

THE IMPACT OF TEACHER IMMEDIACY ON THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF CHINESE AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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Abstract: This study was conducted to explore the impact of teacher immediacy/non-immediacy as realised via multimodal resources on Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) classroom teaching and learning in Malaysia. Lessons of four CSL teachers were observed. Interview data were also gathered from both teachers and students to elicit information about teaching practices related to teacher immediacy. The data were analysed using a multimodal discourse analysis (MDA) approach and the theory of immediacy. Research findings show that teacher immediacy realised through teacher talk and teacher's body language is effective in creating a harmonious learning environment that leads to successful learning. In contrast, it was also found that some non-immediacy teacher behaviours had a negative effect on the learning process. The study concludes that teacher immediacy as presented through various modes by CSL teachers is important to enhance teaching and learning in CSL classes while non-immediacy teacher behaviours disrupt the teaching and learning process.

Keywords: *Immediacy, teacher immediacy; teaching and learning; Chinese as a second language* (*CSL*); *multimodal.*

INTRODUCTION

This paper is anchored to the Social-psychological Principle advanced by Mehrabian (1969, 1971) to characterize immediacy. More specifically, Mehrabian (1971) characterizes immediacy as a set of behaviours that reduce distance, enhance closeness, increase sensory stimulations, and reflect liking and affect (pp. 1-4) between communicators. Immediacy is also defined as the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between people (Andersen, 1978, p. 7; Richmond, 2002, p. 68; Richmond, et al., 2008, p. 190). Mehrabian's Social-psychological Principle is grounded in approach-avoidance theory that suggests, "People are drawn toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; and they avoid or move away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer" (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 1). Richmond et al. (2008, p. 191) call this idea the "Principle of Immediate Communication". The social-psychological force depicted by Mehrabian (1971) is also known as the force of affinity seeking (Gorham et al., 1989), with affinity being "a positive attitude toward another person ... another person has affinity for you if that person perceives you as credible, attractive, similar to her or himself, or perceives that you have legitimate power over her or him" (McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976, p. 231). Against this framework, it may be gleaned that teacher immediacy refers to teacher behaviour driven by the force of affinity seeking that could reduce the physical and psychological distance in the interaction between teacher and students. It occurs in both verbal and nonverbal communication.

Research into teacher immediacy has long verified that verbal and nonverbal behaviours of teachers, be it immediate and non-immediate, has an impact on students' liking of the subject and hence their achievement in the subject (Richmond, 2002). The argument forwarded by Richmond and McCroskey (2000) shows that a teacher who practices immediacy (an "immediate" teacher) in the classroom helps to create a harmonious relationship with students, and this resulting positive effect helps to increase affective and cognitive learning. Other studies have also confirmed that highly immediate teachers were associated with improvements in student motivation and engagement to study (Brant, 2015; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Christophel, 1990; Jennings, 2013; Little John, 2012), affective learning (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Andersen & Andersen, 2005; Chesebro, 2003; Őzmen, 2010; Mullane, 2014; Richmond, Gorham & McCroskey, 1987; Pogue & Ahyun, 2006), and cognitive learning (Barclay, 2012; Gorham, 1988; Kelley, 1988; LeFebvre & Allen, 2014; Mullane, 2014; Őzmen, 2011; Richmond et al., 1987).

This study was conducted to explore the impact of teacher immediacy/non-immediacy as realised via multimodal resources utilised in Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) classroom teaching and learning in Malaysia. The CSL classroom in the present study is referred to as the BCSK classroom. BCSK is a Malay abbreviation of *Bahasa Cina Sekolah Kebangsaan*. It simply means National School Chinese Language. There are two types of schools in Malaysia based on their medium of instruction namely the national and national-type schools. Nevertheless, the syllabus is similar in both types of schools but is taught in different languages whereby the national language, Malay, is the medium of instruction in national schools, while Chinese or Tamil is the medium of instruction in national-type schools. The main aim of this policy is to integrate the various ethnic groups in the country through the common syllabus.

The teaching of the BCSK course is aimed at enhancing the status of national schools (SK) as the premier choice of all Malaysian parents, especially Chinese parents who would normally enroll their children in Chinese national-type schools. It is hoped that with the inclusion of the BCSK course in national schools, parents who want their children to take up Chinese as an additional language will enroll their children in these schools. Unlike the Chinese course offered in the Chinese National Type Schools, which is designed as a first language course for the native speakers, the BCSK course is designed as a second language course for non-native speakers. BCSK was first implemented in 150 selected participating schools in 2007. The number of national schools offering BCSK increased to 350 in 2009. According to statistics revealed at the end of June 2008 (Sin Chew Daily, 1 July 2010), a total of 10,854 students in SK had registered for the BCSK course. Among them, 6664 (61.4%) were Malays or Bumiputeras, 1834 (16.9%) were Chinese and 2356 (21.7%) were Indians. The objective of the BCSK course is to enable students to acquire basic communication skills in Chinese, as the course expects students to use the language skills learned from the BCSK course to communicate and interact effectively with native speakers (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2006, p.1) and thus enhance integration with the various races in the country.

