm saying? I want you to take a deep breath, don't get so stressed out or rushed, and just spend a little more time not writing [Pause] Italian or something. I don't know."

- Making effective use of resources to accommodate learners:

T: "Just the 1st four questions. I just want to write down the question, then you can work on your own. So, everybody must now be working. Who doesn't have a textbook here?" (V)

Ls: "Me, me, me." [4 learners put up their hands]

T: "Ok, what I'll shushshushshush, what I will do is, I will write the 1st question here." [Teacher points to the projector] "And you can work from here, is that fine?"

- Adapting/changing the lesson to combat misbehaviour:

T: [Standing in front of the class - calm voice] "Ok shush. It seem to me yesterday, that you have a problem, when you listen to one another's book reviews. You switch off, you decide it is nicer to talk, or eat, or whatever. I do not want to experience again what I experienced yesterday, so I am going to have a few reviews and that's it. The rest of you, I'll listen to you in the rest of the week. Two or three today." (V)

Theme 5: Resources and Technology

It was observed that teachers usually made use of resources to assist their teaching especially in the knowledge transfer process.

- The range of resources used by teachers included:

1. *Teacher and learner textbooks/reading books (RO)*

2. *Black/Whiteboards (RO)*

3. *Data projectors (One teacher showed a Youtube video to the learners relating to the content) (RO)*

- Teachers included the following in their responses on how pedagogy contributes to quality interaction between teachers and learners:

“Informed use of pedagogical resources can enhance interaction.” (TQ) &

“The dawn of the age of technology also forces teachers to change methods, but not necessarily discarding of older methods.” (TQ)

Theme 6: Teacher Knowledge

This theme was included because in some instances teachers displayed an in-depth or extensive knowledge either regarding their subject content, culture or in general. Teachers made use of this knowledge for various reasons, and successfully incorporated it into the teaching and learning situation.

Teacher knowledge was demonstrated in the following instances:

- Broad general knowledge:

L: [One learner is busy with her book review - a part of her review includes a girl (musician) who is encouraged by her mother to take anti-anxiety pills] (V)

*T: “Um, actually, I know people always talk about drug taking in sport, but there are a lot of musicians out there who get very, very, very anxious just before they perform, and they **do** take something to calm them down, and that is actually not a good thing.”*

- Establishing a cross-cultural connection:

In 5.5.2. (Theme 1: Positive teacher actions) an interaction between the teacher and a Korean boy was captured. This interaction materialized into something truly unique due to the teacher’s outstanding knowledge of eastern culture. (RO)

- Learners included the following in their responses on the most important teacher qualities:

“Knowledge.” (LQ) &

“Knows their work.” (LQ)

Theme 7: Teaching Strategies and Methods

Although examples of this particular theme were not as easy to observe, a few teachers specifically referred to the importance of adapting/alternating their approach to teaching in order to accommodate diverse learner needs.

The following was found in teachers’ responses on how pedagogy contributes to quality interaction between teachers and learners:

- The danger of misrepresentation:

“Misinterpretation of the cohesion in the class/ the dynamic of the class.” (TQ)

- Teacher individuality:

“All teachers are different and have different styles. It is NB for the learners to fit into your teaching style...” (TQ)

- Differentiation:

“Different “styles” is important to stimulate - weaker pupils feel insecure.” & “It is important that a teacher involves many different approaches in his/her class and teaching. It is sometimes necessary to change (as a teacher) your normal style...” (TQ) &

“Alternate styles, use different resources to make content more interesting and applicable to children. Keeps their attention better and learning takes place.” (TQ) &

“Teachers must always adjust their methods according to class dynamics such as age group, social interaction, and incidents, learning difficulties and various learning styles of children.” (TQ)

- Learners included the following in their responses on the most important teacher qualities:

“Ability to teach.” (LQ) &

“Good teaching skills.” (LQ)

- The following was included in one teacher’s response on quality classroom interaction:

“Everybody included in learning.” (TQ)

Theme 8: Planning

Planning is central to teachers’ pedagogical repertoire. Although there is no such thing as planning the perfect lesson, teachers are able to design a general plan of action to guide classroom interactions and to optimise the learning processes in the classroom. It is therefore important that teachers should realize that planning is not fixed, but should be amended and altered class for class, day after day, and year after year.

- Teachers included the following in their responses on factors that inhibit effective classroom interaction:

“Unprepared lessons.” (TQ) &

“Teacher not prepared for lesson.” (TQ) &

“Teacher not well prepared.” (TQ) &

“Work must be interesting (have to make History fun).” (TQ)

Pedagogy: Discussion of findings

In terms of School B, it seemed as if the teachers’ pedagogy emanated primarily from their respective power positions. In other words, aspects of pedagogy such as gaining learners’ attention or addressing learner non-compliance/misbehaviour became necessary less often or demanded less attention than was the case at School A. It was as if the position which teachers held provided them to a degree with a basis on which to ground their pedagogical actions. It was

obvious that learners generally demonstrated respect towards their teachers irrespective of whether there were visible displays of fondness or dislike on the part of the teachers.

An in-depth look into the findings of the observations taken together with the analysis of the teachers' questionnaires sheds some light on a divergence between teacher's actions and their written knowledge. Alternating and/or adjusting teaching strategies and methods were seen as crucial by teachers for a variety of reasons, yet this was not frequently observed in the classroom interactions (with the exception of one teacher who once made use of group work).

Once again the teachers' individual preferences and personalities were seen to strongly contribute to their individual pedagogy. This greatly influenced the way teachers undertook, for example, the process of content transfer. One teacher also highlighted teachers' constraints to move beyond individual "comfort zones" in which teachers often operate.

Teachers recognised another distinctive pedagogical concept that is often overlooked, namely planning. The planning done by the teacher, plays a central role in providing quality classroom interactions as it unmistakably provides teachers with sufficient structure for the teaching and learning activities that follow. When teachers neglect their planning, this leaves room for learners to engage in off-task activities that may eventually lead to learner misconduct which might lead to enhanced negative reciprocal interactions.

Lastly, it is also noteworthy to mention the following two statements made by learners when they had to comment on how positive classroom interaction influences the TLR:

"It makes the teacher understand you and know what your weakness are." (LQ) &

"I also understand my work better." (LQ)

This clearly indicates that when teachers aim at establishing relational grounds in their classrooms, this may eventually contribute to learners' understanding of the content as well as improved pedagogy and knowledge transfer.

6.2.4 TEACHER AFFECT

One teacher stated that, *"Without emotion the classroom is also "dead."* This particular insert sheds light, not only on the significance of emotions, but also on the key role that they play in orchestrating classroom interactions. It seems as if the affective state of the teacher not only

influences the general mood or atmosphere of the class, but also the willingness of learners to participate in classroom activities or to engage in their individual learning process.

Theme 1: Positive Affective Actions

In the following instances, teachers displayed positive affective actions.

- Positive affirmation:

T: "...and the news only reach you the next day, so that was a good angle, I like that." (V)

- Building on learner mastery:

T: "I want to show you, what you know, by giving you the answer, so here, you actually take the 16 000..." (V)

- Complimenting learners:

T: "Some of you are very fast." (V) &

T: [Feedback to learner on his piece of writing] "But, you have a very nice voice as a DJ, you can actually do that one day." (V)

- Building learner esteem:

L: "You have to pay exactly 10% of R25 000 when you buy it immediately." (V)

T: "Ok, so it is a cash."

L: "Ja cash deposit."

T: "Deposit."

T: "Wonderful. So you calculate 10% of that, and that you pay up front..." &

In another instance the teacher announced to the whole class that a specific learner has the correct answer. (RO)

- Listen to learner excuse:

*T: "Your'e also late *." (V)*

T: "I am going to be more strict..."

Ls: [Latecomers give the excuse that some of the gr 11's had blocked the gates/passages that they wanted to go through so they had to get to class via a different route] [Apparently this was a problem in the school and the principal had addressed the matter]

T: "Is this still happening?" [Discusses the matter with the learner - does not punish the learner for being late]

- Transparency:

T: "I didn't greet you properly this morning, because there was noise the whole time." (V)

T: "So let's do it from the beginning, so that we can have, I already feel um irritated."

Ls: [Some learners are making noises while the teacher speaks]

T: "Don't you feel irritated if it is so noisy?"

- Accepts correction from learner:

T: "Oh, 'i' [value] is wrong, it should be 5, sorry, thank you." (V)

- Enthusiasm:

T: "There we go, well done you've got it, you've got it" [Clapping hands] "Well done, well done." (V)

The following was found with regard to teachers' responses in terms of affective qualities:

- One teacher included the following in the discussion on the influence of emotions on classroom interactions:

"They should be praised not criticised." (TQ)

Theme 2: Personal Interest/Connection

- Acknowledging learners' cultural identity:

T: *"Some interesting Korean channel?" (V)*

L: *[Korean boy responds] "Yes I used..."*

T: *"Which one?"*

L: *"EST."*

T: *"Oh I go on go on."*

- A need to greet learners properly:

T: *"Ok let's start again. Please stand everybody." (V)*

Ls: *[Some complaining] "Agghh." "Mam why do we have to stand?"*

T: *"No, everyone."*

T: *"I didn't greet you properly this morning, because there was noise the whole time."*

T: *"So let's do it from the beginning."*

Theme 3: Emotions and Affective Qualities

- Teachers included the following in their discussions on the effect of emotions on classroom interactions:

"Positive emotions of warmth and acceptance can enhance interaction." (TQ) &

"Compassion can open channels." (TQ) &

"Feelings of anger and resentment obviously are the dangerous ones." (TQ) &

"Anger - can block channels." (TQ)

- Learners included the following in their definitions of the most important teacher qualities:

“Have the love to work with kids.” (LQ) &

“Love teaching and care about kids.” (LQ) &

“Passionate about children.” (LQ) &

“Passionate about subject.” (LQ)

- Learners included the following in their definitions of negative classroom interaction:

“Teachers shouting and taking out emotions on us.” (LQ &

“Teachers being sad.” (LQ) &

“The teacher is angry the whole time.” (LQ) &

“Teacher gets upset quickly.” (LQ)

Theme 4: Other Factors

Teachers included the following (often external factors) in their discussions on the effect of emotions on classroom interactions:

- Personal life:

“Teachers too who are faced with personal struggles e.g. death, divorce, financial troubles become moody, emotionally and physically tired, and this affects their manner of teaching and relating to children.” (TQ) &

“...tired or tense, learners feel it and react accordingly. Same counts for learners.” (TQ)

- Other classes:

“If you had a class that misbehave before the one that is in front of you, it definitely will affect the way you will react towards that class.” (TQ)

- Tiredness:

"I also get emotionally tired because of rude learners and are therefore more strict towards learners and then I am not always open towards learner interaction." (TQ) &

"It a teacher is refreshed, and prepared she is calm and contribute to a peaceful atmosphere." (TQ)

- Ability to control emotions:

"I hope to control mine." (TQ)

- Learners included the following in their definitions on the most important teacher qualities:

"Emotional strength." (LQ) &

"People skills." (LQ) &

"Understanding of situation." (LQ)

Affect: Discussion of findings

In their responses on how emotions affect classroom interactions, two teachers stated the following: *"Make or break a class"*, and *"Probably more than they should"*. Emotions are an essential part of human life. Teachers and learners cannot leave their emotions outside the door when they enter the classroom. Emotions are crucial in creating and maintaining a safe learning environment where learning can occur optimally and learners feel confident to participate in the learning activities.

The research questionnaires also provided a deeper insight into the extent that external factors influence teachers emotionally. Teachers admitted that the external factors affect their emotional state when teaching, which suggests that classroom interactions may ultimately be influenced as well. The impact of a teacher's personal life and their recent experiences are constantly in the background, which makes them more vulnerable when teaching, susceptible to emotional outbursts and may also contribute to an increase in levels of teacher stress. Ultimately, this

negatively influences, not only current and/or future interactions, but may also harm relationships between teachers and their learners.

Within this particular case, the class under study was identified as problematic because they displayed high levels of disciplinary problems. The teachers also regarded the class as a difficult class to teach. As time progressed it became more obvious that most teachers developed various degrees of negative inclinations (affect) towards the class. This eventually resulted in teachers tending to display negative emotions and actions more readily. Situations such as these usually lend themselves to negative repercussions - especially in terms of learner behaviour and disciplinary problems. As a result, teachers have to work extra hard to initiate and maintain positive classroom interactions. It seems therefore that emotions and the affective state of the teacher play a critical role in whether learners are receptive or resistant towards that which is being taught in the classroom.

Lastly, it is important to mention that in terms of the most important teacher qualities, learners emphasised teacher passion. Passion drives teachers to overcome negative emotions and to value learners more than they value control of the learning situation. Through eagerness and enthusiasm, passion becomes evident.

6.2.5 COMMUNICATION

Identifying the components of what ultimately defines effective communication is a near impossible task. Also how some people “communicate” better than others remains somewhat of a mystery. What is however known, is that communication is not limited to a verbal interchange of certain words or ideas. It includes other important aspects such as tone of voice, body language, eye contact, effective listening and the attention of whoever is on the receiving end of the message. Communication is thus verbal as well as non-verbal and is subject to interpretation.

Theme 1: Language use

Teachers’ use of language and wording was seen as an important aspect of communication in the classroom and was used to achieve a variety of educational outcomes.

- Using figurative language to bring across point of view:

*T: "It seem to me yesterday, that you have a problem, when you listen to one another's book reviews. You switch off, you decide it is nicer to talk, or eat, or whatever. I do not want to experience again what I experienced yesterday, so I am going to have a few reviews and that's **it**." (V)*

- Using emotive language to motivate learners:

T: "I just want to go back to his, what I loved about his story..." (V) &

T: "...and then you mess it up a bit." (V)

- Using emotive language to deter learners:

T: "Ja, but you go back before 555. Ok it's decent, it's not brilliant, its ok." (V)

- Words indicating teacher preference:

T: "...so that was a good angle, I like that." (V) &

T: "Listen, I don't think reporters should give their opinions hey." (V)

- Defensive:

T: "Ok, don't kill me." (V)

- Use of sounds:

L: "You minus the deposit." (V)

*T: "Ah. We are going to start, *, we are going to start by subtracting..."*

- Words that convey a joint benefit:

*T: "**We** cherish the silence." (V)*

L: [Repeats what teacher said]

Ls: [Still talking]

*T: "Shusshh. **We** like the silence..."*

- Words that indicate a team approach:

*T: "Ja, **we** can calculate that separately, but **we** can actually combine that, the formula combines that into the whole calculation." (V)*

*T: "**We** can also question this way. Do **we** have enough information here?"*

- Defaulting to home language when reprimanding the learners:

*T: "It is the **total** cost. That will be ha-uh more than 25..." (V)*

Theme 2: Teachers Use of Voice

While communicating with their learners, teachers altered the pitch, tone and audibility of their voices for various reasons.

It was observed that the teachers changed/alterd their voices in the following instances:

- To emphasise a certain idea, concept or fact:

*T: "...who get very, very, very anxious just before they perform, and they **do** take something to calm them down, and that is actually not a good thing." (V) &*

*T: "...but **remember**, it is about self-control." (V)*

- To warn learners:

T: "Right. I have already asked if you'd kindly read...Shush. I only see one person in this room with a book." [Approximately 8 learners with books in front of them] (V)

*T: "Well I don't know what you are going to do, you are going to have to listen **really really hard**." [Speaks slowly] (V)*

- When addressing learners who are off-task or misbehaving:

*T: "Move away? I don't know, they both come from rich families, so they held and owned beautiful houses, I'm not sure if they wanted to move away. Once you are established in a town you stay. **Right. OK. Shushhhsh.**" (V) &*

*T: "**These two girls are still talking.**" (V)*

- To emphasise important aspects of the content:

*T: "Ok at the beginning of Act 2 scene 5 on page 83, Juliet is waiting for news. She sent the nurse out to speak to Romeo, and she is **desperate** to find out what the news is." (V) &*

*T: "So this formula is **not only used**, when you take money and you put it in a bank, and it stays there for a couple of years, and interest is added. That's one way to use this formula. **But** the way that we use it **now**, is to **add** interest to the cost price, if I buy on **credit**, because I am paying **more** that way. I pay more that way." (V)*

- To ensure the correct transfer of knowledge or content:

L: "Mam mustn't that be years?" (V)

*T: "No, you pay per **month.**"*

- To focus learners' attention on certain aspects when doing a class activity:

*T: "We are to **now**, calculate what will be the monthly payments, and what is the **total** amount that you actually going to pay for this television, which is going to be more than 25000." (V)*

- To provide direction/ guide learners thinking processes when approaching the problem:

T: "What amount?" (V)

L: "The payment amount."

