TERTIARY STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THEIR LECTURERS

by

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MAY 2000
DECLARATION

I declare that "TERTIARY STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THEIR LECTURERS" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE

MRS MASARAKUFA

DATE

15 October 2000
FOREWORD

TO MY LATE MOTHER, FATHER AND SON

Getrude, Langton and Clifford, you were the source of my inspiration. You taught me how to exist meaningfully. You offered me the courage to face the most challenging situations. When you were called to higher service, that courage remained with me. I am therefore able to deliver this dissertation in your honour.
DEDICATION

To my wife, Orpah, for her support and encouragement, and to my children Audrey, Collet, Abigail and Robin for the patience and understanding.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to the following people whose assistance and cooperation made this research project a success:

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- above all, to our heavenly Father for health, strength and courage which sustained me throughout this exercise.
TERTIARY STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THEIR
LECTURERS

BY : SIMEON MASARAKUFA

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SUMMARY

This study was undertaken to investigate the fundamental characteristics of lecturer efficiency and factors which may influence students' evaluation of their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College. The literature study indicates that some characteristics of lecturer efficiency are (a) lecturers' relationship with area of specialisation; involvement in area of specialisation; experience of area of specialisation; knowledge of area of specialisation and sharing in area of specialisation (b) lecturer-student relationship: general attitude to students; communicating lecture content; involving students cognitively and fairness in performance assessment.

The questionnaires were completed by 357 students at the college. The results indicate that demographic variables like gender, age group, departments, year group and achievement grades do not influence students' evaluation of their lecturers.
The study did not sample responses from first year students because they were on attachment. Following the conclusions reached and limitations noted by the study, appropriate recommendations were made.
KEY CONCEPTS

tertiary student
evaluation
relationship
characteristics of effective lecturer
knowledge
experience
effective lecturer
involvement
different sex

Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College
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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A lecturer plays a pivotal role in the education of a student. A lecturer is concerned with human beings and human experience. The lecturer is not limited simply to the transmission of cognitive material. The lecturer is an observer, diagnostician and guide of student learning. The lecturer must consider it his/her duty to monitor the student’s work, and to give the student useful and practical feedback (Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(a): 294; Van Schalkwyk 1993: 28). A lecturer is concerned with the discovering and generating of new knowledge through research and other academic activities.

Lecturers are committed to the performance of their duties, such as to produce good publications and to serve on various committees and satisfy the academic needs of students they teach hence they need to continually improve the quality of teaching and remain abreast of the task within a modern educational institution (Barnard 1997:79).

On the other hand, students expect their lecturers to be experts, emotionally stable, reflecting a healthy lifestyle and be neat and well groomed. Students prefer lecturers who are cognitively energetic, dynamic and sympathetic, and who behave in a socially acceptable manner (Vrey 1993: 310). Thus, lecturers know what aspects satisfy or dissatisfy students. For instance, students are satisfied with lecturers who make them think and treat them equally as human beings. On the other hand, students dislike lecturers who are professionally incompetent, biased in grading and domineering in class discussion and self-centered (Goulden & Griffin 1997:28).
Since students are consistent observers of the instruction throughout the course of study, the use of students’ evaluation of lecturers cannot be overemphasized.

The results of students’ evaluation are often useful in many respects. Through such results lecturers are provided with valuable insights into student perceptions of lecturers’ teaching skills and the course content (MacGregor 1993:35). Such an evaluation can help lecturers to improve their teaching strategies. Students’ evaluation is also useful in matters such as promotions, appointments to post of responsibility and renewal of contracts (Morton 1997:86; Amin 1994:135).

The results can also help students at the beginning of the academic year to decide on which courses to take from lecturers. Student evaluation gives students a sense of ownership in the course and can lead to positive responses such as increased and improved learning (Smith 1992: 76). The quality and quantity of student work can improve significantly if students have some control over their education (Machina 1997: 20; Thody 1992: 195).

Although students’ evaluation of lecturers has some advantages, there are also a number of disadvantages or problems. Some people, for example, think that students’ evaluation can lower academic standards if the results are manipulated for personal purposes such as promotion, tenure and salary increment decisions (Machina 1997: 21; Morton 1997: 86). Lecturers can improve their student ratings by giving undeserved high grades to the students, or demanding little effort from students. Doing so could result in a limited curriculum, superficial academic activities and less education for the students. It is also a disadvantage that students are still inexperienced and their evaluation of lecturers often erratic. It could thus happen that two competent lecturers teaching the same course content at the same place, with the same degree of clarity and devotion, be evaluated by the students differently. Students are often overwhelmed by general personality differences between lecturers, and not by their lecturer proficiency (Machina 1997: 26).
In this dissertation, the focus will be on the vast topic of students’ evaluation of lecturers. Some fundamental problems will be dealt with, as will be discussed in the next section.

1.2 PROBLEM ANALYSIS

1.2.1 Awareness of the problems

The formal implementation of students’ evaluation of their lecturers, mainly with a view to improving lecturer efficiency, is not new to the field of tertiary education. Even in Zimbabwe this has been done. Colleges in Zimbabwe used different approaches to evaluate lecturers. One of the ways in which lecturer evaluation in Zimbabwe is being done, is by involving external assessors. The external assessors perform their duties in the form of a final moderation of a course at the time of the written and practical examinations. The external assessors review question papers and identify strengths or weaknesses revealed in the examinations and projects (Nyawaranda & Siyakwazi 1993:150).

The main objectives of external assessments are to validate candidates’ mark lists and to establish the nature of teaching-learning strategies prevailing within the colleges. External assessors try to determine content and syllabus coverage in depth and breadth, its appropriateness, and the weighting of the final examinations. This approach (assessment by externals) has sparked many problems. Some of the external assessors are not even trained to become lecturers, yet they are expected to write objective reports on lecturers’ work. Some of the reports are of an exceptionally poor standard. Disagreements have sometimes arisen between assessors and lecturers. These disagreements have at times ended in fiery verbal exchanges, and on rare occasions, physical exchanges (Nyawaranda & Siyakwazi 1993:151). The main cause for such unpleasantness is lack of agreement on the criteria to determine good lecturing and lack of objective assessment.
Another approach is the use of a colleague to collect data for evaluating the effectiveness of a lecturer. Colleagues include faculty peers and professional staff responsible for faculty development. Although a colleague is capable of evaluating a workmate’s competence, this must be done with great care and planning. Generally, the common methods for collecting data are self-assessments or self-reports by lecturers, structured interviews, instructional rating surveys, tests or appraisals of student achievement, content analyses of instructional materials and review of lecture records. Lecture observation is also used in order to judge along other things, whether the lecturer has made a clear statement about the purpose of the lecture and whether main points of the lecture has been summarized. Students are asked to judge by responding to the questions about the extent to which the lecturer is prepared for class and present topics logically (Husband & Frost 1993: 96). The data collected through these approaches is evaluated by the lecturer, department chair, alumni and other appropriate administrators.

Research and practical experience have shown that lecture observation by faculty peer has several problems (Husband & Frost 1993: 97; Nyawananda & Siyakwazi 1993: 151). Lecture observation could be threatening when it has never been used before. As a result, the approach demands considerable tact, respect and rapport among faculty members. It requires a considerable amount of faculty’s time to ensure the number of observations necessary for reliable and valid conclusions. Observation for personnel decisions, such as promotion, has to be kept separate from observation for instructional improvement, to protect the use of this technique for either purpose. Another area of concern is that observers tend to vary in their definitions of effective instruction, and so it is problematic for observers to reach consensus. Some opinions can be quite emotionally based.

An evaluation by a peer group can influence good professional relationships, but can also create tension among workmates. It is possible for a peer to please a friend by giving high ratings in order to be accommodated by a friend. The value of peer...
relationships is questioned. Some members of departments complain about wasting time and see it as an unnecessary intrusion on their responsibilities (Centra 1993: 36).

A subject-pilot inspection was also used by the Zimbabwe Government education officers. The pilot inspection team became unpopular in Zimbabwe. Most of them acted as fault finders rather than being advisors. The inspection became unpopular because the team ended up finding lecturers who were incompetent and punishing institutions by cutting down funds set aside for some people, obviously, preferring the autonomy of their own institutions’ evaluation strategies (Husband & Frost 1993:98).

The above discussion shows that the different approaches used to evaluate lecturers in colleges in Zimbabwe have some problems. Although the need for evaluation prevails, an alternative approach has to be found. In this section, some general approaches have been discussed. In the next section, some specific aspects of an evaluation approach will be discussed.

1.2.2 Exploration of the problem

Faculty administration is usually uncertain of the best procedure to evaluate a lecturer’s performance (Koodoo 1994:5); they are afraid that student evaluations are easily affected by circumstances, although they may not be able to pinpoint those that are most likely to cause effects (Jones 1998:131).

Evaluation forms and evaluation procedures

Many colleges adopt and use student evaluation of lecturing with little evidence that the forms and procedures actually measure or contribute to improving lecturing quality. The rating forms are usually poorly constructed, leading to spurious results on the inability to interpret result systematically (Machina 1997:20).

Another problem linked to the use of evaluation forms is that there is not sufficient evidence to establish what are the real dimensions of effective lecturing or how it is
interpreted (Abraham 1999:86). Husband and Frost (1993:103) mention that there are matters listed in forms without sound theoretical justification. Only a few questionnaires include background on variables that are relevant to establishing whether responses are relevant. Most questionnaires focus on a limited number of matters such as audibility, clarity, structure, content and speed of delivery. There is also little consideration of other aspects of the teaching performance such as the use of audio-visual aids in teaching and learning (Husband & Frost 1993:104).

It is also argued that using the rating forms tends to promote the erroneous assumption that the lecturer carries full responsibility for learning events during the course with absolving the students from any responsibility for successful learning (Morton 1997: 86; Machina 1997: 120).

Lecturers
Another problem on students’ evaluation of their lecturers arises from how lecturers perceive the importance of the evaluation (Broder & Dorfman 1994:235). Critics have argued that student evaluations lack useful feedback to lecturers and administrators (Morton 1997: 80; Machina 1997 : 20).

What would happen to lecturers who clash with students? What type of rating do those lecturers get? Would there be clashes if greater consensus is reached on means and methods of evaluation of lecturers (Broder & Dorfman 1994: 235)?

Lecturers are also less certain about the usefulness of student evaluation of lecturers. The community already sets high professional standards for lecturers and increasing pressure through student evaluations which could result in lecturers experiencing unmanageable tension (Husband & Frost 1993:104) In German Higher Education there is even lively debate on whether or not student evaluation of lecturing is an invasion on academic autonomy (Husband & Frost 1993: 103).
Lecturers are concerned about factors that could influence student evaluation. Students, for example often group together to discuss and punish lecturers if lecturers have been harsh with them (Husband & Frost 1993: 104). This could greatly influence students’ objectivity. When student evaluations are done towards the end of the term and when students are about to graduate, the students tend to deal superficially with the exercise, just because their interests lie in passing their examinations (Nyawaranda & Siyakwazi 1993:156). Further evidence is usually cited that student ratings will favour lecturers who are entertainers over competent lecturers and showmanship in methodology over sound course content (Broder & Dorfman 1994: 235). The issue of biases arouses strong emotions among many that are being evaluated or about to be evaluated (Arubayi 1997: 269; Machina 1997:20). It is, for example, not clear whether students who strongly practise nationalism will effectively evaluate lecturers who are foreign.

On the other hand, students’ evaluation of their lecturers can lead to greater teaching effectivity. Student evaluation, whether lecturers support it or not, provides one medium by which lecturers are better able to judge how they are engaging the attention of all students, and engaging attention is basic to learning (Koodoo 1994: 6; Bodle 1994: 76). The feedback, if given and taken in the right spirit, can be therapeutic to both and result in better teaching (Bodle 1994: 80). Hence it serves as a point of departure to constitute positive relationships between lecturer and their students. Van Rensburg and Visser (1993(a): 306) maintain that a lecturer’s success in tertiary institutions depends on how successful or meaningful the lecturer student relation is. However, if the goals of the lecturer’s efforts may be defined, the lecturer’s ‘success’ can be directly measured only through those students themselves and their works.

In short, however, the ends and goals of tertiary education ultimately may be resolved and defined, the classroom relationship of the lecturer is the important link. Proponents of students’ evaluation of their lecturers have also emphasized the relationship of students’ rating to students’ learning and achievement. Arubayi (1997: 
Van Rensburg and Visser (1993(a): 306); Koodoo (1994: 6), emphasise that there is a positive correlation between students' evaluations and good teaching. Broadly speaking, a lecturer should have the ability to create a relationship which speaks of approachability, attraction, respect, trust and confidence, a relationship so that students will sense that there is a high esteem and respect for themselves as people, that they are receiving an unprejudiced and fair deal and that they will not be discriminated in any way (Vrey 1993: 31).

Since modern students are better prepared, socially more evolved, politically more aware, less passive in their life-style and expectations, and eager to participate in decisions which will affect the course of their education, the lecturer needs to know more about students' perception of his/her teaching and the way the ideal personality characteristics are manifested in his/her life. This could prevent different perceptions between lecturer and students. Whereas, on the one hand, the lecturers may overestimate the students' knowledge; students, on the other hand, may regard the tuition irrelevant and unintelligible (Hamachek 1992: 285-300). It is useful to know the extent to which the teaching characteristics match those identified by student and lecturers who primarily teach the tertiary students.

Some aspects cannot be evaluated in a simplistic manner. The success of an effective lecturer, for example is not determined only by a lecturer's interest in the subject area. There are factors which could effect the lecturer's position and undermine the lecturer's sustained motivation such as change in modern society, working conditions, the quality of relationship with colleagues and students and the way all such factors influence a lecturer's lecturing. In order for a lecturer to perform his/her role effectively, form meaningful relationships with people and continue with research in a dedicated spirit, a lecturer is expected to successfully manage all these (Lang, MacKee & Conner 1993: 253).
Students

In addition to that, if a questionnaire is used, it would be plausible to determine in advance which essential characteristics should be included to give a proper indication of whether the existing relation between students and lecturers may be considered meaningful. The knowledge of the essences of an effective lecturer will assist the lecturer to be able to adapt his/her own style, behaviours and method of teaching to the perceptions of the majority of students.

Students and lecturers also need to agree on the process of lecturer evaluation by students. It is possible that the lecturer might manipulate the process of lecturer evaluation. For example one lecturer might distribute evaluation forms just minutes before class ends, thus limiting students’ comments. On the other hand, others plan ahead, planting subliminal messages. To increase the favourable ratings on a question such as “was the lecturer fair?”, some lecturers will announce an easing in the syllabus requirements, because they want their students to state that they are fair. Still other lecturers are said to hand back assignments with high grades shortly before passing out the critiques (Bodle 1994: 79).

The validity of the evaluation process could also be questionable. The wording of the questions, the timing of the evaluation, the mannerisms of the person administering the evaluation, what is said about the purpose of the form, and the attitudes of fellow evaluators will together significantly affect the results of the evaluation (Lechreck 1997: 296).

There is need to design an instrument that provides specific feedback (Morton 1997: 87). In this respect Marsh (1997: 257) proposed three principles for the design of such forms,

a) "that the list of traits must be short enough to avoid halo effects and carelessness due to boredom;
b) that the traits must be those agreed upon by experts as the most important; and

c) that the traits must be susceptible to student observation and judgment”.

Steyn (1992: 39) maintains that lecturers whose teaching is being rated should agree to participate and co-operate in choosing the rating form items, students should be expected to evaluate lecturing aspects they may observe and have space for additional comments. Students should complete evaluation forms anonymously and rate the lecturer effectiveness in the absence of the lecturer concerned.

Lecturers often take students’ comments too seriously and too personally. They are not informed that a lecturer puts herself/himself in the shoes of an actor who is reviewed by the critics. Bodle (1994:80), for example, offers advice. Lecturers have to realise that there are elements of truth in most students’ comments. One-hundred-percent positive evaluation is not an attainable goal. If student comments are constructive, accept them; if they are harassing, forget them. Build on the good ones to become even better.

It simply will not do to assume that what the students say about everything is true, even when the students in question are mature graduate students, or to dismiss everything the student say, merely because they are non majors or freshmen (Machina 1997:20; Marsh 1997: 258).

Although many arguments presented above could be linked to student bias, it is necessary to clarify this matter in more detail.

Students are not sufficiently mature or knowledgeable to be able to judge the degree of effectiveness of lecturing (Morton 1997 : 86). The same sentiment is echoed by Bodle (1994:79) who argues that, students do not yet have a frame of reference for evaluating an instructor or course.
Students' personal philosophical biases heavily colour the rating given lecturers (Steyn 1992: 39; Morton 1997:86). Many lecturers are worried that there are variables which may effect students' evaluation of their lecturing such as class size and course content over which they have no control (Jones 1998: 131).

Against the background of the preceding discussion, the researcher decided to get more information on the topic from students and lecturers in the area where he works. With their co-operation, the researcher decided to identify fundamental characteristics of lecturer efficiency by means of rating items identified by the researcher.

1.2.3 Pilot investigation

In this pilot investigation, part of the exploration of the problem, the researcher used a group of students and lecturers from Belvedere Technical Teachers' College (BTTC), which is situated in the Harare Region, Zimbabwe. BTTC was identified because it offers courses similar to the nearby Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College where the researcher is a lecturer. BTTC was one of the first associate colleges to offer pedagogics in Zimbabwe. The college has well experienced lecturers. The researcher as an external assessor of BTTC did not find it difficult to be accepted by the community. This was an advantage towards honest results and, thus, countered the Hawthorne halo effect whereby the respondents' responses are influenced by what they believe the researcher wants (Leedy 1993:9). The exploratory research was not discussed openly in advance with the lecturers and students where the researcher is a lecturer. Eight lecturers from the University of Zimbabwe were identified to become part of the team of external assessors because of the expertise. These lecturers use student evaluation ratings for promotion and tenure. They all act as contact persons and external assessors of the associate colleges. The identification of the above group was done in order to seek opinions of lecturers with different experiences.

The design of the pilot investigation was briefly as follows. The researcher undertook a literature study and ratings, structured interviews and discussions for the purpose of
identifying the most important attributes of an effective lecturer. The researcher used the structured interview method because the researcher had specific information to collect from the lecturers and students. The purpose of the interview was to gather further explanation and clarification from the respondents on some issues and why they considered some attributes to be important.

To determine basic characteristics for efficient lecturing in tertiary institutions, a large item pool of characteristics was obtained from a literature review. Morton’s (1997:87) surveys show that a number of studies have explored student, alumni, and faculty perception of what constitutes an ideal tertiary lecturer. The following are some of the essential characteristics of an effective lecturer:

1. knowledge of subject matter
2. ability to organize the content
3. clarity to presentation
4. impartiality
5. interest and
6. enthusiasm

Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibaya (1996: 46) list the top ranking traits identified by the majority of students in a specific region were found to be:

1. co-operation, democratic attitudes
2. kindliness and consideration
3. patience
4. a pleasant personal appearance and manner
5. fairness and impartiality, and
6. a sense of humour

Prinsloo et al (1996: 47) group these traits under three dimensions of behaviors:

1. personality characteristics
2. intellectual characteristics and
3. instructional-style characteristics.

Van Rensburg and Visser (1993(a): 316) summarize the essence of an effective lecturer as:

1. knowledge of subject matter
2. sympathetic attitude towards and interest in students
3. interest in and enthusiasm for subject
4. appearance
5. tolerance broad mindedness and cordiality
6. interesting presentation and ability to convey the message
7. sense of humour, sense of balance
8. stimulation of intellectual inquisitiveness
9. organization
10. personality
11. fairness
12. integrity, honest, morality
13. speaking ability and
14. clear explanation.

In order to come out with a comprehensive list of essences of an effective lecturer from literature review, the study compared the lists of traits of Morton (1997: 87); Prinsloo et al (1996: 46) and Van Rensburg and Visser (1993(a): 316). All characteristics mentioned by the above authors made a new list:

1. sound knowledge of subject matter
2. clear explanation
3. sympathetic attitude towards and interest in students
4. acceptable appearance
5. interest in and enthusiasm for subject
tolerance, broad-mindedness and cordiality towards students
interesting presentation and ability to convey the message
sense of humour, sense of balance
stimulation of students' intellectual inquisitiveness
logical organization of content
pleasant personality
fairness
integrity, honesty, high morality
adequate speaking ability.

Then lecturers and students from Belvedere Technical Teachers' College (BTTC) were given two tasks each in an attempt to explore the characteristics of an effective lecturer. The researcher was assisted by a lecturer from BTTC who volunteered. On the first task both lecturers and students from BTTC were asked to "write down what they considered to be the essential characteristics of an effective lecturer from their experiences as lecturers and students". The second task was to rate the list of characteristics of an effective lecturer formulated from the literature review, which appears in the above paragraph.

The two tasks were given to 20 students in each of the following groups: first year students; second year; third year; and fourth year. The selection was done randomly from a large pool of tertiary students at BTTC. The sample was stratified to provide approximately equal representation by sex (10 males / 10 females); from each year group (first year, second year, third year and fourth year); by departments (Art and Design, Computer Studies, Business Studies, Secretarial Studies and Pedagogics). The sample for lecturers was also stratified to provide representation by departments (Arts and Design, Business Studies, Computer Studies and Pedagogics) and by gender (7 males /8 females ). Both the students and lecturers were promised anonymity in regard to the information they provided.
The instruction for the first task was simple. Students were simply asked to write the “characteristics of an effective lecturer” on sheets provided by the researcher. In order to make sense of the hundreds of characteristics and to identify areas of lecturing which were mentioned most frequently, the comments were clustered into three groups that emerged from the list, according to the researcher. One group dealt with teaching and learning; another group with the lecturer’s attitude to students; and the third with lecture theatre management. The comments or statements categories are defined by the students’ own words. The most frequently mentioned comments (50% and more) overall are identified with asterisks (see Table 1.1).

**TABLE 1.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD LECTURER, IDENTIFIED BY STUDENTS**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Teaching / learning</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Knows the subject well*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Explains so well so we can understand*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Makes lectures interesting*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Assists you with your work*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>We learn a lot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>We do different activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Attitude to students</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Friendly, easy to get on with you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Has sense of humour, will have a joke with you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Cares about students, always ready to listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Fair, treats us equally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Treats us with respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Classroom management</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Controls the group well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Not too strict, let us do what we want.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the same day the 15 lecturers from BTTC were asked to write down from their experience what they considered to be the essences of an effective lecturer. The purpose of the task was to validate the characteristics as accurate representations of the lecturers' observation about the positive aspects for their lecturing.

The response from lecturers were under three major groups in which the categorization was concerned with

1. lecturers
2. students
3. lecture theatre

The elements most frequently referred by the lecturers are indicated in Table 1.2. Each of these elements were mentioned by five or more than six lecturers (33% or more).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1.2 ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF AN IDEALLECTURER IDENTIFIED BY LECTURERS FROM BTTC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Good planning, structure, organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Setting and achieving objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social interaction, group dynamics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Relaxed, friendly, comfortable atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Positive lecturer student relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Discipline, order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Settling students down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Sense of humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Approachable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Sound knowledge of subject matter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Awareness of students’ needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
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<td>16.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All lecturers who participated in the pilot study are represented in these extracts. Although, for reason of space, these extracts are brief. The number of the characteristics provided by the lecturers result from their experience and insight.

All the characteristics jotted down by both lecturers and students, except those which were less frequently mentioned (less than 50%) were written down. The researcher integrated the results by lecturers and students. Then a new list of characteristics suggested by both lecturers and students was formulated as follows:

**TABLE 1.3 ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS SUGGESTED BY BOTH LECTURERS AND STUDENTS OF BTTC**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Sound knowledge of subject matter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Good organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Friendliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Positive lecturer student relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Effective explanation to ensure understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Good sense of humour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Approachability

8. Fairness

9. Good discipline

10. Personal confidence

11. Sense of responsibility

Then the lecturers and students from BTTC were given the list of characteristics of an ideal lecturer based on the literature review, to rate them. To avoid a halo effect (Leedy 1993:29) and to increase reliability, four negatively worded characteristics were interspersed within the list. This was done to assess that the raters were reading critically.

The pilot study used a six point scale of the Likert format in a two directional scale varying along a continuum from 6 - strongly agree (SA), 5 - agree (A), 4 - tend to agree (TA), 3 - tend to disagree (TD), 2 - disagree (D), to 1 - strongly disagree (SD).