Most teacher immediacy studies have been conducted in the United States of America since the 1970s. These studies were mainly carried out at tertiary classrooms via quantitative approaches (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Christophel, 1990; Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Estepp, 2012; Furlich, 2007; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Pogue & Ahyun, 2006; Richmond et al., 1987; Saechou, 2005; Toland, 2011). The findings from these studies were mostly inferred from students' self reports in questionnaires. Studies in this area are relatively fewer in Malaysia. Noor Harun and Mohamad Ismail (2012) investigate whether correlation existed between teachers' verbal immediacy behaviours and students' classroom participation anxiety; Zuria and Mohammad (2007) presented a literature review regarding the relationship of teacher's immediacy to student motivation and student learning; and Shaffe et al. (2011) study the perception of students against the use of humour by the teacher trainees, where use of humour is a realization of teacher's verbal immediacy. To fill the research gap, the present research, explored teacher immediacy in primary CSL classrooms in Malaysia via both qualitative and quantitative approaches, through descriptive statistics, classroom observations and interviews, rather than self-reports in questionnaires as carried out in previous studies, to elicit data for analysis. It is hoped that by adopting a qualitative approach, it will further enhance previous findings and to find out if there would be any differences in the findings when the context is teaching Chinese as second language as opposed to teaching other subjects. The findings on the implications of teacher immediacy will encourage reflection in CSL teachers when interacting with their students in the classroom, and inspire them to build interpersonal relationships between them and their students for effective CSL language teaching and learning.

METHOD

This study uses the Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) approach to explore how Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) teachers realise teacher immediacy through multimodal elements like teacher talk and teacher's body language, and how teacher immediacy and non-immediacy behaviours affect the teaching and learning of CSL. MDA is a framework to analyse the interplay of various semiotic resources in a text or communicative event for meaning making. According to Jewitt (2009, p. 14), "[m]ultimodality describes approaches that understand communication and representation to be more than about language, and which attend to the full range of communicational forms people use – image, gesture, gaze, posture, and so on – and the relationships between them".

Participants in this study were four CSL teachers from four national primary schools in Selangor, Malaysia and 63 students who attended the Level 4 CSL course in the schools. All the teachers were female, aged between 30 and 33 years old, and had 3 to 5 years of teaching experience at the time their classes were observed. For the interviews, 23 out of 63 students were identified by the teachers as participants based on some criteria set by the researcher. Each teacher was asked to identify 6 students of different abilities from his or her CSL class to participate in the interview. Therefore, 2 students who obtained good grades, 2 students who obtained average grades and 2 students who obtained low grades were chosen from each class. This sampling selection method was used to avoid data collection bias and to ensure the validity of the data. By using this selection method, the student interviewees can be viewed as representative of different target language competency groups. All students who had been identified were interviewed, with the exception of one student from Class C who was absent. The total number of student interviewees was 23. Students who had taken part in the interview were labelled as S1 to S23 in consecutive order. The details of the teacher participants are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

No.	Class	Teacher	Age	Sex	Teaching experience	Students and their
						labels
1	Class A	Teacher A	30	Female	5 years	S1-S6
2	Class B	Teacher B	32	Female	5 years	S7-S12
3	Class C	Teacher C	30	Female	3 years	S13-S17
4	Class D	Teacher D	33	Female	5 years	S18-S23

For the sake of comparison, all the teachers were requested to teach the same topic during the classroom observations. The topic was "Mulan", a female warrior who replaced her father in joining the army to fight for her country. It is a Chinese legend, extolling the virtues and bravery of Mulan who disguised herself as a man and fought in combat for 12 years. She has become an iconic character in Chinese culture.

Data for this study were collected through observations of classroom lessons and interviews with teachers and students. Classroom activities and language use were videotaped and audiotaped. The entire lesson conducted by each teacher was recorded via video camera. Each recording took about 30 to 40 minutes. In total, four lessons were recorded. The total recording time for the four classes was about 2 hours 30 minutes. The video camera was used to focus primarily on the teaching activities of each teacher. After the classroom observation was completed for each lesson, two interview sessions were conducted with two different groups, the teacher and the students. The interviews were semi-structured, to enable in-depth discussion of issues that emerged from the responses of the interviewees. Additional questions were posed based on the responses. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis. Interview data gathered from both teachers and students were used to elicit teachers' usual teaching practices relevant to the investigation of this study, i.e., teacher immediacy.