*T: "Nonono. The payment means per month. You won't be paying R22500 per month. You haven't calculated the payment. **What have you calculated?**"*

Theme 3: Questions during interactions

It became apparent that both teachers and learners asked a variety of questions during their interactions in the classroom.

The motive or aim of learners' questions included:

- Interest in content:

L: *"Mam, why didn't the Capulet's or Montagu's one of them just move away?" (V)*

- The need to clarify certain aspects or meaning of the content:

L: *"Mam is this financial math?" (V) &*

L: *"Mam what does 'hie' mean?" (V)*

- To gain the permission of the teacher:

L: *"Can I start?" (V)*

T: *"You want to go? Oh you want to write?"*

L: *"Can I start writing?" &*

L: *"May I stand here?" (V)*

- To generate understanding in the process of content transfer:

L: *"So mam, with the 10% you pay deposit, does that minus the original amount we pay?" (V) &*

L: *"Ok wait mam, when you buy the t.v. when you put down a deposit and buy a tv..." (V)*

T: *"Ja."*

L: *[Continues] "...it will cost you R 27 500?"*

- To ask for guidance from the teacher:

L: *"Mam must we do that formula?" (V)*

T: "Yes, now you do the formula, let's see if you can do that, e-everybody."

L: "Mam don't you do it?"

T: "No, you must do it."

Ls: [Noisy]

T: "Fill in all the information, and then the last step, let's see if you can do **that**, what is your monthly payments?"

L: "Mam so you use 22 500?"

T: "Ja. Can you see, that this question, consists of 3 clear steps. You need to subtract the deposit..."

L: "But mam, what if the deposit is like a R50 or something like that, then how would you work it out?"

- Conferring with the teacher before attempting the activity:

L: "Mam, so there is no deposit there?" (V)

T: "No deposit."

L: "So you just do the formula?"

T: "So you don't have to do that part. Let's say, this is 1, 2, 5 marks."

L: "Mam, you just skip the deposit and then?"

T: "Don't say anything, just do it..."

- Learners included the following in their responses on the influence of positive interaction on the TLR:

"If teachers let us ask and answer questions you usually get along with them better as you get to talk." (LQ) &

"Feel free to ask many questions, express myself or debate topics." (LQ)

- Learners included the following on the role of communication in interaction:

“Sometimes children don’t understand the work, but the teachers don’t give them a chance to ask about it.” (LQ) &

“Kids should feel comfortable with their teachers so they’re comfortable to ask questions and can feel free to express themselves.” (LQ)

The motive or aim of teachers’ questions included:

- To gain understanding or clarity on learner actions :

*T: “ * What’s the problem?” (V)*

L: “I can’t find my...”

- To gather general information from the learners:

T: “Who was still supposed to read?” (V)

L: “Ja, but he’s absent.”

*T: “ *’s absent?”*

*T: “ *, so we need to listen to you, and * after you.”*

- Engaging learners through content-related questions:

T: “What is the nurse doing here?” (V)

L: “Procrastinating.”

- Opportunity for learners to give an individual interpretation or opinion:

T: “She’s procrastinating, what does that mean?” [Change voice tone] (V)

L: “She doesn’t want to...”

T: “Not really, but she is delaying the news yes. Why do you think she is doing it?”

- Addressing misbehaviour of learners:

T: "What did you take? Give it back to her." (V)

- To check for learner understanding:

T: "Ok any other questions before we go further?" (V) &

T: "Understand the difference?" (V)

- Engaging learners with a series of questions to master new concepts as well as content transfer:

T: "Which cost?" (V)

L: "25."

T: "No, that is given."

L: "No but, nevermind."

*T: "That is given. We are going to use that number, but how are we going to use that number? To calculate what? * "*

L: "Cost per month."

T: "No, we can't do that straight away. There are going to be 3 steps. What are we going to do first?"

- Asking guiding questions:

*T: "...Ok. So how do you **calculate** the deposit?" (V)*

L: "You minus."

T: "No, before you subtract, how do I calculate the amount of the deposit?"

L: "You go, um."

T: "10% o-f 25 000."

L: "You minus that from 25 000."

T: "Shushshushshush. So it is a multiplication, which will give you what?"

L: "25 hundred."

T: "We've done that, 2500. So if I write down the formula, for simple interest, which we did yesterday, I want to know from you [pause], if I now subtract this deposit, from that amount, what have I calculated?"

Ls: "The payment."

T: "What have I calculated?"

L: "The amount."

T: "What amount?"

L: "The payment amount."

- Checking on learner progress:

T: "Are you getting this right?" (V)

- Responding to individual question:

T: "Can I help you?" (V)

L: "Sir I wasn't here yesterday apparently we had to write a paragraph or something."

- Providing learners with an opportunity to make individual decisions:

T: "Who wants to go first?" (V) &

T: "Who do you want to go next? Who should go next?" (V)

- Question as a put down:

T: "I asked you yesterday not to ride on the chair it is going to break. You are going to fall down, it's still going to be funny, but we're still going to have a broken chair so please." (V)

L: [Comment on teacher response]

T: “Ja who’s going to pay for it? Now be quiet.”

Theme 4: Body Language

Teachers made use of body-language to convey non-verbal messages. If used effectively, body language can be incorporated as a strategy or tool to address misbehaviour and maintain control of the interactions in the classroom.

Body language is quite powerful when it comes to communicating a variety of messages. Although these messages are non-verbal, the essence of the message is easy to interpret and room for miscommunication is limited.

The following uses of body language were observed while teachers were teaching:

1. In one case a particularly short teacher was rocking on her feet and stood with her chin raised upwards with her finger on her lips while waiting for learners to settle in or comply with her instructions. (RO) &

2. One teacher was standing with one or both of his hands in his pockets most of the time while teaching. (RO) &

3. A frown or the narrowing of eyes to show disapproval to learners who were misbehaving. (RO)

Theme 5: Learners on the Role of Communication in Interaction

Certain ideas emerged from the learners’ responses on the role of communication in interaction as well as interactions between teachers and learners. They included the following:

- Providing teachers with information (informative):

L: [At start of lesson] “Mam somebody was reading yesterday.” (V)

- The role of communication in understanding:

“So you can have a better understanding.” (LQ) &

“So that everyone understand each other better.” (LQ) &

“...otherwise people will not understand why you are doing certain things.” (LQ) &

“The learner can tell the teacher what they are doing wrong and vice versa with the teacher.” (LQ) &

“So that there can be understanding between learners and teachers and learners and learners.” (LQ) &

*“I don’t understand (subject) because the teacher doesn’t teach or explain properly because * is Afrikaans. I do bad and hate the subject.” (LQ)*

- Pedagogical attributes of communication:

“If there is no communication then the teacher doesn’t know if the class is paying attention or not.” (LQ)

- The effect of communication on the learning environment or the classroom atmosphere:

“People enjoy class better when people communicate with each other.” (LQ) &

“Makes you feel a lot more comfortable and there are good vibes.” (LQ) &

“Highschool is the biggest place where bullying happens. Kids get bullied by kids already... the class should be a safe place and kids shouldn’t be bullied by teachers too.” (LQ)

- The affective/relational components of communication:

“Will make a good relationship and make teaching easier.” (LQ) &

“Because you should get to know each other.” (LQ)

- The role of communication in learning:

“That’s how you learn, explore...” (LQ) &

“If the teacher doesn’t communicate with learners they won’t know what they know.” (LQ) &

"Yeah, well how else you supposed to learn." (LQ)

- A direct reference to interaction:

"It enables students and teachers to interact with each other." (LQ) &

"Without communication learners and teachers would not have the correct interaction in order to learn a subject." (LQ)

Communication: Discussion of findings

In a response when asked to describe quality classroom interaction, one teacher mentioned that: *"It must be a two way communication... Teaching is not a 'spectator sport'."* Although this may seem as a somewhat extreme metaphorical representation, it is both significant and accurate. Communication draws on and depends on contributions from both parties present in the classroom, in order to ensure quality learning.

From the learners' vantage point, communication is seen as a means to interact in the classroom. Once again the spectrum of their definitions included aspects such as the classroom environment, the affective domain, pedagogy and learning. Communication therefore not only plays a crucial part in reducing the possibility of misunderstanding and misrepresentation while interacting, but also in teaching and learning as a whole. This idea was also supported by some learners' responses on the most important teacher qualities. They mentioned that teachers should have good listening and language skills, which may improve communication.

Understanding was highlighted as the most important facet of communication. Understanding could be interpreted as having a relational and a pedagogical undertone. What is implied is that understanding becomes a prerequisite for effective knowledge or content transfer.

With regard to the relational component, effective communication contributes significantly to accommodating diversity, addressing unique learner needs, and building a basic TLR. One learner also stated that communication was essential when it came to preventing bullying in schools, whether it was by teachers or peers.

What became obvious from the observations was the teachers' use of paralanguage to achieve various educational outcomes, whether pedagogical, disciplinary or affective. This is a simple yet noteworthy aspect of communication that is often neglected. An awareness and effective

mastery of this particular aspect of communication may ultimately improve the quality of communication and may serve as an effective means to control interaction within the learning environment.

The emotional climate in the classroom determines whether two way communications can flow with ease. Consequently, this climate may contribute to higher levels of learner participation and engagement which may ultimately increase positive classroom interactions.

6.2.6 LEARNER BEHAVIOUR

Adolescent actions are often volatile. Teachers are therefore prone to experience an interesting combination of actions and behaviours that are influenced by countless factors. By capturing some of their actions (positive and negative) as well as what these learners tend to respond to, teachers may come to a better understanding of their learners and prepare themselves to better handle difficult or conflicting situations.

Theme 1: Learner Responsiveness

From the observations made, learners' positive responsive behaviour included:

- Attempting to answer teacher questions:

T: "What is the nurse doing here?" (V)

L: "Procrastinating."

T: "She's procrastinating, what does that mean?" [Change in voice]

L: "She doesn't want to..."

T: "Not really, but she is delaying the news yes. Why do you think she is doing it?"

Ls: [Few learners attempt to answer the question]

- Immediately responding to teacher commands:

T: [To boy] "What did you take? Give it back to her." (V)

L: "There you go."

- Questioning consistency of teacher assessment:

T: "Um ok, he started off well, and then I'm going to give you triple 5 for that attempt."

L: [Another learner] "I got 445?" (V)

- Defending individual opinions:

L: "The police felt cornered and therefore had to result in pure violence." (V)

T: "Pure violence, ok what is..." [Pause]

L: "Its cold blood killing."

T: "Ok, then you say brutal or something like that."

T: "Ok, sjo no wonder the police shot many people while they were running, cause they were blind, last line, read your last line."

L: "Sir it is a metaphor."

Ls: [Few learners are making remarks]

T: "Shush, read the line."

L: [Re-read] "The blind police force of South Africa."

- Quieting one another:

T: "Anyway, back to the work." (V)

T: "5 of you still have to go."

Ls: [Increase in noise level]

T: "Guys listen up."

Ls: [Do not quiet down]

T: "Where are we now 6 minutes of break time?"

Ls: "Shuusssh."

- Greet the teacher:

T: "Ok, let's stand quietly. Good morning gr 9's." (V)

Ls: "Good morning!"

- Agreeing with teacher:

T: "Don't you feel irritated if it is so noisy?" (V)

Ls: "Very." "Yes." "No." [Different learners]

T: "Shush, * " [Pause]

T: "Shusssh, one listen to the silence, and hear that's pleasant."

L: "Ja."

- Responding enthusiastically to the teacher's example:

T: "Now when you go, listen carefully, when you go to Shoprite game, that's according to the new laws, consumer laws. You'll get a whole page with information, so that will tell you, that this new smart screen tv. The cost is R 25 000." (V)

Ls: [1 Learner Whistles] [Two learners] "That's cheap." "Is it 3d?"

T: "And, then they will say, the deposit, don't talk, shush, I'm not sure whether it is 3d, maybe that's why it's not so expensive, because I have seen up to R40 000."

L: "Mam, R 90 000."

T: "Really?"

T&Ls: [Short discussion about the latest TV's]

- Apologising to teacher:

*T: "When you take out a loan, off course there will not be a deposit, you are not buying something. Are you listening * ? There is no deposit * and * in this question." (V)*

L: [One learner] "Sorry mam."

T: "So what you need to do is you just need to start this with part 2."

- Another example of positive responsive learner behaviour was:

Learners who spontaneously clapped their hands to congratulate a learner who delivered a good piece of writing. (RO)

From the observations made, learner's negative responsive behaviour included:

- Backchatting the teacher:

Ls: [One girl and boy are having a disagreement because he took her eraser] (V)

L: [Girl] "Stop it - stop it."

*T: "Mrs * come."*

L: "What?"

T: "You stop stop." [Mimicking what learner said] "Why are you doing that?"

L: "Sir, he took my eraser."

T: "Ja I don't really care."

L: "Ja." [Funny noise]

- Being defiant:

T: "I'm saying I said I'm going to punish you if you keep on talking." (V)

L: "This is the first time I spoke in the lesson."

- Laughing at a fellow learner:

L: [Starts to read his report] (V)

Ls: [Quiet while learner reads]

L: [While reading] "...the police managed what?" [Cannot read own handwriting]

L: [Another learner clears throat loudly - others start to laugh]

- Behaving aggressively:

L: [Question from a fellow learner in the audience] "From when is South Africa a neighbouring country of England?" (V)

L: [Who has just read her report] "Just shush."

T: "Ja, ja I just wanted to get to that. Can you name our neighbouring countries? I wish England was our neighbour that would be so nice for holidays."

Ls: [Commenting on the girl's blunder]

L: [Who read] "Shut u-p."

- Making fun of a learner:

L: "How come you have so little?" [Referring to an assessment score] (V)

L: "Cause it was..." [Pause]

Ls: [Laugh]

L: [Continues] "Cause I didn't like read it properly sir."

L: "Oh is it the handwriting?"

- Not responding to teacher instruction:

T: "Shush, please sit down everybody." (V)

Ls: *[Noisy, talking loudly]*

T: *"Right, may we start, or should we stand again?"*

Ls: *"Shush" & "Stand"*

T: *"Shush."*

Theme 2: Learner Actions

In some instances learners displayed constructive/positive actions which included:

- Displays of confidence and discipline:

In one instance the learner who had to do her book review got up and moved to the front without the teacher having to call her again. (RO) &

L: *[Walks to the front of the class to read his report] (V)*

T: *"Ok this better be good, cause he wants to stand at the front."*

- Responding to the teacher's advice:

T: *"*, you are actually reading very fast. Just take a deep breath, and slow down, because we're not hearing the individual words." (V)*

L: *[Continues her reading, more loudly and slowly]*

- Making jokes with one another:

T: *"Oraait thank you, who do you want to go next?" (V)*

L: *"Gary, he's talking to you." [Gary is the pseudonym that the learner used in his assessment activity]*

- Motivating individual answers:

T: *"Ok *, you make it sound like news just happened, then you say yesterday, on the 21st of March." (V)*

L: *"It takes like a day to get there sir, so the news just got there."*

- Helping the teacher to quiet the class:

T: *"I think I must be crazy. With simple interest of 12% per annum. You are lucky, here there is no deposit."* (V)

Ls: *[Very noisy]*

L: *"Guys!"*

- Making a joke with the teacher:

T: *"Now listen, the second question, the bell is going to go now, so focus."* (V)

L: *"Focus."*

L: *"Focus on the bell."*

T: *"Not on the bell, on the board."*

L: *"Ok."*

- Asking questions:

L: *"What's the formula called again mam?"* (V)

T: *"It's a simple interest formula. You can also use it for hire purchase."*

L: *"Mam what is compound interest?"*

T: *"That we'll do tomorrow."*

L: *"Mam if there is a higher purchase does that mean you have to subtract the deposit and do those steps?"*

T: *[Interrupts] "Exactly these steps."*

L: *We have to do like all 3 steps?*

- Other positive/constructive actions included:

Working together to solve a problem. (RO)

- Learners stated the following in terms of behaviour in their responses on positive classroom interaction:

1. Paying attention:

"Listening in class." (LQ) &

"Giving full attention." (LQ)

2. Discipline:

"When students do not try to provoke the teacher." (LQ) &

"Not much talking." (LQ) &

"Not interrupting a lesson." (LQ) &

"Don't talk when someone is talking." (LQ) &

"Know the limit." (LQ)

3. Participation:

"When children ask and answer questions that are related to the work." (LQ) &

"Learners are engaged and excited about the subject." (LQ) &

"When work is enjoyed." (LQ) &

"Good work ethic." (LQ)

- Teachers stated the following in their responses on quality classroom interaction:

"Everybody in class must follow the topic/ discussion / lesson." (TQ) &

"Everybody participates." (TQ) &

“Good behaviour.” (TQ)

In some instances the researcher observed learners displaying destructive/negative actions which included:

- Competing against one another:

L: “Yes I have the answer.” [Two learners simultaneously] (V)

L: “I was first!”