The scale does not include a neutral point as its presence may encourage a greater percentage of students to check this point rather than registering opinion (Lang et al 1993: 254; Steyn 1992: 40). The lecturers and students individually rated the essences (50% or more) on their own. The most frequently rated characteristics which were rated highly by more than (50%) of the respondents, were selected for further investigation. The characteristics by both students and lecturers are indicated in Table 1.4 from the following list:
TABLE 1.4 CHARACTERISTICS RATED HIGHLY BY 50% OR MORE BOTH STUDENTS AND LECTURERS

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>Sound knowledge of subject matter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>Clear explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>Sympathetic attitude towards and interest in students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>Acceptable appearance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>Interest in and enthusiasm for subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>Tolerance, broad-mindedness and cordiality towards students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>Interesting presentation and ability to convey the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>Good sense of humour, sense of balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>Encouraging students to read novels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>Stimulating of intellectual inquisitiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11)</td>
<td>Logical organization of content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>Knowing students' names</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>Pleasant personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14)</td>
<td>Fairness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>Having been overseas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16)</td>
<td>Integrity, honesty, high morality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17)</td>
<td>Adequate speaking ability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher conducted separate discussions with both the lecturers and the students to probe into their responses and reasons for their decisions.
Through the discussion it became clear that lecturers from BTTC have mixed feelings about the use of tertiary students’ evaluation of their lecturers. Six lecturers were of the opinion that students are too immature to give responsible evaluation, that they will be derogatory, or that they know too little about teaching and instruction to provide useful information.

Other lecturers were more at ease about the use of students’ evaluation of their lecturers. They said that students are the clients of their colleges who should be given serious consideration as one of the sources of useful information regarding the performance of lecturers. Students can provide insights that no one else can, because day after day students live and work in the colleges.

The researcher attempted to involve BTTC students in the discussion, but they were rather reserved to come out openly. However, most students said that it was a grand opportunity to evaluate the performances of their lecturers. Some tertiary students said that they were worried as to whether some of the lecturers were trained to teach them. Some students felt that they should evaluate lecturers because some lecturers did not prepare and mark their assignments on time.

In the final stage of exploring the characteristics of an ideal lecturer, eight education experts from the University of Zimbabwe were separately asked to select what they considered to be the essential characteristics of an effective lecturer. The selection was to be made from literature review lists, and lists from the students and lecturers from BTTC. In addition, the experts were asked to add any other essences which they felt were necessary. This step helped to increase the content validity of the findings. The relative importance placed on these characteristics was examined through a ranking procedure that required the eight respondents to choose the ten characteristics considered most important to effective lecturing in tertiary institutions. All the characteristics which were mentioned by four (50%) or more experts constituted their characteristics. The list includes the following characteristics (see Table 1.5):
TABLE 1.5: CHARACTERISTICS MENTIONED BY MORE THAN 50% OR MORE OF THE EXPERTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Sound knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Systematic organization of subject matter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to explain clearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to encourage thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Interest for and enthusiasm in subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Sympathetic attitude toward students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Fairness in testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ability to communicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Good sense of humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Ability to encourage audience participation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comments made by the experts were helpful to the study. They were surprised and pleased at the perceptiveness of the students and lecturers and at how comprehensive the coverage was of the ingredients of good teaching. The majority of the experts felt that student ratings could be used, but with great caution. Lecturers should agree to participate and co-operate in choosing or formulating the rating forms. They were divided on whether students should complete rating forms anonymously.

Some experts said: “Many lecturers worry about receiving negative feedback from students. We need to find the way to improve what happens in our classrooms. The use of student feedback empowers lecturers, parents and students. Lecturers will continue to practise the behaviour that students like and appreciate. Parents will increase their support for the lecture room in which their child was able to describe what happened
at the lectures that day. Lecturers will change those behaviours that are yielding undesirable results and not meeting the needs and expectations of students.”

After comparing related literature review lists mentioned above and lists from students and lecturers from BTTC and lists from the University of Zimbabwe, a new list of characteristics of efficient lecturers was compiled:

1. systematic organization of subject matter
2. ability to explain clearly
3. ability to communicate
4. expert knowledge of subject matter
5. ability to encourage thought
6. fairness in testing and assessing in general
7. interest in and enthusiasm for subject and
8. sympathetic attitude toward student

1.3 DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD

An analysis of the above reveals that the two relationships are of special significance in describing efficient lecturers. Such a description could serve as a point of departure for evaluating lecturers.

(a) **Regarding the lecturer-student relationship, the lecturers’ characteristics refer to their**
- ability to explain clearly
- ability to communicate
- ability to encourage thought
- fairness in testing and
- sympathetic attitude towards students

(b) **Regarding the lecturer-subject matter relationship, the lecturer characteristics refer to their**
interest in and enthusiasm for the subject matter
expert knowledge of the subject matter
systematic organization of the subject matter

A critical analysis of the facets of the relationships indicated above within the discourse followed, reveals the following:

- according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:120) interest is, "the deliberate, voluntary focus of attention, concern and activity on a particular person, object, event or sphere. The will to know, understand, communicate." This corresponds with these authors’ description of the more fundamental concept of involvement which implies a belongingness, on association, an attraction --- an urgency to be drawn in (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993: 191). For the purpose of this study, this facet will be referred to as “involvement in the subject matter”.

- ‘Enthusiasm’ is explained as a "brief of eager liking for" in the Oxford Paperback Dictionary (1998: 300) which corresponds with the explanation of experience. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993: 191 experience "is a meaningful event, involving the – person who experiences certain feelings ---." In this dissertation, this facet will be referred to as “experience of the subject matter”.

- ‘The Systematic organization of subject matter’ refers to conveying or sharing subject matter. For the purpose of this discussion, the facet will be referred to as sharing the subject matter with students.

- The ‘ability to explain clearly’ is an aspect of ‘the ability to communicate’ whilst ‘the ability to encourage thought’ refers to the ability to involve students cognitively in the lecture content.
The subject matter for which the lecturer is responsible, will in this dissertation be regarded as the area of the lecturer’s specialisation.

The assorted characteristics of the two relationships can thus be summarised as follows:

**The lecturer-subject matter (field of specialisation) relationship**

**The lecturer’s**

- involvement in area of his/her specialisation
- experience of area of his/her specialisation
- knowledge of area of his/her specialisation
- sharing area of his/her specialisation with students in terms of his/her involvement in as well as experience of and knowledge of the area of specialisation.

**The lecturer-student relationship in tertiary education**

**The lecturer’s**

- general attitude to students/a student as person/a person
- communicating lecture content to students/a student
- involving students/a student cognitively in the field of knowledge
- fairness in performance assessment

The researcher then decided to use this information as basis for tertiary students’ evaluation of their lecturers.

**1.4 FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM**

As explained in the previous sections, this study deals with tertiary students’ evaluation of their lecturers. The research will focus on lecturers’ relationship with
their students as well as the area of specialisation in which they lecture. Some facets of these relationships were identified in section 1.2.3 above.

During the past 20 years, students' feedback to lecturers has been widely researched in colleges and universities. University students' feedback to lecturers has been found to have significantly positive effects towards improving instruction (Omotani & Omotani 1996: 133). While Zimbabwean tertiary students' evaluation of lecturers appear less often than those in other countries, there appear to be growing support for the use of students' evaluation at all levels such as universities, colleges and even primary schools (Blackbill 1996: 49; Belton 1996:66).

The research will be undertaken at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College, who are specifically in the following departments: Computer Studies, Art and Design, Catering and Food Science, Business Studies and Mechanical Engineering.

The students of this study are the students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College who, at the time of this study, are studying for their National Foundation Certificate (NFC) or National Certificate (NC) or Diploma in Vocational Technical Education.

It remains a problem to initiate a programme in which students evaluate their lecturers. There are matters regarding the evaluation procedure such as administration of evaluation and the interpretation, application or utilization of results. The matters that have to be considered in an evaluation are not always easily identified. Apart from clarity on the contents of evaluation, the problem seems best to be approached exemplary, using a specific institution for the investigation, such as Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College.

As the researcher would like to get students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College in Zimbabwe to evaluate their lecturers, the researcher would like to know

- within which context of lecturer, student and lecture content can take place, and
- what the evaluation will be.
1.5 MAIN QUESTION AND SPECIFIC RELATED QUESTIONS

In this study the researcher attempts to answer the main question. How do tertiary students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College evaluate their lecturers? The above problem can be refined twofold:

What is the context of lecturer, student and lecture content in which such an evaluation will take place? How do these students evaluate their lecturers? The last question is dealt with in terms of two relationships: the lecturer-subject matter, and the lecturer-student-relationship in tertiary education. Details of the lecturer-subject matter are:

- Involvement in the area of his/her specialisation
- Experience of the area of his/her specialisation
- Knowledge of the area of his/her specialisation
- Sharing the area of his/her specialisation with students/a student in terms of involvement with as well as experience and knowledge of the area of specialisation.

Details of lecturer-student in tertiary education in terms of their lecturers' are:

- General attitude to students
- Communicating lecture content with students/a student
- Involving students cognitively in the lecture content
- Fairness in performance assessment

From the above there are other questions forthcoming. If tertiary students of different year groups, different sexes, different ages, different departments and of different grade point average (GPA) at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College differ significantly in the evaluation of their lecturers, can it be viewed that such variables greatly determine these students’ evaluation of their lecturers? To be more specific:
1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the investigation can be formulated as follows:

1.6.1 To gain an understanding of the context in which students' evaluation of lecturers occurs:

(a) to describe the tertiary education situation, specifically regarding components of the tertiary education situation, the characteristics of the tertiary education situation and the factors influencing the situation.

(b) to describe lecturers in tertiary institutions as total persons: physical, cognitively, conatively, emotionally, normatively, and in their relationships with students, with colleagues and parents, with their field of study.

(c) to describe typical students in tertiary institutions as total persons: physically, cognitively, conatively, emotionally and in their relationships with others, as well as their field of study.
1.6.2 To gain an understanding of students' evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College in terms of:

(a) their lecturers’ relationships with their area of specialisation, specifically with regard to each lecturer’s

☐ involvement in his/her area of specialisation
☐ experience of his/her area of specialisation
☐ knowledge in his/her area of specialisation
☐ sharing his/her area of specialisation in terms of involvement in as well as experience and knowledge of the area of specialisation.

(b) the lecturer-student relationship in tertiary education, specifically regarding each lecturer’s

☐ general attitude to students/ a student
☐ communicating lecture content with students/a student
☐ involving students/a student cognitively in the lecture content
☐ fairness in performance assessment

1.6.3 To gain an understanding of factors which have an influence on students' evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College:

To discover whether matters such as gender, age, year group, department and grade point average have an influence on students’ evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College.
1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is presumed that tertiary students’ evaluation of their lecturers will prove useful in the evaluation of instruction effectiveness, personnel decision-making, and information analysis for public agencies or other outside organisations (Wagenaar 1995: 64; Imenda 1994: 148-151). In Zimbabwe, little study was done in tertiary students’ evaluation of their lecturers. Thus the study carried out at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College in Mashonaland West Province can serve as a precursor to the national study to cover all 14 tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe.

The items of the questionnaire to be used in this investigation will be theoretically verifiable and the results ought to be of scientific significance. As such, the investigator ought to be objective and unbiased.

Also the procedure used can serve as an example for further efforts in this regard. The study will highlight educational practices and pave the way for in-service training (INSET), workshops and seminars and provide data that is useful for pre-service training (PRESET) programmes. As such, the investigation ought to be useful for educational planners, college councils, teacher schools, lecturers, students and even the pupils that they will teach.

In an even broader context, the investigation can contribute towards better evaluation, social upliftment and national well being.

1.8 EXPLANATION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Some terms and concepts used in the discussion therefor, now require further elucidation. Emphasis will be placed on operational or behavioural descriptions which are not exhaustive.
1.8.1 Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College

Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College is a tertiary institution situated in the Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe. The tertiary institution offers a variety of courses for which the entrance requirements vary. This college trains teachers for technical vocational subjects. After having completed their courses, the students become teachers in technical and vocational schools in Zimbabwe. The college is geared to provide quality vocational and technical education within a dynamic and stimulating environment that promotes critical thinking values and a business culture, with a view to producing a technically skilled teacher for Zimbabwean needs.

The teachers should be reflective in their teaching approach, being able to compare their performance against a given outcome criterion and make decisions about it. By continuously assessing themselves against a given norm, the teachers have to identify their own personal shortcomings and therefore embark on self-development studies. They are also expected to accept and value individual differences in pupils and feel obliged to design instructional materials and methodologies to cater for these differences.

These teachers are taken as leaders. As well as being seen as leaders, they also inform, guide, motivate and direct the actions and opinions of pupils, parents and colleagues with whom they interact. At school this facet of lecturer responsibility is so important that some are even appointed as specifically as guidance lecturers (Prinsloo et al 1996:46).

1.8.2 Knowledge

Knowledge is the result of attributing meaning in which “people orient themselves in their environment, acquire insight into it and grow in knowledge and understanding of it”, according to (Vrey 1993: 24). That is what lecturers have in mind when students are helped to understand and form their own life (Crous, Van Rensburg, Nieuwoudt, Mellet, Lessing, Van der Merwe & Visser 1997: 32). Although knowledge usually
depends on each person’s cognitive structure, the person as a totality is involved so that there are also affective and normative components (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993: 190). Knowledge activities initially have a strong affective dimension and the intuitive knowledge thus obtained gives students a basic grasp of reality. Only later, with increased understanding does the attribution of meaning take place in a more objective manner (Vrey 1993: 33).

This goes to say that tertiary students already possess a wide base of knowledge and are capable of allocating meaning in an objective and organised way. The students’ greater stability also assists them to control their affective lives more strictly, so their meanings are less subjective and have more universal validity (Crous et al 1997: 25).

The lecturers’ knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of their students is linked to successful lecturing (Crous et al 1997: 33).

The link between lecturers’ knowledge of subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge is unknown (Ball 1991: 19). A simple explanation for this situation draws attention to the fact that “pedagogical content knowledge is relatively new notion” (Even & Tirosh 1995: 2). Different conceptions of lecturers’ subject matter knowledge have evolved throughout the years. Lecturers’ subject matter knowledge was defined in quantitative terms (Ball 1991: 20). Lecturers’ knowledge of subject matter has been analysed and approached more qualitatively, emphasising cognitive processes and understanding facts, concepts and principles and ways in which they are connected and organized.

Lecturers’ subject matter knowledge has a critical role in promoting learning. It includes setting goals and creating lecture room environments to pursue them, helping students understand the subject matter by representing it in appropriate ways, asking questions, suggesting activities and conducting activities.
Lecturers are not satisfied with the knowledge they acquire during their training. The basic requirements are to keep up with new developments in a specific subject area of specialisation. Lecturers who enter tertiary education commit themselves to continued education, self-enrichment through research and intensive reading in their field of specialisation (Crous et al 1997:35).

Shulman (1995:7) maintains that, “lecturers’ knowledge include: the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others.” There is need to consider students’ ways of thinking. Lecturers need to be familiar with the conceptions and preconceptions that the students bring with them to the learning situations (Even 1993 : 7).

Lecturers’ knowledge of students is one of the aspects of lecturers’ pedagogical content knowledge. Another aspect is that of lecturers’ choice of presentations of the subject matter to students. To make appropriate decisions for assisting and guiding students in their knowledge construction certainly requires a knowledge of students’ ways of thinking. Lecturers who pay attention to where the students are conceptually, can challenge and extend students’ thinking and modify appropriate learning activities for students (Even & Tirosh 1995: 3).

1.8.3 Experience
Experience is essentially affective and therefore determines the quality of the students’ relationships (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993: 192). Experience is also subjective, so experience lends its unique, personal colouring to a specific situation. Experience is therefore an individual’s own personal subjective position in respect of reality (Vrey 1993 : 45) with the aim of evaluating it and thus determine its value. Through experience students put their subject stamp on situations or events and internalise them as either valuable or valueless, whereupon they can be affectively
stabilised or labilised by them (Crous et al 1997: 27). Students’ specific evaluations can be divided into the broad categories of pleasant and unpleasant (Vrey 1993: 45).

Tertiary students have a greater degree of cognitive control over their feelings. Children can therefore be labilised more easily than adults. As they grow up, their effective life shows more cognitive-affective (Vrey 1993: 46). The affective life of tertiary students becomes more nuanced so they are more capable of abstract thought (Crous et al 1997 : 27).

Experienced lecturers know how to present their subject matter and also know how to handle students in tertiary situations. According to Child (1996:20), lecturers who are experienced in the area of specialisation use a variety of teaching approaches. They are able to apply their subject matter to the real life situations. They are enthusiastic about their work. They also want to ensure that their students experience their studies as pleasant situations to which they can look forward (Woolfolk 1998: 385). They have some idea about the nature of the students in the group such as personal information. They respect all students and accept them unconditionally (Woolfolk 1998 : 386).

Experience also "inhibits or invites a person’s involvement in every attribution of meaning" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993: 192). Experience is a meaningful event, involving the total person who experiences certain feelings and who knows that he/she experiences them (Vrey 1993: 46).

1.8.4 Effective lecturer

Definitions of effective lecturing are often so broadly stated. According to Centra (1993:20) effective lecturing produces beneficial and purposeful student learning through the use of appropriate procedures. Both the outcomes of effective lecturing student namely beneficial and purposeful learning, and the process, appropriate procedures, are mentioned. Centra (1993 : 43) sees appropriate procedures as
An effective lecturer, according to Chivore (1994: 4), is like an elephant: difficult to describe, but cannot be mistaken when seen. The description of an effective lecturer depends on the individual's explicit or implicit theory of how students learn and will refer to matters such as listed in the previous section.

1.8.5 Involvement

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:191), "it is impossible to gather information about a topic without becoming involved. Involvement implies a belongingness, an association, a oneness, an urgency to be drawn in". It presupposes a willingness, an urge to participate or to be involved. It is not a passive concept but one which is accompanied and precipitated by action (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:192). Vrey (1993:82) says that people must want to act, and so involvement relates to characteristics such as purposefulness, persistence, enthusiasm and dedication. They provide the impetus for active involvement and also decide the direction and aim of activity. Vrey (1993:39) defines involvement as the psychic vitality or vigour with which a meaningful objective is pursued and achieved.

Students who achieve are usually involved in their studies and with their lecturers. Involvement is a precondition for all intentional activities which attribute meaning, this is why there is an intrinsic interaction between motivation and involvement. Students' involvement show whether they want to take an interest, to persist with and perfect the learning activity. Lecturers need to understand that students can only learn...
when they are involved in a deeper process of self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning. The students usually are involved in formulating their own objectives for learning. They are also involved in sharing responsibility for designing and carrying out their learning activities, and in evaluating their progress toward their objectives (Curzon 1996: 211).

Lecturers are also involved with students and lecturers in tertiary situations. The lecturers know that “student motivation for learning is multifaceted, interdependent not related to role fulfilment, highly personal and unique. Lecturers give their students appropriate guidance to help them make responsible choices so that they can grow in individual accountability. In order for lecturers to perform their roles effectively they are required to prepare their lectures competently, evaluate their lectures after presenting them. Involvement, then indicates activity and a tendency to act, which in turn implies the formation of relationship (Curzon 1996:213).

1.8.6 Evaluation
Evaluation (derived from valoir to be worth) is based on assessment and appraisal (Curzon 1996:342). In this dissertation, it is essentially a professional judgement on the worth or quality of a lecturer’s instruction and instruction with students and the field of his/her specialisation. Unlike assessment, which relies generally on the objective measurement of data, evaluation takes into account congruence between objectives and performance viewed in the light of values. Gagne and Briggs (1996:342) define evaluation as "the making of judgement about the values of some purpose, of ideas, works, solutions and methods. It involves the use of the criteria, as well as standards, for appraising the extent to which particulars are accurate, effective, economical or satisfying."

For the purpose of this study evaluation refers to an attempt to assess the affectiveness of a lecturer in a tertiary institution.
1.8.7 Lecturer

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993: 234) explain that a lecturer "is one who voluntarily elects to follow a profession which seeks to help students to become equipped for life, to realize their potential and to assist them on their way to self actualization and to ultimate adulthood."

A lecturer’s role is comprehensive. A lecturer is involved in discovering and gathering new knowledge through research and other academic activities. A lecturer is also involved in accumulating and sharing knowledge through teaching, publications and reading educational aims and objectives through teaching higher areas of specialisation so that students’ thinking, attitudes and dispositions are moulded by the meaningful learning that occurs (Crous et al 1997: 32).

In order for lecturers to do their tasks effectively, lecturers need to constantly strive to improve the quality of their teaching and also keep abreast of their roles and functions within modern tertiary education institutions (Crous et al 1997: 32).

1.8.8 Relationships

Vrey (1993:14) defines a relationship as a connection between two referents: the student would be one, and a section of reality the other. This connection can further be defined as an interaction or interchange between the two referents. Thus the interactions that take place between a person and all the other aspects of reality encountered in the world are termed ‘relationships’. These aspects of reality are made up of other people, objects, concepts (ideas) and a divine being or beings (God and ancestors). Relations exist between individuals and all the people, ideas and things that make up their worlds.
Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993: 201) explain that a "relationship is therefore experienced as pleasant or unpleasant and is then either encouraged or avoided. The poles attract or repel each other. For instance: the nature of the relationship between a student and a peer will depend on their knowledge of each other and the psychological distance."

1.8.9 Tertiary student

According to Vrey (1993: 189) tertiary students are between the ages of 18 and 24 and are at colleges and universities.

...In many ways tertiary students are independent adults. They have the vote and driver’s licence and are subject to army service where they defend their country. On the other hand, they are economically dependent, and at the level of tertiary education some provisions are made for student facilities and guidance (Vrey 1993: 190). This extended period of tertiary students has forced the tertiary student into the area of pedagogical concern. Active overall assistance declines and becomes more specialised, and the emphasis shifts to self-actualisation and personal responsibility (Curzon 1996: 130). Help and support cannot be terminated; students are still dependent in too many ways and cannot be saddled with full responsibility (Vrey 1993: 190).

1.9 METHODS OF INVESTIGATION AND PROCEDURES

This section focuses on the research design and research procedures.

1.9.1 Research design

The design of this study has been influenced by some problems surrounding students and their evaluation of their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College. It is for this reason that students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College asked to:

- Identify fundamental characteristics of lecturer efficiency by means of rating items identified by the researcher.
Find out whether aspects such as gender, age, year group, department and grade point average have an influence on students' evaluation of lecturers.

1.9.2 Research procedures

1.9.2.1 Literature study
A study will be made of the literature to acquire theoretical background to the investigation.

1.9.2.2 Questionnaire
A questionnaire will be administered to all students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College. These questionnaires will be designed to inquire into the essential characteristics of lecturer efficiency. The use of a structured questionnaire is preferred since it elicits opinions in a closed or directive manner and because the respondents are mainly students.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The research is organised in five chapters. Chapter One gives the background and orientation to the problem. It deals with an analysis of some of the more important problems surrounding tertiary students and their evaluation of their lecturers with particular reference to Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College. The focus is on the problem analysis, awareness of the problem; exploration of the problem; delimitation of the problem; formulation of the problem, main question and specific related questions; research objectives; significance of the study, explanation of terms and concepts, method of investigation and structure of the research.

Chapter Two deals with the theme lecturers and students in tertiary institutions. It is a literature study on tertiary education situation as well as lecturers and students in the tertiary education institution.
Chapter Three describes the investigating strategy in terms of the instrument for collecting data, the research group, and the investigating procedure.

Chapter Four records the findings of the quantitative investigation.

Chapter Five offers the integration of findings, conclusions, recommendations and implications that can be made on the basis of this investigation, taking into account such defects as could be noted by the researcher.

In the next chapter, the study focuses on the literature review.
CHAPTER TWO

THE TERTIARY EDUCATION SITUATION: A LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The lecturer and the student both take part in the educational act. The lecturer is responsible for accompanying the student in his/her way to adulthood. There can be no question that the education of a student is enhanced when a lecturer collaborates in the educational relationship. Hence it is vital to take a closer look at the tertiary education situation where both lecturers and students play a vital role.