Teacher immediacy behaviours were analysed based on two immediacy frameworks presented in Tables 2 and 3. These two tables are criteria forwarded by teacher immediacy scholars and can serve as analysis guidelines to identify teacher's immediate and non-immediate behaviours. The Verbal Immediacy Framework as presented in Table 2 was constructed by compiling the indicators of immediacy behaviour of Gorham's (1988) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale, Mottet and Richmond's (1998) Approach/Avoidance Verbal Strategies, and Richmond et al.'s (2008) Verbal Approach Strategy; while the Nonverbal Behaviour Framework presented in Table 3 was adapted from several instruments developed by immediacy experts from the schools of communication. These include the works of Andersen (1979); Andersen et al. (1979); McCroskey et al. (1995); Mehrabian (1969, 1971); Richmond (2002); Richmond et al. (2008); and Richmond, Gorham and McCroskey (1987).

Table 2

Teacher Verbal Immediacy Framework

No.	Immediacy	Non-immediacy
1.	understands students. Uses direct references and	Uses references that fail to recognize the student by
		not using her or his name or nickname, by
	remembering the student's names and addresses the	mispronouncing her or his name or nickname, or by
	student by name.	referring to her or him as "you."

2.	engages in behaviours that lead the student to perceive the relationship as being closer and more established than it has actually been. For example, she/he uses nicknames of the students, talks about "we", rather than "I" or "you, refers to class as "our" class or what "we" are doing. They also discuss any prior activities that included both of them.	Uses exclusionary communication by discussing things he or she can't relate to or finds uninteresting; by using slang, tech-talk, or shoptalk that he or she doesn't understand; or by talking about people that he or she hasn't met or places he or she hasn't visited.
3.	treats student fairly and equally	Uses assertive, dominant behaviour
4.	Teacher respects students, uses language he or she understands, language that does not sound superior, over her or his head, and is not condescending or "talking down" to her or him.	Uses hurtful, harmful, or condescending teasing and joking, such as making fun of his or her clothing, weight, or general appearance.
5.	has empathy, does not hurt students' self-respect	Uses condescending communication by saying such things as "You don't know what you're talking about"; "Your ideas are stupid"; "Why are you acting like that?"; "You wouldn't understand".
6.	encourages students, uses praise, complimentary, and encouraging statements	Criticizes or points out faults in students' work, actions or comments
7.	is caring	is not caring
8.	is gentle	is aggressive and rude
9.	is friendly, uses humour in class	is serious, seldom uses humour in class
10.	uses communication in a way that reveals he/she is willing to communicate and that he/she wants to continue communicating. Teacher uses responsive statements such as "please continue"; "Tell me more"	Uses communication that is unresponsive by saying such things as "I don't have time now; I'm tired"; or by answering questions with simple, short yes/ no answers.
11.	encourages students to talk by asking questions and reinforcing the students for talking.	controls the interaction in class most of the time, students are not encouraged to get involved.
12.	uses self-disclosive statements, the teacher discloses information about his/her background, interests, and views.	Uses only task-oriented communication by keeping all communication strictly business and never engaging in small talk or self-disclosive communication.
13.	is sensitive to the needs of students (e.g. the use of code switching by teacher in translating, explaining, repeating, and rephrasing messages)	never considers students' needs.

Table 3

Teacher Nonverbal Immediacy Framework

No.	Immediacy	Non-immediacy
1.	Gaze:	Gaze:
	Engages in more eye contact with students when	Engages in Less or avoids eye contact
	teaching	
2.	Facial expressions:	Facial expressions:
	Smiles at the class when talking	Frowns at the class while talking.
	Has pleasing facial expressions	Has dull facial expressions
3	Gesture:	Gesture:
	Uses more gestures while teaching	fewer gestures



4.	Posture:	Posture:
	Open posture: has an open body position while	Closed posture: Folds in hands or keep a closed
	communicating with their students	body position.
	Has a relaxed body position when talking to the	Has a very tense body position when talking to the
	class.	class
	Leans toward the students	Leans back, further away from the student/speaker
5.	Proxemics:	Proxemics:
	Moves around the classroom when teaching.	Stands behind the desk or podium and rarely
	stands or sits close to the student	approaches students or allows them to approach her
		or him
		Sits on a desk or in a chair when teaching.
6.	Vocal behaviour:	Vocal behaviour:
	Uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to	Uses monotone/ a dull voice when talking to the
	the class.	class.
		sounds weak, bored, angry, disgusted, or
		uninterested
7.	Touch :	Touch :
	Touches student's shoulder while praising him/her.	Never touches students

Teacher talk and student talk were transcribed verbatim according to the actual sequence of the teacher-students interaction in the class as recorded. Instances of code-switching, appraisal resources, and mood used by the teachers were analysed. Besides this, teachers' nonverbal behavior such as gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics were also analysed. This study is quantitative and qualitative in nature. Descriptive statistics in terms of frequency counts and percentages were used to obtain patterns of occurrences. In addition, qualitative approaches will offer insights into the ways in which CSL teachers employ their verbal and nonverbal behaviours to establish rapport with students and to enhance teaching in CSL classrooms.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following section reports on how teacher verbal and nonverbal immediacy are realized. Their impact on classroom teaching and learning is also discussed.