T: “Already?”

L: “I was first!” [Second learner]

- Challenging the teacher’s authority:

T: “Listen, those who were late.” (V)

L: [Another learner who is late comes walking in while the teacher speaks]

*T: “Why are you late, *?”*

L: “Mam, no excuse.”

- Other negative/destructive actions included:

1. Throwing objects at one another while the teacher is not looking. (RO)

2. Playing with a mini skateboard on the desks while learners are reading their book reviews. (RO)

3. Blowing on a bottle. This results in disturbing whistling noises. (RO)

4. Mimicing the teacher after being reprimanded for eating in class. (RO)

5. Talking while the teacher is teaching. (RO)

- With regard to individual responses, learners included the following on negative classroom interaction:

“Interrupting.” (LQ) &

“Backchatting.” (LQ) &

“Constant talking.” (LQ) &

“Provoking the teacher.” (LQ) &

“When children disrupt the class working concentration.” (LQ) &

“People in the class are being rude to other people.” &

“Don’t listen to the teacher.” (LQ) &

“No one take part.” (LQ) &

“Undisciplined.” (LQ) &

“Disrupt one another.” (LQ) &

“Don’t know the limit.” (LQ) &

“The children ask questions that aren’t related to the work.” (LQ) &

“Does not have a good work ethic.” (LQ) &

“Immature.” (LQ)

- Teachers included the following in their responses on factors that inhibit classroom interaction:

“Learner that do not co-operate.” (TQ) &

“Social inhibition learnt at home.” (TQ) &

“Learned passivity.” (TQ) &

“Wants to be the main attraction in class.” (TQ)

Learner Behaviour: Discussion of findings

As mentioned earlier, the actions, behaviour or demeanour of learners are much more difficult to manufacture, control or manipulate, thereby presenting the reader with a unique insight into the phenomenon of classroom interaction.

In this particular case, the behaviour of the learners included positive actions such as displays of self-confidence, responding to the teacher's advice, making jokes with one another and the teacher, and also working together to solve problems. Learners on a few occasions also displayed acts where they were unafraid to stand up as individuals, whether to confront their peers, question the teacher and/or to voice their individual opinion. It was, as an observer, challenging to discern whether these high levels of individualism or independence stem from the ethos of the school, the culture of the learners, the surrounding community or their home environment.

Although it seemed as if learners naturally accepted the authority of the teachers and showed them respect, learners did not refrain from displaying deliberate confrontational actions such as undermining the authority of the teacher, back chatting or deliberately making funny noises. This once again reinforces the idea of individuals that display strong independent tendencies, and are unafraid of eliciting negative reactions and/or conflict, or bearing the consequences of their deliberate actions.

What also became evident from the behaviour of learners within this particular case, was that only few instances were recorded/observed where learners made conscious attempts or demonstrated behaviours that fell within the affective range. This is asserted by the behavioural aspects which emanated from learners responses on positive classroom interaction, where three ideas namely participation, paying attention and discipline were highlighted. Consequently, this may negatively affect relationship building between teachers and their learners.

Teachers once again referred to the influence of external factors and how they may affect the behaviour of individual learners. "*Social inhibition learnt at home,*" and "*Learned passivity*", were highlighted by teachers as factors that inhibit classroom interactions. This once again sheds the light on the individuality of learners including their nuances, personality, attitudes etc. which are strongly shaped or influenced by significant others. These may include family, guardians, friends, the church or to a larger extent the community. Teachers should therefore be prepared to handle a variety of learner behaviours, as one cannot be sure how these may manifest in the

classroom and ultimately affect the teaching and learning processes of individuals or the class as a whole.

Lastly, an interesting concept was brought up by one learner in their response on negative classroom interaction, namely “immature”. This was the first significant reference to the developmental phase of these particular learners, and is therefore worth recalling. Unwarranted tensions may arise due to the fact that girls are generally more mature during the adolescent developmental phase. Teachers should therefore be conscious of and have sufficient knowledge of the possible influences of developmental phase on the general behaviour of the learners whom they are teaching.

6.2.7 HUMAN QUALITIES AND CHARACTERISTICS

Although it remains difficult to distinguish between qualities, characteristics, values and skills, these concepts have one thing in common - all of them manifest themselves through particular human behaviours and actions. They will therefore consequently contribute to whether interactions are influenced positively or negatively.

Theme 1: Teacher Qualities and Characteristics

In the following instances, teachers demonstrated or addressed certain qualities and characteristics in their interactions with their learners namely:

- Fairness:

T: “Ok, settle down, let’s give him a fair chance. Fire away.” (V) &

T: “That was actually quite good. What would you say, 565 fair?” (V)

- Self-control:

*T: “Listen [pause] that’s pleasant, noise is unpleasant [pause] so let’s keep it this way, because I know you actually want this to be this way, but **remember**, it is about self-control. Now let’s do it again. Good morning gr 9’s.” (V)*

- Respect:

T: "Ha-uh, one person talk, the rest is quiet, come on [change in tone of voice] we show respect." (V)

- Care:

*T: "Your'e also late *." (V)*

T: "I am going to be more strict..."

Ls: [Latecomers give their excuse for being late - some of the gr 11's are blocking the gates/passages that they wanted to walk through so they had to take another route]

T: "Is this still happening?" [Discusses the situation with the learner]

- Encouraging individual responsibility:

T: "Those people who have already been asked, and weren't ready, well, I have to have your marks ready by next week, so you had better make a plan. I'm not doing any begging. I'm not doing any coaxing, or forcing. Its your choice not to be ready. If it means that your choice is to get nought, well, then [pause] you must just decide for yourself. Ok." (V)

- Showing individual interest:

T: "Before you read, just tell me what was your response to the book? How did you like or dislike the book?" (V)

L: "Well, there is only like action like quite near the end, so they don't really do much."

T: "Do you feel the book must have action?"

- Teachers included the following in their responses when defining quality classroom interaction:

"Acknowledging and respecting human dignity despite weakness and uncertainty from either side." (TQ) &

“There must be respect from both sides (mutual respect).” (TQ)

- One teacher on the extent that emotions influence classroom interaction:

“Mutual respect will enhance positive emotions and thus good interaction.” (TQ)

- One teacher included the following when asked to respond on factors that inhibit quality classroom interaction:

“No mutual respect.” (TQ)

- Teachers on the connection between classroom interaction and the TLR:

“They must trust the teacher.” (TQ) &

“The teacher must also be fair and have integrity.” (TQ) &

“Teacher must be a role model.” (TQ)

- Learner responses when identifying the most important teacher characteristics:

The three most recurring characteristics included: *“patience”, “fairness” and “kindness” (LQ)*

Other qualities learners’ included were: *“determination”, “understanding”, “respect”, “compassion”, “caring”, “self-confidence”, “self-esteem” and “non-judgemental” (LQ)*

- Learner responses on positive classroom interaction included:

“Where the teacher is kind.” (LQ) &

“A teacher that is funny & nice.” (LQ)

- Learner responses on negative classroom interaction included:

“Biased.” (LQ) &

“Do not allow equality in the class.” (LQ)

Theme 2: Learner Qualities and Characteristics

Although learner qualities and characteristics were not directly observed by the researcher, teachers and learners gave the following responses on the research questionnaires in terms of learner characteristics:

- According to teachers, learner characteristics that affect interactions positively include:

“Conscientious learners.” (TQ)

“Sense of Humour.” (TQ)

“The willingness to learn; Self-discipline; Mutual respect.” (TQ)

“Self-control; Enthusiasm; Inquisitive; Good self-esteem; Confidence.” (TQ)

“Positivity; Obediency; Curiosity about the work.” (TQ)

“Friendliness; Willingness to learn; Politeness.” (TQ)

“Positive; Motivated to do well; Obedient; Co-operative; Respect others.” (TQ)

“Optimism; Enthusiasm; Open-mindedness.” (TQ)

- Learner characteristics that affect interactions positively, according to learners:

“One with respect and discipline” (LQ) &

“Helpful” (LQ) &

“Cares about other people.” (LQ) &

“Very positive towards everything.” (LQ) &

“Very polite.” (LQ) &

“Co-operates...Someone who tries hard to do their best.” (LQ)

- Teachers included the following in their responses when defining quality classroom interaction:

“Learners want to learn more.” (TQ)

- Learner responses on positive classroom interaction included:

“Everyone is respecting each other.” (LQ) &

“Respect between teachers and learners.” (LQ) &

“Positive attitude towards the teacher.” (LQ) &

“Where everyone is equal.” (LQ) &

“Peace.” (LQ)

- Learner responses on negative classroom interaction included:

“Disrespectful learners or teachers.” (LQ)

Human Qualities and Characteristics: Discussion of findings

Two main ideas could clearly be distinguished from the teachers’ responses on learner characteristics. The first was that learners take in a submissive position in terms of the power relationship between teachers and their learners. The second suggested that learners had to have some sort of intrinsic drive or motivation in terms of their work or in general. Through these two notions a power-centred TLR is emphasised.

The lack of affective qualities demonstrated by the learners towards their teachers was evident, supporting the idea of the power-centred relationship mentioned above. This power-centred relationship may also support the focus on academic achievement and success. Regrettably, if the teacher neglects or rarely display affective qualities such as caring, passion and compassion, which play a crucial part in relationship building, this may have severe consequences on establishing or maintaining TLRs. Affective qualities and characteristics are ultimately vital to create a safe learning environment, to ensure an effective flow of communication and to influence the behaviour of the learners.

When addressing important teacher qualities, learners singled out patience as the most important teacher quality. This can be interpreted in multiple ways, one being in terms of pedagogy, where teachers need to have patience when teaching learners new content. Another may be in terms of behaviour, where some learners tend to misbehave or display high levels of punitive behaviour. Patience, partially indicates, that teachers should be willing to persevere and be able to effectively manage and/or control their emotions.

6.2.8 RELATIONAL ASPECTS

Up to this point the importance of the TLR has been recognized as well as the crucial contribution that it makes to effective teaching and learning. Some of the themes that emerged from this section from both the teachers and the learners' questionnaires have been mentioned earlier in the discussion, (pedagogy, affect/emotions, behaviour, communication, power, teacher qualities and characteristics). However, certain themes emerged that have not been addressed and it is necessary to bring these to the attention of the reader.

Theme 1: Relational

"It creates a better relationship with the teachers." (LQ) &

"They know what you are capable of and can help or support you." (LQ)

Theme 2: Perception

"It shapes the view the teacher has of you." (LQ)

Theme 3: Learner involvement

- Opening up to the teacher:

"Even introverts share "little stories" with me." (TQ)

- Participation:

"An involved class is a positive class." &

"If learners feel comfortable in class they tend to participate more." &

“As soon as learners enjoy it to participate in class and promote their own learning, the relationship will improve with the teacher.”

- Voicing individual opinions:

“Pupils must have the freedom to express themselves in a respectful way.”

Theme 4: Affective/Emotional Aspects

- Positivity and enjoyment:

“Excited to go to those classes.” &

“You actually enjoy the class.” &

“If the lesson is over everyone will be smiling.” &

“No frustration.”

- Positive influence on teachers:

“Teacher automatically feels more comfortable with the class and teaching becomes easier.” &

“Keeps them in a good mood.”

- Teacher transparency:

“They can be more open with students.”

- Establishing rapport:

“If there is a teacher-learner relationship it is easier to connect to the classroom.”

- Reciprocity:

“Pleasant give-and-take interaction leads to a feeling of achievement and as a result the teacher is able to step outside a rigid power relationship. &

Win/win situation.”

Theme 5: Academic Aspects

- Improvement in academics:

“Understand better.” &

Marks improve.”

- Self-Motivation:

“Try to do better.”

Theme 6: Behavioural Aspects

- Disciplinary:

“Less discipline time.”

- Control:

“No struggle with the class.”

- Paying attention:

“You listen more in that specific class.”

- General:

“It seems to make you want to be better in class.”

Theme 7: Learning

- Positive effect on individual learning processes:

“Good work ethic.” &

“Take interest.” &

“Always learn something new by the end of the period.” &

“Learning will take place easier.”

Theme 8: Classroom environment

- Positive atmosphere:

“It creates a positive atmosphere.” &

“Because it can make the environment where you work a positive atmosphere.”

Relational Aspects: Discussion of findings

Balance and reciprocity were seen as keys in establishing a healthy TLR. Teachers also agreed that a positive relationship contributes to a safe learning environment where learners feel more comfortable in participating in the learning activities. Surprisingly enough teachers did not comment on many affective qualities or about the importance of making a personal connection with learners. From the observations, it was evident that teachers seldom shared aspects of their personal lives, or made jokes with learners, both of which would have revealed some sense of personal interest. It may be that teachers see the power relationship between teachers and learners as inhibiting and necessary in order to maintain control and discipline in the classroom.

As mentioned earlier, one of the criteria for selecting a class to be studied was that it should be a class that demonstrated disciplinary problems. The possibility exists that this class may have been labelled and that teachers might have been more reluctant to engage in emotional or personal conversations. This is somewhat problematic, as basic conversing contributes to systematically building the TLR.

Throughout this particular category, it became clearer that positive interaction has a positive influence on the TLR. According to learners, it could increase positive attitudes, reduce disciplinary problems and establish a desire to achieve more.

What was most interesting was that learners admitted to performing better academically in classes where there was a positive relationship. Although there might be numerous reasons for this, possible explanations may be an increase in morale, a desire to please the teacher or prove themselves, or alternatively a fear of disappointing teachers. This once again testifies to the strong influence that teachers have on learners' reaching of higher goals and aspiring to do better.

Learners also emphasised that teachers would benefit from an improved TLR as it would for one, be easier to manage and/or control the class. This may also make it easier for teachers to perform their pedagogical actions, making room to experiment with unfamiliar strategies and therefore improving their teaching.

One learner's answer reflected what is known in case study research as 'a negative case' (Gibbs, 2009). Her answer was as follows: *"Not a big relationship. Only the teacher knowing your name. And the occasional 'hello mam/sir' in the passage."* This may be interpreted in two ways: either this learner believes that teachers and learners can/do not have a relationship that extends beyond a professional- or power relationship, or that she does not feel that teachers are deliberately trying to make a connection or establish a relationship with her. This then implies that teachers need to take deliberate actions to make a connection with learners in order to eventually build a relationship with them. This is of course easier said than done.

6.3 CONCLUSION

Data analysis is a systematic search for...*meaning*. It is a way to process qualitative data so that what has been learned can be communicated to others (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). After pages and pages of trying to unravel this phenomenon and to make meaning of what it truly encompasses in order to communicate it to the reader, I am convinced that the subject is far from exhausted. What I do believe is, that in my attempt to unravel the phenomenon of TLI, I have shed some new light on the intricate nature of the phenomenon and how truly connected it really is in terms of individual behaviour, communication, pedagogy, emotions, and power. What I have also come to realize while drawing on data from both case studies, is that the nature of TLI and all its elements, aspects and facets is much more universal than I initially supposed.