It is not only the lecturer who has an interest in assisting the student. Parents are regarded as the primary educators in the education situation. The relationship between parents and students is quite unique. It differs from other relationships. The parent-student relationship affects the growth and development of an individual throughout his/her lifetime. A lecturer needs a clear understanding of parent-student relationships. It is the lecturer who takes over the role of educating and sharing the educational stage. The lecturer-student relationship is not impersonal. It means that lecturers also have some effects on the growth and development of the students. If people were given a chance to evaluate their past lecturers, some good and bad lecturers would stand out in their minds. At some time, students may differ in their evaluation of lecturers. In addition to this, it is not clear what combinations of qualities make the successful lecturer. In fact, there are various combinations. This means there are different types of lecturer behaviour which may appeal to different types of students. Despite this, there is usually consensus as to what constitutes an effective and non-effective lecturer (Hamachek 1992:313).
Lecturers as human beings vary in many respects. Some lecturers are shy and timid, and some are sarcastic with amusing streaks of humour in their sarcasm. However, lecturers as educators are expected to execute their roles effectively. They are expected to be role models. A lecturer has to know the developing student, not merely in an intuitive way but by acquiring all the relevant knowledge about the student. This should encompass, for example the cognitive, affective, vocational, social, moral and religious aspects (Hamachek 1992:309) concerning the life of the would-be-adult. Although all lecturers may have the same knowledge of students and the subject matter, they may not all be equally effective lecturers. The attitude and personality traits of the lecturer significantly contribute to the learning and becoming of the students with whom he/she is concerned.

Although the entire dissertation aims at orienting the lecturer on students’ evaluation of their lecturers in tertiary institutions, chapter two focuses on reviewing related literature with an attempt to:

1. obtain a detailed description of the tertiary education situation, specifically regarding its components; the characteristics of the tertiary education situation; the factors influencing the situation
2. gain an understanding of lecturers in tertiary institutions as total persons: physically, cognitively, conatively, emotionally, normatively, and in their relationships with students, with colleagues and parents, with their area(s) of specialisation
3. describe typical students in tertiary institutions as total persons: physically, cognitively, conatively, emotionally, and in their relationships with friends and others and lecturers, as well as their area of specialisation.
4. gain an understanding of lecturers’ relationship with their area of specialization, specifically regarding their:
   - involvement in the area of specialization
   - experience of the area of specialization
   - knowledge of the area of specialization
5. gain an understanding of the lecturer-student relationship as a tertiary education relation specifically regarding:

- general attitude to students/a student
- communicating lecture content with students
- involving students cognitively in the lecture content
- fairness in performance assessment

This information will lead to the identification of the essences of the concept 'students' evaluation of their lecturers in tertiary institutions' from a psychology of education perspective. From the essences, criteria for evaluating lecturers by students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College will be formulated. This will ultimately lead to the students' evaluation of their lecturers in tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe.

In the light of this study and analysis of the relevant literature, the researcher will now proceed to review literature on the tertiary education situation.

2.2 THE TERTIARY EDUCATION SITUATION

The following components are discussed: lecturer, student and lecture content.

2.2.1 Components: people (lecturer and student) and lecture contents

A student and a lecturer in a lecture situation constitute a situation in which there are three basic components: a student, a lecturer and lecture contents. A lecture situation, for the purpose of this study, is defined by an adult-student relationship which is essentially an adult-adult relationship (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer 1993:83). Smit (1997:130) admits that education which can be equated with the tertiary education situation may be defined as an event during which supportive adults are or come in contact with adults in need of support so that the learners can be assisted to become more competent adults.
In the next section the focus is on a literature review of the lecturer, the student and lecture content as components of tertiary education situations.

2.2.1.1 The lecturer as a component

This section focuses on the lecturer as one of the three components of the situation and how the lecturer’s presence constitutes a tertiary situation. Lecturers in tertiary education play an important role in the teaching and learning of students. Lecturers draw and direct the students’ attention in the mastering of the lecture content. The lecturers ensure that students pay attention to what happens in the tertiary situation. The lecturers are there to call students to order and to arouse students’ interest (Crous et al 1997:58). In addition, it is the role of the lecturers to accompany students in the teaching and learning situation. While learning is taking place, it is the role of lecturers to ensure that every learner is responsible for advancing from 'I can't' to 'I can' or 'I don't know' to 'I know' (Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(b):58). This means that the activities done by each learner, such as practicing, observing, thinking and applying are essential aspects of the formation of proper concepts. The art of teaching is always related to critical argumentation, a search for solutions, discovery, finding connections and forming syntheses (Crous et al 1997:59). If lecturers can bring these aspects alive for students, their style will exert a significant influence on those students’ present and future behaviour (Hein & Lehman 1995:778).

In a tertiary situation a lecturer plays the role of helping with choosing ways of studying. The students have to choose specific ways of mastering particular items like memorising the names of discrete objects, dates, facts, symbols, ideas, units and material which gives rise to the formation of concepts. In some situations students have to repeat work, use their minds to reproduce lecture content or to work with it more productively, arrive at syntheses via self discovery, reach their own insights through comparing and contrasting, assimilate basic knowledge through reading and internalise specific concepts through observing and handling concrete objects (Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(b):65; Cohen & Manion 1996:201).
The lecturers’ physical appearance in a tertiary situation plays a significant part. When meeting someone, each person’s appearance is important. Lecturers are required to be presentable and show images of good health, reflecting a healthy lifestyle and be neat and well groomed. That means if lecturers show respect for themselves, students will respect them as lecturers and also develop respect for their own bodies and physical appearance. Sloppy and ungroomed lecturers reflect a careless attitude and will not easily earn the respect of students, colleagues, parents and others (Prinsloo et al 1996:47).

Lecturing is a demanding profession and unlimited physical energy and healthy constitutions are required for the drive and inspiration lecturers display (Curzon 1996:20). It is difficult to be specific with the exact age required of lecturers in tertiary institutions, but usually most of them are mature enough. Research carried out show that younger lecturers in tertiary situations are rated as superior in the general teaching situation. Although senior lecturers are evaluated as more knowledgeable, they receive lower ratings for other teaching skills. However, this does not imply that the older the lecturers the poorer their lecturing. Students regard younger lecturers as more suitable with regard to the organisation of tutorial matter and greater enthusiasm for their subject matter (Crous et al 1997:57).

The emotional functioning of lecturers has positive or negative impact on the performance of lecturers. The great demand for professional lecturers and the declining number of people are forcing the available staff at many tertiary institutions to perform several duties. This means lecturers have to sacrifice their need satisfaction to accommodate these changes. In addition to that it is not the greater pressure of work that makes the lecturers tense, but the necessity to decide how best to use the time. This turns lecturers into less human and more impersonal people in their lecture-room (Vrey 1993:300; Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(a):305; Smit 1998(b):100).
In tertiary institutions lecturers usually act in a democratic way. This requires special tact when it might be necessary to reject students' behaviour. When controlling students, lecturers need to suggest and imply rather than order or direct openly. Indirect control is similar to the covert control in that college lecturers lay verbal traps that control students' choice of behaviour while giving the illusion of personal freedom (Vrey 1993:311; Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(a):315).

Body language has significant impact in tertiary situation. For instance when students misbehave during a learning activity, a lecturer (lecturers) gives students a long look, hard look to show that he/she is not pleased with what the students are doing and that the sooner they stop doing it (Parkway 1993:190).

Intellectual ability, high academic achievements, appropriate problem solving skills and knowledge of human development are prerequisites for lecturers in tertiary institutions (Crous et al 1997:32). A mastery of subject matter is highly regarded. However, Lowman (1999:10-11) thinks that knowing material is quite different from being able to present it clearly. Lecturers' cognitive abilities enable them to form deeper understanding of their material, to remember the most important facts, and to look at it from various angles.

Lecturers give students opportunities to sharpen their skills through discussion (Gatawa 1996: 20). In addition to that, the lecturers know that academic success is to a large extent dependent on reading ability, as reading is probably the most important means of learning. Lecturers select books relevant to their programmes (Crous, et al 1997:26). Reading of books develops the minds of lecturers. Lecturers in tertiary education commit themselves to continued education, self-enrichment through research and independent study.

Lecturers are persons, and it is by being persons that they accomplish their tasks. The lecturers' self-concepts lie at the core of their personalities. The self-concept directs their tendencies to action, so that the lecturers' relations with themselves, their self-
concept, will inevitably influence their performances as lecturers. The lecturers’ appearance is a reflection of the acceptance of their self-concepts. Lecturers who are confident are lecturers who accept themselves and esteem themselves. Such lecturers are respected by students. But the communication of lecturers with problems with self-acceptance, self-assertion and self-esteem is so disrupted that their encounter becomes artificial and authority has to be physically enforced with greater or lesser measure of success (Vrey 1993:202).

Language used by lecturers in their oral and written comments or assessment of their students’ test assignment or work in general is not to discourage the students. Instead, lecturers’ constructive comments in amenable language support the students in such a way that it guides the students in their attempts to improve their work.

Lecturers’ relationship with their programmes is different from that of teachers. Lecturers are less inclined than teachers to employ measures to convince students to achieve their targets (Crous et al 1997:47). Instead, lecturers initiate students to share their enthusiasm for a work programme. In these joint efforts, lecturers assume students are motivated.

Furthermore, lecturers not only know the subject they teach, but also know how to organise and present the work to the students. For this purpose lecturers are supposed to be didactically well-organized and able to present the programmes at the level of their students’ understanding in the most suitable way (Parkway 1993: 30).

The knowledge of the lecturers’ relationship with the environment is significant in tertiary situations. The quality of lecturers’ relationships, especially as manifested in the lecture hall, can be considerably improved if lecturers want to understand their students’ viewpoints (Crous et al 1997:47). It is the role of the lecturer to ensure that students are seated in such a way that the arrangement does not reduce the opportunity of some students to learn. It is also their responsibility to ensure that the media, well
ordered collection of books, journals and magazine are readily available for the use of lecturers and students (Parkway 1993:301).

Lecturers are not supreme beings. As human beings, lecturers are unique beings who have their weaknesses together with their strengths. Naturally, as human beings they accept their successes and failures. Lecturers can be defilers of the students’ human dignity. They are also protectors of the student as bearers of dignity. It is because of the above statements that all lecturers are to be critical about their involvement with the students (Vrey 1993:8).

What this means is that there is no perfect lecturer. However, there are a number of aspects with which a lecturer usually complies: to be a strong, pleasant and dynamic personality, displaying an exemplary and incorrigible conduct in life, to be honest, responsible, with respect for authority, forgiveness, trustworthiness, sobriety, usefulness and devotion, absolute candidness, willingness to sacrifice, accuracy, punctuality, diligence and industry, perseverance, soundness and particularly empathy (Du Plooy et al 1993:172).

2.2.1.2 The student as a component
Students in tertiary situations require andragogic support which is different from the pedagogic support they received in school (Smit 1998(b):103). They need the support to keep in touch with reality, especially that which prepares them to be self-reliant. The intimate involvement of lecturers with their students in need of genuine guidance or accompaniment is essential in every tertiary situation. The conditions in modern society are such that students require personal guidance, that is, essentially individual assistance and support or aid, from parents, lecturers, and other support givers. The tertiary students require continuing support and education from their lecturers for educating the total personality. The presence of students in the tertiary situation immediately draws and directs the attention of the lecturers.
The students in residential tertiary situations are usually between the ages of 18 and 24 years. These students have to undertake several tasks, which require considerable physical and mental effort (Vrey 1993:184). Some of the tasks are related to work and leisure time activities such as preparation for an occupation by means of initial or in-service training. They can also systematically pursue recreational interests by joining social groups with similar interests.

Students in tertiary situations are also concerned about their appearance. Several of the students do all to improve their appearance such as dying their hair, and even dieting. In Africa, some girls use chemicals to make their complexion lighter if they have a dark skin. Satisfactory emotional development comes from and contributes towards satisfactory social adjustment. It does imply, a progressive control over ones' own raw emotions, especially the more violent ones, predominantly for social reasons. Most students express their rage verbally, which requires attention. It is related to factors which affect emotional control, such as good health and a sense of security (Parkway 1993:401).

Students in the tertiary situation require lecture content which is challenging and which suits the level of the students. Many students do not have a stable, unambiguous, well-organised cognitive structure. This undermines meaningful learning. In order to understand the lecture content, lecturers give students the opportunity to carry out suitable activities on the basis of the insight they have already attained (Crous et al 1997:60). It is also essential that students learn the importance of reflection and discussion towards intellectual growth. Reading of books is also essential for the intellectual growth of the students. The reading of books serve three main purposes:
- to expand the students' experiences beyond that of their immediate cultural group;
- to establish consensual standards of high expectations;
- to provide assumptions for the faculty as to the literary background of students. These enhance the quality of learning (Weiler 1992: 291).
As persons, students are also in relationship with themselves, with lecturers and fellow students; with the work programme and with the environment. Students find themselves in communities in which they have inevitably participated. There are roles required of a specific person, who in turn has to identify with the role. The students in the tertiary situation see themselves as mature people. They are confident that they can do anything on their own (Vrey 1993:60). The self-concept becomes fairly stable at this level which makes them possess a high degree of confidence for their roles.

The relationship between students and their lecturers is significant. The students need personal support in the lonely quest for improving their life style in an attempt to design a better world (Smit 1998(b):69). The personal relationship has two sides. The students and lecturers mutually benefit from their reciprocal communication. Students and lecturers want to communicate verbally or orally to each other. The message communicated is to reach the other parties in order to develop personal strengths in a mutual relationship.

In addition, students are expected to be explorers, collectors, discoverers and organisers of discovered knowledge. They need to know what to learn and develop in order to cope better with the problems of living with which they are confronted. The environment of the tertiary situation is expected to be conducive to the learning and teaching atmosphere.

It is significant to understand students as persons with reference to their physical appearance, emotional functioning, intellectual functioning and their relationships such as with themselves, with lecturers and fellow students, with the lecture content and with the environment in order to assist them effectively.

The lecturer and the students do not constitute the sole components of the tertiary situation. The third component referred to previously will be discussed in the next section.
2.2.1.3. Lecture content as a component

The educative teaching of the students takes place on the basis of reality from which certain aspects are selected and then presented to the students as lecture content with a view to their development and moulding (Parkway 1993:200).

The lecturers select from the whole of reality those aspects or parts which are required to achieve the education and training goals. These aspects are incorporated in subject syllabuses. A tertiary curriculum chooses to allow itself to be guided in its selection of the said lecture content either by purely educational consideration or by tertiary institution needs or both (Van Schalkwyk 1993:33).

As far as the nature of the programme is concerned, a tertiary institution has both general aims and particular educational objectives which are required by its particular situation (Van Schalkwyk 1993:35).

In order to develop the students' potential to the full, that is across the full spectrum of their being, it is necessary to open reality to them as fully and representatively as possible. This means that all facets of reality are opened or revealed to students by selecting a representative cross-section from reality. In this way even the students' capacity for believing or faith is, for example, formed and developed by opening up norms and content related to their faith (Du Plooy et al 1993:170).

According to the nature of the programmes in the tertiary situation, the lecture content usually suits the students. The forming or moulding of students cannot remain general but may eventually become specifically formative. This requirement arises from the fact that students are first of all like all other students, that is they share universal human characteristics, while at the same time the students are particular individuals. For the tertiary study programme, this requirement implies that the lecture content is selected in such a way that it is suited to each student's particular nature in order to develop his/her unique abilities to the full so as to realise the educational goal (Van Schalkwyk 1993: 35; Parkway 1993:206).
In addition, the study programme represents the whole of reality in a balanced way. This means the teaching of English is not regarded as more important than computer studies and that the teaching of science is not emphasised to the detriment of instruction in matters of faith. Every aspect of reality is taken into account so that the study programme provides a balanced, general formative education (Parkway 1993:208).

The lecture content is supposed to be relevant to the students' situation. Obsolete and outdated lecture content, teaching methods and structures cannot equip the students for modern situations. Relevant development demands that the whole study programme be future orientated rather than preoccupied with the past. Today's societies are far more multicultural than before, life today is more differentiated and complex than that of twenty years ago, the challenges on the social economic and political fronts are more complex than before and threatening factors such as foreign ideologies and physical onslaughts differ completely from those of previous decades (Van Schalkwyk 1993:35).

In tertiary situations students have to learn vast quantities of written material. Hence the lecturer's approach to the content is varied. Lowman (1999:100) points out that available research indicates that the lecture is one of the least effective approaches of transmitting information. Although lectures sometimes lead to improved immediate retention by students compared with simply reading over the material, tests after a few hours or days show that more meaningful learning takes place after the lecture content has simply been read over (Crous et al 1997: 60). This requires that study programmes are presented using different approaches.

In addition to that, meaningful, receptive learning is to take place. During preparation, lecturers approach the material as if they know nothing about it. Global impressions which will reinforce understanding of the details are identified. At tertiary level many students are capable of thinking in a formal-operational way. Lecturers make use of suitable examples and allow students to make their own theoretical deductions.
Explanations are to be made at a level adapted to the cognitive capabilities of the majority of the students in the group.

Points which students find intensely interesting are spread around and integrated with less interesting ideas. At the same time lecturers think about the depth and complexity of their topics and decide on explanations and discussions not so obvious that students learn nothing, nor so sophisticated and concise that many of them are confused by the complexity. It is difficult to find the right depth of explanatory teaching for a particular class.

Too many ideas at high speed often leads to mechanical learning. Students do manage to assimilate the details in respect of every point, which could lead to quantitative development, but the ideas or meanings of their own which they form are extremely limited (Vrey 1993:62).

The varied approaches lecturers use in tertiary situations have some major effects on students’ liking of the programmes and their understanding.

The use of media in tertiary situations is essential. There are proponents of discovery learning and of learning through explanation. The former group feels that learning which does not take place by means of discovery is purely mechanical, while the latter, who support progressive teaching methods, emphasise the lecturers’ ability to ensure meaningful learning (Crous et al 1997:60).

Teaching aids, as the name implies, are intended to help the lecturer to teach more effectively. Students comprehend lecture contents if lecturers use a variety of teaching aids. Group work enhances the students understanding the lecture content. Students’ incompetence to arrive at real insights is often the result of lecturers’ incompetence to organize large and small group discussions, or to put proper use of experience gained during seminars. The programmes are assessed if the students want to know whether they are making progress.
The incorporation of media, teaching aids, group work and assessment of the programme have some influence on both the lecturers' and students' understanding of the subject in general.

Lecturers and students will trust each other if they are all diligent. Trust is a condition for students' accompaniment which demands that lecturers show willingness to teach students, regardless of their appearance or frame of reference, so that they can be accompanied to a more meaningful life (Du Plooy et al 1993:177).

In the previous paragraph the importance of lecture content has been discussed. But it is important to point out that the contents of learning together with the other two components in tertiary situation do not form a set and dull structure, because there is a dynamic relation between the three components:

![Figure 2.1 Relationships between student, lecturer and lecture content](image)

This relationship is characterised by carefully planned activities. It is especially expected of the lecturer as an expert not to act intuitively or to resort to guessing, but to anticipate like an experienced chess-player (Du Plooy et al 1993:178) through planning with a variety of activities. The lecturers plan everything carefully. They decide about the specific theme or themes with which they want to deal in a specific period. The lecturers take into account the amount of knowledge the students have already acquired with regard to these themes and they consider methods to be used in an attempt to direct the students enthusiastically. The students ask questions, observe, look for relations and get involved with new lecture content which they are trying to master.
A more detailed interrelatedness will be discussed in section 2.3 and 2.4. In the next section, some characteristics of the tertiary education situation will be discussed.

2.2.2 Characteristics of the tertiary education situation

Having discussed the components of a tertiary education situation, the focus is on the characteristics of the tertiary education situation. The fact that a tertiary institution is essentially a place of instruction implies that it is also a place where students learn (Koodoo 1994:5). This requires the presence of students, lecturers and lecture content (Larwood 1991:77).

Moreover, the involvement of subject matter in the activities of the tertiary institution reveals (Vrey 1993:7) that the subject matter usually accords with the particular nature and circumstances of the student community as observed by the lecturers (Ulanski 1997:26). This implies that its application is usually in line with local conditions.

The activities of a tertiary situation are directed toward a specific goal or some goals. This goal is determined by educational principles and the particular circumstances of the life-world such as the participants’ ideals, aspirations, ground motive and the cultural and natural circumstances of their milieu (Van Schalkwyk 1993:118).

The mere presence of the students and lecturers at a tertiary institution involves other social structures because the former are, after all, members of families and of specific churches, citizens of the State and aspiring employees of particular undertakings (Wiechers 1999:65). In this way a tertiary situation is interwoven with social structures. This implies that a tertiary education situation is related to the particular nature of the social structures in that the latter leave a mark on or, are co-determinators of the tertiary education situation.
Where two or more people co-operate to achieve a goal, management is required and this includes aspects such as planning organisation, financing and control. A tertiary education situation, as a place of learning and lecturing, manages its activities purposefully in order to speed them up and to make them effective and efficient (Mkhandla 1996: 61). All these qualities of a tertiary education situation impact on it to give it a unique character and nature on the basis of which it can be characterised as a social structure with its own sovereignty (Zindi 1997:10).

Unlike primary and secondary educational institutions which have a strong tendency towards general and specialised education, education and training in tertiary institutions is mainly specialised, predominantly vocational, much more strongly andragogic than pedagogic and thus more instructional than educational (Vrey 1993:190; Van Schalkwyk 1993:117). It does not offer general and basic education like primary education does, but is meant for a selected group only. It can never be made compulsory, it is expensive and intended to fulfil certain education requirements. According to Van Schalkwyk (1993:120), tertiary education is post-secondary and thus has its own unique nature. In addition, Mabena (1994:9) maintains that the students have already reached a certain level of development and are on the threshold of a vocation. As their life task lies in the occupational world, their educational needs are primarily concerned with this (Vrey 1993:189).

In view of the above discussion, it is emphasised that tertiary education is not a general matter but mainly career-oriented and tertiary education of an exclusive nature (Smit 1998(b):16). Tertiary education is usually not state-controlled education. The introduction, control, administration, financing and provision of courses vary from one kind of institution to another. Universities for example, are autonomous, but they are subsidized by the state and the private sector and advised by professional councils for which they train manpower (Nyawaranda & Siyakwazi 1993:19). Tertiary institutions are usually controlled by the ministries of higher education and the trainees employed by such ministries or other ministries, such as ministries of education and culture. In the same way, tertiary education for careers in the post...
office, police and the railways is controlled by the sectors for which they train personnel. These tertiary institutions are furthermore characterised by instruction in the application of knowledge rather than in the collection and dissemination of knowledge. They are concerned with vocational training, which means that students are instructed in the use of application of knowledge, and are trained to master the necessary techniques and skills.

The characteristics of the tertiary education situation influence the students, lecturers and lecture-content to a certain extent. In the next section the study will focus on some of the many factors influencing the situation.

2.2.3 Factors influencing the tertiary education situation

In this section the study refers to factors associated with lecturers, students and the lecture content.

Studies indicate that the age of lecturers may have an influence in the lecturing situation (Visser, Petrick, Van Rensburg, Niewwouldt, Crous & Prinsloo 1993:301). According to the majority of students, the more advanced a lecturer becomes in age, experience and knowledge, the harder the lecturer finds it to understand the needs of students. Most distinguished academics are not necessarily the best lecturers (Visser et al 1993:313; Reid-Van Niekerk & Van Niekerk 1993:1-4).

The physical growth and development of students can also have some influence in the tertiary education situation. This covers not only increases in height and weight, and changes in bodily proportions, but the development of neurological structures and motor capabilities. The development of physiological sexual maturity is also relevant here. Growth in physical size is not a smooth process in which a steady overall rate is maintained, but a matter of spurts and plateaux, with bodily proportions continually changing, requiring constant adjustment on the part of the students to such changes.
The state of physical equilibrium is lost again almost as soon as it has been attained (Child 1996:20).

As with physical development, social development is not at a constant rate, though this is less obvious than physical development. It is influenced by the environment and lecturers are to be aware of the nature and environmental experiences which exist and are needed at each development level. The individual student is at all times learning to adjust to progressively wider and more complex social situations, becoming less and less dependent on one or two individuals to give him/her security. It entails that the students from a stable and secure home environment is much more likely to make good social adjustment than are students from an insecure and uncertain background (Mwamwenda 1995:304; Van Ede 1995:79; Nyamaphene & Letseka 1995:160).

The way lecture content is presented to students by lecturers may have a negative or positive influence in a tertiary situation. Lecturers are expected not to pastor their lecture content. They are to present the lecture content according to the level of their students’ understanding in the most suitable way. The effective lecturers need to keep up with the latest developments in teaching aids and technology and are aware of the developments in their subject area (Smit 1998(b):109).

The language usage and style as systematic teaching of an academic subject has an influence in tertiary situation. The language of a lecturer is to correspond with that of his/her tests and the examination paper (Smit 1998(b):110).

With this general background in mind, the study turns to discuss lecturers in tertiary institutions as total persons.