Teacher Verbal Immediacy and Its Impact on Student Learning

Verbal immediacy is the use of language that increases intimacy between interactants (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 191). Based on the indicators shown in Table 2, teacher verbal immediacy is realised in teacher talk through displays of humour, mutual respect, tolerance, fairness, caring, encouragement, openness, friendship, and empathy (Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Richmond, et al., 2008). Some of the verbal immediacy behaviours observed in the present study were the acts of addressing students by their names, using language that students can easily understand, using praise, and engaging students in conversation during lessons.

Addressing Students by Their Names

The classroom observation data showed that all teachers used direct references when communicating with students by addressing students by their names. During the interviews, all the teachers agreed that they recognised every student and knew all their names. Teachers called out students' names when they wanted students to answer questions, to pay attention to the lesson, or to behave appropriately. Students interviewed also agreed that teachers knew them by name in class. They felt happy when the teacher knew their names, because it showed that their teacher cared for them. The teachers' effort in recognising every student and remembering their names is an effective teaching strategy, described as an immediate behaviour that increases intimacy between teacher and students (Gorham, 1988; Mottet & Richmond, 1998). This immediate move helps to create a harmonious relationship with students, and helps to increase affective and cognitive learning (Richmond & McCroskey, 2000).

The Use of Code-Switching to Fulfill the Needs of Students' Learning

The target language to be taught and used in the classes observed was Chinese. However, most of the learners were not native speakers. As such, the teacher sometimes resorted to using familiar language(s) during lessons. Code-switching, therefore, was frequently observed in these classes. A common practice of code-switching found in the classroom was that of teachers replacing the Chinese words, phrases, or sentences with equivalents in English or Malay. Among the four teachers, Teacher D used code-switching most frequently; followed by Teacher B and Teacher C. Teacher A code-switched the least, as she only resorted to using two Malay words and three English words during the observation of her class. It was found that 99.21% of her verbal discourse was in the target Chinese language.

During the interviews, the researcher was told by the teachers that code-switching was used because of the learners' limited vocabulary range. The teachers were concerned that the young learners would be unable to understand the Chinese words well and therefore resorted to code-switching to facilitate learning. This move indicates that the teachers cared about the learning difficulties faced by their students. When students were interviewed and asked how they felt about their teachers code-switching in classes, most of them welcomed the approach as they said that it would have been difficult for them to follow the lessons if the teacher used only the target language to deliver and explain the content. If the use of code-switching contributes to effective teaching as proposed by Neo (2011), then this move in language use is considered as an immediacy construct of the instructional discourse, where students can acquire the knowledge at a more 'immediate' pace with less hindrance. The use of code-switching in teaching is considered an immediate behaviour as the teacher is said to be sensitive to the needs of students. According to Mottet and Richmond (1998), teachers who are caring and use language that students can understand in their teaching, they are said to be applying an approach verbal strategy in reducing psychological distance between teacher and students (p. 30). However, Heng et al. (2014) hold that CSL teachers should not over-use the code-switching approach in teaching Chinese as a second language. Furthermore, this method will hinder mastery of the target language.

The Use of Praise and Encouragement to Motivate Students' Learning

Praising students' work, actions or comments is labelled as being verbally immediate (Gorham, 1988). Praises from the teachers for the students were observed during the classroom observations and from the recorded interview data.

很厉害 (excellent), 进步了很多 (you have improved a lot), and sometimes in English: "good", "very good", "congratulations", "well-done". Apart from English, Malay was also used. Students from Class C revealed that their teacher also praised them by saying "*tahniah*" (trans. congratulations).

The video recorded observation data shows that among the four teachers, Teacher C praised students most frequently. Teacher A did not praise students. Throughout the lesson observed, she only used "对啊" (correct), and "也可以啊" (also can) once each to confirm that the students' answer were correct and acceptable. As compared to Teacher A, Teacher B praised students more. She once used "全部都对啊, 很好啊" (all correct, very good), and "好" (good) to praise students. Like Teacher A, Teacher D also seldom praised students. The video data showed that there were times when students performed well in answering questions, but the teacher did not praise the students. In this lesson, she only used "对了" once to confirm the students' answer. At other times, she only said "Ya" or "Ok" to indicate that she agreed with the students' answers or viewpoints. Since the use of praise, as well as complimentary and encouraging statements, is an immediate behaviour, teachers should use more praise to encourage students to engage actively in their learning.