The two cases were presented separately, each with its particular categories and themes which came to the fore in the process of analysis. I also endeavoured to discuss each theme after describing it. The inclusive nature of the report on the findings can be ascribed to the fact that interaction within the classroom can only be described by citing a series of interactive communications. In order to illustrate the findings, it was therefore necessary to quote whole (or partially whole) conversations in order to depict the concept which emerged from such a conversation.

In the following chapter I shall attempt to compare the overall findings with the relevant literature, compare the two cases and thereby attempt to respond to my initial research questions. I will also discuss the relevancy and applicability of the chosen theoretical framework. Thereafter I shall discuss the limitations of this study, and make recommendations for directions regarding further research.

In conclusion, I would like to leave the reader with the following two remarks made by teachers regarding classroom interaction:

“It is a very intricate interesting phenomenon.” (TQ School B)

“Volatile; unpredictable; when it works it can be a lovely experience.” (TQ School B)

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

At the onset of a journey such as this one, a person may believe that you know something. You then go through the process of discovery and come to a different conclusion. Your world is very small and suddenly everything that has been taken for granted becomes highly questionable.

In this final chapter the idea is to respond to the single question that runs like a delicate thread through this whole thesis, namely: **What is the nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction?** This will be accompanied by efforts to answer the secondary research questions which are as follows: **What role does affect, power and pedagogy respectively play in teacher-learner classroom interactions?**

In the remainder of this chapter, I will proceed in the following way: firstly, I shall discuss the findings of School A and School B. Thereafter I will attempt to compare the findings of the two case studies. This may highlight other aspects of the phenomenon that may at this stage have gone unrecognised. Reference will be made to the theoretical framework that serves as a foundation for the study, evaluating its applicability and relevance to the study at hand. Lastly, I will address the limitations as well as make recommendations for further research.

From the analysis of Case Study A, eight categories emerged: power, teacher behaviour, pedagogy, teacher affect, communication, learner behaviour, human qualities and characteristics, and, from the questionnaires only, relational aspects. The data was rich and full hence the extensive chapter 5 and 6. These categories will be discussed separately except for the last two categories which will be discussed jointly (relational aspects and human qualities and characteristics).

From the analysis of Case Study B, eight categories emerged i.e. power, teacher behaviour, pedagogy, teacher affect, communication, learner behaviour, human qualities and characteristics and from the questionnaires only, relational aspects. The discussion of the findings will proceed in a similar fashion.

It is important to keep in mind that both cases illustrate the same construct explored, and that the data is fundamentally interdependent and interrelated.

7.2 POWER

7.2.1 SCHOOL A

The core definition of power refers to the ability to influence (Richmond & McCroskey, 1984; Smith 1977) thus recognising the influence of teachers. This was manifested through teachers' ability to effectively exercise "referent power" (power based on relationships) in their classrooms (French & Raven, 1959). Where teachers exercised "referent power", interactions seemed to flow with ease and teachers seemed more adept with regard to both control and discipline in their classrooms.

Where a strong TLR had been established, humour could be used effectively to maintain the relationship between teachers and learners. This was demonstrated by inoffensive jokes regarding physical appearance and relationships with the opposite sex, as well as sharing individual experiences and making inferences from one's personal life. This seemed to make classes more enjoyable for learners and eventually had a positive effect on learner participation. Mutual respect was seen as eminent and demonstrated through learners' immediate compliance and responsive behaviour. This is in line with the opinion of Cothran and Ennis (1997) who identified teacher knowledge about learner development and individual teacher characteristics as factors pertaining to how teachers use their power in the classroom, and the opinion of Mokhele (2006) who highlights respect as key in this process and that it is achieved among other ways through the use of humour and the sharing of personal information (Yan et al., 2011).

In contrast, teachers who demonstrated a lack of referent power, and made more use of coercive power (power referring to the learner's belief that they will be punished if they do not respond to the teachers attempt to influence) (French & Raven 1959) struggled to effectively maintain control in their classes. Their increased use of negative responses not only encouraged learner non-compliance but also contributed to increased general learner misbehaviour (e.g. excessive talking), rebellion, learner provocation and a lack of participation. Responding aggressively to learner provocation only accelerated the negative cycle making it worse and worse, causing interactions to spiral downward. This is in line with the statements made by Lewis (2001, cited in Romi et al., 2011) who maintains that teachers' negative response to

provocation negatively affects interactions and contributes to a lack of responsible learner behaviour, and with the opinion of Uitto (2011) who affirms the increase in learner rebellion when confronted with negative power use by teachers.

Imposing power negatively affects learners' view of authority (Harjunen, 2009) thus causing learners to reject the attempts of the teacher to gain compliance. When a strong relationship exists between teachers and learners, teachers evidently have greater power over learners as they are more effective at influencing them.

7.2.2 SCHOOL B

At School B, it seemed as if teachers held high levels of legitimate power (the teacher is entitled to power due to the position they hold in the classroom). From there stemmed teachers' use of coercive power (learners' believe that they will be punished if they do not conform to the influence of the teacher) (French & Raven, 1959). With teachers thus being the locus of control, it seemed easier for them to gain learner compliance and to impose rules in the classroom. McNaughton's research (2001) may possibly elucidate where teachers' attainment of legitimate power is derived from. These include: (i) pre-existing cultural meanings, (ii) expectations and (iii) the position held by teachers in the immediate environment (in Le Cornu & Collins, 2004). Consequently, TLLs seemed to be lacking in warm affective interactions, as teachers did not have to invest as much in establishing a healthy power relationship. Also respect between teachers and learners seemed to originate from the position that teachers held rather than their personalities.

Teachers specifically emphasised a balanced approach, and boundaries were seen as essential in order to maintain control in the classroom. On the one hand, teachers argued that learners should have boundaries in order to feel safe, whilst on the other hand, boundaries were seen as inhibitory and as setting a limit as to what learners are allowed to do. No reference was found in the literature to where the power relationship between teacher and learners was specifically related to boundaries. It is also not clear to which extent different teachers' boundaries correlate or differ and where these boundaries originate from.

Mokhele (2006) asserts that discipline should be positive, constructive and inspire self-discipline. In instances where teachers made use of fear, intimidation and humiliation, learners seem to yield, yet these methods resulted in less meaningful interactions. Also the classroom

atmosphere seemed formal, cold and distant, and in very few instances did learners initiate personal connections with the teacher.

7.2.3 POWER: COMPARING FINDINGS

At both schools it was found that teachers' use of coercive measures (French & Raven, 1959) negatively affected learner attitudes, compliance, and behaviour. In most of these instances teachers had a harder time to effectively maintain control in their classes, which led to more negatively inclined TLIs.

The main difference found between School A and School B is that at the latter, teachers' power position seemed to mostly emanate from a "legitimate" power position whereas at School A, teachers' power positions seemed to emanate mostly from a "coercive" or "referent" power position (French & Raven, 1959). From the findings, it became evident that when teachers hold a "referent" power position in their classrooms they are more successful at creating a warm and welcoming learning environment; initiating positive TLIs; and gaining learner compliance and/or participation. They are also less likely to be confronted with disruptive learner behaviour.

7.3 TEACHER BEHAVIOUR

7.3.1 SCHOOL A

Teacher behaviour in the classroom seems to have a direct influence on the classroom atmosphere and whether or not effective learning occurs. Generally, positive teacher behaviour was associated with positive TLIs, whereas reoccurring displays of negative teacher behaviours resulted in broken down or negative interaction. This is asserted by Doyle (1983) who maintains that teacher behaviour in the classroom is probably a product of TLIs, and by Wubbels et al. (1988, p.26), who says that "...not only is the teacher's behaviour caused by that of the students but the teacher also confirms the behaviour of the students".

Teachers' "positive actions" included; rewarding learner compliance, being apologetic, redirecting the focus to protect a learner, communicating high expectations, ignoring learner provocation, praising learners and building learner esteem. Teachers also showed great interest in learners' opinions, and provided feedback or support, which once again had a positive effect on reciprocal TLI. These actions often determined the course of the interaction especially in the case where the teacher ignored learner provocation, thus showing that teachers' behaviour,

including verbal behaviour, is significant in achieving positive and successful outcomes (Hindle & Withington, 2007).

In classrooms with limited positive TLIs, teachers demonstrated a greater inclination towards negative demeanour. Also, effective learning opportunities were minimized and time was mostly spent on regaining control in the classroom. Researchers agree that negative and on-going reciprocal interactions may increase systematically or escalate to a point where effective learning ceases (Kovalainen & Kumpulainen, 2007; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Van Tartwijk et al., 1998).

Negative actions included slapping a learner on the arm for doing other work in class, shouting, displays of anger and aggressiveness, threatening learners, reinforcing negative expectations, and denying learner requests. In negative interactions teacher behaviour becomes the method with which they discipline or aim to resume control of the interaction. However, when teachers make use of coercive methods, this negatively affects learners' learning (Mainhard et al. 2011).

It was found that teachers' "action zone" contributes significantly to the quality of interactions. "Action zone" refers to the area where teachers spend most of their time while they teach (Adams & Biddle, 1970 cited in Brophy & Good, 1974). When teachers constantly move between learners and regularly change their position in the classroom (e.g. walking to and from learners while waiting for a response to a question) learner participation increases and disruptive learner behaviour decreases. This may be because learners then perceive teachers as active participants in learners' learning processes. Opposite effects are found when teachers passively transfer knowledge while being stationed in the front of the class, especially in cases of large teacher-learner ratios.

7.3.2 SCHOOL B

In School B, it seemed as if teachers' behaviour was guided predominantly by their legitimate power (French & Raven, 1959). In most cases the teachers' behaviour could be labelled as neutral or negative (mimicking a learner that stutters, generalizing, stereotyping learners, humiliating learners, not acknowledging mistakes, making fun of learners, finding fault, being aggressive or being defensive) with only limited demonstrations of positive actions (providing learners with positive/constructive feedback, making a connection with a learner of an eastern culture and acknowledging a learner's individual attempts). The danger that lies herein, is that

legitimate power can be exploited as teachers may come to believe that they are entitled to this particular power, thereby demonstrating more intense negative actions when confronted with challenging situations. Thus their actions become justified by their legitimate power. Learners generally responded in two ways. They confronted, challenged or were defiant towards the teacher, or they remained passive. Sava (2002) asserts that conflict-inducing attitudes on the side of the teacher, such as misbehaviour, hostility and a lack of emotional support, encourages defensive and negative learner responses, which were observed with the exception of scenarios where teachers demonstrated a high degree of “coercive power” (French & Raven, 1959).

7.3.3 TEACHER BEHAVIOUR: COMPARING FINDINGS

At School A, teachers’ behaviour seemed to strongly influence their position of power and vice versa. This was however not the case with School B where even though teachers regularly displayed negative behaviours, learners still seemed to comply and participate when they were asked to do so.

At School A, positive teacher behaviour could generally be associated with positive TLIs whereas recurring displays of negative teacher behaviours resulted in broken down or negative interaction. At School B negative teacher behaviours did not necessarily influence learners’ willingness to participate, but added to a cold classroom environment and an increase in emotional distance between teachers and learners, which is more of an disadvantage when it comes to promoting learning than a benefit.

At both schools learners displayed negative behaviours. If teachers can counteract negative learner behaviour through positive response, this may ultimately increase positive classroom interactions (Hayes, et al., 2007), which may eventually strengthen the TLR.

7.4 PEDAGOGY

7.4.1 SCHOOL A

What became evident first and foremost was teachers’ uniqueness in terms of their teaching repertoires. However teachers did not seem to stray from what was “working for them”. This resulted in a form of predictability when entering their classes. It became clear that they felt comfortable with certain strategies and rarely strayed from these when teaching. This can be potentially harmful as teachers ought to “adapt their content and pedagogical approaches to the

needs and interests of their students” (Beutel, 2006, p.81-82). The focus should rather be on finding the right practice to help learners achieve (Haas, 2008). Taking into account that teachers have a variety of learners in front of them, teachers should plan so that strategies can be rotated to ensure that all learners benefit from the learning experience as “no one teaching method can meet all the demands of learning” (Gregory, 2001, p. 75). The only exception was found where there seemed to have been a strong TLR accompanied by high levels of teacher enthusiasm and a positive teacher attitude.

Pedagogic strategies that served teachers well included using silence as a professional tool to gain learner compliance and attention (Ollin, 2008); the use of humour; and understanding the status of relationships with adolescents (Battalio, Dalhoe & Shirer, 2013). Teaching adolescents poses its own challenges. When teachers have a deep understanding of this developmental stage, they will for one be better equipped to handle disruptive behaviour and thus be more adept at managing their classrooms.

In classrooms with limited positive TLIs, teachers increased the use of negative means to manage the behaviour and maintain discipline in their classes. Usually learner misbehaviour escalated, moving the focus away from learning. The challenge in situations such as these is to choose the right course of action (Barbetta, et al., 2005; Wubbels, et al., 1988) in order to get teaching back on track. This can be challenging, and thus calls for teachers’ ability to effectively regulate their emotions in challenging emotional situations (Sutton et al., 2009) so that they are able to recognise the root of the problem (Barbetta et al., 2005) and deal with it effectively.

Teachers who allocated responsibility to their learners were rarely observed. Research by Mokhele (2006) suggests that teachers should allow learners to take leadership roles in the classroom, as this may assist teachers in managing their classrooms and individual learner behaviour. This may especially serve the teachers of adolescents well as it encourages self-discipline and responsibility. It demands however that the teacher has knowledge of their learners’ individual abilities and strengths, which once again necessitates the need for a good TLR.

7.4.2 SCHOOL B

The responses of the teachers at School B revealed knowledge and insight regarding the importance of adjusting or altering one’s teaching strategies and methods. However this was not

frequently observed in the classroom interactions. One may therefore ask the question as to why this was not more readily observed - especially since teachers recognised the importance of altering their teaching to accommodate learner diversity and to optimise classroom interactions. One possible explanation for this may be that there are more simple/complex and unknown/invisible factors that influence this particular part of teachers' pedagogy that we are not necessarily aware of.

Beutel (2006) states that there is a shared relationship between knowledge and the approaches that teachers' follow when teaching, and that teachers draw on their individual knowledge bases to adapt their content and pedagogical approaches to meet the diverse needs and interests of their learners. However, in this specific case it seemed as if teachers' preferences in terms of styles were more dominant than their pedagogical knowledge of what style was best suited to accommodate learner diversity.

Accommodating learner diversity is essential for various reasons, but mostly to provide learners with a variety of opportunities to master new skills and content. Learners have individual learning needs, and teaching today's youth demand much from teachers in terms of stimulating learners, developing critical thinking abilities and effectively engaging them in learning activities. Teachers should therefore carefully consider their use and the usefulness of resources to stimulate the youth that they teach in a rapidly changing society. One such way is to utilise a critical pedagogy approach that encourages critical reflection, learner autonomy, and insight into how the social world is constructed and transformed (Thomas et al., 2014). This has the potential to increase learners' self-confidence and intellectual independence (McGuire, 2007). When teachers incorporate a range of teaching skills, -styles, -models and -approaches in their teaching repertoire they are generally more effective (Hopkins, et al., 1997 cited in Beresford, 1999).

Shulman (1999) recognizes a variety of teachers' knowledge bases that include content knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of educational contexts etc. However what has not been included in this list is a "general" knowledge base and a "cultural" knowledge base. The observations revealed that these knowledge bases of teachers', benefited interactions with their learners, where the former enriched the learning environment and the latter created an opportunity to make a personal connection with a specific learner.

Lastly, a connection was found between pedagogy and teachers' power position. It seemed as if teachers' position of "legitimate power" (French & Raven, 1959) empowered teachers and/or

simplified pedagogical actions such as gaining learners' attention or addressing learner non-compliance/misbehaviour.