2.3 LECTURERS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

The total lecturer is a multi-model unique individual. A lecturer presents himself or herself, for example, as having a bodily or physical appearance capable of cognitive or intellectual functioning and with an own emotional life. A lecturer is also a
normative or moral being; this influences her/his conative or volitional life. Lecturers are uniquely situated, meaning that they stand in various relations such as their relation to other people (their social world), with self (the subjectivity) and with the divine (the transcendental reality). Every lecturer represents a unique combination of abilities, potential, and experience (Kokot 1997:15). Although lecturers exist as entire persons in all their relationships, a selection of modalities and relationships are discussed in order to enlighten their presence in tertiary institutions.

In section 2.2 the focus was already on lecturers, but as a component of the tertiary education situation. Many of the matters mentioned there are applicable to this section. This perspective and structure is different.

2.3.1 The lecturer as a total person
The focus is on lecturers' physical appearance as well as their cognitive, emotional, normative and conative functioning. These are closely interrelated and cannot be separated, merely differentiated.

2.3.1.1 The lecturers' physical appearance
Physical appearance refers to the bodily being of a person (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:269). It also refers to the general growth of the body (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:173). The physical growth of a lecturer greatly affects the lecturer's psychological development, influencing his/her relationship with other and his/her self-concept. The more able and active a lecturer is physically, the better will he/she be able to explore the world (Van den Aardeweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:174).

Lecturers often are images of good health, reflecting a healthy life style and are neat and well groomed. If lecturers do not display respect for themselves, students will not respect them as lecturers and they will also not develop respect for their own bodies and physical appearance. The lecturers who reflect a careless attitude will not easily earn the respect of students, colleagues, parents and others (Prinsloo et al 1996:47).
The physical being is also complemented by other aspects of lecturers' modalities such as the intellectual, emotional, cognitive and normative. When one is feeling good or bad, one's whole bearing reflects it (Smit 1997:115; Prinsloo et al 1996:47).

The lecturers' physical appearance also influences students' relationships or relation formation. If the lecturers deal with students in a respectable manner and co-operate well, the students' body language radiates positive cognitive experience (Fontana 1996:305; Curzon 1996:131).

Lecturers also serve as role models of physical being, physical care, physical habits and even of cultural bearing. This also affects their students in a variety of fields and even their career orientation (Smit 1997:115).

2.3.1.2 The Lecturers' cognitive functioning

The concept cognitive functioning is an aspect of the human's being, of which the outcome is knowledge. Lecturers' cognitive experience embraces facets such as analysis, synthesis, abstraction and comparison and leads to objective judgements, pronouncements and knowledge (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:286). It includes the more specific aspects such as perception, concept formation, reasoning, thinking, fantasy and imagination (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:41). It is also a very important modality of being a lecturer. The lecturers’ cognitive functioning is displayed in the lecturers' knowledge of the subject they lecture (lecture content), students, themselves, life, lecturing and personal being.

Lecturers' cognitive functioning is also displayed in the way lecturers know their students and also each individual student. This is an important aspect of being a lecturer, because students differ greatly. Vrey (1993:225) stresses the point that the lecturers’ knowledge of the students precedes any true encounter with the students. A lack of understanding the students individually often result in ineffective communication in a lecture theatre (Prinsloo et al 1996:48).
Lecturers' cognitive functioning is even viewed through their knowledge of multi-cultural groups, how different cultures perceive reality and how these students express their perceptions. Lecturers try to know and understand the students' cultural background. In multi-cultural groups, knowledge of names, preferences, interests and abilities of students is essential in creating good relationships.

Lecturers' cognitive functioning is also displayed through the knowledge they have of themselves and how they accept themselves as they are. A mature outlook on their self-knowledge assists them to evaluate themselves, even through others. This can lead to self-improvement (Prinsloo et al 1996:50). Self-knowledge is the foundation of self-understanding, and self-understanding forms an integral part of the lecturer's self-image and self-esteem (Vrey 1993:70; Visser et al 1993:297) Self-understanding also determines the lecturer's self-acceptance, self-assertion and self-respect. Lecturers with poor self-image, will not have the courage to show themselves to other people (Vrey 1993:224; Fontana 1996:251)

According to researchers, effective lecturers are people with high self-respect and high level of self-acceptance, who have realistic self-image and will subject themselves to criticism (Vrey 1993: 219; Fontana 1996:251).

2.3.1.3 The lecturers’ emotional life
A person's emotional life is one of the aspects of adulthood that demands the least direct intervention, because it flourishes in an atmosphere of love, which brings with it the essential feeling of security and being accepted (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:263). The lecturers' emotional or affective life is displayed in the ways the lecturers establish sound relationships with the students, parents, colleagues and the lecture content.

Emotions add colour and variety to life but have to be controlled and in this respect the will or the conative aspect, and the intellect or the cognitive aspect are necessary.
These may be strong or weak, even absent, and last for varying lengths of time, but are often short-lived. The emotions can be transferred and easily affect other persons. Usually they are expressed in a visible way like happiness, anger, grief and fear. Emotions are easily aroused and also assume a violent nature, can affect our reasoning, logical thinking and power of judgement. Emotions occupy our full attention and dominate our behaviour (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:82).

The lecturers' emotional life is usually viewed through the way lecturers deal with students that are intensely emotionally or affectively vulnerable, such as when dealing with the young students that experience failure. Usually when lecturers are faced with such situations, they reveal a very warm and open personality in order to establish a more meaningful relationship between lecturers and students (Crous et al 1997:60; Prinsloo et al 1996:48). Students, especially in tertiary education institutions, actually expect to see affective stability in lecturers.

The lecturers are also responsible for an orderly and well-structured lecture content in the lecture theatre. The success of the presentation of the structured lecture content is only achieved when the lecturers themselves are disciplined people, systematic and well prepared. These qualities are usually coupled with a sensitive, tactful and convincing approach towards determining the needs of students and getting them purposefully involved (Crous et al 1997: 61).

2.3.1.4 The lecturers' normative being

The normative life of lecturers refers to the norms and values that guide lecturers' behaviour. A norm is a criterion based on values which is applied to assess whether a person behaves acceptably or unacceptably (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:413). In other words, norms are guidelines for behaviour (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:236). Normative refers to that which is accepted and practised by the majority of people in a community or society thus establishing norms or standards (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:158).
Norms are the standardized means of behaving, or the expectations governing limits of variation in behaviour. Norms are usually widespread, some temporary, others more permanent. Some norms may have a considerable impact. Norms could be culturally determined, but also universal, such as respect for human life. Norms may elicit an intense degree of reaction when violated because they are supported by a high degree of consensus. Typical examples of violation of norms can be seen in the committing of murder, rape, theft and burglary (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:156).

The word 'value' refers to the quality which makes something desirable or useful. It expresses the relation between man and object, it shows the significance something has for people, it refers to human attitude towards an aspect (Smit 1998(b):300). It is, for example, desirable or proper that the lecturers respect their students. This means that respect for students is a value.

On the other hand a norm refers to a standard or criterion and it is derived from the significance which a certain matter or object has for people (Venter 1993:127). For example when a norm is used as a criterion the following questions may be asked: Do students behave desirably or properly? Do they respect their lecturers? Respecting the lecturers is an important aspect of proper behaviour (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993: 383). Anything which is considered as value to people is also considered a norm (Venter 1993:127).

In multicultural lecture theatres, many common values and norms are found and highlighted. Lecturers, and through them, their students are sensitive towards identifying, acknowledging and respecting culturally bound norms and values (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:415).
Lecturers usually behave themselves in a proper and respectable way towards the students and the others. In return, students also strive to acquire such values (Prinsloo et al 1996:51).

The lecturers reveal good morals to their students by their own examples. It is of little value to emphasise to students the necessity for tolerance and sympathy if lecturers, in their own dealings with students, show themselves to be intolerant and unsympathetic. Similarly, it is of little value to teach honesty if lecturers show themselves to be not above a bit of sharp practice when it suits them, or to teach even handedness if lecturers then treat students with manifest inequality. Not only, will students fail to learn the desired moral codes under these conditions, they may even end up regarding them with the same disrespect with which they regard lecturers who behave in this way (Curzon 1996:120; Fontana 1996:243).

Lecturers require a sound moral conscience, which means that they are prepared to admit mistakes, resist temptations, listen to their conscience, and seriously consider the rights and wrongs of activities in various contexts. The lecturers are regarded as compensating people who have to counteract the process of erosion to which traditional forms of authority and leadership are exposed (Venter 1993:128). The pursuit of scientific truth should not become all-important in the daily activities of lecturers. Lecturers should leave room for the expression and maintenance of accepted norms and values (Curzon 1996:122).

Lecturers, in displaying their normative life, are also expected to guard against adopting excessively narrow moral standards, values, and judging students according to their set morals. All the choices, decisions and actions have to be evaluated according to one's own independent morals (Fontana 1996:129).

Lecturers need to make choices with regard to a hierarchy of values which will guide their behaviour, chastity, fairness, honesty, common humanity and self-denial. The
examples they set, are of great significance to students, who look up to them as people to identify with (Venter 1993:123).

2.3.1.5 The lecturers' conative life

This matter also needs attention because it refers to the lecturers' involvement in lecturing (Prinsloo et al 1996:51). Conative life is concerned with the basic driving forces which give rise to our behaviour (Vrey 1993:36). The conative aspects of development includes needs, tendencies, impulsion, aspirations, motives, aims, drives, wishes and will (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:49). The aspect 'conative' implies a goal to be pursued and a will to achieve the goal. A motive must exist before the will moves into action. The steps in a conative act can be formulated as follows:

- the aspiration (the struggle for motives)
- the choice
- the decision (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1992:49). In all these steps, the will is the important component. The connection between the will and the aspiration can be shown as follows; the will is the coachman on the coach of life and the aspirations are the horses drawing the coach (Vrey 1993:36; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:49). This means the will acts as coachman with a specific course in mind along which he/she steers his/her aspiration.

Involvement implies a willingness as well as an intention to become actively involved. We may relate this involvement to what moves people to embark upon self-actualisation (Crouse et al 1993:223). Vrey (1993:12) says that people want to act, and so involvement relates to characteristics such as purposefulness, persistence, enthusiasm and dedication.

The lecturers who are enthusiastic and dedicated are usually well prepared lecturers. Besides being committed lecturers, they also have positive attitude towards their work (Vrey 1993:82). The lecturers also make every effort to make students feel worthy,
accepted, adequate, successful and proud to be the unique student he/she is. Tasks
with different levels of difficulty are set so that the students will experience some
measure of success and yet be presented with further challenge. Each student is
assisted to set realistic goals and aspirations (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardeweg
1993:51)

The students who are taught by committed lecturers show interest in their work.
Usually these students are motivated and are filled with excitement of all what they do
(Mwamwenda 1995:500).

Lecturers’ success in the involvement in tertiary institutions is determined by their
relationships. This aspect is discussed in the next section.

2.3.2 Relations of lecturers
Lecturers find themselves in a number of relationships in tertiary education
institutions. These relationships contributes towards their actualisation.

In this section, we briefly deal with lecturers’ relationships with some aspects of the
lecturers’ situatedness, specifically some aspects regarding colleagues and parents,
with the students, and with their area of specialisation. The focus will be on how each
relationship is established, its importance and some factors which influence
relationship.

2.3.2.1 The lecturers’ relationship with colleagues and parents.
Lecturers share much with their colleagues. A pleasant and relaxed relationship with
colleagues is a benefit to all people associated with the institutions, as lecturers work
harder and more successful in their lecturing (Smit(b) 1998:78). They should not
spend much time on unpleasant polarisation, unproductive disputes and even gossip
(Prinsloo et al 1996:56). Lecturers who are not subjected to unnecessary stress arising
from negative relationship with colleagues are free to actualise their full potential as
lecturers. Pleasant staff normally benefit all interpersonal relationships at a tertiary
situation and are prerequisite for the students' own development (Prinsloo et al 1996:56).

Lecturers in tertiary institutions also interact with parents. During these modern days, the crucial role of parents has been realised again concerning education and the way they can contribute towards the success of institutions. For reasons such as these, the lecturer-parent relationship has to be strengthened (Smit 1998(a):128; Prinsloo et al 1996:59).

Lecturers are not at all isolated from colleagues and parents. Communication with parents and colleagues is essential for the lecturers. New ideas, creativity, modifications and other contributions are usually generated by the same people. This is what makes interpersonal relations, dialogue and discussions so important. Seminars and workshops provide an ideal and typical institutional manifestation of a verbal exchange of ideas. The primary group of colleagues and parents in the same community gives a forum for direct, highly personal contact and exchange of ideas. Lecturers' own congeniality, loyalty and respect for the professionalism and human dignity displayed by others makes them reluctant to disappoint these others and this has a mutually beneficial effect. Usually lecturers who attempt to build a pleasant environment in the community have a pleasant contagious effect on their colleagues and parents (Crous et al 1997:48).

A spirit of mutual loyalty towards parents and other lecturers and a sense of mutual belonging among colleagues and parents brings out a sense of loyalty toward the tertiary institutions. Lecturers do not act to the detriment of interpersonal relations among colleagues and other people. New lecturers and other people are not to be received in ways in which arouse prejudice in others. It is essential that lecturers do not act on imagined grievances so as to divide other people's loyalties. Any differences have to be discussed democratically, with the aim being a sense of warm mutual co-operation. The formation of cliques and attempts at winning cheap popularity has to be avoided at all costs. Professional growth and self-actualisation
are also determined in part by pleasant individual and group relationships (Crous et al 1997:49; Curzon 1996:121).

There are also factors which influence the lecturer-parent relationships. Lecturers' expectations usually influence the interaction between lecturers and parents. Both parents and lecturers have expectations of students and such expectations are conveyed to them. If these expectations differ, or lecturers and parents are not aware of each other's expectations, students can easily become confused and negative about their institution (Smit 1998(b):79). On the other hand, if lecturers' expectations are shared, everyone benefits from it (Prinsloo et al 1996:60).

Most institutions are multicultural tertiary institutions and lecturer-parent communication could be demanding (Vrey 1993:40). Some aspects such as backgrounds, values, norms and expectations could also vary. Lecturers make special efforts to understand the different parents better by talking to parents (Smit 1998(b):70).

There are factors which influence relationships (Parkway 1993:300; Vrey 1993:204) with parents. Lecturers find parent involvement interfering and parents feel intimidated and overwhelmed by lecturers and the colleges.

We realise that a positive relationship between lecturers, on one hand, and their colleagues and the parents of their students, on the other hand is to the benefit of teaching and learning of the students (Vrey 1993:205).

This leads us to the lecturers' relationship with the students.

2.3.2.2 Lecturers' relationship with students
A tertiary institution is a social system in which lecturers and students usually encounter one another. Both lecturers and students are forced into a relationship.
Usually lecturers are willingly in the situation, but this does not necessarily apply to the students (Eggen & Kauchak 1994:211).

Lecturers being in control of the tertiary situation play a major role in establishing positive relationships. Lecturers have some ideas of the nature of the students in a specific group. The lecturers are usually prepared for the students and have certain information to pass and share (Smit 1998(b):80). These lecturers trust that they, together with the students in their care, will achieve the set goals they all wish for. Lecturers who involve themselves with students, find that students are willing to accept them positively and that the students have respect for them which result in the establishment of a positive relationship (Vrey 1993:41; Prinsloo et al 1996:54).

If lecturers ensure that their students experience lectures as pleasant situations to which they can look forward, the relationship is relaxed and much more successful. Students easily identify with lecturers whose lectures they enjoy and often work hard so as not to disappoint them. These lecturers also assist students to establish their own value system (Parkway 1993:160; Lowman 1999:48).

Lecturer-student relationships are also established when there is mutual understanding between lecturers and students. Lecturers understand their students in general and specifically those students they have in their lectures, often from different cultural situations. Lecturers understand their students learning problems and how to attend to their needs successfully. Because of this, lecturers do not jump to conclusions. They allow students to express out their views openly and they are sensitive to the expression of students in essays. The lecturers who understand their students are easily understood by their students. The understanding of their students also assists the students to understand the lecture content (Vrey 1993:48).

Lecturers’ high expectation of their students’ achievement has an influence in the learning and teaching situations. Hamachek (1992:286), explains that lecturers’ expectations of the academic achievement of students are, although not necessarily
conscious, essentially a private prediction about the potential of those students. These expectations act as mediators between how students feel about themselves and how they perform academically. Usually circles are established in the relationship between the lecturers and students. The lecturers’ expectations influence the lecturers’ behaviour towards students, which again influence the students’ behaviour towards lecturers and so forth (Parkway 1993:206).

In addition, students who are expected to achieve are treated in a different manner. Lecturers, for example, ask difficult questions to the students who are expected to achieve. They are given more chances and even longer time to respond and are praised more for good answers they give than those who are not expected to achieve. Not only that, lecturers also emphasise the mistake of the latter students and even criticise them more freely (Smit 1998(b):80; Parkway 1993:60).

The students who do not do well or who do not meet the expectation of the lecturers, attribute a negative meaning to them and see themselves as incapable. They are not sufficiently motivated, loose hope and do not want to explore. The resultant is the formation of a negative self-image (Vrey 1993:60).

The lecturer-student relationship is also based on authority. In an authority relationship between lecturers and students, one person expects something from the other person and tells this to the other person. The other person is willing to be told and oblige (Prinsloo et al 1996:58). An authority relationship is established only if the students willingly accept what the lecturers say. Both the lecturers and students become free and usually work hard to please each other (Hamachek 1992:316). This leads us to the lecturers’ relationship with their field of work.

2.3.2.3 The lecturers’ relationship with their field of study or area of specialisation

The lecturers’ relationship with their fields of study requires special attention since the primary role of lecturers is to introduce students to a number of fascinating and useful
subjects. The concept field of study refers to the subject the lecturers impart to the students (Eggen & Kauchak 1994:98). It could also be referred to as the lecturer's area of specialisation or 'subjects' they lecture. At universities, these could also be called 'disciplines'.

The lecturers' relationship with their field of study is established by knowing their field of study. The knowledge of the field of study is acquired during the years of training. Lecturers usually feel that such knowledge is sufficient till they retire (Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(a):310). However, knowledge keeps on changing. This means lecturers remain students throughout their lecturing career because the relationship established by lecturers through the knowledge of their field of study is essential to develop the lecturers' confidence when they lecture (Parkway 1993:80).

In addition, the lecturers' positive multicultural relationship established with their field of study is essential for a good working relationship in a multicultural situation. Lecturers usually discover that their academic orientations do not take multicultural perspectives into account in a satisfactory manner. Lecturers do not claim to know everything. In order to form good relationship with their field of study specifically in a multicultural situation, lecturers allow students, parents and other experts from various cultures to explain matters which are complex. Through this involvement lecturers become better prepared to handle issues in their field of study (Prinsloo et al 1996:55).

It is usually not sufficient to know the field of study without adequate knowledge of how to present their field of study to the students. For this reason lecturers are didactically well prepared and are able to present their fields of study at the level of their students' understanding in the most suitable way (Vrey 1993:34; Prinsloo et al 1996:58).

Lecturers also keep up with the latest knowledge of development in presenting their field of study, using audio visual aids and technology and are knowledgeable about...
developments in their disciplines in order to present their disciplines in a fresh and appealing way. Students whose subjects are presented in this way are more sensitive to vocational opportunities (Bodle 1994:76; Scheck & Catalanelo 1995:5).

Lecturers do not only present facts in an acceptable manner but also use the subject content to enrich students as total persons in all their relationships. Usually lecturers learn the skills through experience and devotion. The lecturers explore the best ways to help their students attribute meaning to their field of work, to experience their subjects in a positive manner and become truly involved in the subjects (Vrey 1993:36; Scheck & Catalanelo 1995:6).

However, there are also factors which could have a negative influence on the lecturers' relationship with their fields of work. Lecturers who, for example do not keep improving their knowledge through study often become ineffective in the lecture rooms. Such lecturers easily lack confidence when questioned and their presentation could lack vitality (Smit 1998(b):100; Parkway 1993:30).

In the next section we focus on students in tertiary institutions.

2.4 THE STUDENT IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

Like lecturers, students present themselves as total persons in all relationships in tertiary institutions. Although students like lecturers, exist as entire persons in all their relationships and modalities, the relationships which correspond with those discussed for lecturers in section 2.3 are discussed here. As with lecturers, each individual student represents a unique combination of abilities, potential and experience.

In section 2.2 the focus was already on students, but as with lecturers, as a component of the tertiary education situation. Many of the matters mentioned there are applicable to this section, although the perspective and structure differ.
2.4.1 The student as a total person

The four aspects of students that are discussed in general terms are the physical appearance, the cognitive, affective and conative functioning of students. These are also closely related and cannot be separated. What follows is an attempt to describe each as distinct for theoretical purposes.

2.4.1.1 Students' physical appearance

The physical appearance of a person refers to a number of aspects of being a person such as the looks of a person. These aspects have some influence on the behaviour of a person.

The age of students in tertiary institutions is usually between 18 and 22 years. As they are physically mature, it is within these years that tertiary students are being prepared for all the facets of adult life. Tertiary students are relatively independent adults in many ways; they have the vote and they could be subject to army service to defend their country. On the other hand, they are economically dependent. At tertiary level, provisions is usually made for student facilities and guidance. This extended period of dependence has forced the tertiary students into the area of pedagogical concern. Lecturers in tertiary situations define the characteristics of this age group as incipient adults. This means active overall assistance declines and become more specialised, and the emphasis shifts to self-actualisation and personal responsibility (Vrey 1993:190).

Another strong physically related aspect related to the age of the students in tertiary institutions is the self-concept. Tertiary students usually enter tertiary institutions with a real sense of identity and a defined self-concept, either positive or negative. The self-concept comprises the totality of evaluation of all physical and components of themselves both within and outside the lecture room; as students of parents and as members of peer groups. The students are able to evaluate themselves as being good
or bad. Some self-conceptions are central and crucial whereas others are peripheral and less important. The students' self-concepts are an integrated totality of these self-conceptions. A positive self-concept usually determines how students relate with themselves (Vrey 1993:190).

Another aspect related to self-concept is the body image, an aspect of being physical. The body image is an important component of the self-concept. The tertiary students are pre-occupied with their bodies which determine their appearance. The self-concept includes far more than the body image, but at the same time the influence of the body image is more important than might be expected. Usually it is by way of the body that people relate to the world and to other people. Students with acne, for example are painfully hesitant about forming social relationships in a new situation. The body image, as an important component of the physical appearance, has an influence on the formation of relationships with students and objects (Woolfolk 1998:201).

Besides the formation of relationship with students and objects, students also use body language. Body language is a generic term for communication by using parts of the body other than the tongue, such as by hand gestures, facial expression, mime, touch and so forth (Peter 1996(b):265). Body language is an essential aspect of the students' physical being, because people judge students and others by their facial expression. However, students have learnt to adjust their facial expressions to lecturers and other students they judge to be social acceptable (Michael & Macharty 1996:26). The body language influences how the students are viewed in tertiary institutions in many ways.

Clothing or attire is an aspect of the students' physical appearance which also requires special attention. Clothing and accessories, such as tie, belts and jewellery, satisfy the students' need to be accepted as members of groups and for self-esteem (Michael & Macharty 1996:30; Peter 1996(b):267; Peter 1996(a):2-6).
2.4.1.2 The students' cognitive functioning

The cognitive approach holds that if people are to understand learning they have to concern themselves primarily with the student's ability mentally to recognise their psychological field (that is the inner world of concepts, memories) in response to experience. This approach, lays particular stress upon the way in which the students interpret and try to make sense of what happens. It sees the students not as the somewhat mechanical products of the environment, but as active agents in the learning process or of change (Fontana 1996:143).

There is a definite change in the students' ability to reason about many topics, to solve problems, to see a situation from many angles, to discuss and participate meaningfully and make a contribution to conversations. They are able to reason and are able to handle the abstract because their cognition has taken on a new dimension (Vrey 1993:38; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:48).

The tertiary students are therefore in a position to:

- think beyond the immediate and the obvious and consider many possibilities of a situation
- consider hypothetical situations
- become involved in problem solving in many fields by planning, anticipating and offering a solution
- become aware of the factors affecting their thinking such as memory, knowledge, communicative and language skills and their attention span” (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:48).

The students are no longer dependent on the concrete to learn content; they can handle numerous abstract matters and form hypotheses about which they can think and debate logically.