Engaging Students in Conversation and Learning

Richmond et al. (2008, p. 191) state that "one of the most important ways to increase immediacy in a relationship is to send verbal messages that encourage the other person to communicate". Gorham's (1998) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale also states that when "the instructor asks questions or encourages students to respond", the behaviour is considered immediate. The present data showed that learners were meaningfully engaged in learning activities provided by the teacher, particularly through questions posed by the teacher. In addition to the use of the interrogative mood to ask questions, the imperative mood was also used to engage students' learning of CSL. For example, students were asked by the teacher to share their past experiences with classmates or to exchange viewpoints in class discussions.

This frequent use of the interrogative mood and imperative mood would likely encourage students to engage students in learning and conversation.

From the video recorded observation data, it was found that the teachers often posed questions to everyone in class or to a particular group of students to engage in learning the target language. As can be seen in Table 4, the frequency with which Teacher A and Teacher B employed the interrogative mood are about the same in their classroom discourse, while the frequency of the use of the interrogative mood by Teacher D and Teacher C was relatively lower. The figures for the interrogative and imperative moods as seen in Table 4 suggest that teachers were willing to engage students in learning through the use of questioning techniques. By asking questions, the teachers were better able to determine whether the students understood the contents of the lessons, if they were able to cope with the pace of the lesson, and if students were paying attention. The frequent use of interrogatives and imperatives helped encourage students to be actively involved in classroom activities.

Class D Mood type Class A Class B Class C Declaratives 396 70 70 266 (46.37%)(44.11%)(34.31%)(49.64%)Imperatives 53 37 73 10 (6.21%) (6.14%)(35.79%) (7.1%)Interrogatives 405 300 61 61 (47.42%) (49.75%)(29.9%)(43.26%) Total 854 603 204 141 (100%)(100%) (100%)(100%)

The Distribution of Mood Types in Teacher Talk

The practices of engaging students in classroom communication by asking questions and inviting them to take part in classroom discussions are immediate behaviours. However, the observation data shows that when teachers used the interrogative mood and imperative moods to engage students, they called on students to answer questions or to give their viewpoint even though the students have not indicated that they had wanted to respond. This was true in all four classrooms. According to Gorham (1988), this practice of engaging students to do something without their consent is non-immediate.

In most Malaysian foreign language classrooms, students are quite passive in class, and very few would voluntarily participate in classroom activities. Most of them would only answer questions if their names were called by their teachers. For this reason, teachers often have to force students to get involved in the classroom activities. Teacher assigning students to do something without their consent is usually acceptable in Malaysian classrooms.

The Co-deployment of Teacher Verbal and Nonverbal Immediacy in Teaching

Speech is usually accompanied by nonverbal behaviour like facial expression, eye contact (gaze), gesture, posture, personal touch (tactile), body movement and physical proximity (Edwards & Edwards, 2001; McCroskey & McVetta, 1978). They are used to promote feelings of arousal, liking, pleasure, and dominance (Richmond et al., 1987). They can also signal 'immediate' meaning. Therefore, the nonverbal communication relevant to teacher immediacy includes smiling frequently, making eye contact, gesture more while teaching, showing pleasing facial expression, touching, exhibiting posture that exude a likeable presence and moving around the room while teaching (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Richmond, 2002; Richmond et al., 2008). In the following sections, teachers' nonverbal immediacy is examined in terms of their co-deployment with verbal expressions in teaching.

The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Gaze to Establish Solidarity and Power

Gaze is about having eye contact. An immediate teacher engages in more eye contact with students than a less immediate teacher who has less or avoids eye contact with students (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Richmond, 2002; Richmond et al., 2008). According to Richmond (2002), the teacher who rarely looks at a student when talking is communicating that he or she is not interested in the students (p. 70). The findings in Table 5 show that the duration of Teacher A and Teacher B looking directly at their students are around 70% of the total teaching time. Teacher D's eye contact with the students is 59.19% of the teaching time, and Teacher C has the least eye contact with the students which is only 33.07% of the

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Table 4

class time. Although Teacher C has the least eye contact, she looked at the students most frequently (112 times) as compared to other teachers. This showed that Teacher C looked at the students frequently, though the gaze was short.

Table 5

Teacher	Teacher ATeacher BTeacher CDurationDurationDuration		Teacher D Duration	
Gaze Direction	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Total Time/Total Count of	23.66 minute	29.78 minute	9.98 minute	14.72 minute
Times Looking Directly at	(70.74%)/	(72.55%)/	(33.07%)/	(59.19%)/
Students (110 times	94 times	112 times	98 times
Duration/Frequency)				
Total Time Looking at Other	9.33 minute	11.27 minute	20.20 minute	10.15 minute
Directions	(29.26%)	(27.45%)	(66.93%)	(40.81%)
Total T&L Duration	33.39 minute	41.05 minute	30.18 minute	24.87 minute
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

In comparing the time that teachers had with students, the video recording data and all the students interviewed revealed that their teachers looked at all of their students. However, they were aware that their teachers had more eye contact with less able students as well as the naughty students. The majority of the students said that they are happy if teachers have frequent eye contact with them as they regarded it as a sign that the teachers cared for them. This nonverbal behaviour shows that the teachers are "immediate teachers", they are caring and fair to all students (Andersen, 1979; Richmond, 2002; Richmond et al., 2008). The teachers are not only paying attention to high performing students, they also cared for the weak students.