7.4.3 PEDAGOGY: COMPARING FINDINGS

The findings from both schools seem to demonstrate that pedagogy is dependent on learner compliance and participation, which is influenced by the behaviour and power position of the teacher. It also seems as if teachers prefer and consequently employ one method of teaching. Possible reasons for this may be the personality of the teacher or individual preference. This should be regarded as a critical shortcoming as learner individuality and learner diversity is neglected.

At School A one particular teacher demonstrated a deep understanding of the developmental stage of the learners and adapted his pedagogic approach accordingly. This was extremely beneficial as this teacher seemed better equipped to handle learner misbehaviour and was more adept at classroom management and orchestrating classroom interactions. Furthermore it contributed to a stronger TLR and an increase in positive learner-initiated interactions.

At both schools a limited number of teachers indicated an awareness of a critical pedagogy approach in their teaching. This is problematic when the age and context of modern adolescents is taken into consideration. The rapid advancement of technology, global cultures, the internet, mass media and social media are all part of their reality. This necessitates the development of adolescents' critical reflection and/or -thinking skills as well as learner autonomy (Thomas et al., 2004). Teachers' pedagogy therefore ought to make room for developing habits such as: (i) questioning that which is often taken for granted and (ii) the ability to view something critically (Leach & Moon, 2008). Eventually this can help learners with responsible decision-making and to develop moral values.

7.5 TEACHER AFFECT

7.5.1 SCHOOL A

The affective tone of the classroom seems to set the tone for TLI. Teachers' emotional responses (positive or negative) have a similar effect on learner behaviour and participation thus serving as a "transformative agent" (Do & Lemonnier Schallert, 2004, p.631).

This was especially visible in the cases where the presence of positive teacher affect contributed to deeper insight and academic risk-taking on the part of the learners. This is in agreement with Mottet et al., (2006 cited in Titsworth et al., 2013) who state that affect contributes to learners' will to participate in approaching behaviours, and also with Do and Lemonnier Schallert (2004) who found that positive affect influences learners ability to listen deeply and also influences the extent to which they contribute to the discussion.

Teachers' affect was also communicated in terms of the expectations they had of their learners. Expectations are inferences that teachers make in terms of learners present and future academic achievement and behaviour (Brophy & Good, 1974). In this particular case a class was observed which was renowned for being challenging since they regularly displayed disruptive behaviours. In such cases teachers often become negatively orientated towards the class, and this then becomes visible in how teachers communicate on an affective level. It influences whether teachers are willing to connect with learners, and if they work hard at regulating their emotions or if they look for ways to build meaningful relationships that may eventually change the whole class. Teacher expectations become self-fulfilling prophecies when they function as an antecedent or cause of learner behaviour rather than as a result thereof (Brophy & Good, 1974). High-expectation teachers were more prone to ask open-ended questions, making a higher demand on learners' cognitive reasoning. On the other hand, low-expectation teachers generally struggled to get learners engaged in learning activities. This relates to the research of Van Manen (1999) who is of opinion that teacher belief has the strength to transform a learner, where negative beliefs can weaken and positive beliefs can strengthen learner performance.

Displays of negative affect such as being resentful, signs of irritation, reprimanding learners with a negative expectation, shouting and excessive anger promote resistance, conflict, and non-compliant learner behaviour. Continuous negative affect may contribute to the stress level of teachers. Yoon (2002) recognises the link between teacher stress, negative affect and negative relationships. She argues that these three concepts are reciprocal. Teachers have to build their socio-emotional skills (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009) to combat negative affect, thereby creating a safe learning environment, minimising learner disruptions and making learning more enjoyable.

7.5.2 SCHOOL B

One teacher acknowledged that emotions “*make or break a class*”. This once again stresses how highly influential emotions are in classroom interactions. Teachers also recognised the importance of positive emotions such as “*acceptance*” and “*compassion*” that could “*open channels*” or “*enhance interaction*” and the risks, compared to negative emotions such as “*anger*” and “*resentment*”, which could “*block channels*” and were considered “*dangerous*”. This admission highlights the need to develop teachers’ interpersonal skills, as these skills enable teachers to work effectively with their learners (Lahtinen, 2008), especially in challenging circumstances. Learners also recognised these skills in terms of the most important teacher qualities when they included “*emotional strength*”, “*people skills*” and “*understanding situation*” in their responses.

In this particular school teachers made specific reference to external influences that affect their affective state in the classroom. Factors such as personal struggles (death, divorce, financial troubles), tiredness (including stress), and experiences with other classes were considered problematic, as they influenced the affective state of the teachers, making them less resilient, moody and causing them to be less open to learner interaction. Because teachers’ personal lives and recent experiences are continually in the background, they are often vulnerable when teaching. Although researchers acknowledge that personal factors impact individual behaviour (Do & Lemonnier Schallert, 2004), the possibility of regulating difficult or negative emotions that may sprout from personal factors, is rarely discussed (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

The class which I observed was identified as a difficult class to teach. As time progressed it became obvious that most teachers seemed negatively orientated towards the class. Teachers were intolerant and curt at times. When looking at the context of school B, it is obvious that academic achievement is considered important. A possible explanation is that teachers might have unrealistic expectations of their learners, especially in terms of academic performance. Unrealistic expectations often contribute to teacher frustration and negative feelings (Lahtinen, 2008) which may be even more so in cases where teachers have to comply with or experience external pressures such as school standards. Another explanation is found in the research of Brophy and Good (1974) who caution that teacher expectations can become self-fulfilling prophecies when teachers treat learners negatively based on what they have heard instead of what they have personally experienced or observed. When teachers treat learners based on

these expectations, learners tend to respond with negative actions such as misbehaviour, non-compliance or disruptiveness.

7.5.3 TEACHER AFFECT: COMPARING FINDINGS

At both schools negative teacher expectations seemed to influence teachers' perceptions of the learners. However at School A, these expectations seemed to emanate from a lack of "legitimate power" (French & Raven, 1959), whereas at School B, these expectations seemed to emanate from contextual factors such as the pressure to obtain high academic results. Unrealistic expectations are dangerous as they contribute to teacher frustration and negative feelings (Lahtinen, 2008) consequently spilling over into classroom interactions. Irrespective of the source, expectations become problematic especially they influence the teacher's view of the class or a specific learner and eventually permeate teacher behaviour.

Findings at both School A and School B highlight either the need for high levels of teacher and learner EI or sufficient EI strategies. These interrelated emotional, personal and social abilities make individuals more resilient when it comes to coping with demands and pressures (Bar-On, 2000). EI may also assist with emotion regulation and emotional reasoning (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) which may be useful in instances where teachers need to "repair" their mood, either when they have had a disturbing experience, or when they experience failure (Salovey et al., 1993 cited in Mayer & Salovey, 1993).

In School B there seemed to be lesser degrees of teacher proximity. Once again it can be argued that this may be due to the "legitimate power" position (French & Raven, 1959) that teachers hold. Consequently it seems that when teachers do not have to invest so much in terms of the affective domain to build the TLR, this can have positive or negative consequences. On the positive side teachers may regulate their emotions more easily as the TLR is more neutral. However, on the negative side a weak TLR (in terms of affective qualities) may cause teachers to eventually have less influence over their learners especially in terms of motivating learners, inspiring them and also encouraging the development of learner potential.

7.6 COMMUNICATION

7.6.1 SCHOOL A

Apart from general verbal communications that form part of teachers' pedagogic practice, it seems as if emotion (Aspelin, 2006; Gorman, 1974) and non-verbal actions (Aspelin, 2006; Winch-Dummett, 2006; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005) contributed greatly to how teachers and learners communicate with one another in the classroom.

What was however seen as significant was how teachers altered their voices in terms of pitch and tone to achieve a variety of pedagogical outcomes. Examples included emphasising the room for potential error; focussing learners' attention on specific aspects of the content; making sure that knowledge transfer occurs successfully; entertaining learners, showing disapproval, and hurrying learners up. The way teachers alter their tone when teaching should therefore receive more attention as it forms a significant part of teachers' teaching repertoire in their interaction with learners whether teaching, managing or building relationships with their learners.

The core of effective communication however seems to centre around the existing TLR. In cases where a strong TLR was observed, effective communication flowed with ease barely leaving room for misunderstanding and misrepresentation. On the contrary, where teachers and learners did not seem to have a good relationship, messages were often misunderstood. Gorman (1974, p.26) says that teacher communication patterns include intent, message and reception. Messages can however be "received" differently since TLRs differ with regard to closeness and conflict (Thijs et al., 2011). In high conflict relationships messages are more prone to being received or interpreted as negative both by teachers and learners. This may lead to the deterioration of positive TLLs and negatively affect learners' learning.

7.6.2 SCHOOL B

In one response on quality classroom interaction, a teacher responded by stating that: *"It must be a two way communication... Teaching is not a 'spectator sport'."* This rightfully captures a crucial element of both interaction and communication, namely that it should be shared. Simultaneously, however it also underlines a potential threat, namely that teachers could dominate communications in the classroom.

In terms of the observations, themes emerged including teachers' use of language (*what* teachers say), teachers' voice use (*how* they say it), the influence of questions in interactions both by teachers and learners, as well as the body language (non-verbal aspects) of communications. Teachers' use of language exhibited positive emotional nuances (motivating learners) and also negative nuances (being defensive). Teachers' communication behaviours have the potential to meaningfully impact learners' emotions (Titsworth et al., 2013). This, once again, highlights the importance of teachers being socially and emotionally competent (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009), as their emotions are strongly connected with approaches and revealed when they communicate in the classroom.

Also, the findings are in agreement with the findings of other researchers such as Rubie-Davies, 2007; Wedin, 2010; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005; Kyuchukov, 1999; Alderman & Green, 2011; Morganett, 1991, regarding the role of communication when it comes to teachers' pedagogical practices. These aspects include questioning techniques, feedback and facilitating strategies, recalling information, error correction, and reprimanding learners. It seems as if communication directs the flow of interaction in the classroom, especially in terms of the teaching and learning activities.

In terms of the learners' responses, understanding was seen as the most important facet of communication. Understanding could be interpreted as having both a relational: "*So that everyone understand each other better*" or pedagogical undertone: "*So you can have a better understanding*". Here, understanding not only becomes a prerequisite for effective knowledge transfer, but also turns out to be a building block in the relationship between teachers and learners. This connection has not been made in research and should be further investigated.

Communication plays a significant role when it comes to determining the nature of TLIs. One learner stated that: "*It enables students and teachers to interact with each other*", thereby rightfully putting communication at the heart of a quality classroom environment (Levy et al., 1984 in Polk 2006).

7.6.3 COMMUNICATION: COMPARING FINDINGS

The findings at School A and School B with regard to this category seem to overlap strongly. In both cases, teachers' voice tone and pitch were utilized as powerful tools to encourage or

diminish positive TLIs. This recognises the need for awareness regarding paralinguistic aspects and how these can effectively be used to improve communication.

Also at both schools teachers affective states were communicated via their verbal or non-verbal messages, thus highlighting the connection between communication, affect and teacher behaviour.

The most valuable conclusion reached with regard to this category, was realising the importance of *understanding*. The data revealed understanding to be a core component of pedagogical and relational interactions and that clear, quality and effective communication inevitably depends on the extent to which understanding takes place. However the significance thereof has thus far not been recognised in research pertaining to TLI or communication in classrooms.

7.7 LEARNER BEHAVIOUR

7.7.1 SCHOOL A

Across the various subjects learners' behaviour reached both sides of a positive versus negative continuum. In some instances, the learners displayed exceptionally compliant and responsive behaviour and also demonstrated high levels of quality inputs in classroom activities. In other instances, they misbehaved completely, being disruptive, provocative and non-compliant. Learners' behaviour seems to reflect their teachers' behaviour at a specific time and in a specific class. Le Cornu and Collins (2004) posit that learners' participatory and non-participatory behaviour is strongly related to teacher's actions and behaviour. This suggests that teachers, who manage or control their emotions, work at maintaining a positive classroom atmosphere and purposefully build TLRs, will reap positive and constructive behaviour from their learners.

A variety of learners' behavioural styles (Birch & Ladd, 1998) can be seen across the various classroom contexts. In classes with positive TLIs, learners tended to display prosocial behaviour (moving toward). They were more willing to attempt difficult questions, engaged in academic risk-taking and generally displayed higher levels of learner participation. In classes with few positive TLIs, learners generally displayed asocial (moving away) or antisocial (moving against) behaviours. They deliberately provoked negative teacher responses, were uncooperative and defiant. Regardless of the teachers' attempts to regain control of negative interactions they seemed to spiral downward as teachers struggled to alter the course of the negative interaction. This confirms what Nelson and Roberts (2002) found, namely that disruptive behaviour tends to

elicit negative teacher responses. Teacher disapproval may become a reinforcer of negative learner behaviour where learners elicit high amounts of teacher disapproval in contexts where positive attention is rare (Baker et al., 1978).

Learners tend to evoke different responses from teachers (Nurmi, 2012). However, where teachers effectively regulate their emotions and behaviour they become less susceptible to negative learner characteristics and therefore affect TLIs positively.

7.7.2 SCHOOL B

What became apparent at School B was learners' strong sense of independence and individuality. Learners displayed high degrees of self-confidence, which was observed both through positive and negative actions. It seemed as if learners did not lack the courage to stand up for themselves, to confront peers, to question teachers or to voice their individual opinions. It is however uncertain whether this sense of independence originates from the ethos of the school, the culture of the learners, the community in which they live, their home environment or other unknown influences. All that was found, is that group attributes such as social class, race and gender influence teachers perceptions of their learners (Brophy & Good, 1974), thus creating room for conflict or tension in interactions if the attributes are in opposition to or differ greatly from those of the teacher. Additionally, learner characteristics tend to evoke different responses from teachers (Nurmi, 2012). Therefore, if one takes into account cultural differences, some teachers may for instance perceive learners as defiant or disrespectful, whereas with another teacher this may not be the case. This may also be more evident in cases where the teachers and learners have a different home language, since language usage often creates room for misinterpretation (Winch-Dummett, 2006). At School B learners were mostly taught by teachers with different home languages from their own.

Learners demonstrated a variety of positive and negative behaviours. The positive behaviours included responding to the teachers' error corrections, making jokes with one another or the teacher, assisting the teacher with disciplinary actions and working together to solve problems, apologising and immediately responding to the teachers' commands. Moreover, learners demonstrated a high regard for behaviour when it came to defining positive classroom interactions. Their responses highlighted three behavioural aspects, namely paying attention, being disciplined and participation. This demonstrates that even if they choose not to comply,

they still have knowledge of what is expected of them, which once again underlines the power of expectations.

On the other hand, learners' negative behaviours included competing against one another, challenging the teacher's authority, being aggressive, throwing objects around, making disturbing whistling noises, making fun of one another, back-chatting and not responding to teacher instruction. Once again it was observed that disruptive learner behaviour resulted in negative teacher responses (Nelson & Roberts, 2002), causing classroom interactions to spiral downward.

From the observations it became clear that learners tended to display higher levels of disruptiveness in certain classes, particularly the Maths class. Regardless of the attempts by the teacher to motivate the learners, to regulate her emotions and to focus learners' attention, some learners still remained off task or non-compliant. One possible explanation for this may be learners' inability to perform academically. Myhill (2002) concluded after research that underachievers are more inclined to participate in off-task interactions, which might have been the case in this specific class as learners may have felt inept and discouraged, which may have resulted in an increase in disruptive behaviour.

7.7.3 LEARNER BEHAVIOUR: COMPARING FINDINGS

From the findings at School A it became evident that the nature of the TLR and teacher proximity can have a powerful influence on learner behaviour. Where the TLR between teachers and learners was negative, there was a significant increase in misbehaviour, non-compliance and disruptive behaviour which, coincided with negative affective teacher behaviours. However, where a strong TLR existed, learners seemed to be engaged in learning activities, and were self-disciplined and compliant.

From the findings it appears that learners at School B demonstrate higher levels of independence and self-esteem. Although it is uncertain what the source of the individualistic behaviour is, this does highlight an important aspect, namely that one should recognise the influence of contextual factors on human behaviour. This is specifically relevant for teachers who do not live in the immediate environment of the school (where most learners usually live), as this may to a certain extent limit teachers' understanding of their learners and the societal influences that have the potential to affect their behaviour.