The students’ cognitive functioning is displayed interalia through the way they learn and influenced by the way they are taught. Learning is an intensely private, personal matter based on whatever has developed within people over years (Parkway...
Vrey (1993:263) sees learning as a process of problem solving, while research shows that students’ cognitive functioning is based on certain assumptions about students (Vrey 1993:280). Crous et al (1997:289) discuss the assumptions underlying the teaching of tertiary students as follows:

□ Concept of the student. In the process of becoming a tertiary student, there is an increasing move away from dependence towards self-directedness and responsibility. Tertiary students’ need of autonomy is therefore taken into account in the teaching situation.

□ The students’ experience. Tertiary students attach more value to learning through experience than to passive learning.

□ Readiness to learn. Tertiary students become ready to learn when they develop a need to learn in order to cope better with problems of living with which they are confronted.

□ Orientation towards learning. The orientation of students centres on their life world and particular tasks and problems.

□ Time perspective. Students want to be able to apply the knowledge and skills they acquire at once.

These matters are related to the students’ ability to understand the lecture content. In lecturing situations, it is assumed that students are not subject to physical disability which hamper understanding. And the level of knowledge of students is such that, students are able to understand the new lecture content as well as the language used by lecturers. This means that a certain academic level is required from students (Crous et al 1997:253; Vrey 1993:263).

Attention influences cognition but cannot in itself be described as cognitive functioning, because it involves the direction of the total person towards something. The giving of attention is a conscious voluntary decision (Vrey 1993:263). Perception, and indeed all cognitive acts, has its origin in attention. Attention not only initiates cognitive acts but also keeps them going until they have run their course. Usually students do not pay attention to everything that goes on in the lecture room.
Attention is therefore directed in a relatively limited, but not in a constant manner. It can be directed to one thing or divided among several. This means the condition for concentrating the attention may be divided into external and inward conditions. The external condition is the unusual striking, unexpected stimuli such as a sharp blow which compels attention. The inward condition is the interest in the lecture content that makes it possible for students to fix their attention on a particular matter. However, there are also factors which affect concentration such as poor health, the mental state of the students such as absent mindedness resulting from anxiety and fear of the lecturer or of the criticism which hinder concentration. The most important point about attention is that intentional learning is not possible without concentrated attention (Mwamwenda 1995:310; Vrey 1993:265).

Perseverance is also related to cognitive functioning. It takes time to master lecture content. Perseverance therefore is measured in terms of the time students are involved in a specific task given by lecturers. If the students are not prepared to spend the minimum amount of time required for the mastery of the lecture content, the students usually fail to understand the task. Generally speaking, students’ perseverance indicates their attitude to learning and to specific lecture content. Perseverance, regarded as the time students voluntarily decide to devote to various tasks, differs from task to task. Perseverance in studying a particular lecture content is usually connected with the interest and the success experienced by the students (Crous et al 1997:289; Vrey 1993:263).

2.4.1.3 The students’ affective functioning
Affective functioning refers to emotions like love, fear, anxiety, rage, grief, jealousy, hatred, pleasure and gladness (Van Rensburg & Landman 1993:263). Students who have not received adequate educational assistance have strong, obvious emotions and experience rage, anxiety, pleasure, and love intensely. These students have strong affective experiences in various situations (Crous et al 1997:130).
Affective functioning cannot be divorced from cognitive functioning nor can that be isolated from other modalities (Vrey 1993:266). The affective capability of students in tertiary education institutions is essential in the teaching and learning of students. It assists students in the interpretation of their experiences or feelings. When students attribute meaning to knowledge, they also have feelings about something; they experience something.

Students' behaviour is usually inspired by their feeling at a particular time. The affective dimension relates to their interpretation of experience, the students' world as they see it in terms of their experience (Vrey 1993:266). Research indicates that if students' interpretation of their experience is unremittingly negative, then a failure orientation (experience) becomes established that has a negative influence on students' self-concept. The negative orientation also dismantles students' desire to learn new things (Crous et al 1997:131; Vrey 1993:23).

Furthermore, the negative orientation of the students is also related to fear of rejection. The students' fear of rejection by their fellow students undermines students' spontaneity with the result that the utilisation of their affective capability is limited and the students take the cue from other students, that is, the students display a lack of originality (Child 1996:63).

The discussion of students' affective capability is not complete without reference to the characteristics of affective emotions affective and expression displayed by students. Crous et al (1997:132) give a summary of the characteristics of the affective functioning as follows:

- Fear is experienced when students perceive something which is potentially dangerous to them. Tertiary students, because they are intellectually more mature, are not threatened by as many situations or objects as young children. Generally speaking, females are inclined to be more fearful than males and
students who are ill, tired or undernourished are more easily threatened than healthy students.

Anxiety differs from fear in that fear is caused by the students' perception of an objective danger, which is real to the students, even though the danger is imaginary. Usually anxiety is a subjective state emanating from the perception of a problem which the students feel unable to resolve. Anxiety causes overstimulation or withdrawal. Either way, it inhibits learning.

Students at tertiary level are less likely than children to indulge in the physical expressions of affectivity, particularly in public. As with rage, physical expressiveness is increasingly replaced by verbal expression. The students' affective functioning have some implications on the students' affective actualisation (Hamachek 1992:200).

One of the development tasks facing students is the controlled and balanced expression of their emotions.

Tertiary students are usually more easily carried away by their emotions than lecturers. Students' high spirit can lead them into the transgressions of even the most flexible norms. Some students require constant reminding of these norms. However, maturation during the students years' causes emotional reactions patterns to change

Sexual instability and social experiences elicit highly emotional reactions from students. Lecturers' counselling encourage students to be stable.

2.4.1.4 The students' conative functioning
The students' conative functioning refers to the students' involvement in learning (Hamachek 1992:313). Involvement is the mental vitality or energy with which students strive for and learn their lecture content while the intensity of the students
involvement (also known as motivation) is observable in the extent to which they pay attention, lose themselves, take interest, persist, show dedication and practise (Vrey 1993:38). Involvement therefore refers to students' inherent or inner need for growth and self-actualisation. Students all tend to want to know more, so they cannot help getting involved and allocating meaning (Vrey 1993:39).

Getting students involved in learning is essential because the will-power function or conative functioning is characterised by three stages indicating the sequence of events. Firstly there is the striving stage which shows students' drive for self-realisation (Vrey 1993:28). The stage includes striving after success in academic performance, status recognition and acceptance by other students. Striving then brings students to a choice stage, in which the students choose the drives they enjoy most. It is then the lecturers' prerequisite to give students necessary assistance to help students to make a responsible choice so that the students are able to stand on their own. This leads into the decision stage in which students accept a particular meaningful objective or striving and take appropriate action aimed at achieving it (Crous et al 1997:223).

Striving and willpower form an integrated whole and are directly related to the intensity of conative functioning. Students' desire and the will-power to learn the lecture content come in involvement, while the setting of objectives and help through guidance and accompaniment are always related to striving and willpower (Vrey 1993:28; Crous et al 1997:224).

Involvement indicates activity and a tendency to act, which in turn implies the establishment of relationships. Normally, the establishment of relationship is between the students and the lecture content to be learnt. The relationship is established if the lecture content is related to the level of the students. The nature of the relationship reveals the cognitive component while the quality of the relationship points to an affective component (Vrey 1993:29).
After forming meaningful relationships with the lecture content of various disciplines, the students are expected to work with dedication and perseverance towards understanding. The students’ involvement with the lecture content often coincides with positive experiences such as success, since the success will enhance the intensity of the students’ involvement and increase the possibility of successful learning (Van Rensburg 1993:300; Crous et al 1997:263).

Students’ conative functioning is a precondition for all intentional learning, which is why there is an intrinsic interaction between motivation and conative functioning. Students’ involvement shows whether the students have an interest in and want to persist with learning and perfect a specific skill (Van Rensburg 1993:301). A meaningful involvement implies voluntary co-operation and is not enforced by external force. Students usually get involved in learning lecture content if they have set goals to achieve. Real involvement is a typical indication of an inner desire. Students who become involved in a meaningful learning are intrinsically motivated to learn (Crous et al 1997:225).

In the next section we focus on relationships of students.

2.4.2 Relationships of the students
Students in tertiary situations find themselves in many relationships in their daily studies. These relationships contribute towards their actualisation. There are relationships with senior or junior students or peer groups, with parents and lecturers, with God and with the subject matter, to mention just a few. In this section, the study deals briefly with the students’ relationships with friends and other students, the students’ relationship with lecturers and the students’ relationship with their field of study.

2.4.2.1 The students’ relationship with friends and other students
The formation of relationships is both cognitive and affective (Crous et al 1997:129). A meaningful students’ relationship with friends and others is established where the
parties meet as equals, feel at home with one another and feel free to share the most intimate secrets and the most private thoughts and emotions (Vrey 1993:170). In this relationship there is no need to pretend or fear that confidences will be revealed. Parties to such a friendship can openly criticise other friends without condemning them (Kokot 1996:116; Vrey 1993:120).

The relationship established by students who meet as equals plays a significant role in tertiary education. The relationships averts the torments of loneliness than can be experienced even in a group (Vrey 1993:170). It is also essential where characteristics like intelligence and socio-economic status are shared. Students often assist one another to grow and develop (Vrey 1993:23). However, the relationship established by those who meet as equals does not last long unless there is an emotional bond of intimacy, concern and friendliness requiring knowledge of the other person in order to relieve loneliness (Vrey 1993:170).

One way in which students’ relationship with friends and others is established is through the acceptance of one another. Students who are accepted by others are cheerful, friendly, active and natural, and that they also participate readily in all sorts of activities and are quite willing to take initiative (Morrison & McIntyre 1993:144; Vrey 1993:23).

On the other hand poorly accepted students are often moody, sad, anxious and insecure. Students rejected by their friends on account of moodiness often become even more moody. The rejected students usually develop a low-esteem, and a low low-esteem often gives rise to different manifestations of depression and irresponsibility, as well as a lack of perseverance (Crous et al 1997:132).

2.4.2.2 The students’ relationship with lecturers
Students’ relationship with their lecturers is a relationship between two poles, It is established through knowledge of each other. The students and lecturers cannot respect and accept each other unless they know each other. Lecturers’ involvement
with the students, for example implicates a sharing of the students' experience, with
the result that through empathy, meaning is attributed to the experience from the
students' viewpoints. This knowledge presupposes objective knowledge, intellectual,
insight and affective experience (Crous et al 1997:116).

The students get to know their lecturers and perceive their behaviour as friendly and
affectionate, or as cold and unapproachable, or neutral and detached. The intensity of
the positive or pleasant emotional experiences such as affection, respect and regard
largely determines how meaningful a relationship is for the students and lecturers
(Crous et al 1997:45).

In addition a relationship is also established through the fact that lecturers are
regarded as leaders of groups. They are taken as people with superior knowledge of
the subject. Through their academic superiority, they hold and direct the group, and
their chief responsibility is to identify aims for the group. These aims are made in
such a way that no subgroup is favoured (Vrey 1993:23).

The lecturers' experience in handling issues has an impact on establishing a positive
relationship with the students. The lecturers also experience and give love, and this
determines the nature of the care. The students in return experience affection, calm
and security with the lecturers, often through the way they talk to them. Within the
relationship we can clearly distinguish a cognitive and an affective component which
interact and which cannot be separated (Vrey 1993:23). Knowledge often enhances
love, as love demands greater knowledge. The knowledge of feeling and feeling for
one another, or its absence, result in polarisation expressed in acceptance and
rejection. Generally, the positive and negative are often present simultaneously, but it
is the total effect, which motivates the students to exploration or inhibits the activities.
The students' relationship with lecturers, with its polarising effects, forms an
important anchorage point for their relations with others (Kokot 1996:160; Vrey
1993:24).
The students' relationship with lecturers plays an important role in tertiary education institutions. Through the relationship lecturers begin to know more about students' perceptions of their teaching, and their opinions of the way in which ideal personality characteristics are manifested in lecturers’ lives. This could prevent different perceptions between lecturers and students. On the one hand, lecturers may overestimate the students’ knowledge and, on the other hand, the tuition may become irrelevant and unintelligible to a large group of students. According to Kokot (1996:160), knowing and understanding students’ points of view is essential, and this can be achieved only through direct communication with lecturers in interpersonal relationships (Crous et al 1997:48).

Because students want to learn, they identify themselves with lecturers as models. Students note lecturers' general attitudes and their ways of handling situations in the lecture theatre. This helps students develop a stable affective life. Despite the important role played by the relationship discussed in this section, there are also factors which can have a detrimental influence on the relationship. If for example the nature of a tertiary institution is such that it creates a distance between the students’ need for proximity or there is an apparent insensitivity on the part of the lecturers, students feel rejected and resentful. Crous et al (1997:130) and Vrey (1993:23) think that students and lecturers could begrudge each other’s liberties and rights.

Students' relationships with lecturers is also highly affective because of the way the attribution of meaning to one another is experienced. It is because of this affective evaluation that the intentional tendency develops from a feeling of attraction or repulsion into action. Such polarisation often influences the kind of involvement positively or negatively (Vrey 1993:23).

2.4.2.3 The students' relationship with their field of study
Since the primary role of students is to be introduced to a variety of interesting and useful fields of study, it is essential to take this relationship into account (Van Schalkwyk 1993:127).
When students join tertiary education institutions, they want to learn and achieve something in their field of study (Vrey 1993:274; Parkway 1993:160). For the students to succeed, they need to establish a meaningful relationship with the field of study, because learning can never be wholly successful if the students have no significance in it (Broder & Dorfman 1994:240). Learning is not solely a cognitive or rational matter. An affective relationship is established only if the students want to be involved as a person; somatically, mentally, cognitively, affectively and conatively (Vrey 1993:274). The greater the scope for total involvement, the greater the likelihood of successful learning and the more intense the involvement, the stronger the influence of the learning activity upon the self-concept. Students' interest in and attitude to learning and intrinsic motivation, among other things, will indicate the degree of the students' involvement in the field of study (Vrey 1994:274). These are some of the factors related to the establishment of the positive students' relationship with their field of study.

Another factor which contributes to a positive relationship is the relevance of the content of the field of study. According to educational principles, relevance means being up to date and to the point (Van Schalkwyk 1993:33).

A field of study becomes relevant to the students when it meets one of the following criteria (Van Schalkwyk 1993:33):

- when the specific field realises the students' particular aim in their lives, in other words, the students' potentials are exploited in such a way that they will be able to make a contribution to the lives of their times; their development therefore is relevant; and
- when the specific field prepares the students for life which the students themselves are to live both now and in the future; their development is future orientated; and
when the specific field equips them socially, since they will have to make their contribution to life as members of community.

Students have a need to orient themselves to the life world and to refer to relationship with their field of study. It is essential that students understand their field of study to realise their self-actualisation. Involvement with their field of study is only possible if the students have formed meaningful relationships. Knowledge of their field of study implies an effective assignment of meaning, and this calls for andragogical support and explanatory teaching. Involvement in the attribution of meaning heightens the effectiveness of relationships by enhancing their meaning and by leading to students' pleasant experience (Mussen, Conger & Kagan, 1994:584; Vrey 1993:77).

The students' relationship with their field of study is also essential because the students want to feel that they are seen as individuals in the eyes of the community. The purpose of the andragogic process is therefore to improve students' skills in handling their roles in life and society (Crous et al 1997:10).

Although students' relationship with their field of study plays the role of preparing the students to become self-reliant, there are also factors which can have a detrimental influence on the relationship. Students with a weaker self-concept lack stable emotions. They are threatened in their studies. Self-protection is paramount to them as they experience rejection. Students with a poor self-concept and a sense of rejection always imagine that they detect discrimination against themselves as regards to the marking of their papers in their field of study. The result is usually withdrawal, despondency, loneliness and anxiety (Vrey 1993:196; Crous et al 1997:120). In the process of learning, students are increasingly moving away form dependence towards directedness and responsibility. If the students' need for autonomy is not realised in this relationship, they can easily withdraw from the field of study (Crous et al 1997:289).
Other aspects, such as the lack of academic ability, certain personal characteristics such as impulsiveness; lack of flexibility; lack of autonomy or independence or tolerance in situations of uncertainty, lack of self-confidence and flexibility are also likely to contribute negative relationships (Fraser & Van Staden 1996:217; Snape 1993:31).

The discussion thus far aimed at contextualising a situation for tertiary students evaluating their lecturers. Such a context allows for a verifiable clarification of the essential characteristics of efficient lecturers listed in section 1.3. This follows in the next section.

2.5 A DESCRIPTION OF LECTURERS IN TERMS OF THE CHARACTERISTICS FORMULATED IN SECTION 1.3

2.5.1 Introduction

The focus is first on the lecturers' relationship with their area of specialisation. The four aspects discussed are: lecturers' involvement in the area of specialisation, their experience of area of specialisation and knowledge of the area of specialisation and their sharing the area of specialisation in terms of the aforesaid three aspects.

Then focus is on the lecturer-student relationship as a tertiary education relation in terms of the following aspects: lecturers' general attitude to students/a student, their communicating lecture content with students/a student, and involving students/a student cognitively in the lecture content and lecturers' fairness in performance assessment.
2.5.2 Lecturers' relationship with their area of specialisation

2.5.2.1 Involvement in their area of specialisation

The concept 'involvement in the area of specialisation' implies belongingness, an association, an attraction, an urgency to be drawn in (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:191). It presupposes a willingness, an interest, an urge to participate or become involved in the area of specialisation. It is not passive, but accompanied and precipitated by action. Involvement usually leads to an identification because of an intention to know more. It means the lecturers are already familiar with their area of specialisation (Vrey 1993:230). It is not possible to be interested or involved in a totally unknown area of specialisation. Involvement necessitates an action of the will. The longing function of the psyche, the will, is also closely related to intentionality which implies awareness (Gagne & Briggs 1996:85). To assign a meaning, an individual in his totality has to become involved (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:191).

Although the concepts, interests, involvement and attitude are interwoven in this study, the concepts 'attitude' and 'interest' require clarification. Interest refers to lecturers' involvement in a particular aspect or in their field of specialisation. It acknowledges that the lecturers are already partly familiar with the area or field and have already established a relationship with it (Vrey 1993:230). This means that it is not possible to be interested in a totally unknown area. On the other hand, 'attitude' in this context is described as 'a general tendency or state of preparedness to behave in a particular way' with regard to the specific area (Vrey 1993:267). The lecturers' attitude, whether it be favourable or unfavourable stems from the lecturers' generalisation of their own experiences with regard to the area (Gagne & Briggs 1996:85).

An attitude is thus much more generalised than interest, which relates exclusively to experience regarding a particular area (Vrey 1993:267). It includes the ability to arouse interest in or making the area interesting, through interesting presentations, thus making the area of specialisation intellectually stimulating.
There are several ways in which lecturers become involved in their area of specialisation. One of the ways is enhanced when lecturers study their area of specialisation in greater detail. Lecturers who continuously seek more information about the area of specialisation are lecturers who teach other people through their example that learning is an ongoing life-enriching process that does not end with diplomas. With their love of learning, they confirm the timeless message of Sir Rabindamath Tagore that “A lecturer can never truly teach unless he or she is still learning himself or herself. A lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its own flame” (Parkway 1993:47). When lecturers learn more about their area of specialisation, they discover and generate new knowledge through research and other academic activities. They develop the ability to arouse interest in their area of specialisation (Crous et al 1997:32).

Lecturers also establish a positive interest/involvement in the area of specialisation when they are lead to a problem solution, especially when such a problem cannot be solved too easily. This will steel their will to overcome, otherwise they loose interest (Coetzer & van Zyl 1993:59). The notion of natural actualisation tendency is in line with the hypothesis that lecturers who are confronted by problems that are truly interesting and meaningful to them will want to learn and grow, will actively seek out information, will aspire to mastery and will be filled by a desire to be creative. The lecturers develop the ability to present their lectures in an interesting way (Crous et al 1997:50).

According to Batten (1996:80), the lecturers’ own experiences have a strong effect on their attitude towards teaching and learning. Therefore, the lecturers with pleasant educational experiences will possibly have positive attitudes toward education, lecturing and particularly toward the subject they are tutoring.

Lecturers establish a positive attitude/involvement towards their area of specialisation when they feel that they are in command of their area of specialisation and when they can arouse interest and involvement too. Usually, the command of the area of
specialisation is displayed when lecturers develop the ability to hold a discussion for a long time, to involve themselves intellectually, to move themselves emotionally, to develop love for the subject, to observe others during discussion while they are wrestling with philosophical and methodical wisdom. Lecturers usually tend to derive satisfaction when they observe these features. The features reinforce the lecturers’ interest in the area of specialisation they teach (Crous et al 1997:49; Van den Horst & MacDonald 1998:19).

From the above discussion it is noted that there are also factors which can have a detrimental effect on lecturers’ involvement, or interest in their area of specialisation. Apart from these factors that be derived from the matters discussed above, one of the factors is the explosion of knowledge. It is becoming more difficult to keep to date with an area of specialisation. These lead to knowledge getting outdated or too limited specialisation (Crous et al 1997:24).

Lecturers dedicated to high achievement find their own identity threatened by poor achievements on the part of the students. This applies specifically to inexperienced lecturers whose promotion is in part dependent in their success as lecturers. They experience feelings of aggression and rage, leading to criticise their students. Usually such lecturers loose interest in their area of specialisation.

2.5.2.2 Experience of their area of specialisation

Positive and exacting experience of the area of specialisation refers to lecturers’ high energy level in that area as well as pleasure in dealing with and deep interest in that area. It is accompanied with vocal delivery that is lively and dynamic (Centra 1993:41), and includes characteristics such as enthusiasm for and emphasising important information with humour (Kearney, Plax & Hays 1991:315; Du Bois 1993:464).

Experience of the area of specialisation is instilled in lecturers through several ways. One of them is interest in the subject. Interest spontaneously springs from the area of
specialisation which gradually challenges the lecturers to increasingly become involved in more adult intellectual investigations themselves. A gradual withdrawal of supervision by the lecturers is implied so that maturing individuals can eventually attain independence and self reliance (Coetzer & van Zyl 1993:65).

As lecturers usually feel good about their area of specialisation, it contributes in a positive self-image. The lecturers with a positive self-image tend to be at ease and are approachable. On the other hand, lecturers whose involvement with their area of specialisation does not enhance their self-image, are often tense, defensive and unduly strict and prescriptive (Crous et al 1997:20).

Lecturers' thorough understanding of the area of specialisation they teach reflects their experience in them. Experienced, devoted, disciplined, dynamic and well-prepared lecturers are committed lecturers. They do not allow for boredom and their classes are purposeful and filled with excitement. Their audience is motivated and almost effortlessly self-actualising. Disciplinary problems are rare (Prinsloo et al 1996:50).

Lecturers who are cognitively energetic and experienced, often inspire other people to actualise themselves cognitively, not only at tertiary education institutions, but also in careers they follow. And if lecturers know that they find it difficult to inspire other people in their area of specialisation, they try hard to change their approaches in order to instil their experience also to other people (Kearney et al 1991:315; Du Bois 1993:464).

Several studies support the thesis that lecturers' experience in the area of specialisation have powerful effects on other people's thinking and behaviour. The specific experience lecturers provide for imitation can significantly influence the quality of life in the lecture theatre and the future of the lecturers. Lecturers model attitudes toward the area of specialisation they teach as well as the way they treat their area of specialisation. This helps to explain why many rectors report first looking for
experience in lecturer candidates. If they feel positive about their area of specialisation, principals also are more likely to be impressed (Hamachek 1992; Conger 1991:342).

While the experience of what one teaches is a crucial ingredient for good lecturing, it is something that cannot be feigned, because lecturers of all ages are too perceptive to believe the counterfeit. If lecturers become a bore with the area of specialisation they teach, they need to find new ways to be interested in them again, new approaches for teaching the theme and new dimensions of the area of specialisation to study. If they feel inadequate in a subject area, they change their attitude or they will pass on their insecurities and dislikes (Lowman 1999:18; Hamachek 1992:317).

Lecturers’ enthusiasm for subject matter is also influenced by some factors. Some of these factors can be derived from the discussions above. Further more the enthusiasm of students is at first sufficient reward for the lecturers, but gradually the repetition of the lectures and lecturers' familiarity with the subject matter make them ignorant of the students. If lecturers have been lecturing for a long time, their motivation to teach diminishes if they do not endeavour for example, to vary approaches or areas of focus (Crous et al 1997:51; Lowman 1999:71).