Sometimes, the teachers also used gazing as a strategy for classroom control. According to Moore (2007, p. 176), direct eye contact or a stare can also be used to change behaviour. He holds that a stare used in conjunction with silence can be quite useful in gaining the attention of misbehaving or inattentive students. During the interview, teachers revealed that sometimes they used their gaze to gain attention from students who were not paying attention or who were noisy in class. For example, during a class observation, it was observed that at one time, Teacher A suddenly stopped talking and stared at a particular student who had misbehaved in order to gain the student's attention. Other students looked at the direction of the teacher's gaze to look at the particular student. The signal sent by the teacher through the gaze can generate a powerful warning. Data from the interviews with teachers and students confirmed that the 'gazing' strategy was a regular nonverbal action used by the teachers for classroom control. Students identified by the gaze will realize their wrongdoing and then promptly behave themselves. This type of gazing is a non-immediate behaviour, but it helps teachers in controlling classroom discipline.

The Co-Deployment of Teacher Talk and Gestures in Enhancing Teaching and Learning

Richmond (2002) held that when teaching in class, teacher's delivery style should be animated and dynamic. Animated gestures in teaching are an immediate behaviour. According to her, the animated and dynamic teacher can keep the class interested in the subject for longer periods of time (p. 72). The use of animated gestures while teaching is considered an immediate behaviour. It shows the teacher is enthusiastic in teaching (Richmond, 2002).

Gesture in this study refers to hand and arm movements. Gesture was found to be used by the four teachers throughout their teaching and when communicating with their students. Among the four teachers, the number of gestures used by Teacher A (152) is the most and Teacher D is the least (52). Teacher B did 70 gestures and Teacher C did 95 gestures. Gestures are effective attention-getting devices, to draw students' attention. The teachers would point at the written words and pictures on the whiteboard or movies on the screen. Sometimes, the teachers move their fingers, palms, and arms to visually elaborate a situation and ideas accompanied by their verbal expressions. Other than using gestures to help in explaining situation and ideas, the teachers also used gestures to explain meaning to be emphasized. The students interviewed felt that gestures by teachers were needed and important as they not only help in their learning but also lighten up the lessons, making the class more enjoyable. These findings go in line with Richmond's (2002) view point pertaining to the effect of animated gestures on teaching and learning.



In addition, applauding and the "thumbs up" gesture were co-deployed with teacher talk to show appreciation of students' good performance. When a student performed well in the class activities, sometimes Teacher C led a round of applause followed by the other students to encourage the student. Sometimes, Teacher C asked the students to applaud their friends. Such actions happened 9 times in the class observed. Besides applauding, Teacher C also used the "thumbs up" gesture to compliment her students' good performance. Teacher's praise and encouragement is an efficient tool to motivate students' learning. As such, giving the student a round of applause not only satisfies the student's psychological needs for feelings of competence or being excellent, it also helps them to develop the drive for success in future attempts. Students' interview data indicated that students who had performed well and received forms of appreciation from their teacher and friends tend to increase the likelihood of developing interest on the subject and the teacher. This finding is consistent with findings of Gorham and Christophel (1990).

The Use of Posture in Teaching and Its Impact on Teacher-student Relationships

Posture is body positioning and direction. According to immediacy experts, directing body posture towards interactants, adopt an open body position, and leaning forward while communicating are immediate behaviours (Andersen 1978, 1979; Mehrabian, 1971; Richmond, 2002; Richmond et al., 2008). According to Mehrabian (1969, p. 203), "Immediacy also refers to communication behaviours that enhance closeness to and nonverbal interaction with another". The video recording data and interview data revealed that during teaching, the four teachers faced their students more compared to facing other directions. Teacher A and Teacher B are found to face their students most frequently while teaching (more than 70% of the time). Teacher C faced her students 66.93% of the teaching time, and Teacher D 59.19% of the time.

After repeatedly analysing the video recording for body postures, it is found that most of the time Teacher A, B, and C adopted an "open posture" in teaching. Open posture refers to when teachers spread out their hands in a gentle manner to gesture (Pease & Pease, 2006) while explaining the teaching content. The video data also shows that Teacher A and Teacher B often lean towards the students while teaching. According to Richmond (2002), open posture and leaning forward indicate that the teacher is willing to communicate with the students. They are receptive and immediate. However, teachers who fold in or keep a closed body position (close posture) are perceived as non-immediate and unreceptive (Richmond, 2002, p. 72). Among the four teachers, Teacher D frequently used close posture while teaching in class. She folded her arms across her chest while teaching. Although this non-immediate posture was not employed throughout the lesson, it happened quite frequently, and it seems like she is distancing herself from the students. Richmond et al. (2008) held that, this type of posture can close out another person and shut off communication (p. 61). As such, teachers should avoid this close posture while teaching.