One teacher at School A demonstrated an understanding of the adolescent developmental phase. If and when teachers are well acquainted with the adolescent phase and possess knowledge and understanding regarding this process of change, they may be better equipped to for instance handle learners who deliberately disobey instructions or challenge their authority.

What is uncertain with regard to both School A and School B is the extent to which the culture of the teacher, school and the learners respectively influence the behaviours of the parties involved. At School A it appeared as if the culture of the learners and the teachers had a bigger effect on the TLI, whereas at School B, it predominantly seemed to be the culture of the school. It is however unsure as to how and to which degree a lack of cultural understanding or unseen cultural barriers may influence learners' behaviour and ultimately TLIs.

7.8 RELATIONAL ASPECTS AND HUMAN QUALITIES

7.8.1 SCHOOL A

Aspects relating to the TLR were found to be primary regarding the nature of classroom interactions. Where teachers seemed to effectively control or regulate their emotions, display positive qualities, or invested in the TLR teachers and learners seemed to get along well. Learners then, were receptive, responsive, disciplined and eager to participate in classroom activities. They also reached out to the teacher and shared from personal experiences. The classroom environment seemed to be free from quarrelling and it appeared as if learners genuinely enjoyed the lessons presented by their teacher. This is in line with Spilt et al. (2011) who maintained that a positive TLR contributes to the emotional environment in the class. The findings also relate to research aspects such as the level of teacher involvement, the degree of teacher proximity, teacher influence and the emotional receptivity of teachers that altogether influences the process of relationship building between teachers and learners (Spilt et al., 2011; Nurmi, 2012, Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005 & Yoon, 2002).

From the research questionnaires learners identified relationship building as crucial to successful classroom interaction. Deliberately getting to know one another, having background knowledge of learners, as well as relational qualities such as respect and trust were recognized as important. The relational qualities specifically agree with research by Opdenakker & Van Damme (2006), Mokhele (2006), and Berliner, (2004). Learners also said that teachers should be positive, and demonstrate passion and enjoyment when learners come to class as this

positively influences interaction. Their responses on the most important teacher characteristics included: “*understanding*”, “*love*”, “*patience*”, “*kind*” and “*fairness*”.

From the observations, it became evident that constructive characteristics and positive teacher qualities benefitted teachers when it came to creating a safe classroom environment. Teachers who demonstrated self-control, care, helpfulness, friendliness, understanding and who were funny or humorous were more successful at establishing a learning climate where learners felt safeguarded and subsequently open for academic nurturing. Similar characteristics that have been identified from studies in the field that are regarded as favourable include teachers’ passion for teaching, their sensitivity, whether they are personable, tender-heartedness, charisma, whether they are funny, flexible, committed and non-judgemental (Alderman & Green, 2011; Witty, 1947 in Strong, 2011; Kennedy, 2011; Kennedy, 2006; Polk, 2006; Berliner, 2004).

Where an obvious positive relationship was absent between teachers and their learners, learners displayed higher levels of misbehaviour, whereas teachers tended to display higher levels of negative affective qualities. Negative behaviours or interactions seemed to be dyadic thus reinforcing one another. Factors such as the level of conflict, affective qualities, problem behaviours and disrespect tend to increase teachers experience of negative affect (Nurmi, 2012; Birch & Ladd, 1998; Thijs et al., 2008 & Spilt et al., 2011).

What appears to be fundamental in establishing a healthy TLR is teachers’ ability to develop and utilize their interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge to maintain and establish successful relationships (Collinson, 1996). It becomes clear that higher levels of emotional intelligence enable teachers to better reflect on their behaviours and more adept at interpreting situations in the classroom. This then assists them in choosing the correct course of action which is especially important with those that they share unfavorable relationships with (Lahtinen, 2008).

It was seen that where teachers effectively establish a warm and healthy TLR, learning is positively affected and learners experience a greater sense of belonging. The same was found by Osborn (1996 in Zembylas, 2005) and Jennings and Greenberg (2009). Teachers should thus take care as the TLR develops from daily interactions between teachers and learners (Pennings et al., 2013). Through building effective relationships, classroom interactions are positively affected (Gorman, 1974) therefore making relational aspects central to the discussion on the nature of teacher learner classroom interaction.

7.8.2 SCHOOL B

Learners come to class with emotional needs. Although it cannot be expected of teachers to meet all these needs, teachers can to a certain extent create a welcoming environment where learners feel accepted. Demonstrating affective qualities and wilfully investing in the TLR, is not only crucial to connect with learners and to establish warm relationships, but as we now see, innately forms a part of teachers teaching repertoires.

At school B, teachers barely recognized affective qualities or actions such as making connections with learners, being warm and welcoming or emotionally investing in the TLR as imperative to establish healthy TLRs. One possible explanation is that teachers viewed power as more prominent in the TLR, whilst holding balance and reciprocity in high esteem.

In cases of difficult classes, teachers may choose to maintain a strong power relationship rather than investing in affective relationships as this may aid them when managing their classes or to maintain discipline. However, this may be problematic in the long run, as the level of teachers' emotional involvement as well as the degree of teacher influence and relational proximity (Spilt et al., 2011; Nurmi, 2012; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005) positively influences the TLR. This then eventually benefits teachers in terms of well-being (Yan et al., 2011), learners in terms of development (Moritz et al., 2009) and generally improves the classroom environment (Spilt et al., 2011).

In line with the emphasis on the power relationship between teachers and learners, both learner and teacher references to qualities seem to support the findings mentioned above. Learners identified "*patience*", "*fairness*" and "*kindness*" as the most important teacher qualities. This is in line with Jenkins & Lippit (1952) who found that adolescents particularly dislike unfairness (cited in Nordberg et al., 1962). Teachers included: "*self-discipline*", "*mutual respect*", "*obedient*", "*self-control*", "*the willingness to learn*", and "*co-operative*" as important learner qualities. Inherently, some of these qualities seem to reflect teachers' power position over learners, whilst others, place the onus on the learner to control their behaviour. Teachers practically recognized the need for learners to apply individual emotional skills or competencies such as impulse control and goal setting (Defalco, 1997) thereby recognizing the importance of learners to develop their own EI, that may eventually contribute to more positive TLI.

7.8.3 RELATIONAL ASPECTS AND HUMAN QUALITIES: COMPARING FINDINGS

It was mentioned earlier that “referent power” (French & Raven, 1959) is based on the relationship between the teacher and the learners. Consequently it can be argued that the stronger the relationship between the teacher and the learners is, the greater the ability of the teacher to maintain control and direct interactions so as to promote the learning experience.

The findings, particularly from School A, revealed that in cases where the teacher demonstrated positive affective qualities, this not only influenced the emotional climate in the class, but also contributed to higher levels of learner engagement and performance. The exact opposite was the case with negative affective qualities that usually incited negative and disruptive learner behaviour causing a decline in TLI.

At School B, teachers barely recognized affective qualities as significant when establishing the TLR. Neglecting the influence of the interpersonal sphere of EI may have a damaging effect on the TLR and ultimately TLIs. When individuals demonstrate high levels of interpersonal intelligence, they are more adept at identifying and weighing the intentions, moods and temperaments of others (Hatch, 1997) thereby making them more proficient when it comes to observing, analysing and directing emotions in others. This may not only provide teachers with direction in classroom interactions, but may also aid them when they are faced with high intensity emotional situations that place higher demands on their emotional regulation and reasoning abilities. This highlights the notion of building one’s EI as it encourages positive affective behaviours and contributes to more quality relationships.

7.9 FINDINGS AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Within this study, Emotional Intelligence Theory was identified as a suitable framework and probable angle to help me gain greater clarity, insight and understanding into the phenomenon being studied. EIT seemed a highly suitable “lens” through which to view the data through as classroom interactions depend on interpersonal relationships.

From the findings, it could be seen that EIT can specifically be ascribed to categories such as Power, Affect, Teacher Behaviour, Learner Behaviour, Teacher and Learner Characteristics and also Relational Aspects.

Regulating one's emotions and reasoning in emotional processes can help teachers to maintain a healthy power relationship in the class and assist teachers with classroom management and control. It can also aid teachers with monitoring their behaviour in challenging situations, especially when learners display a high degree of disruptive behaviour. Fernández-Berrocal and Ruiz (2008) found that if teachers want to manage the psychological state of their learners, they first have to manage their own emotional state well. Also individuals who are able to regulate their own affect, seem to be able to repair their moods more quickly and effectively after experiencing failure and/or disturbing experiences (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey and Palfai, 1993 cited in Mayer & Salovey, 1993). This will be advantageous especially when teachers have to continue with a lesson after a severe disruption or an unpleasant incident.

It also seems as if higher levels of personal intelligence (interpersonal- and intrapersonal intelligence) benefit teachers' in terms of their affective capacity which may contribute to more positive behavioural outcomes or alternatively positive interactions. Fundamentally, interpersonal intelligence refers to the ability to notice the motivations, intentions, thoughts, moods and temperaments of others (Hatch, 1997, p.71), whereas *intrapersonal* intelligence refers to the process of being able to introspectively access our own feelings, discriminate between them and to draw upon them to guide individual behaviour (Gardner, 1989 as cited in Goleman, 1996). Higher levels of EI might assist teachers with observing, analysing and directing positive as well as negative emotions in themselves and their learners thereby making them more adept at directing or redirecting interactions to achieve the necessary learning outcomes or maintain TLRs.

EI Competencies and relational skills can assist teachers with building the TLR. Teachers who display higher levels of EI tend to demonstrate greater aptness in terms of emotional competency and are able to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change (Bar-On, 2007). Competencies or skills such as emotional awareness, assertiveness, empathy, stress tolerance, flexibility, problem-solving, optimism, happiness, mood regulation and hope (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1996) are only a few that can benefit teachers especially in emotionally charged contexts. Strong TLRs once again affects the quality of learning and the also TLI.

EI also benefit teachers in terms of emotional health, as it helps them cope with day-to-day situations in their classrooms. They do however have to practice stress tolerance and impulse

control so that they can manage their emotions more effectively (Jacobs, Kemp & Mitchell, 2008). Learners also benefit greatly from teachers' EI. Teachers should work at establishing a classroom atmosphere where learners can develop their emotional and social competence (Greenberg & Snell, 1997).

EI may also help teachers to “better grasp the whole learner” (Mayer & Cobb, 2000, p.178) and early identification of low EI levels may assist teachers with better means to develop necessary interventions (Williams et al., 2009). Fernández-Berrocal and Ruiz (2008) have identified the connection between lower levels of learner EI and behaviour problems. They argue that one of the following usually encourages behavioural problems in learners: poor interpersonal relationships, lack of psychological well-being, poor academic performance or disruptive behaviours.

EIT is regarded as a suitable framework for this study, since the EI of the participants in a classroom setting can directly influence the quality, extent and nature of interaction in the classroom. From the findings it also seems to have a direct influence on the educational outcomes in the classroom as well as the nature of the relationship between teachers and learners.

7.10 LIMITATIONS

Instead of only referring to the limitations of the study I will use the term challenges. One challenge was to determine a “borderline” when it came to reviewing the literature as so many aspects of research on education can be included in the scope of TLI as this phenomenon comprises a wide range of aspects.

Another challenge was to “break” interaction up into constituent parts without losing or altering the intent of the initial interaction. The multifaceted reciprocal nature of the phenomenon often made it extremely difficult to break up a sequential interaction and even harder to “label” or categorize parts thereof.

One limitation of the study was the way in which respondents from the two schools respectively completed the teacher and learner questionnaires. At School A only three of the teachers completed the questionnaires whereas at School B nine of the teachers completed the questionnaires. Also in the case of the former, the responses seemed rushed/hurried whereas in

case of the latter, teachers completed the research questionnaire thoroughly and provided a lot of detail. A similar tendency could be observed with regard to the learner questionnaires. Learners at School A copied one another's answers, whilst others handed in questionnaires that were incomplete. This may have had an effect on the depth and intensity of the analysis as the data gathered from the research questionnaires at School B provided me with more insight and understanding of that particular context and consequently the nature of the TLIs.

Lastly, the research from both schools was conducted in classes that were known for their disciplinary problems. This may prove to be a limitation with regard to certain aspects of the phenomenon as there may be other factors or aspects involved in classes that have not been characterised in such a manner.

7.11 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Although this study has addressed numerous aspects of the nature of teacher-learner classroom interactions, some questions and/or possibilities remains unexplored thus leaving room for further investigation.

This study highlights the possibility of high teacher EI assisting teachers with effectively controlling their behaviour and regulating their emotions. One suggestion is to identify and devise intervention strategies that could assist teachers with building emotional resiliency. Possible strategies that have enjoyed attention from researchers includes: generally educating teachers in terms of EIT (Perry & Ball, 2007; Jacobs et al., 2008); the ability to effectively regulate emotions (Sutton, Mudrey-Camino & Knight, 2009); increasing teachers' levels of positive regard and affirmation, as well as developing the quality of the TLR (Jolly, Aluede & Ojugo, 2009; Elbot & Fulton, 2008; Morrow, 1991; Sava, 2002).

At both schools, it becomes evident that teachers can only benefit from empowering themselves with strategies or skills to counter possible negative learner actions and/or behaviours or to promote positive TLI. In this way, teachers may also protect themselves from acting badly when confronted with highly emotional situations which may either result from personal factors or classroom interactions. Eventually, EI knowledge and/or skills can and should be transferred to their learners to support the development of learners' EI.

The rapid change that society is facing, especially in terms of technological advancements, increases the demand on teachers to constantly change and adapt. Consequently, teachers have to ask themselves regularly how they can increase their levels of adaptability as this may help them to be more fluid in their interactions whilst keeping up with these modern and rapid changing times. Currently, the findings revealed that a metaphorical crevice exists between teachers and learners as teachers rarely experiment with different teaching strategies or technology in their classrooms. This leaves room for exploring possible barriers that teachers may face when working with today's adolescents.

Views of pedagogy and power have evolved over time. The focus has been transferred to empowering learners to become, amongst others, critical, autonomous and reflective thinkers. However teachers' teaching practices rarely reflected the wilful inclusion of facets pertaining to a critical pedagogy approach. Possible questions for future research include, whether and to which extent teachers recognise the need for empowering learners and how their pedagogical practices can be altered to encourage a more critical stance.

Furthermore, room exists to study the connection between the teacher-learner power relationship and the formation of boundaries. It is unclear as to which extent different teachers' boundaries correlate and/or differ and where these boundaries primarily originate from.

7.12 CONCLUSION

In this chapter an attempt was made to respond to my initial research questions. In order to do so, the overall findings were compared with the relevant literature. Furthermore, the findings from both School A and School B were also compared with one another in order to consider possible aspects of the phenomenon that have not been ascertained and to determine the extent to which context eventually influences TLIs. The findings further uncovered the interrelated nature of the of teacher-learner classroom interaction phenomenon.

The relevancy and applicability of the chosen theoretical framework, Emotional Intelligence Theory was also discussed. EIT seems to be a suitable framework for this study. EI skills and competencies have the potential to strongly influence teacher and learner behaviours, communication and relationships, thus consequently enhancing classroom interactions.

Based on the findings, I have also suggested recommendations for directions for further research, specifically referring to critical pedagogy and learner empowerment and have identified possible limitations to this particular study.

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ADDENDA

ADDENDUM A



UNIVERSITEIT-STELLENBOSCH-UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner 18 October 2012

Tel.: 021 - 808-9003
Enquiries: Mrs S. Oberholzer
Email: oberholzer@sun.ac.za

Reference No. DESC_Pretorius 2012

Ms L Pretorius
Faculty of Education

LETTER OF ETHICS CLEARANCE

With regard to your application, **DESC_Pretorius2012** I would like to inform you that the project, "*The nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction: the roles of affect, pedagogy, and power*", was approved on the following proviso's:

The researcher will remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings made in terms of the confidentiality of the information gathered.

1. The research will again be submitted for ethical clearance if there is any substantial departure from the existing proposal.
2. The researcher will remain within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of research.
3. The researcher will consider and implement the foregoing suggestions to lower the ethical risk associated with the research.
4. This ethics clearance is valid for one year from **18 October 2012 – 17 October 2013**

We wish you success with your research activities.