2.5.2.3 Knowledge of their area of specialisation

The concept knowledge of area of specialisation refers to the ability to grasp subject matter and ability to group the interrelationship, concepts and areas of knowledge (Centra 1993:41). It includes the ability to relate theory to practice, the course material to experiences of the students and to be knowledgeable about world events. It also refers to the mastery and accuracy of information and the ability to analyse, integrate, organise, apply and evaluate information in the area of specialisation (Lowman 1999:40; Centra 1993:41).

Lecturers attribute meaning or establish knowledge of the area of specialisation by keeping up with new developments in their specific subject areas that ensures that
they possess sufficient knowledge and skills to facilitate meaningful learning in the teaching learning situation. This requires intense involvement on the part of lecturers (Van Rensburg 1994; Vrey 1993:207; Crous et al 1997:34). This is why lecturers at tertiary institutions are urgently required to be trained to improve their ability to impart knowledge. An initial teaching qualification is not sufficient (Vrey 1993:208). Lecturers’ knowledge is enhanced through formal and non-formal studies. Lecturers who enter tertiary education institutions have to commit themselves to continued self-enrichment through research, independent study and intensive reading in their field of work. They have to attend symposiums, congresses and subject matter seminars (Loubser 1997:24).

Lecturers who know their area of specialisation and are enabled to look at it from various angles, have fewer problems in whether by assent, intervention or explanatory teaching (Vrey 1993:208; Crous et al 1997:34).

The lecturers research and publish books and solve problems. Most of the lecturers’ time is spent disseminating or unravelling the intricacies of the area of specialisation and its role in everyday life (Mkhandla 1996:15). Other skills are gained and complement this aspect and provide the lecturers with the technique of delivering the lecture content (Ulanski 1997:20).

According to Prinsloo et al (1996:58), lecturers with good knowledge of the area of specialisation do not only present facts as they are, but also use the content to enrich themselves as total persons in all their relationships.

Lecturers who demonstrate a mastery of the area of specialisation have fewer disciplinary problems. Such lecturers present their area of specialisation in such an objective way that the lecturers themselves will see the relative 'sense' or use of their lectures and its eventual values for the world of tomorrow (Kutnick & Jules 1993:401).
However, there are also factors which affect lecturers’ mastery of area of specialisation. Some of these have been implied above. Apart from that, the establishment of numerous vocationally oriented courses for students presented by various bureaus, centres, institutions and colleges or tertiary institutions, lead to fragmentation of lecturers’ duties. This results in matters such as conflict overlapping, leading lecturers to stop study of their own areas of specialisation (Crous et al 1997:40). Falling student numbers reduce promotion opportunities and force lecturers in tertiary institutions to earn additional income elsewhere resulting in lecturers abandoning their areas of specialisation (Van Rensburg 1993:201).

2.5.2.4. Lecturers sharing their area of specialisation in terms of involvement in as well as experience and knowledge of their area of specialisation

Although this section is closely linked to section 2.5.3.3, it is also different as the latter section focuses on lecturers' responsibility in leading and managing lecture situations. Tertiary students identify with lecturers presenting their area of specialisation in tertiary institutions. Lecturers are usually keen to get their tertiary students involved in their areas of specialisation. The students want to get involve in their lecturers' areas of specialisation and many succeed in achieving the expected level of involvement.

In getting their students' involvement in their area of specialisation, lecturers knowingly and unknowingly get students to share their experiencing such areas. Students share this affective association and are often keen on extending and deepening the association, as they are attracted to the area of specialisation.

Students' involvement and experience cannot be separated from their acquiring knowledge of their lecturers' area of specialisation. Many lecturers are primarily concerned about this one fact of their lecturer responsibilities and they want and are expected to share their knowledge with their students. Students are also primarily
aware of their commitment to gain knowledge of their lecturers' area of specialisation when they register for a course (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:48).

The ideal is that students share their lecturers' area of specialisation in terms of all the aforementioned modes of existence in an integrated and balanced manner, that will allow both students and lecturers to realise their becoming the persons they want and ought to become.

Sharing area of specialisation refers to the ability to prepare and organise such areas for students. It includes such aspects as a detailed lecture content outline, establishing lecture content objectives, good preparation for each class session and good evaluation of procedures (Centra 1993:41).

Sharing knowledge in their area of specialisation is established only when the lecturers are involved in their area of specialisation. Explanatory teaching is one of the ways in which lecturers share their getting involved in the area of specialisation. The main purpose of explanatory teaching is to clarify the conceptual organisation of the area of specialisation, to throw light on awkward points which give rise to ambiguity, to highlight criticism and important issues, and to inspire and instil positive attitudes towards the area of specialisation (Mkhandla 1996:20). A more meaningful involvement between the students and the area of specialisation is formed through explanatory teaching (Vrey 1993:209).

When sharing area of specialisation with students, global impressions which reinforce understanding of the details are usually identified. At tertiary level many students want to be as involved as their lecturers are in the area of specialisation. This means lecturers use appropriate examples and allow students to be involved in making their own theoretical deductions at a level adapted to the cognitive capabilities of the majority of the students (Lowman 1999:103).
2.5.2.5 Essential characteristics of the lecturers' relationship with area of specialisation

The list of essential characteristics summarised below is of special significance, as it will serve as point of departure for considering criteria for tertiary students' evaluating their lecturers. Such criteria are reflected in the items of the questionnaire (see section 3.3.1.2). The characteristics have been extracted from section 2.5.2, under corresponding headings, as well as section 2.3 as necessary.

Involvement in the area of specialisation

The following essential characteristics are identified:

Efficient lecturers:
- continuously search for more information on their area of specialisation
- are interested in their area of specialisation
- are keen to discuss their area of specialisation
- are easily carried away by the area of specialisation
- deal systematically with their area of specialisation
- consider their area of specialisation to be of great importance
- target for some achievements in their area of specialisation
- spend time dealing with their area of specialisation
- know that they have mastered the area of specialisation
- represent their area of specialisation in a personal manner

Experience the area of specialisation

Efficient lecturers:
- display interest in their area of specialisation
- are at ease with their area of specialisation
- are committed to their area of specialisation
- have a thorough knowledge of their area of specialisation
- are willing to involve others in their area of specialisation
- lead others to appreciate their area of specialisation
- show confidence of their area of specialisation
- Enjoy dealing with their area of specialisation
- are enthusiastic about their area of specialisation
- deal with their area of specialisation in a dynamic way

**Knowledge of area of specialisation**

Efficient lecturers:
- can analyse information in their area of specialisation
- can synthesise information in their area of specialisation
- link everyday events to their area of specialisation
- possess thorough understanding of their area of specialisation
- deal with their area of specialisation in a logical manner
- keep up with new discoveries in their area of specialisation
- use clear language when referring to their area of specialisation
- are keen on further inservice education in their area of specialisation
- demonstrate mastery of their area of specialisation
- spend much time on their area of specialisation

**Sharing area of specialisation in terms of involvement in as well as experience and knowledge of area of specialisation**

Efficient lecturers:
- want to get their students involved in their area of specialisation
- succeed in getting their students involved in their area of specialisation
- want their students to experience their area of specialisation positively
- succeed in getting their students to experience the area of their specialisation positively
- like to be involved as their lecturers in the area of specialisation

Students of effective lecturers:
- like to experience their lecturer's area of specialisation
- want their lecturers to acquire knowledge of their area of specialisation
succeed in getting their lecturers to acquire knowledge of their area of specialization
influence their lecturers understanding, ideals and feelings; their entire being.
would like to be as knowledgeable as their lecturers in their area of specialisation

2.5.3 The lecturer-student relationship in tertiary education relationship

2.5.3.1 General attitude to students

Attitude to students refers to lecturers' intellectual knowledge, stimulation of interest, thoughtfulness and ability to motivate students (Centra 1993:41). It is also described as a general tendency or state of preparedness to behave in a particular way with regard to the students. The lecturers' attitude, whether it be favourable or unfavourable, emanates mainly from the lecturers' generation of their own experience with regard to students. It relates exclusively to experiences regarding a particular student (Vrey 1993:234).

Lecturers' positive attitude towards students is usually formed when there is respect and trust of one another. Lecturers who trust and respect students are unconditionally trusted and respected by students. Such lecturers trust that they, together with the students for whom they care, will achieve the educational goals and ideas they all wish for. This means they treat students as if they were what they ought to be and help them to become what they are capable of being. In other words, lecturers who involve themselves with their students find that students are willing to accept them positively and that the students have respect for and faith in them, thus establishing a positive behaviour (Crous et al 1997:30).

When lecturers and students experience a pleasant situation, a positive relationship is easily established. Experienced lecturers ensure that their students experience their classes as pleasant situations to which they can look forward. A pleasant situation establishes a relaxed atmosphere, which is conducive to learning and teaching.
Students easily identify with lecturers they enjoy and often work hard to impress them. Such lecturers help students to establish positive attitude towards their work (Van Rensburg & Visser 1993(a):300).

Mutual understanding leads to a positive attitude towards students/a student. Lecturers show good understanding of their students in general and specifically those students they have in their groups, particularly the slow learners and those from different races. Lecturers understand their students educational goals and how to attend effectively to their needs. Because of this, lecturers in tertiary institutions try to find out as much as possible about their students and usually do not jump to conclusions. Besides allowing students to express themselves on certain issues, they also observe students in all their activities and are sensitive to expressions of students as individuals. Lecturers who understand their students are also easily understood by those students. Even the attribution of meaning in the different fields of study comes so much closer, and positive attitudes to students are easily established (Prinsloo et al 1996: 57).

Positive lecturer-student relationships are easily formed when the students themselves know that lecturers listen to their suggestions, are available to assist them, show a caring attitude and have genuine interest in students (Centra 1993:561). Lecturers who are positive about their students, usually have positive expectations of their students (Prinsloo et al 1996:460).

However, lecturers' high expectation of students' achievement can also have some detrimental effects on the formation of their attitude to students. Because lecturers expectation of the academic achievement of students is a private prediction about the ability of the students, such expectation acts as powerful mediators between how they perform academically. Usually circles are established in relationship between lecturers and the students. Lecturers' expectations influence the lecturers' behaviour to students, which in turn influence the students' behaviour to the lecturers either
positively or negatively, resulting in a negative attitude to one another (Vrey 1993:230; Prinsloo et al 1996:56).

There are, unfortunately, lecturers whose attention is centred on the area of specialisation, who assume an authoritarian stance and show no interest in their students.

2.5.3.2 Communicating lecture content with students

Communicating lecture content with students refers to the ability to explain subject matter clearly to students. Clarity includes the clear explanation of concepts, comprehensibility and the systematic presentation of material with summaries of major premises (Centra 1993:42).

It also refers to helping the students to understand the lecture content in the lecture room situation (Batten 1996:7). "Communicating lecture content constitutes the 'technical' aspect of teaching profession. It forms the essence of the job. It is the main task the lecturers execute most of the time and throughout their careers. Most of the student-lecturer time is spent disseminating or unravelling the intricacies of the lecture content and its role in everyday life. Other skills build on and complement this aspect and provide the lecturers with the technique of delivering the lecture content" (Mkhandla 1996:15).

The ability to explain clearly and help students to understand the lecture content is established in a number of ways. One of the ways for lecturers to communicate lecture content with students is to organise the lecture content as if they know little about it (Lowman 1999:11). Lecturers focus on essential aspects rather than be distracted by scholastic impressions. An ability to organise the lecture content logically leads lecturers to acquire the ability to explain or share complex lecture content simply (Lowman 1999:11).
The ability to communicate lecture content is enhanced by being coherent in the use of language (Smit 1998(a):120). Lecturers share knowledge with students by using easily intelligible grammatical sentences. The ability of being coherent depends on the mastery of the lecture content. It also depends on the social confidence of the lecturers in the lecture room (Smit 1998(b):105). Lack of knowledge is usually indicated by the number of times the lecturers interrupt themselves to reformulate what they are saying and the number of sentences they leave unfinished (Smit 1998(b):106).

Communicating lecture content with students is also done effectively with the use of visual aids or information technology. By using apparatus, the relationships which are difficult to explain through speech alone, are simplified (Smit 1998(b):106, Omotani & Omotani 1996:112). Linn (1998:71), reporting on the findings of a conference on education and the challenge of technology, sees the answer to effective sharing knowledge with students in the use of technology in the future as a fruitful direction for improving the sharing of knowledge. Researchers who are aware of the students’ process of reflection and reconstruction, have created simulations and design environments that are completely new educational tools with tremendous advantages for students (Linn 1998:72, Smit 1998(b):106, Omotani & Omotani 1996:112). Design environments such as Stella (the acronym for Structural thinking, experimental learning laboratory with animation) allow students to try ideas, observe their implications, and define them. Developments in computer technologies challenge lecturers to examine future decisions or sharing knowledge with students (Linn 1998:72).

Communicating lecture content with students is also enhanced through the lecturers’ adoption of student-oriented approach. If the lecturers know what they want to communicate to the students, they keep in mind the position of the student, for whom the subject matter is a new experience. The lecturers become careful to avoid vagueness in expression, the use of 'lover all' words and the use of wrong words. The right word represents an idea to students with such startling precision that students...
rejoice in grasping the thought as though a screen between the mind and the lecturers has been removed (Smit 1998(b):107, Parkway 1993:300).

The knowledge of denotation precision enhances the ability to communicate knowledge with students in a tertiary education situation. Words are not articles, but symbols that stand for things or concepts (Smit 1998(b):108). The better the signs, the clearer the image shared with students in their minds. It is essential that lecturers denote the meaning as precisely as the lecturers are to point out a specific image, word or phoneme on the chalkboard (Smit 1998(b):108; Mwamwenda 1995:504).

Studies show that the clearer the lecturers are in communicating lecture content with students, the more likely students benefit from lectures (Parkway 1993: 301; Smit 1998(b):108; Mwamwenda 1995:504). Lecturers who give clear explanations have students who learn more and who rate their lecturers more positively (Mwamwenda 1995:505).

In a review of studies on teaching in tertiary education institutions, Feldens and Dunson (1997:16-18) observe that one of the most common aspects of lecturing included in evaluation instruments, is communicating lecture content with students. The study reviewed suggests that lecturers in tertiary education can be reasonably confident that students exposed to lecturing achieve at a higher level and evaluate lecturing more positively than students experiencing lecturing that is low in clarity when communicating lecture content with students. The adoption of the lecturers’ ability to share knowledge with students provides a better understanding of a specific database for the improvement of instruction at the tertiary level.

The ability to effectively communicating lecture content with students is enhanced by lecturers through the precise use of words. Lecturers avoid the use of vague words such as 'perhaps', 'may be', 'might', 'probably' and 'usually'. When lecturers use these words, it means that they are not clear of what they want to convey. Lecturers should

The lecture content taught to students is a connected discourse. The lecture content is structured in such a way that one episode logically, leads from one to the other so that students make sense of what the lecturers are teaching. This entails that lecturers are well prepared (Smit 1998(b):109). All the sub-themes connected with some transition signals, make a theme well connected.

Successful lecturers adopt ground modes of didactic conversation (Miller 1994: 28). The adherence to the suggested didactic communication rules helps the lecturers to become dramatic or immediate through this vitality of the spoken language (Parkway 1993:310), such as:

- the use of contractions like 'it's' 'don't'
- leave out 'that' where possible
- use of pronouns I, we, you and they as much as possible. Avoid the use of 'it' and the passive voice.

Communicating lecture content with students is also effectively established through the use of appropriate language. The students copy the lecturers' language, even if it is bad language (Smit 1998(b):108). The language used by lecturers to communicate with students in their oral and written evaluation of the students' test, assignments or work in general, does not discourage students. The language lecturers use is understandable beyond doubt. The lecturers' use of grandiloquent words impress lecturers' peer in the faculty, but not their students. Effective lecturing itself is dependent on the fundamental factors, which discipline the lecturers' communication with students; whether it be oral delivery in a lecture-room or in written notes (Smit 1998(b):108; Miller 1994:30).

Successful lecturers attempt to come down to the level of their students (Van Rensburg 1997:30). Lecturers choose suitable concepts relevant to the level of the
students. Word choice does appear important but research in human communication shows that subtleties of language strongly influence the leadership relationship that develops in lecture-rooms over time (Lowman 1999:71).

It is also important that lecturers avoid mannerism such as 'OK' and 'alright'. They should also avoid individual and group jargon that are meaningless. Distracting bias, unnecessary censorship and spurious, cluttered and unintelligible communications are problematic.

Lecturers should plan and organise the lecture content they communicate with students in a logical, and easy to understand manner. Lecturers should effectively use Aristotle's suggestions in the art of persuasion. Aristotle advocated that a discourse is divided into three clear sections.

- Introduction: tell them what you are going to tell them;
- The argument: tell; and
- The recapitulation: tell them what you have just told them (Nacino-Brown et al 1996:21).

The ability to recapitulate is very useful, even necessary, because no matter how keenly the students attend to what the lecturers are saying, the students' attention wonder due to physical or mental fatigue or even noise in a lecture theatre.

Poor communication with students breeds misunderstandings, omissions, numerous errors, rumour, conflicts and general inefficiency. It affects the planning and organisation of learning in tertiary education situations.

From the above examples given, it is clear that there are also factors, which have a detrimental effect when communicating lecture content with students. The failure of lecturers to develop an ability to speak effectively will normally block communication between lecturers and students. An ineffective manner of speaking is an impediment.
No matter how well the ideas are thought out, or how logically the sentences are structured; if the speaker has not learned to reinforce his/her ideas with an expressive speaking manner, she/he will be dull, even tedious to the listeners. His/her attitude is passive and uninteresting, if he/she makes no eye to eye contact with his/her voice is monotonous. Teaching is a ‘dialogical’ – a two way, give and take process. It is an elevating dialogue – not a depressing monologue.

Another factor which has a detrimental effect in this regard is the lecturers’ and students’ inadequate verbal communication skills. The most important verbal communication skills necessary for human communication, face-to-face and interpersonal, are speaking, writing, listening and reading. Adequacy in all four verbal skills means sufficient vocabulary and knowledge of the structure of the code or language being used. If the lecturers are inadequate in verbal communication skills, they are limited in their ability to translate their thoughts, ideas or intentions into messages that elicit the response they desire. Likewise, certain deficiencies in the students’ verbal skills will affect the way they give meaning and consequently the way they react or respond to the meaning. If the students fail to understand the lecture content, then it means there is no communication (Crous et al 1997:256; Nacino-Brown et al 1996:19).

A common ground between lecturers and students can be assumed, without it existing in reality (Feldens & Dunson 1997:18). The tendency is to be less explicit than one would otherwise be, and to attempt to communicate by relatively vague reference. One clear indication of vagueness is the frequent use of the phrases such as ‘of course, you know’.
Sharing knowledge with students does not take place without the voluntary and willing participation of the students (Smit 1998(b):72). Apart from the students' performance in basic acts, the students' have to be willing to analyse situations and make judgements.

The characteristic communication with students serves several functions in the lecture-room interaction. The lecturers use the skill to give information, direction and commands, which are essential to the students (Crous et al 1997:257).

**2.5.3.3 Involving students cognitively in the lecture content**

The concept involving students cognitively in the lecture content refers to the judicious exploration of experience for a purpose such as understanding, planning, problem solving, creativity, learning by discovery, decision-making, judgement and action. Involving students cognitively is always associated with logic and intelligence. However, not all involving of students cognitively is logic and neither does it always reflect intelligence (Mkhandla 1996:26). It is the kind of thinking that broadens the students’ perception of the environment.

This means teaching and education aim at involving students to think in a rational and objective way. Egocentric logic is replaced by rational logic, and impulsive tendencies and unrealistic approaches by greater insight and more holistic thought. At the same time, students are moulded so that their inclination to behave impulsively and intuitively disappears (Vrey 1993:17). There are many ways in which involving students cognitively in the field of lecture content is established. Some of the modes are problem-solving, learning by discovery and creativity.

Lecturers involve students cognitively in the field of the lecture content via the use of learning by discovery. Learning by discovery is generally used when the subject matter is not presented in a final explanatory form. It is therefore different from explanatory teaching and receptive learning. Students become actively involved instead of listening to the lecturer dishing knowledge up to the students. Before the
students assimilate lecture content, they re-arrange, re-organise or restructure the lecture content, and to do this, analysis and synthesis is usually required from the students (Vrey 1993:250, Visser et al 1993:287).

Learning by discovery obviously intersects all forms of learning. It is also present in the process of concept formation and in the inductive acquisition of comprehensive concepts in the process of assimilation. It is present as a distinct type of learning in problem-solving and creativity (Vrey 1993:256; Parkway 1993:179).

The concept 'problem solving' has received many definitions, some differing so widely as to be mutually exclusive (Vrey 1993:256). At every phase during the students’ development, the students are confronted with problems. The students encounter difficulties and they are required to find solutions to the problems. Crous et al (1997:167) define problem-solving as an operation in which both the cognitive representation of past experience and the components of the current problem situations have to be reorganised in order to attain a particular objective.

In tertiary education, situation problem solving occurs when the students are confronted with a problem that is genuine to them in terms of their needs and experiences. A real problem is more than an idea to be manipulated (Parkway 1993:300). If the students are not directly aware of the problem and are not personally involved in it, then it is not a problem for them. It means the problem is for someone else. In order to solve problems that occur to the students, in what Dewey terms a 'felt need', the students assemble the required information, organise and rearrange it until insight is achieved and the solution is seen as a means end relationship (Crous et al 1997:18).

An ability to encourage thought as an essence of ideal lecturers is actualised adequately only when students perceive a problem. This entails that if lecturers require actualising thinking as a mode of learning, the lecturers make the students become aware of the problems in the content. The lecturers do this by putting direct
and clearly formulated questions. The students see these questions as relevant and understand that the answers of the questions have meaning for them. During the process of answering the questions, the lecturers direct the students' thinking and make sure that they do not stagnate at the level of the concrete or visual level, but proceed to the abstract level of thinking (Broder & Dorfman 1994:238).

Creativity is directly related to problem-solving in which thinking is mainly convergent (Crous et al 1987:168). In geometry, for example when students are asked to prove that two lines are equal in length or find the value of a particular symbol, only one correct answer is acceptable. Where creativity is needed, there is usually no predetermined correct answer. What is needed here is a combination of realistic thought and imagination. It is a kind of a problem-solving, but without a specific answer. Creativity is predominated by self-expression and it is vital that the answer is relevant (Vrey 1993:256; Crous et al 1997:168).

It is the role of the lecturers to encourage the students to think and be creative. The lecturers use what is familiar with the students, the lecturers formulate instructions in a manner that the students are able to transcend the familiar reality and design and create new realities. Typical examples of this are free assignments in science and composition (Hamachek 1992:316, Gagne & Briggs 1990:107).

Lecturers’ ability to reinforce motivation to acquire knowledge of the area of specialisation is also significant. Lowman (1999:200) thinks that no lecturer can make students learn. Consequently lecturers cannot be fully blamed, when students fail to learn. One of the ways to reinforce involving others is by the example set by lecturers. How the lecturers present their area of specialisation reinforces the desire to pay attention and to encourage learning.

However, there are factors which affect involving students cognitively in field of knowledge. An insufficient opportunity for self activity when students are presented with concrete situations cause the students to learn verbal concepts without
understanding what these are about, resulting in false accommodation. Since real knowledge does not originate outside the students but within the students through the use of their own logic, poor instructions usually give false knowledge. If students, in problem situations, merely recall their knowledge without determining which parts of it are true to the problem, and fail to discover interrelationships between these parts, they manifest an inability to think (Crous et al 1997:159; Vrey 1993:209).

Sharing of the area of specialisation with students is also affected when lecturers present too many ideas at high speed. Usually this leads to mechanical learning. It is usually difficult to assimilate the details in respect of every point which does lead to quantitative development, but the ideas or meanings of their own which are formed are extremely limited (Vrey 1993:210; Crous et al 1997:61).

Another factor which affects sharing the area of specialisation with students is students’ incompetence to understand the subject matter as a result of lecturers’ incompetence to give proper lectures, organise large and small group discussions, or put to proper use experience gained during seminars and when giving guidance to tertiary students (Van Rensburg 1997:201).

Many people are being educated in their second language. This causes barriers to learning. Support has often not been available to enable people to gain proficiency in the medium of instruction of the centre of learning (Landsberg & Burden 1998:18). In addition, inappropriately sophisticated language usually leads to poor concept formation and impairs the development of thought (Vrey 1993:70; Crous et al 1997:159).