The Use of Proxemics and Its Impact on Teacher-student Relationships

The proximity or interpersonal distance between teacher and students in classroom interaction will influence teacherstudent relationships. As expressed by Andersen and Andersen (2005, p. 114), "Immediacy can be signalled through several proxemics or spatial channels. Most primary is interpersonal distance (i.e. proxemics). Closer distance can be both an indication and a cause of closer interpersonal relationships". Teacher's movements around the classroom while teaching is considered as immediacy behaviour. The teacher who sits or stands behind the desk or podium and rarely approaches students or allows them to approach her or him is perceived as unfriendly, unreceptive, unapproachable, and non-immediate. This does not help improve student-teacher relationships (Richmond, 2002, p. 74).

The classroom video recording analysis shows that, Teacher A and Teacher D were only physically close to students sitting in the first row in their classes. Both teachers spent most of their teaching time standing near the first row of students. Teachers A and D spent about 99% of their teaching time in front of the class. They seldom move around the class while teaching. The use of space by these two teachers did not promote much sense of physical closeness between the teacher and students who sat at the back of the classroom. However, during the interview with the students, the students denied their teacher as being unfriendly, unreceptive, and unapproachable. They said that after assigning them exercises; their teacher usually moved around to ensure students were doing work. According to them, their teacher would stop to check on the weak students more frequently than on the good students.

With regards to the use of space in Class B, Teacher B spent most of her teaching time positioning herself at the front part of the class for more than 95% of the time. She stood in a few areas in front of the class to give instructions and to conduct whole class discussions. Although she spent most of her time teaching in front of the class, unlike Teachers A and D, Teacher B would occasionally approach certain students to interact with them. During the interview, she clarified

that those students were either not paying attention or were weak in their studies and such an act is to build rapport with the students. She admitted she was aware of the importance of proximity to build classroom rapport. Teacher B also practiced moving around the class while monitoring students' class work given by her.

Among the four teachers, Teacher C moves around the classroom most frequent while teaching. She spent about 74% of her teaching time in front of the class to deliver the teaching content. The rest of the time she moved around to check on students' works and to give personal consultation during group activities. Although Teacher C is far from students who sat at the back of the class while conducting the class instruction in front of the classroom, in fact she stood very closely to students during the group activity. Student interview data also showed that the teacher was close to them and they liked the teacher very much.

The Effects of Teacher's Non-Immediacy Behaviours on Student Learning

The following examples show the non-immediacy behaviours of the teachers evident in the data. According to Richmond et al. (2008), a teacher who uses condescending communication by saying things such as "You don't know what you're talking about"; "Your ideas are stupid"; "Why are you acting like that?", "You wouldn't understand", and the like, is considered non-immediate. Table 6 provides incidences of non-immediacy verbal behaviours from the data.

Table 6Samples of Non-immediacy Verbal Behaviour

Turn	Teacher	Teacher Talk
#18	A	 : 课本关起来。课本关起来。课本关起来。不要碰。关起来。关起来。课本的皮都关起来 , 不要碰ha. 还有没有朋友还在打开课本的?有没有朋友还在打开课本的? [Close the text book. Close the text book. Close the text book. Don't touch. Close it. Close it. Close the cover of the book too. Don't touch ha. Are your books still open? Are your books still open?
#25	A	 谁可以告诉我?站起来,大大声的跟人家讲这是什么?没有人敢啊。Há,谁敢讲? 举手啊(教师举起手)!没有人敢啊!E-Ann, E-Ann 没有看过,对吗?[Who can tell me? Stand up; Speak up, tell the class what this is about? No one dares? Ha, who dares to speak? Raise your hand (the teacher raised her hand)! No one dares! E-Ann, E-Ann, none of you has seen it? Have you?]
#62	А	: 不懂hó?不懂hó (重音)? [Don't know? Don't know? (stress with high-pitched voice)]
#164	A	 就是说她代替他的爸爸。她爸爸没有去,她去。她"代父","父"是什么意思?"父" 是什么意思?"父"是什么意思?"父"是什么意思?"父"是什么意思?"父"是什么意思?"父"是什么 意思?"父"是什么意思?"父"是什么意思?"父"是什么意思?你不知道啊?父亲, 什么是父亲? [It means that she was taking her father's place. Her father did not go, she went instead. She was replacing her father ("代父"). What do you know about the meaning of "父" (father)? (then the teacher repeated the same question 9 times and still no answer was given). What? Don't you know what "父亲" (father) means? What is "父亲"?]