Best regards

MRS S. OBERHOLZER

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humaniora)
Registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council (NHREC): REC-050411-032



Afdeling Navorsingsontwikkeling • Division for Research Development

Privaatsak/Private Bag X1 • Matieland 7602 • Suid-Afrika/South Africa
Tel: +27 21 808 9184 • Faks/Fax: +27 21 883 9027
www.sun.ac.za/research

ADDENDUM B



Directorate: Research

Audrey.wyngaard2@pgwc.gov.za

tel: +27 021 467 9272

Fax: 0865902282

Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20120827-0033

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Lizelle Pretorius
Education Faculty
Department: Educational Psychology
Stellenbosch University

Dear Ms Lizelle Pretorius

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: THE NATURE OF TEACHER-LEARNER CLASSROOM INTERACTION: THE ROLES OF AFFECT, PEDAGOGY AND POWER

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Approval for projects should be conveyed to the District Director of the schools where the project will be conducted.
5. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
6. The Study is to be conducted from **01 August 2013 till 28 September 2013**
7. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
9. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
10. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
11. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
12. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**

DATE: 12 September 2012

Lower Parliament Street, Cape Town, 8001
tel: +27 21 467 9272 fax: 0865902282
Safe Schools: 0800 45 46 47

Private Bag X9114, Cape Town, 8000
Employment and salary enquiries: 0861 92 33 22
www.westerncape.gov.za

School B: Principal Informed Consent

RE: Lizelle Pretorius Navorsing 2013

Sent: Wednesday, September 12, 2012 10:33 AM

To: Pretorius, L, Mej <14976137@sun.ac.za>

Geagte Mej. Pretorius

Jy het my toestemming om die navorsing hier by [REDACTED] te doen.

Al wat ek moet onderstreep is dat u die WKOD se toestemmingsbrief moet verskaf sodat ek die nodige daarmee kan doen.

Voorspoed met jou navorsing.

Vriendelike groete

[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

ADDENDUM D

School A: Learner Consent Form



STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS (LEARNERS)

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT: *The nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction: the role of affect (emotions), pedagogy (teaching) and power.*

RESEARCHER: Lizélie Pretorius

ADDRESS: [REDACTED]

EMAIL: [REDACTED]

What is this research project about?

This study focusses (holistically) on classroom interaction (communication) between teachers and learners. The aim of the research is to develop a greater understanding about the processes involved in interaction as displayed in a classroom setting. With this study I hope to shed new light on the importance of effective classroom interaction and on the importance of teacher-learner relationships in order to eventually improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

Why are we asking you to participate in this research project?

The best place to obtain information (data) for this study is in a school context, within a classroom. This is an environment where the natural phenomenon of classroom interaction occurs daily. Through your participation, as well as the participation of your classmates and teachers, I hope to collect the necessary information to complete my study.

Who will do the research?

I, Lizelle Pretorius, will conduct the research myself. This research forms a part of a Master's Degree in Education (Learning Support) in coalition with Stellenbosch University's Educational Psychology Department. I took the challenge of doing this study because it is important for me as a teacher to have a thorough understanding of interaction between teachers and learners.

What is going to happen to you (the participant)?

I am going to join you in class for 6-8 consecutive schooldays from **12 Aug 2013 to 23 Aug 2013**. I will literally be attending every period with you, your classmates and your teachers over this timespan. I am not going to participate in any classroom activities, for my aim is to only observe and record what happens (every period) in terms of interaction and communication. On the last day, I am going to ask you to complete a simple questionnaire about classroom interaction. This will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Can anything go wrong?

I am of the opinion that nothing will happen to you as an individual while participating in the study. This study does not hold any risk or pose any threat to you as the participant.

What positive affect will the study have on the participants?

There are no immediate/direct advantages or compensation for you as participant in the study. However, I do hope that in the long-term this study will have a genuine effect on how teachers and learners get along with one another in the classroom. Hopefully, new ideas and ways may be obtained to improve the relationship between teachers and learners in order for learning and teaching to occur optimally.

Will anybody know that you are participating in the study?

All information that will be recorded by means of observation or the questionnaires are highly confidential and protecting your anonymity is very important to me. Codes will be used when recording information and no mention will be made of any individual's names. For example L1 may be used for 'learner 1' and T for 'teacher'. The data that will be collected is for personal use and will only be accessed/viewed by me and my supervisor (Mrs. Perold) for analysis.

Who can I contact if I have questions about the study?

If you have any questions regarding the study, you can contact me via email at [REDACTED]. You are also welcome to contact my supervisor Mrs. Perold at Stellenbosch University during work hours. Her number is [REDACTED] and her email address is [REDACTED].

What happens if I do not want to participate?

Participation in this study is voluntary and it is your choice if you want to participate in this research process. You are welcome to withdraw from the study at any time during the research process without getting into trouble. Lastly, you do have the right to refuse participation even though your parent/guardian has given their consent for your participation in the study. You may also withdraw from the study without any aversive consequences.

If you and/or your parents/legal guardians do not grant consent for your participation in this study, no notes will be made on your behaviours or communications in any of the classrooms.

Please complete the following in order to give your formal consent to the research process:

PLEASE NOTE: *If you do not feel comfortable to answer YES at question 1-3 below, or if you are uncertain about ANYTHING please contact me before you give your consent.*

1. I understand what the research study is about and want to participate:

 YES NO

2. The researcher has answered all of my questions:

 YES NO

3. I understand that I can withdraw from participating in the study at any time:

 YES NO

Name: _____

Surname: _____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

ADDENDUM E

School A: Parent Consent Form



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STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH (PARENT/GUARDIAN)

The nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction: The role of affect (emotions), pedagogy and power.

Your consent is being asked, in order that your child/dependant may participate in a research study that will be conducted by Miss Lizélie Pretorius (student with the Department of Educational Psychology - Stellenbosch University). The findings will be included in a thesis that serves part of the requirements to obtain a Master's degree in Education (Learning Support).

Your child has been selected as a potential participant, as observation in the classroom provides an ideal opportunity to study and record interaction between teachers and learners in a classroom context. The data, gathered by this means, will then be analysed and interpreted at a later stage.

1. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to investigate the nature of interaction between teachers and learners as displayed in everyday classrooms.

2. PROCEDURES

The researcher intends to spend 6-8 consecutive schooldays in your child/dependant's classroom (Grade 9). During this time period there will be an intense focus on the step by step interaction between teachers and learners. The researcher will note this down on paper. After the observation period a questionnaire will be handed out to participants for completion. This will take approximately 20 minutes to complete and will cover a range of questions which directly refers to and reflects the main research question.

If your child/dependant volunteers to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following:

1. Please read carefully through the following information and feel free to contact me if you have any questions.
2. You as parent need to grant consent for your child/dependant to participate in the study.

3. Your child/dependant needs to complete their (separate) consent form.

The study will take place 12 - 23 August 2013.

3. POSSIBLE RISKS AND DISCOMFORT

The research does not pose any threats or risks to the research participants (including teachers and learners). Additionally, the researcher does not foresee any form of discomfort on behalf of the participants. All that may be inconvenient is the physical presence of the researcher in the classroom. The researcher will under no circumstances converse with teachers if recordings refer to specific learners, and, the data that will be gathered will not be discussed with any teacher or learner. The researcher will also refrain from participating in any classroom activities. Most importantly, your child/dependant will not get into trouble with any teacher or the school based on the data that may be acquired through the research process. The idea is that school continues as normal.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The greatest advantage, although indirect, is that this research may provide an in-depth understanding and an extensive overview of the phenomenon under study. This may eventually lead to strategies to improve the quality of classroom interaction between teachers and learners. Ultimately, this may enhance quality teacher-learner relationships and contribute to more effective teaching and learning practices in classrooms.

5. COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study is voluntary. Participants will not receive remuneration for participating in the study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that will be obtained in connection with this study and that is related (directly or indirectly) to the participants will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of a coding system (e.g. T= teacher; and L1 for learner one). NO NAMES will appear on the research instruments including the questionnaires to be completed. It is however important to note that the gathered data will be utilized for research purposes. As a result, the researcher will have to analyse, interpret and ultimately report the findings of the study as required by the terms of the Masters in Education.

I would like to point out the involvement of my supervisor, especially during this phase of my research. Mrs. Mariechen Perold (affiliated with Stellenbosch University Educational Psychology Department) will support me and provide guidance during the crucial process of data analysis and will therefore have access to the data.

All participants as well as the identity of the school will be protected. Findings are confidential and anonymity will be maintained.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether you give consent to let your child/dependant participate in this study or not. If you allow him/her to willingly participate, he/she may withdraw from the study at any time without consequences of any kind. He/she may also refuse to answer any questions that they do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The researcher may withdraw the learner from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

If you choose not to give consent for your child/dependant to be part of this study, no information will be recorded regarding his/her behaviour or interaction in the classroom.

8. IDENTIFYING THE RESEARCHER(S)

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact me, Lizéle Pretorius, via email at [REDACTED]. You are also welcome to contact my supervisor mrs. Mariechen Perold at [REDACTED] during office hours or email her at mdperold@sun.ac.za.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, feel free to contact Ms Maléne Fouché (mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622) at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

**DECLARATION OF THE PARENT OR GUARDIAN OF THE PARTICIPANT
(LEARNER)**

The information above was described to me (parent/guardian) by Miss Lizéle Pretorius in English and I am in command of this language. I was also given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent that my child/dependant may participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of participant

Name of parent or guardian

Signature of parent/guardian

Date

DECLARATION OF THE RESEARCHER

I have explained the information given in this document to _____ . He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Researcher

Date

ADDENDUM F

School B: Teacher Consent Form



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STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

The nature of teacher-learner classroom interaction: The role of pedagogy, power and affect (emotions).

You are herewith being asked to participate in a research study that will be conducted by Miss Lizéle Pretorius, a Masters student with the Department of Educational Psychology at Stellenbosch University. The results will be included in a thesis that serves part of the requirements to obtain a Master's degree in Education (Learning Support).

You as teacher have been selected as a potential participant, as observation in the classroom provides an ideal opportunity to study and record interaction between teachers and learners in a classroom context. These records will then be utilised for analysis and interpretation at a later stage.

1. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to investigate the nature of interaction between teachers and their learners as displayed in everyday classrooms.

2. PROCEDURES

The researcher intends to spend 8 consecutive schooldays with one selected class in the classroom. During this time period there will be an intense focus on the step by step interaction between teachers and learners. The researcher will note this down on paper. After the observation period a questionnaire will be handed out to all participants (including teachers and learners) for completion. This will take approximately 20 minutes to complete and will cover a range of questions which directly refers to and reflects the main research question(s).

If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

1. Please read carefully through the following information and feel free to contact me if you have any questions.
2. As teacher you need to give your consent to participate in the study by signing this form at the end.

The study will take place from 26 August 2013 to 4 September 2013.

3. POSSIBLE RISKS AND DISCOMFORT

The research does not pose any threats or risks to the research participants (including teachers and learners). Additionally, the researcher does not foresee any form of discomfort on behalf of the participant. All that may be inconvenient is the physical presence of the researcher in the classroom. The data that have been gathered will not be discussed with any teacher or learner. The researcher will also refrain from participating in any classroom activities. The idea is that school continue as normal.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The greatest advantage, although indirect, is that this research may provide an in-depth understanding and an extensive overview of the phenomenon under study. This may eventually lead to strategies to improve the quality of classroom interaction between teachers and learners. Ultimately, this may enhance quality teacher-learner relationships and contribute to more effective teaching and learning practices in classrooms.

5. COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study is voluntary. Participants will not receive remuneration for participating in the study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that will be obtained in connection with this study and that directly or indirectly relates to you (as teacher) will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of a coding system (e.g. T= teacher; and L1 for learner one). NO NAMES will appear on the research instruments including the questionnaires to be completed. It is however important to note that the gathered data will be utilized for research purposes. As a result, the researcher will have to analyse, interpret and ultimately report the findings of the study as required by the terms of the Masters in Education.

I would like to point out the involvement of my supervisor especially during this important phase of my research. Mrs. Mariechen Perold (affiliated with Stellenbosch University Educational Psychology Department) will support me and provide guidance during the crucial process of data analysis, and will therefore have access to the data.

All participants as well as the identity of the school will be protected. Findings are confidential and anonymity will be maintained.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether or not to allow the researcher to observe in your classroom. If you agree to participate in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. If you choose to not give consent to participate in

this study, none of your behaviour or communication with learners will be noted and/or recorded in any way. Lastly, the researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFYING THE RESEARCHER(S)

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact me, Lizéle Pretorius, telephonically [REDACTED] via email, at [REDACTED]. You are also welcome to contact my supervisor Mrs. Mariechen Perold at [REDACTED] during office hours or email her at [REDACTED].

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, feel free to contact Ms Maléne Fouché (mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622) at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

DECLARATION OF THE PARTICIPANT (TEACHER)

The information above was described to me (the participant) by Miss Lizéle Pretorius in English and I am in command of this language. I was also given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby give my consent to participate in this study, and consequently permit the researcher to observe in my classroom over the period as mentioned above. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of participant

Signature of participant

Date

DECLARATION OF THE RESEARCHER

I have explained the information given in this document to _____ . He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Researcher

Date

ADDENDUM H

School A: Transcriptions and coding [Math lesson]

-other

Teacher says

Teacher does

Learner says

Learner does

D4 P2 - Math [A]

1A

Research Observation

School: A

Day & Period: D4/P2

Date: 15/8

Subject: Math

Teacher is writing on a black board while explaining the various math sums to the learners

T: Ok, so from yesterday I just want to go through these here... *-revision*

T: Write math sum on board. $(x^2 + 5x + 6)$ *black board -teaching strategy*

T: We've got how many terms there? *- question (lower order)*

L: 3 *answer recipr*

T: 3 terms. Can we do anything with this? *- confirm answer, question (higher order)*

L: No (shouts out) *answer reciprocal (correct)*

T: Continues...by taking something that is common? *- question.*

L: Yes *answer recipr. (wrong)*

T: No...not all of them have x.. not all of them can be divided by 5.. *- clarify*

L: Ohh *realise mistake*

T: So what we do is we have got 3 so it is called a trinomial. And therefore we have two sets of brackets. 2 Sets of brackets, you put x in the one and x in the other - that's the start of the sum. *- explanation - introduce new content*

T: ? Now what do we have to do? *- question (next step)*

L: Factors of 6. *recipr. → different answers → vocab / understand*

L: A block.

T: A block. What for? *- affirm what was taught - content ownership*

L: 6 and 1 *recipr. do not answer question.*

T: 6 times 1. Ok & what else? The factors of 6. *corrects question - no response time*

has done / used the same approach in previous lessons.

make eye contact not completely turning back on class

School B: Transcriptions and coding [Math lesson]

D7 P4 Maths [B]

Research Observation

School: B

Day & Period: D7/P4

Date: 3/9

Subject: Maths

contextual observation (NB) when analysing

Ls: [Walk in noisily after break]

T: Hey, shush, don't let me raise my voice → warning.

T: Shush, this is not the way you enter my classroom, remember [teacher standing at the front of the class] → address misbehaviour expectation compliance / co-operation.

Ls: Still noisy

T: Ok, lets stand quietly. Good morning gr 9's] - structuring activity.

respond to teacher (great back) — Ls: Good morning!

T: Please sit down — polite request

Ls: [Still noisy] — not responds

T: Sit down quickly — repeat command / instruction

Ls: [come into class after 2nd bell 2/3]

T: You are late → address late comers.

imitate teacher — L: Very late

T: Next time, I'm going to... → threat

T: Ok, books out, shush → command.

T: Books out please → request

learners noisy — [noise level high in class]

L: Mam, you said you were going to go over the test

praising teacher about test previous lesson — T: Listen, those who were late, [another learner who is late comes walking in as teacher speak] why are you late *?

honesty — L: Mam, no excuse

give learners opportunity to explain late coming. understood — disrespect? challenging?