An inflexible curriculum may not meet the diverse needs of all the students in class, leading to learning breakdown. Inadequately trained lecturers use teaching styles that limit the initiative and involvement of students. What is taught through the curriculum may be inappropriate to the students’ life situations. That inhibits thinking in class (Landsberg & Burden 1998:6).
2.5.3.4 Fairness in performance assessment

The concept 'fairness in performance assessment of learning' is there to inform effective teaching and learning, and to identify types of support needed (Landsberg & Burden 1998:24). Assessment has a dual outcome. It determines the progress of students and the attainment of learning outcomes. It also involves identifying barriers of learning success and development, which are not directly related to the continuous assessment of the learning programme. Sharing assessment of learning success also includes fairness in testing. It is an important modality.

In a recent study carried out by Watkins and Akande in Nigeria (1992:457) students were asked to select as many as five of the questionnaire items that they felt were most important in describing their overall learning experience in the classes of both the good and the poor lecturers, the essence 'fairness in performance' of learning success was rated as being the most important. Furthermore subsequent cross-cultural studies carried by Watkins, Thomas and Shahu (1994:260) the 'essence fairness in performance assessment' of learning success was rated by respondents from six countries as a characteristic of an effective lecturer. The Nigerian students were more particular with fairness in performance assessment of learning success than the students from other countries. The implication is that sharing assessment of learning success (fairness in testing and assessing) is an essential aspect of successful lecturers, which needs to be developed and cultivated among our lecturers in tertiary institutions.

Fairness in performance assessment of students' written work is done more fairly and objectively if the lecturers do not know the students' names on written work. This entails that lecturers encourage their students to use registration numbers instead of using names (Lowman 1999:171).
Lecturers establish fairness in performance assessment by avoiding the use of grades when assessing students' performance (Parkway 1993:301). Hamachek (1992:300) suggests a number of ways whereby lecturers may grade fairly and objectively.

- Use written evaluations: This allows the lecturers to spell out in greater detail strengths and weaknesses and discuss recommendations for improvement. The logic behind is that the written evaluations will be more meaningful to parents, admission officers and potential employers.

- Use self-evaluation procedures. Here, students evaluate their own progress, either in writing or in a conference with the lecturers. These evaluations are then sent to parents and included in permanent records. There are no grades.

- Give grades, but do not tell the students. Students get grades as usual but are not told. Rather, a strong, personalised advising system keeps students appraised of how much they are doing and gives them a clear perspective of where they stand in relation to peers (Hamachek 1992:300).

In addition to suggestions given by Hamachek (1992:300), lecturers are also increasingly going beyond traditional tests and are using individual and small-group projects, portfolios of work, video taped demonstrations of skills, and community-based activities to evaluate students learning. Similarly, the performance of some lecturers is being assessed through essay examinations that require the analysis of simulated problems, computer stimulation's portfolios that document the lecturer's work, and videotapes of lecturing (Parkway 1993:400).

Fairness in performance assessment become successful when lecturer's tests meet certain criteria:
□ Validity. The degree to which the test measures what is intended to measure;

□ Reliability. The constancy with which the test measures what is intended to measure;

□ Discriminatory capacity. Any test makes provision for individual differences with reference to achievement. The greater its discriminatory capacity, the more clearly a test will distinguish among the students being tested as far as their achievements are concerned. A normal distribution of marks yields a maximum discrimination at both ends of the scales.

□ Objectivity. Objectivity and consistency with regard to assignment of marks (Vrey 1993:293).

From the discussion, fairness in performance assessment which is fair and free from negative lecturers' bias, and based on observable performance related to learning objectives is necessary. Grades that are unfair, distorted by negative lecturers' attitudes, and that have little, if any fairness are not necessary (Parkway 1993:301). It is the responsibility of every lecturer to ensure that a maximum effort is put in order to improve on the skill of grading. This suggests that lecturers in tertiary institutions are reasonably confident that students exposed to fairness in testing and assessing achieve high results and perceive their lecturers as more effective than the students who are not treated fairly.

Successful lecturers are human, fair, friendly, more democratic than autocratic, and are able to relate easily and naturally to their students in all respects. Students are only interested in a reasonable degree of consistence and judge on the basis of fairness in sharing the assessment of learning success in general (Hamachek 1992:315).

However, there are also factors that have detrimental effects in sharing the assessment of learning success. Some lecturers award a higher grade to attractive students than to unattractive students (Lowman 1999:170).
Fairness in performance assessment of learning success is also affected by the students' previous performance during the course of study. Students who usually do very well are graded highly although their performance is below the expected standard (Lowman 1999:171).

Another factor which acts as detrimental to sharing of fairness in performance is communication breakdown. The communication barrier in this study refers mainly to unfamiliar examples but also language and vocabulary problems (Maseko 1996:19). A student who has, for example, never played rugby, or has no knowledge of the rules of the game, will not be able to relate if the example is not familiar to the student. Many students are being educated in their second language. This causes barriers to learning. Support has often not been available to help students to gain proficiency in the medium of instruction of learning (Maseko 1996:19; Landsberg & Burden 1998:18).

In the next section, the study focuses on essential characteristics, of the essential, general and undeniable key matters identified in the preceding discussion.

2.5.3.5 Essential characteristics of the facets of the lecturer-student relationship with area of specialisation

The list of essential characteristics summarised below is of special significance, as it serves as a point of departure for considering criteria for tertiary students' evaluation of their lecturers. Such criteria are reflected in the items of the questionnaire (see section 3.3.1.2). These characteristics have been extracted from section 2.5.3, under corresponding headings, as well as section 2.3, as necessary.
General attitude to students

Efficient lecturers:

☐ respect the students
☐ trust the students
☐ accept the students unconditionally
☐ know the students
☐ understand the students
☐ have a positive expectation of students
☐ establish a pleasant relationship with students
☐ show a caring attitude to students
☐ make themselves known to students
☐ serve as identification models to students

Communicating lecture content to students

Successful lecturers:

☐ present lecture content interestingly
☐ organize lecture content in an enticing manner
☐ discuss complex matters clearly
☐ use aids, such as pictures, diagrams and information technology when dealing with lecture content
☐ understand students as individuals
☐ use well selected and understandable terms
☐ deal with the lecture content at the level of my understanding
☐ speak clearly
☐ deal with the lecture content logically
☐ communicate the lecture content as a connected discourse
Involving students cognitively in the field of lecture content

Efficient lecturers:
- encourage students to think in a rational way
- make students perceptive to the application of the lecture content in the environment
- motivate students to learn the lecture content
- confront students with problems in lecture content
- help students to solve problems by applying the lecture content
- question students on the lecture content
- are willing to listen to students
- allow students to take part in the discussions
- allow students to formulate new ideals
- make students feel that they are dealing with important matters in the lecture room

Fairness in performance assessment

Effective students:
- help students to discover their strengths
- help students to discover their weaknesses
- allow students to find ways to improve their weaknesses
- allow students to ask questions on their evaluation of their performance
- give students perspective on where they stand in relation to my peers
- use assessment activities which allow for different levels of complexity
- assess in a consistent manner
- are not prejudiced in assessing their performance
- help students to become aware of their progress
- help students to become aware of their performance
2.6 CONCLUSION

The main objectives of chapter two have been realised. A detailed description of the tertiary education situation was obtained, an understanding of lecturers and students as total persons as well as of lecturers' relationship with the area of specialization and lecturer-student relationship as a tertiary education relationship were gained.

The essential characteristics from the literature were noted.

The following chapter will focus on the investigation strategy.
CHAPTER THREE

INVESTIGATION STRATEGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

After having completed the introduction and enlightened the perspective of this study, the theoretical contextualisation followed. The latter serves as foundation for theoretical justification and verification.

In this chapter follows the investigation strategy which will be used to collect the scientific data at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College. These findings will allow for forth flowing recommendations on fundamental characteristics of a lecturer's efficiency.

A brief discussion of the general method of research (the type of study), the instrument for the investigation, the selection of the research group and the investigation procedure follow.

3.2 GENERAL METHOD OF RESEARCH

This dissertation is a descriptive survey. It is one of the most commonly used types of survey. Its purpose is to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given area of interest (Borg & Gall 1993:400). A descriptive survey includes the collection of facts that describe existing phenomena, the identification of problems or justification of current conditions and practice, the evaluation of a project or product, or a comparison of experience between groups with similar problems in order to plan assistance in future (Cohen & Manion 1996:97; Sidhu 1994:107; Merriam & Simpson 1994:58). Surveys provide three types of information:
what exists by studying and analysing important aspects of a present situation;
what is needed by clarifying goals and objectives through a study of the conditions existing elsewhere or what experts consider to be desirable; and
how to get there through discovering the possible means of achieving the goals on the basis of the experiences of others or the opinions of experts (Sidhu 1994: 108).

The nature of the data to be collected led the researcher to decide on a survey because surveys are oriented towards the determination of the status of a given phenomenon (Sidhu 1994:108). Surveys are generally used for a large, cross-sectional sample (Cohen & Manion 1996:93). Surveys are less scientifically sophisticated than most other techniques, but do vary in complexity and sophistication. They constitute a fact-finding approach to the study of local problems, for example, the exploration of the essential characteristics of ideal lecturers in tertiary institutions.

The literature review and initial interviews enabled the researcher to discover information which exists in order to achieve the goal of the investigation (Chivore 1994:12). A descriptive survey harbours certain strengths as well as weaknesses. An obvious advantage or strength of the descriptive type of study is its easy usage. It produces data that are accurate and representative. It describes 'what is'. Another strength is that it allows the researcher to study events as they take place in human life situations. That means, it does not use contrived techniques as could be found in, for example, experimental research. Another advantage is the exploratory nature of the descriptive method. This means additional variables may be discovered that shed new light upon the essence being investigated (Merriam & Simpson 1994:63; Gay 1992:180; Sidhu 1994:120; Kerlinger 1996:100).

One of the major limitations or disadvantages is the lack of predictive power (Mathunyane 1992:114; Merriam & Simpson 1994:63). The researcher discovers and describes 'what is' but is unable to generalise or predict 'what will' be (Merriam & Simpson 1994:63).
Typical surveys proceed through well-defined stages (Leedy 1993:80). This study requires a consideration of the instruments for the investigation, the selection of the research group and the investigation procedure (Merriam & Simpson 1994: 46).

The next section outlines the instrument for the investigation.

3.3 INSTRUMENT FOR COLLECTING DATA - THE QUESTIONNAIRE

In some research and evaluation studies, researchers and respondents are classified as 'instruments' (Chivore 1994: 58). In this study, the instrument used is a questionnaire. A questionnaire is employed to collect specific information to accomplish the aim of this particular study.

3.3.1 Introduction

A questionnaire is used when factual information is needed (Chivore 1994: 59). If a questionnaire is properly administered, it is still the most appropriate instrument to elicit information (Olivier 1993:95). A questionnaire can be answered by a respondent in his/her own time or it can be completed under the supervision of the investigator. The latter is the case in this study, mainly because the respondents are tertiary students that are simultaneously available.

In this study the introspective form of the questionnaire is used, touching on issues relating to tertiary students and their relationship towards their lecturers. These issues contain specific data that will shed light on tertiary students' evaluation of their lecturers.

A structured or closed questionnaire is employed which requires the students to choose from a number of alternatives. The Likert type of scale will be used in this study. Olivier (1993:97) and Kerlinger (1996:195) describe the Likert scale as the most

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The three-point Likert scale is used in this study, because this scale provides respondents to select either agree, not applicable, disagree - they choose one of the three. Respondents often tend to choose the middle alternative on a five-point scale and therefore remain neutral. This is less possible with the above mentioned three-point scale (Best & Kahn 1993: 182). This type of questionnaire is easy to complete, less time consuming, confines respondents to the questions, is relatively objective and acceptable, and is convenient to fill in. It is also easy to tabulate and analyse and is often less open to misinterpretation (Sidhu 1994: 180). This type of questionnaire facilitates coding and analysis.

3.3.1.1 General background

Formulating a questionnaire takes considerable time and thought. It is a proven fact that the researcher cannot be too careful in phrasing questions to ensure understanding and clarity. The content of the questionnaire covers the field that concerns the test. From the literature review, the researcher establishes specific aspects of the research that need to be investigated. These items represent the perspective dealt with in this dissertation and are not necessarily the only one to be used for lecturer evaluation (Mulder 1993: 217).

In this study, the investigator compiled the items in the questionnaire specifically with reference to the dimensions discovered in the literature review. All elements involved the students’ evaluation of their lecturers in tertiary situations, for example the lecturers’ relationship with reference to lecturers’ involvement in the area of specialisation, experience in the area of specialisation, knowledge of the area of specialisation, sharing of the area of specialisation with students or a student in terms
of involvement in, as well as experience and knowledge of the area of specialisation and the lecturer-student in tertiary education relationship in terms of their lecturers' general attitude to students, communicating lecture content with students or a student, or a student involving students or a student cognitively in the lecture content and fairness in performance assessment. The essences of the dimension are highlighted in section 2.5.2 and 2.5.3.

In the formulation of the questionnaire, the following principles were taken into consideration:

☐ The statements in the questionnaire are clear and brief (Olivier 1993:99).

☐ Only dimensions that relate directly to the objectives of the research are included (Gay 1992:186; Olivier 1993:99).

☐ The information required from the respondents is precise. The responses are easy to tabulate, summarise and interpret (Olivier 1993:100).

☐ The questionnaire is brief and consistent and contains all the information required to realise the research objectives (Merriam & Simpson 1994:129; Mulder 1993:217).

☐ The statements are simple, dealing with a single concept, and are worded as clearly as possible (Leedy 1993:44; Merriam & Simpson 1994:128).

☐ The statements are not ambiguous; the respondents ought to understand them (Gay 1992:148).

☐ The statement is formulated in such a way that is easy to answer (Leedy 1993:156).

☐ Answers to the statements cannot be obtained from other sources (Olivier 1993:101).

☐ Statements are presented in logical order (Borg & Gall 1993:80).

☐ The questionnaire can be completed within limited time (Olivier 1993:102; Leedy 1993:160).
3.3.1.2 The construction of the questionnaire for this study

The questionnaire of this study consists of 80 items, which is not too many, although still a comprehensive representation of the topic of investigation.

Items included in the questionnaire were chosen using the literature review, students and lecturers from BTTC and experts from the University of Zimbabwe. A large number of items were obtained from the literature review (for detail, see section 1.2.3). In order to establish a set of relevant characteristics of an ideal lecturer, some studies were reviewed (Reeve 1994:16; Scheck & Bizio 1999:340; Marsh & Roche 1992:283; Moelwyn-Hughes 1994:35; Murray, Rushton & Paunonen 1996:253; Amin 1994:143; Centra 1994:561; Feldman 1998:130).

These studies and others helped to identify a set of more or less mutually exclusive general characteristics which subsume all the items used in previous studies to specify characteristics of an effective lecturer, as well as several new characteristics considered to be important additions. In addition to this, lecturers and students from BTTC were asked to rate the importance of items. Lecturers from University of Zimbabwe were asked to rate and judge the potential usefulness of the items as a basis for feedback. And also, open-ended student comments were examined to determine if important aspects had been excluded. These criteria were used to select items and revise subsequent versions, thus supporting the content validity of the questionnaire.

The construction of this questionnaire follows a specific constructional pattern. The first part gives instructions to the respondents. The second part solicits demographic information about the respondents. The other part consists of eighty items descriptive of the behaviour or attributes of a tertiary lecturer.

What follows is the example of the entire questionnaire constructed for this research.
Hi there!

a) Please do not write on the questionnaire. Write only on the response page provided.

b) Do not write above the red line, this is for office only. Start below the red line, next to number one.

c) For each item, indicate your answer by means of a single stroke with an HB pencil on the appropriate number e.g. [1] [2] [3] [4]

d) Please make sure that the item number on the questionnaire is the same as the item number on the answer sheet.

e) Sometimes only two alternatives are given from which to choose, but sometimes more. Please ignore the numbers you do not need.

SECTION 1

1. **Class in college**
   - First year [1]
   - Second year [2]
   - Third year [3]
   - Fourth year [4]

2. **Gender**
   - male [1]
   - female [2]

3. **Age**
   - Up till 19 years [1]
   - 20-22 [2]
   - 23-25 [3]
   - 26-28 [4]
   - 29 years and above [5]
4. ** Departments 

   Applied Art and Design [1]
   Business Studies [2]
   Catering and Food Science [3]
   Computer Studies [4]
   Engineering [5]

5. **Approximate college average grade point (GPA)**

   Distinction (80 – 100%) [1]
   Merit (70-79%) [2]
   Pass (50-69%) [3]

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**SECTION 2**

**Directions for section 2 of the questionnaire**

a) Section 2 contains statements on some of the characteristics of your lecturers. There are no right and wrong answers. Your opinion is what is needed.

b) You must give an answer which suits the lecturer mainly responsible for the major course for which you are registered on the lecturer who is responsible for most lecturing periods in a course. Decide before hand on a specific lecturer and keep that person in mind through out the completion of the questionnaire. Indicate your answers by means of a dash in the appropriate number in the square on the answer sheet provided.

c) Numbers have the following meanings

   1 - I agree
   2 - not applicable
   3 - I disagree

d) Provide your choice to each statement truthfully.
Thank you for your kind co-operation!

Items 6 to 45 refer to the lecturer in relation to the subject matter, that is the subject in which he/she specialised (or in which he/she is a subject specialist).

Facet A: Involvement in the area of specialisation

6. My lecturer continuously searches for more information on the area of specialisation.
7. My lecturer is not interested in the area of specialisation.
8. My lecturer is not keen to discuss the area of specialisation.
9. My lecturer is easily carried away by the area of specialisation.
10. My lecturer holds the area of specialisation in high esteem.
11. My lecturer does not target for achievement in the area of specialisation.
12. My lecturer does not deal systematically in the area of specialisation.
13. My lecturer considers the area of specialisation to be of great importance.
14. My lecturer does not spend time dealing with area of specialisation.
15. My lecturer knows that he/she has mastered the area of specialisation.

Facet B: Experience of area of specialisation

16. My lecturer does not display interest in the area of specialisation.
17. My lecturer is not at ease with the area of specialisation.
18. My lecturer is committed to the area of specialisation.
19. My lecturer has a thorough knowledge of his/her area of specialisation.
20. My lecturer is not willing to involve others in the area of specialisation.
21. My lecturer does not lead me to appreciate his/her area of specialisation in a dynamic way.
22. My lecturer is not enthusiastic about his/her area of specialisation.
23 My lecturer enjoys dealing with his/her area of specialisation.
24 My lecturer enjoys dealing with his/her area of specialisation.
25 My lecturer shows confidence of the area of specialisation.

Facet C: Knowledge of the area of specialisation
26 My lecturer can analyse information in the area of specialisation.
27 My lecturer cannot synthesise information in the area of his/her specialisation.
28 My lecturer cannot link everyday events to the area of his/her specialisation.
29 My lecturer cannot deal with the area of his/her specialisation in a logical manner.
30 My lecturer keeps up with new discoveries in the area of specialisation.
31 My lecturer does not use clear language when referring to the area of his/her specialisation.
32 My lecturer possesses thorough understanding of the area of specialisation.
33 My lecturer is keen on inservice education in the area of his/her specialisation.
34 My lecturer demonstrates mastery of his/her area of specialisation.
35 My lecturer spends much time on the area of specialisation.

Facet D: Sharing area of specialisation with students in terms of involvement as well as experience and knowledge of area of specialisation
36 My lecturer does not allow me to get involved in the area of specialisation.
37 My lecturer succeeds in getting me involved in his/her area of specialisation.
38 I would like to be as involved as my lecturer on the area of his/her specialisation.
39 My lecturer does not want me to experience the area of his/her specialisation positively.
40 My lecturer does not succeed in getting me to experience the area of his/her specialisation positively.
41. It would be glad if I could experience the area of my lecturer as positively as he/she does.

42. My lecturer does not want me to acquire knowledge of the area of his/her specialisation.

43. My lecturer does not succeed in getting me to acquire knowledge of the area of his/her specialisation.

44. I would like to be as knowledgeable as my lecturer in the area of his/her specialisation.

45. My lecturer’s area of specialisation influences my understanding, ideals, and feelings, my whole being.

Item 46 to 86 refer to the lecturer dealing with the area of specialisation in relationship to the students

Facet E: General attitude to me as a person

46. My lecturer respects me.
47. My lecturer does not trust me.
48. My lecturer does not accept unconditionally.
49. My lecturer knows me.
50. My lecturer does not have positive expectations of me.
51. My lecturer establishes a pleasant relationship with students.
52. My lecturer does not show a caring attitude to students.
53. My lecturer does not make themselves known to students.
54. My lecturer serves as identification models to students.
55. My lecturer understands me.

Facet F: Communicating lecture content to me

56. My lecturer presents lecture content interestingly.
57. My lecturer does not present lecture content in an enticing manner.
58. My lecturer discusses complex matter clearly.
59. My lecturer uses aids such as pictures, diagrams and information technology, in dealing with the lecture content.
60. My lecturer uses body language to convey positive attitudes to us.
61. My lecturer does not understand students as individuals.
62. My lecturer does not use selected and understandable terms.
63. My lecturer deals with the lecture content at the level of my understanding.
64. My lecturer does not speak clearly.
65. My lecturer avoids generality.

Facet G: Involving me in the field of the lecture content
66. My lecturer encourages me to think in a rational way.
67. My lecturer makes me perceptive to applications of the lecture content in the environment.
68. My lecturer does not motivate me to learn the lecture content.
69. My lecturer helps me to solve problems by applying lecture content.
70. My lecturer does not question me on the lecture content.
71. My lecturer is not willing to listen to me.
72. My lecturer allows me to take part in the discussion.
73. My lecturer does not allow students to formulate new ideals.
74. My lecturer makes me feel that I am dealing with important matter in the lecture content.

Facet H: Fairness in performance assessment
76. My lecturer helps me to discover my strengths.
77. My lecturer does not help me to discover my weaknesses.
78. My lecturer does not allow me to find ways to improve my weaknesses.
79. My lecturer helps me to become aware of my performance.
80. My lecturer helps me to become aware of my progress.
My lecturer gives me perspective on where I stand in relation to my peers.
My lecturer uses assessment activities which make provision for individual student differences.
My lecturer uses assessment activities which allow for different levels of complexity.
My lecturer does not assess in a consistent manner.
My lecturer is not prejudiced in assessing my performance.

A full comprehensive questionnaire without facets written as main headings above appears in the appendix.

3.3.1.2.1 Organisation of the questionnaire
The general principle governing the order in which questions are asked in questionnaires is that the respondent is led through the area to be answered in as coherent a way as possible (Dorsey 1996:104). Statements on questions follow in natural sequence. The objective of correct question or statement ordering is to lead the respondent through a subject area without breaks in his/her train of thought. Scale about 10 to 20% of the questions or statements in reverse direction (Evans 1997:120).

To avoid a halo effect and increase reliability, negatively worded items are interspersed within the list. This is done to assess that the raters are reading critically and not marking one answer, which produces the halo effect. The halo effect means a tendency for a factor in a unit of study to influence the relevant feature in a favourable or unfavourable direction (Reeve 1994:17). Typically, a strong initial positive or negative impression may influence the rating on all subsequent observation (Reeve 1994:17).

3.3.1.2.2 Focus of the statements
The present questionnaire was revised several times. At first there were 47 items in the questionnaire. Later, it was developed to have 80 items in the questionnaire.
consisting of 43 positive statements and 37 negative statements. The development of these items have their theoretical conceptualisation base in chapter 2. Items measuring the lecturers’ relation in the area of specialisation and lecturer-student relationship as tertiary education relationship were developed in sections 2.5.2 and 2.5.3 of chapter 2.

A summary of the questionnaire items indicating each variable and whether the items are positive or negative are given below:

The lecturer-relationship in the area of specialisation is measured by items 6,9,10,13,15,18,19,23,24,25,26,30,32,33,34,35,37,38,41,44,45 (positive Statements) and items 7,8,11,12,14,16,17,20,21,22,27,28,29,31,36,39,40,42,43 (negative statements).

The lecturer-student relationship as tertiary education relationship is measured by items 46,49,51,54,55,56,58,59,60,63,65,66,67,70,73,75,76,79,80,81,82,83 (positive statements) and 47,48,50,52,53,57,61,62,64,68,69,71,72,74,77,78,84,85 (negative statements).

The next section focuses on the validity of the questionnaire used for this study.

3.3.1.3 Validity

No standardised measuring instrument is complete unless an explicit statement is made about its validity. Validity indicates the extent to which an instrument succeeds in measuring what it is supposed to measure (Mulder 1993: 215).