JuKu	JURNAL KURIKULUM & PENGAJARAN ASIA PASIFIK Oktober 2017, Bil. 5, Isu 4
#194 A	* 她要什么?她要什么?há? 讲话大声一点。她要什么?她要什么?她要什么?她要什么?她要什么?今天这样安静,平时就很吵。她要什么?谁可以跟我讲?谁可以很勇敢地站起来讲?没有人讲啊?谁可以勇敢讲?站起来大大声讲(老师提高声量)。 [What does she want? What does she want? há? Talked loudly (Stress ↑). What does she want? Today so
	quiet, usually very noisy. What does she want? What does she want? Foday so quiet, usually very noisy. What does she want? Who can tell me? Stand up; say to the class what this thing is about? No one dares? Ha, who dares to speak? Stand up and speak loudly! (The teacher repeated the same question 7 times)]

	来发不勇敢。
#249 B :	[Lai Fatt is not brave.] 来发,他讲你不勇敢。 [Lai Fatt, he said that you are not brave .]

In Turn #18 of Class A (refer to Table 6 above), Teacher A repeated her command several times. The repetition of the command made by Teacher A suggests impatience. Many similar incidents, as seen in Turn #18, were found in Turn #164 and Turn #194 of Class A. The most typical one was Turn #164 when the teacher showed her impatience by repeating the question nine times. Lack of tolerance or patience is a non-immediacy behaviour (Richmond et al., 2008).

In Turn #25 of Class A, Teacher A commented negatively in response to the students' lack of response. The reasons for this lack of response could be: (a) The students didn't know the answer, (b) they were not willing to answer, or (c) they dared not answer. However, the teacher should have refrained from making negative comments on students' behaviour, especially when these comments were not accompanied by constructive suggestions. This is an example of a nonimmediacy behaviour. Another example of a non-immediacy behaviour is in Turn #62 of Class A when Teacher A used a high pitched tone to repeatedly ask students to answer her question. This expression of annoyance is a paralanguage signal which is evident of a non-immediacy behaviour and should be avoided.

In Turn #249 of Class B, in response to the teacher's instruction, to construct a sentence using the word "勇敢" (brave),

a student formed the sentence "来发不勇敢。(Lai Fatt is not brave)". In this case, Lai Fatt is the name of another student in the class. Teacher B immediately drew attention to the student named Lai Fatt (Lai Fatt is not brave). This is meant as a joke. However, according to Richmond et al. (2008), a teacher using hurtful, harmful or condescending teasing and joking, such as making fun of a student's clothing, weight, or general appearance is a non-immediate move. In this case, the joke made by Teacher B was demotivating as it may cause uneasiness among the students, especially the student concerned.

The above instances show that teachers need to be sensitive when making remarks and jokes on students, as well as when speaking, and using an appropriate tone, as these behaviours might cause the student to dislike the teacher and the subject if the students were to consider them as non-immediacy. This dislike is likely to happen because the student might "lose face" when in the situations mentioned. The situation in Turn #25 of Class A was quite common in Class A. In order to save time, the teacher did not wait for students' answers after asking questions and kept urging the students to give their answers promptly. The video data showed that this situation happened several times in class A (refer Turn #164, and #194 in Table 6). In fact, this constant reminder will yield a negative effect as it interferes with the student's thinking. Moreover, it will cause the student to become more nervous. Thinking under pressure is challenging. This is why many students become tongue-tied and failed to express themselves when teacher kept asking them for an answer.

Sometimes, teachers point to their student with the index finger instead of using the palm-up gesture when prompting the student to answer or give his/her opinion. Using the index finger to point, as shown in Figure 1 is considered as impolite in the Malaysian context and should be avoided. Teachers should be sensitive, and avoid using inappropriate gestures in their teaching. Hence, such nonverbal behaviour is non-immediate. For the Malays, the polite way of pointing

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to someone is by using the thumb which is also a sign of respect. Teachers should use this gesture as it is considered as immediate.



Figure 1.Sample of Negative Gesture

CONCLUSION

A harmonious relationship between teacher and students is a core factor in determining the success of classroom teaching and learning (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992, p. 118). Teacher immediacy behaviour as evident in the classes observed included remembering students' names and addressing them by name, showing sincere concern and treating students fairly, being generous with praise, establishing frequent eye contact, directing open body posture towards students, and moves around the classroom while teaching to establish rapport with students. Immediacy behaviours should be adopted in teaching. Teacher immediacy helps narrow the psychological distance between teachers and students, and develops a sense of closeness to and trust in the teacher, which in turn will encourage students to work together with teachers for more effective teaching and learning. However, there were cases of non-immediacy behaviours evident in the data that would have negative effects on learning, for example, giving negative feedback, threatening students' face', and showing impatience and annoyance. On the whole, it can be concluded that the CSL teachers in the four classes can be categorized as 'immediate' teachers who generally displayed positive behaviours. These strategies could be adopted by teachers in other disciplines to enhance teaching and learning.



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