ADDENDUM I

School A & B: Teacher Questionnaire



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Research Questionnaire for teachers

General Background Information (please complete/mark where necessary)				
Years in teaching profession	0-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11+ years
Gender	Female		Male	
Age				
Subject(s) (currently teaching gr. 9)				

Please complete the following questions:

1. How would you describe quality classroom interaction?

2. Do you think the implicit power relationship between teachers and learners influence classroom interaction?
If so, how?

3. Which learner characteristics or type of learner behaviour, in your opinion, have a **positive** effect on teacher-learner classroom interaction?

4. What are the main factors that **inhibit** effective classroom interaction?

5. To which extent do emotions (yours and learners) affect classroom interactions?

6. Pedagogy (including different teaching and learning styles, planning, the use of resources etc.) play a role in the teaching and learning process. What is your opinion about pedagogy and how it contributes to quality interaction between teachers and learners?

7. Which of the following concepts carry **the most weight** in terms of classroom interaction: the affective domain (emotions) of the teacher, the power relationship between teachers and learners, or, the established pedagogy of the teacher? Why do you say so?

8. Can you recall an incident with a class where classroom interaction did not go according to plan or got out of hand? What do you think was the main cause, and how did you handle this situation?

9. Is there a connection between classroom interaction and the teacher-learner relationship? Please elaborate...

10. Any other comment regarding classroom interaction?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CONTRIBUTION!

ADDENDUM J

School A & B: Learner Questionnaire



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Research Questionnaire for learners

Please fill in the following information before completing the questionnaire:

General Background Information:

Age:

Gender:

Race:

1. What, in your opinion, are the three most important qualities that a teacher should have?

2. What **characteristics** do you think will teachers ascribe to learners that positively influence teacher-learner classroom interactions?

3. What is your definition **positive classroom interaction**?

4. Classroom interaction form part of everyday schooling and is therefore part of your life 5 days a week. Do you think **communication** play an important role in this process? Why do you say so?

5. How would you describe **negative classroom interaction**?

6. How does positive classroom interaction **generally influence** the **relationship** that you have with your teachers?

7. Do you think classroom interaction **influences your learning**? Why?

Which of the following do you think contributes **the most** to quality classroom interactions?

A: The emotional state of the teacher.

B: The way that he/she teaches (including teaching methods, planning for lessons, or individual teaching style).

C: Teachers' ability to effectively maintain and execute the power relationship that automatically exists between teachers and learners.

D: All of the above.

Please motivate your answer:

9. Any other applicable comment or remark?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CONTRIBUTION!

ADDENDUM K

School A: Research Observations [sub-themes A-J]

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
Lesson Structure	Knowledge Transfer	Learner Response	Language use	Adaptability	Teacher Negative Actions	Class Atmosphere	Teacher Voice use	Exam referral	Teacher Questioning
Intro revision 1	Q & A conversation lower order questions 1	Reciprocal right/wrong 1	Sympathise 2&7	Use same approach to clarify meaning although learners struggle 2		Learner error - laughter 16	Emphasis where room for error 2	How marked 3	Lower order engage learners 1 & 10 & 4
Examples increase in complexity 2	Content ownership 1	Listening 2	"tricky" warning (confusing) 2 & 5 & 7	Learner "jump ahead" do not adapt use confusion as excuse 3		Joking with learners 18	Emphasis to generate focus 5	Question poor attempts 19	Permission from learners 4 & 11
Variation 7	Learners listen teacher explain 1 & 4	Silence ¾ respond 'don't know what is going on' 3	"we" "us" team approach Togethermess 12&13&14 "we" 3	Simplify for better understanding 3	Affirm negative expectation 5	Response to learner answers 20	Correct transfer of knowledge 7	Seriousness of activity 22	Clarity 5
Structuring activity (wait and greet teacher before sitting down) 1	Establish pattern	Acknowledge confusion/ uncertainty 3	Difficult (warning) 2	Answer/ explain iso addressing learner error 7			Change voice & roleplay 17 & 13	To gain compliance / modify behaviour 5	Acquire knowledge 10
Intro - introduce lesson topic 1	'rule says' 3	'yes' when teacher give individual explanation 5		Do not immediately correct learner misconception instead provide another example 6			Entertainment 4 & 8		Check if knowledge transfer has occurred
Structuring activity (class list books in class) 1	Step by step (similar approach) repetition	O-K understanding 13		Use learner response to expand knowledge but do not lose focus 8			To show interest 8		Open ended learner opinion 3
Simple exercise to introduce	Reference to common mistakes	Respond on teacher using silence - quiet		After giving answer teacher move forward			To show that he like learners'		Motivation for answer 4

School B: Research Observations [sub-themes A-J]

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
Routine Actions	Learner Characteristics	Lesson Structure	Learner Actions	Teacher Actions Negative	Teacher Questions	Teacher position	Teacher Actions	Teacher Actions Learner	Teacher Actions Affective
Behind desk waiting for teacher 1	Respect 1	Introduction Revise book 1	Informative 1	Mimic learner when stutters 1	Establish ground to work from/ relying on help of learners 1	In front of class assessing reviews and watching learners 1	Feedback during assessment to help/support the learner 3	Reaction to learner sneeze 4	Praise/ Compliment learner 7 & 4
Structuring activity 1	Leamer drive 14	What to expect in this lesson 1	Display confidence / nervousness 3	Negative generalisation 5 2	What is wrong? - delay 2	Standing in front of class one or both hands in pockets 6	Over-exaggerate (8 books) to gain learner compliance/ address non-compliant behaviour 4	Respond to learner answer 8	Negative - militant to maintain power/order 2
		Introduction - where learners are currently at 1	Responding to teacher advice 3	Stereotyping 8	Content related question - engaging learners 8	While waiting for learners arms crossed over chest chin up finger on lips 3	Maintain focus 5	Encourage learner autonomy 4	Concern for learner interests 2
		Introduction topic currently under discussion 3	Make jokes with one another 7	Reprimanding 2	Provide learners with opportunity to give individual opinion 8	Move between isles while learners are working 10	Bodily movements/ role play 7	Show interest in learner/ personal connection 2	Acknowledge emotions 2
			Disagree/ Challenge teacher opinion 8	Make fun of learner 4 / 4-5	Disciplinary 2		Personal opinion 6	Negotiate regarding assessment 10	Commend learner cooperation 8
			Explain actions 9	Put down & Comeback 5	Content - lower order 4		Use learner actions to bring across	Give learners opportunity to prove	Announce to whole class that learner

ADDENDUM L

School A: Research Observations [Poster with sub-themes A-KK]

The image shows a large grid of research observations, organized by sub-theme (A-KK) and observation number (1-100). The grid is divided into two main sections, each with a vertical column of sub-themes on the left. The sub-themes listed are: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z, AA, AB, AC, AD, AE, AF, AG, AH, AI, AJ, AK, AL, AM, AN, AO, AP, AQ, AR, AS, AT, AU, AV, AW, AX, AY, AZ, BA, BB, BC, BD, BE, BF, BG, BH, BI, BJ, BK, BL, BM, BN, BO, BP, BQ, BR, BS, BT, BU, BV, BW, BX, BY, BZ, CA, CB, CC, CD, CE, CF, CG, CH, CI, CJ, CK, CL, CM, CN, CO, CP, CQ, CR, CS, CT, CU, CV, CW, CX, CY, CZ, DA, DB, DC, DD, DE, DF, DG, DH, DI, DJ, DK, DL, DM, DN, DO, DP, DQ, DR, DS, DT, DU, DV, DW, DX, DY, DZ, EA, EB, EC, ED, EE, EF, EG, EH, EI, EJ, EK, EL, EM, EN, EO, EP, EQ, ER, ES, ET, EU, EV, EW, EX, EY, EZ, FA, FB, FC, FD, FE, FF, FG, FH, FI, FJ, FK, FL, FM, FN, FO, FP, FQ, FR, FS, FT, FU, FV, FW, FX, FY, FZ, GA, GB, GC, GD, GE, GF, GG, GH, GI, GJ, GK, GL, GM, GN, GO, GP, GQ, GR, GS, GT, GU, GV, GW, GX, GY, GZ, HA, HB, HC, HD, HE, HF, HG, HH, HI, HJ, HK, HL, HM, HN, HO, HP, HQ, HR, HS, HT, HU, HV, HW, HX, HY, HZ, IA, IB, IC, ID, IE, IF, IG, IH, II, IJ, IK, IL, IM, IN, IO, IP, IQ, IR, IS, IT, IU, IV, IW, IX, IY, IZ, JA, JB, JC, JD, JE, JF, JG, JH, JI, JJ, JK, JL, JM, JN, JO, JP, JQ, JR, JS, JT, JU, JV, JW, JX, JY, JZ, KA, KB, KC, KD, KE, KF, KG, KH, KI, KJ, KK.

The grid contains handwritten notes in each cell, representing research observations. Some cells are highlighted in yellow, indicating specific observations of interest. The text is dense and difficult to read due to the small font size and handwriting.

ADDENDUM M

School A: Learner Questionnaires [sub-themes - Question 1]

LEARNERS:

Question 1: Most important teacher qualities

	Pedagogical	Affective	Behaviour	Power	Professional/Communication	Qualities						
						Understanding	Motivation	Respect				
						Understanding	Motivation	Respect				
A1								Respect				
A2								Respect				
A3								Respect	Patience	Caring		
A4	Know what they're teaching	Enjoy the subject	Practice what they preach									
A5		Nice	Sharing								Kind	
A6		Have a relationship with the class / Get to know class										
A7						Understanding		Respect	Patience			
A8			Stop labelling					Respect			Fairness	
A9	Good teaching							Respect	Patience			
A10		Outgoing (personality)		Bit intimidating				Respect				
A11		Positive attitude when coming to school			Have a qualified degree within teaching							
A12	Ability to judge a situation properly					Ability to understand						
A13								Respect	Patience	Love		
A14	Explain properly / Make subject fun to listen to / Not work too fast											

School B: Learner Questionnaires [sub-themes - Question 1]

LEARNERS:

Question 1: Most important teacher qualities

	Affective	Pedagogical	Power	Qualities				Communication
B1	Have the love to work with kids	Ability to teach						
B2				Patience	Fair			
B3				Patience	Fair	Determination	Kind	
B4	Love teaching and care about kids			Patience	Fair	Understanding		
B5	Emotional strength			Patience		Respect for learners		
B6		Ability to get the children to understand the work		Patience		Compassion		
B7		A good way of teaching		Patience			Kind	
B8		Knows their work	Strict but fun					Language skills
B9		Knowledge		Patience		Caring		
B10	*Have a good humour, so that students like you, therefore he'll love your subject	Be able to know what is going on in the class						
B11	Calm (calm)			Patience			Kind	
B12	A sense of humour			Patience			Kindness	
B13	"Help us even when we not behaving"					"Respect us"	Kind	
B14	Understanding of situation	Knowledge (qualification)	Control of students			Self-confidence Self-esteem		
B15				Be patient	Be fair			Listen to all questions

ADDENDUM N

School A: Learner Questionnaires [sub-themes - Question 1]

Teachers:
Question 6: Pedagogy influence on quality classroom interaction

	Control	Learning	Methods	Learner individuality	Teacher Affect/ Behaviour
A1	A good planned lesson creates confidence in class	...and ensures effective learning	Therefore different methods will ensure learning	Not all learners benefit from the same learning process ...depending on the ability of the class	
A2					Show interest in what you are teaching

School B: Teacher Questionnaires [sub-themes - Question 1]

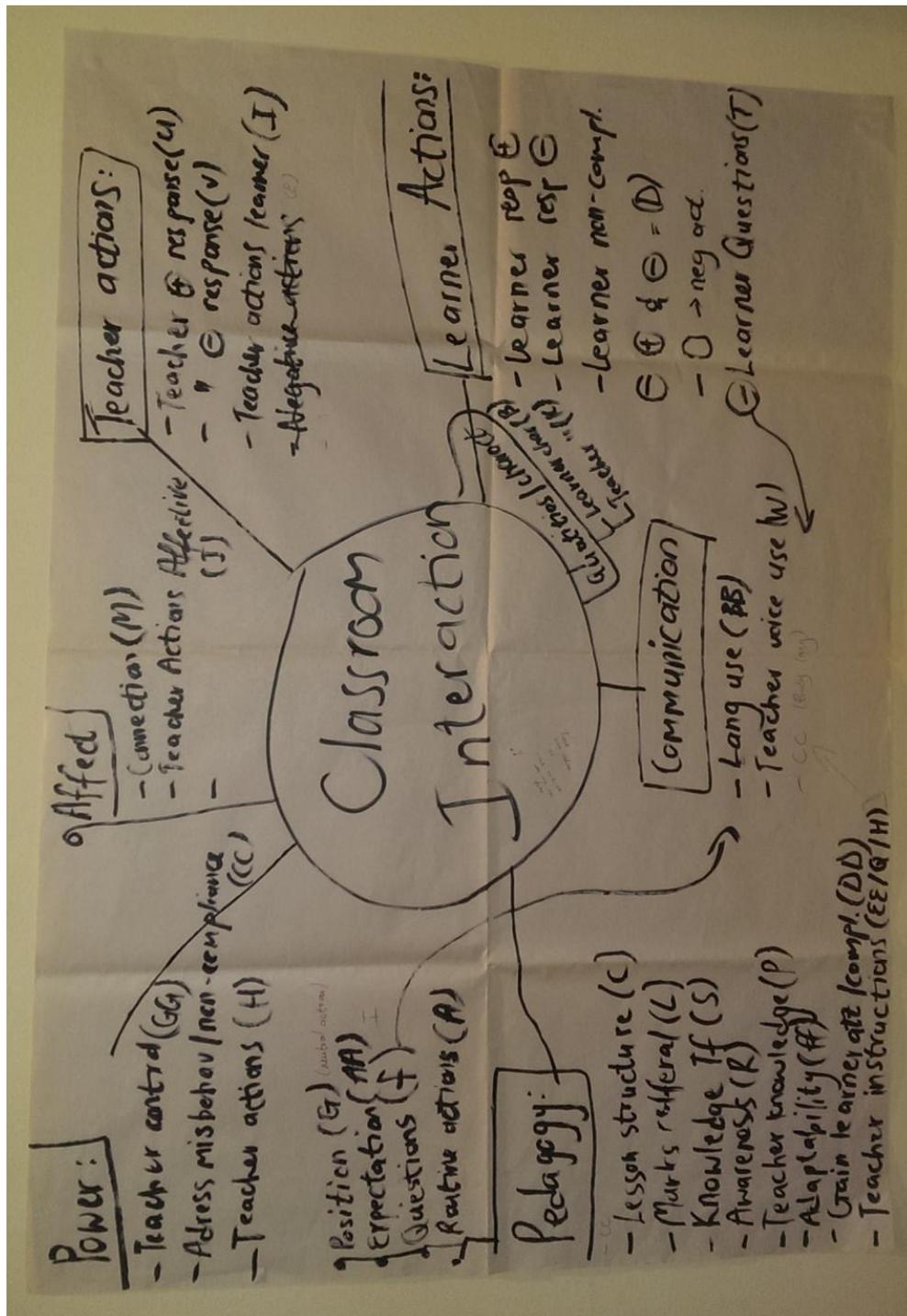
Teachers:

Question 6: Pedagogy influence on quality classroom interaction

	Teacher Style	Power/ Control	Learning	Content/ skills	Motivation	Other factors
B1						
B2	Different "styles" is important to stimulate - weaker pupils feel insecure					
B3	It is important that a teacher involves many different approaches in his/her class and teaching. It is sometimes necessary to change (as a teacher) your normal style					
B4	All teachers are different and have different styles. It is NB for the learners to fit into your teaching style...	...and to know how to "play according to your rules". You have to make sure that they know what the boundaries are.				
B5			Learners must be challenged	In a Mathematics class a teacher should not teach in a "recipe" manner, but concentrate on problem solving skills, and understanding the concepts.	Positive reinforcement is very effective.	
B6						As a teacher you struggle to

ADDENDUM O

School A: Categories and Themes [Mindmap]



School B: Categories and Themes [Mindmap]