For determining the validity of this research, face validity, content validity and construct validity are of special importance in the creation of a standardised questionnaire.
Face validity
This is not validity in the technical sense of the word, because it does not actually refer to what the instrument measures (Jacobs, Oosthuizen, le Roux, Olivier, Bester & Mellet 1993:156). The term ‘face validity’ is often used to indicate whether the instrument, on the face of it, appears to measure what it claims to measure (Isaac & Michael 1998:118). It also refers to an instrument that appears to have validity for the subjects, the person who wishes to use it and ‘technically untrained observers’ (Jacobs et al 1993:157).

With questions concerning students’ evaluation of their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College it is impossible to estimate whether responses are true or false. From the researcher’s experience and knowledge and from discussion with students, the researcher estimates that there is a reasonable degree of face validity in as far as the students themselves are aware of the true facts.

The questionnaire will also be given to a number of the lecturers in the department of Education to see in their opinion whether it really measures the essences of an effective lecturer.

Content validity
Content validity refers to how well the questionnaire succeeds in covering the field with which the questionnaire is concerned (Mulder 1993:217). This type of validity is not established statistically, but depends on the opinion of the informed or experts (Isaac & Michael 1998:119). The questionnaire is checked item-for-item, whether the item is not just measuring what another item has already measured, whether there are too many (or too few) items on a specific aspect and whether all aspects are covered by the items, and so on (Jacobs et al 1993:157). In this regard, the researcher has submitted the draft of the questionnaire to an expert who will make some comments and suggestions to improve it. The same document has also been submitted to the
Construct validity

The final kind of validity that concerns the researcher here is construct validity. It concerns the degree to which the questionnaire actually measures the theoretical construction that is supposed to measure (Jacobs et al 1993:158). It is accepted that every item of a questionnaire measures some particular characteristic or quality. That which is common can be established by factor analysis, as well as how different items load on each factor (Isaac & Michael 1996:119). Construct validity can be approached logically as well as statistically (Mulder 1993:215). For the purpose of this research, the construct validity is approached in a logical and scientific manner. The researcher assembles or constructs items covering content which the investigation considers relevant and meaningful to students' evaluation of their lecturers based on the literature review. The items have been submitted to the supervisor who is an expert. The supervisor has made comments and suggestions to improve the items. On the strength of the supervisor's recommendation, the researcher has omitted, amended and added certain items. The modifications made will lead the researcher to confirm that the questions have construct validity.

Item analysis

The suitability of each item is examined in an item analysis. The following aspects are examined: average of the item, standard deviation of the item and kurtosis and skewness (Jacobs et al 1993:185).

The researcher decides whether the average response to the items is within acceptable boundaries that is, whether it has evoked a negative on a positive response. The minimum and maximum boundaries for a four-point scale (values of 0, 1, 2, and 3) are
0, 50 and 2,50 respectively. If an item average does not lie within these boundaries, the item does not differentiate adequately (Mulder 1993:55; Jacobs et al 1993:155).

Besides the average, the standard deviation of an item also indicates the extent to which a small standard deviation, for instance, differentiates only to a limited extent between respondents who obtain a high response and those who obtain a low response (in a specific discipline for which the item has been compiled) (Jacobs et al 1993:155). The kurtosis (peakedness or flatness) and skewness (asymmetry) of an item relate to the standard deviation, since they are a further indication of the degree to which the scores of the item show a normal distribution. In addition, the kurtosis and skewness of an item further confirm whether it has evoked a predominantly positive or negative response (Mulder 1993: 42-44).

3.3.1.4 Hypotheses
The following hypotheses are formulated in an attempt to answer the following question: Do tertiary students of different sexes, ages, year groups, departments and of different grade point average (GPA) at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College differ significantly in students' evaluation of their lecturers?

Hypothesis 1
There is no significant difference between male and female students' evaluation of their lecturers.

Hypothesis 2
There is no significant difference between students of different ages in their evaluation of their lecturers.
Hypothesis 3
There is no significant difference between students of different year groups regarding their evaluation of their lecturers.

Hypothesis 4
There is no significant difference between students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers.

Hypothesis 5
There is no significant difference between students of different grade point average in their evaluation of their lecturers.

3.3.1.5 The pilot study
The main aims of the pilot study, according to Chivore (1994: 54), are to test instruments, to test data collection and analysis techniques, to estimate cost and implications for the final study, to test selected hypotheses and establish trends which might have some bearing on the final study and minimise problems likely to be encountered when the final study is undertaken.

In view of the stated aims above, a pilot study is indispensable for the proper administering of the research media. Kerlinger (1996: 112) states that there is no substitute for careful pilot work. Kerlinger (1996: 64) also says that pilot work, “helps in the actual wording of questions, since fatal ambiguities may lurk in the most unexpected quarters.” It also assists in giving a time-frame in which a questionnaire can be completed. Therefore, the investigator gets an overview of how much time to plan for during the actual completion of the question (Gay 1992:111; Olivier 1993: 111). It helps the researcher to think well ahead toward the analysis.

For the pilot work, only one college offering technical vocational subjects and not selected for the research will be used. All arrangements for the pilot study will be
made with the principal of the college. The questionnaire will be approved by the supervisor before it is put into use.

### 3.4 SELECTING THE RESEARCH GROUP

The study intends determining how students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College evaluate their lecturers and whether tertiary students of different sexes, ages, year group, and departments and of different grade point average at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College differ significantly in their evaluation of their lecturers.

#### 3.4.1 Target population

The target population as envisaged in chapter 1, is students enrolled at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College doing technical or vocational subjects and Pedagogics. Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College is a unique urban tertiary institution offering National Foundation Certificate, National Certificate and Pedagogics.

#### 3.4.2 Research population

The research population for this study is students enrolled at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College who are doing a National Foundation Certificate, National Certificate and a Technical Vocational Diploma in Education.

The population of students has been selected for research for the following reasons:

- First, at this stage the students have almost completed the secondary school education. They are all being introduced to the world of work.
- They are also in the verge of making sound decisions about a commitment that will affect them for the rest of their lives. Most of them will become teachers or lecturers after training.

A questionnaire will be administered during third term to all students present. In order to ensure that every student enrolled at the college completes a questionnaire,
college registers are used to call out the names. The college registers have the essential details required by the researcher: class in college, gender, ages, departments and approximate grade point average (academic) of each student.

Only those students who are present complete the questionnaire. The first year students were absent on the on-job programme. The absence of first year students did not matter very much because of their novelty. The first years have not perfected their opinion about characteristics of an effective lecturer. The first year students lack experience since they have been at college for only two terms.

The second, third and fourth year students are much more experienced. The calling out of collegian names of students indicated that two second year, one third year and three fourth year students were absent. This number is so small that the number of students absent does not affect the population chosen by the researcher. The second year, third year, and fourth year students are representative of all students registered. The class in college, gender, ages, department and grade point average (record of academic) are more or less equal.

3.4.3 Pilot population

For the pilot population, students at Belvedere Technical Teachers’ College will be used to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire will be completed by twelve pass grade or below standard students and two experienced lecturers.

Belvedere Technical Teachers’ College students are selected because they offer similar courses as Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College. These students will also not be used in the investigation.

In order to administer the pilot study, Belvedere Technical Teachers’ College will be visited by the researcher on a specific date. A briefing session concerning the aim of the investigation will be held with the principal. The two lecturers and twelve students selected for the pilot study will be introduced to the researcher as a student who wants
information on the subject. Ample time will be offered for the completion of the questionnaire.

At the end, the researcher will make note of how much time was spent in answering the questionnaires, as well as other issues related to the session, such as statements which need some explanation. The results will be briefly discussed with the people involved to evaluate whether the conclusions arrived at by the researcher, are agreeable with their observations.

### 3.5 INVESTIGATING PROCEDURE

Although there are two main investigating procedures, the researcher uses self-administered questionnaires. It has the advantage of providing an opportunity to establish rapport with the subjects and to explain the purpose of the investigation. This procedure has also an advantage in that it requires assembling a number of subjects in one place, thus making it easy to obtain a high proportion of usable responses (Chivore 1996: 30). Because students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College meet every Wednesday in the lecture theatre for special announcements, the researcher will use this period to administer a questionnaire to the whole College after some consultation with the principal of the college.

#### 3.5.1 The administration procedure in the investigation

The students will be given careful written and oral instructions on how to respond to the questionnaire and in all instances anonymity is stressed. Students will be allowed as much time as they need to complete the questionnaire. Any questions will be answered and explanations given according to the needs of the research group.

In this study the researcher will administer the questionnaire to students enrolled at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' Collège.
3.5.1.1 Permission from education authorities

A written request will be sent to the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology requesting permission for the research to be undertaken. A synopsis of the research will be presented under the following headings.

- The objectives of the research
- Significance of students' evaluation of their lecturers in tertiary situations as a whole
- Involvement of the lecturers in the research
- Involvement of students in the research

After permission has been granted by the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology, another letter will be sent to the Principals of the two colleges. The goal of the letter is to request Belvedere Technical Teachers' College principal to use the college for pilot study and Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College for the research to be undertaken.

3.5.1.2 Permission from colleagues

Permission will be sought from colleagues as individuals and as groups to investigate the students' evaluation of their lecturers at the tertiary institution. The departments hold staff development meetings at the beginning of every term. The staff development meetings are organised by lecturer in charge (LIC) of theory of education, who is also the researcher. In the invitations sent to lecturers for the staff development meeting, mention will be made that part of the staff development will involve the discussion of a questionnaire to be completed by the students, which might be of help in lecturing at tertiary institutions.

Mention will be made that evaluation by the students will give lecturers an idea of student perceptions of their role fulfilment. It may cause lecturers to become aware of their abilities, and compel them to develop those abilities to use to create a meaningful relationship with the students.

If such questionnaires were applied to various lecturers in the same department, individual lecturers could compare themselves with other lecturers in the same department always remembering that the information is usually confidential. The average score obtained by
different lecturers in the same department, normally a large department, can then be used as a possible standard for further comparison (Visser et al 1993:214).

The permission will be sought before the lecturers become aware of or are fully involved in research arrangements with students. This arrangement will limit possible influence on the lecturers’ reactions to students completing the questionnaire.

3.5.1.3 Programme arrangements

After the letters granting permission for the study to proceed, have been received by the two principals, personal contacts will be made with the principal concerning the anticipated visit.

Personal visits will be made by the researcher to each of the selected colleges to make preliminary arrangements with the heads of departments regarding specific date, time, place for meeting and materials to be used.

The researcher will make special arrangements with the students. All the students will be asked to bring pencils and rubbers to use when completing the questionnaires.

3.5.1.4 Orienting students

Before students complete the questionnaire, the researcher will orientate the students. The researcher tells the students that the researcher is a post-graduate student doing a research on the students’ evaluation of their lecturers. The researcher wants to get students’ views about their lecturers. This will help students and others to understand both the lecturers and the students. If people understand one another, people can try all sorts of means to help one another. It could be to the benefit of everybody.

The students will also be informed of the confidentiality of the exercise and will be told that the items and statements in the questionnaire are personal. Students may not know whether a lecturer studies but can have a good idea from observing the lecturer. Students should comment as honestly as possible on every item.
3.5.1.5 Collecting the data

The researcher will administer the questionnaire personally in one session in the Great hall with the assistance of five heads of departments. The students will be made aware of the nature and value of the investigation, and the importance of honesty in completing the questionnaire.

Dorsey (1996:61) points at the importance of establishing a possible climate in such survey work where the motivation to respond is maximised by conscious effort on the part of the researcher to:

- establish an image of the social utility of the survey in terms the society under study and
- emphasise the special role of each respondent in making possible the attainment of maximum social utility by the survey.

The researcher will be available both during the filling in period and afterwards for individual queries. The completed questionnaire of each student will be checked by the researcher before a student leaves.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The main purpose of chapter three is to describe the investigation strategy. The instrument for collecting data is discussed. A brief description of the pilot work to be undertaken is also included. Selecting the research group, the investigation procedure and the administration procedures were given. The information collected will then be submitted for computerised analysis.

The following chapter will focus on the quantitative investigation, discuss the media used, the analysis of findings and the conclusion.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The topic of this research project is lecturer efficiency as formulated by both lecturers and students. This efficiency was determined by means of rating scales, discussion and evaluation by a panel of experts which was identified by the researcher. In an attempt to search for fundamental characteristics of lecturer efficiency formulated by both lecturers and students and determined by means of rating scales, discussion and evaluation by a panel of experts identified by the researcher and the essential variables that could affect students' evaluation of their lecturers, either positively or negatively, a question emerged. The purpose of this study is to explore this question: how do tertiary students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College evaluate their lecturers? This problem can be refined two fold:

How do these students evaluate their lecturers' relationship with their area of specialisation and their lecturer-student relationship as a tertiary education relationship?

Apart from this question there are also other questions forth coming. If tertiary students of different sexes, different ages, different year groups, different departments and of different grade point average at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College differ significantly in student evaluation of their lecturers, can it be viewed that such variables greatly determine students' evaluation of their lecturers? In view of the latter some questions can be formulated regarding the influence of some variables on students' evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College:
Problem 1
Is there a significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers?

Problem 2
Is there a significant difference among students of different ages in their evaluation of their lecturers?

Problem 3
Is there a significant difference among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers?

Problem 4
Is there a significant difference among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers?

Problem 5
Is there a significant difference among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers?

The research design of the empirical investigation discussed in chapter 3 focuses on the questions, and the hypotheses, which were stated accordingly.

The statistical package for social science 8 software (SPSS8) was used for the statistical analysis of the data. The statistical techniques used to test these hypotheses are the following:

For hypothesis 1, two t-tests
For hypotheses 2,3,4 and 5: two anova tests
The remainder of this chapter is a description of the biographical data of the respondents and the results which were obtained after analysis of the questionnaires. These are presented in 10 tables.

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

The whole student population at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College was used. The total number of respondents was 357. The student population consisted of five groups:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class in college</th>
<th>Second year</th>
<th>Third year</th>
<th>Fourth year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Second year</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth year</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Males:</th>
<th>Females:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>181</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>176</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Up till 19 years</th>
<th>20-22</th>
<th>23-25</th>
<th>26-28</th>
<th>29 years and above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up till 19 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-22</td>
<td>103</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-25</td>
<td>94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-28</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 years and above</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Applied Art and Design</th>
<th>Business studies</th>
<th>Catering and food science</th>
<th>Computer science</th>
<th>Engineering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applied Art and Design</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business studies</td>
<td>135</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering and food science</td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer science</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appropriate college grade all average (GPA)
Distinction (80-100%) : 80
Merit (70-79%) : 216
Pass (50-69%) : 61

4.3 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

4.3.1 Testing hypothesis 1

With regard to hypothesis 1, stated in paragraph 3.3.1.4, the following null hypothesis was stated:

$H_0$: There is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two t-tests were performed, (i) focusing on evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist and (ii) focusing on the lecturer dealing with the area of specialisation in relationship to the students.

Table 4.1 Students’ evaluation of lecturer as subject specialist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std deviation</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>2.0107</td>
<td>0.1141</td>
<td>0.312</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>2.0069</td>
<td>0.1154</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 shows that the probability is greater than 0.05 which means that there is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers as subject specialists, although the male students had more positive view of their lecturers in this regard.
Table 4.2 Students’ evaluation of lecturer’s relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std deviation</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>2.0039</td>
<td>0.1085</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>1.9954</td>
<td>0.1092</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 indicates that the probability is greater than 0.05 which means that there is no significant difference between males and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships, although male students tended to evaluate the lecturers more favourably than females.

For hypothesis one, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected.

4.3.2 Testing hypothesis 2

With regard to hypothesis 2, stated in paragraph 3.3.1.4, the following null hypothesis was tested:

$H_0^{2}$: There is no significant difference among students of different ages in their evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two anova tests were performed, (i) focusing on the lecturer as subject specialist and (ii) focusing on the lecturer dealing with the area of specialisation in relationship to students. The different age groups were: Up till 19 years; 20-22 years, 23-25 years, 26-28 years; 29 years and above.
Table 4.3 Evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students of different age groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>f-value</th>
<th>Probability 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1,9962</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,731</td>
<td>p&gt;0,05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-22</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>2,0035</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-25</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2,0192</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-28</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2,0196</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29+</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>1,9942</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The youngest and the oldest students evaluated their lecturers less favourably as subject specialist than the other age groups. However, this was not significant on the 5%-level of significance.

Table 4.4 Evaluation of the lecturer’s relationships by students of different age groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>f-value</th>
<th>Probability 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2,0026</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,731</td>
<td>p&gt;0,05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-22</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>2,0043</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-25</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>1,9909</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-28</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1,9901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29+</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2,0172</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 shows that no significant differences are found among the diverse age groups on the 5%-level of significance in their evaluation of their lecturer’s relationships. In this instance the middle age group (of between 23 and 28) was not as positive as the younger and older age groups in their evaluation of their lecturer’s relationships.
In summary: For hypothesis two, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected.

4.3.3 Testing hypothesis 3

With regard to hypothesis 3, stated in paragraph 3.3.1.4, the following null hypothesis was tested:

\[ H_{03} \quad \text{There is no significant difference among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers.} \]

To test this hypothesis two one-way anova tests were performed, followed post hoc by Tukey: (i) focusing on evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist and (ii) focusing on the lecturer dealing with the area of specialisation in relationship to the students. The different year groups were second, third and fourth year students.

Table 4.5 Evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students of different year groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1.9973</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.491</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>2.0033</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1.9945</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 shows that students view their lecturers more positively as subject specialists from second, to third to fourth year. However, the differences among the year groups are not significant.
Table 4.6 Evaluation of the lecturer's relationships by students of different year groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2.0037</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>2.0033</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1.9945</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 indicates that there is a decline in the way students evaluate their lecturers’ relationships from second to fourth year. However, once again the probability is greater than 0.05. Thus no significant difference could be found among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships.

Thus for hypothesis three, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected.

4.3.4 Testing hypothesis 4

With regard to hypothesis 4, stated in paragraph 3.3.1.4, the following null hypothesis was tested:

H₀₄ There is no significant difference among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two one-way anova tests were performed, followed post hoc by Tukey and LSD (i) focusing on evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist and (ii) focusing on the lecturer dealing with the area of specialisation in relationship to the students. The different departments were Applied Art and Design, Business Studies, Catering and Food Science, Computer Science and Engineering.
Table 4.7 Evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students of different departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>f-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applied Art and Design</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2,0095</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,481</td>
<td>p&gt;0,05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Studies</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>2,0164</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering and Food</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>2,0038</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2,0178</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1,9950</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the probability in Table 4.7 is greater than 0.05, no significant difference could be found among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers as subject specialists. Engineering students evaluate their lecturers most favourably in this regard.

Table 4.8 Evaluation of the lecturer’s relationships by students of different departments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>f-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applied Art and Design</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2,0181</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,533</td>
<td>P&lt;0,05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Studies</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>1,9873</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering and Food</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>1,9860</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2,0056</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>2,0328</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 shows that there is a significant difference among students of diverse departments’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. There is a significant difference between (a) Engineering departments on the one hand and (b) students...
Students from the Department of Catering and Food Science do not view their lecturers as positively as students from other departments regarding both aspects of evaluation.

In summary, the null-hypothesis can be rejected for hypothesis four with regard to the fact that there is a significant difference between (a) students from the department of Engineering and (b) students from the departments of Business Studies and Catering and Food Science in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships - Engineering students evaluate their lecturers more positively. However, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists.

4.3.5 Testing hypothesis 5

With regard to hypothesis 5, stated in paragraph 3.2.1.4, the following null hypothesis was tested:

\[ H_{05} \text{ There is no significant difference among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers.} \]

To test this hypothesis two one-way anova tests were performed (i) focusing on evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist and (ii) focusing on the lecturer dealing with the area of specialisation in relationship to the students. The different grades were: Distinction (80-100%); Merit (70-79%) and Pass (50-69%).
Table 4.9 Evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students with different grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>2,006</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,932</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-69</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2,0074</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-100</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2,0240</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 Evaluation of the lecturer's relationships by students with different grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>1,9913</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,703</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-100</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2,0099</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-69</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2,0163</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 show that no significant differences were found among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers. However, it is interesting to note that with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists, students who achieve best evaluate lecturers most positive. On the other hand, in the evaluation of the lecturers' relationships, students who achieve worse evaluate their lecturers most positive.

In summary: Null hypothesis five cannot be rejected.
4.4 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter detailed the statistical processing and interpretation of data. From the results obtained, certain significant findings were noted.

- The results reveal that there is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers as subject specialists, although the male students had more positive view of their lecturers in this regard.

- There is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships, although male students tend to evaluate the lecturers more favourable than females.

- The youngest and oldest students evaluated their lecturers less favourably as subject specialist than other age groups.

- There are no significant differences found among the diverse age groups in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. The middle age group of between (23 and 28) was not as positive as the younger and older age groups in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships.

- The students view their lecturers more positively as subject specialist from second to third to fourth year. However, the differences among the year groups are not significant.

- There is a decline in the way students evaluate their relationships from second to fourth year. However, once again the probability is greater than 0.05. There is no significant difference that could be found among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers. There is no significant difference that could be found among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturer as subject specialists. However, Engineering students evaluate their
lecturers least favourable as subject specialists whereas Business Studies evaluate their lecturers most favourable.

There is a significant difference among students of diverse departments’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. There is a significant difference between (a) Engineering students on the one hand and (b) students from Business Studies as well as Catering and Food Science on the other hand, in their views of their lecturers’ relationships: Engineering students are significantly more positive in their view of their lecturers relationships than students from other two departments.

And also students from the departments of Catering and Food Science do not view their lecturers as positively as students from other departments regarding both aspects of evaluation.

In brief, the null hypothesis can be rejected for hypothesis four with regard to the fact that there is a significant difference between students from the department of Engineering and (b) students from the departments of Business Studies and Catering and Food Science in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. In Engineering students evaluate their lecturers more positively. However, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists.

The results indicate that there are significant differences found among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers. However, it is interesting to note that with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists, students who achieve best, evaluate their lecturers most positively. On the other hand, in the evaluation of the lecturers’ relationships, students who achieve worse, evaluate their lecturers most positively.
As noted from the findings there are no significant differences between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers as subject specialist and lecturers’ relationship with the students. The implication of this finding is that the lecturers were executing their roles to the students expectation. It also means that the sex of the students is not an influencing factor in the evaluation of lecturers.

The younger and older students had a less perception of their lecturers. This implies that, most of the older students are in their fourth year doing Pedagogics for the first time. The course is different from technical/vocational courses the students had been doing for the past three years. The younger ones who are new to the college life may not be used to the teaching methods.

The sample of the different departments was approximately equally distributed among the six departments. The result shows that there is no significant difference. This implies that the students from different departments perceive the characteristics of an effective lecturer to be the same.

The different grades students get at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College do not influence the manner in which the students will evaluate their lecturers.

The results of this study are situationally specific and may be generalised to other colleges.

Finally, what is observed is that the difference between male and female students, difference among students of different ages, difference among students of different year groups, difference among students of different departments and difference among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers do not influence students’ evaluation of their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College.

Chapter five will discuss the conclusion and recommendations.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

From the discussion done so far, the general research problem may be stated thus:

How do tertiary students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College evaluate their lecturers?

The stated objectives of this study were to assist the researcher, lecturers and students to do the following:

- To obtain a detailed description of the tertiary education situation specifically regarding components of the tertiary education situation: the characteristics of the tertiary education situation; the factors influencing the situation.

- To gain an understanding of the lecturers in tertiary institutions as total persons: physically, cognitively, conatively, emotionally, normatively and in their relationships with students, colleagues and parents, with their field of study.

- To describe typical students in tertiary institutions as total persons: physically, cognitively, conatively, effectively and in their relationship with others as well as their field of study.

- To gain an understanding of students evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers’ College in terms of:

  (i) their lecturers’ relationship with their area of specialisation, specifically
The chapter contains a resume of the research that has been undertaken. The conclusions derived from both literature study and empirical investigation are outlined. This is followed by recommendations from conclusions drawn from the investigation. The limitations of the research are also outlined. Finally a summary of the chapter is made.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

5.2.1 Conclusions from literature study

The literature study in chapter 2 investigated tertiary students' evaluation of their lecturers. The literature study describes tertiary education situations, lecturers in tertiary education institutions, the lecturers' relationship with their area of specialisation and the lecturer-student relationship. From the study the following conclusions can be drawn:

The literature study shows that knowledge of the three components of a tertiary education situation, that is the lecturer, student and lecture content, factors which...
influence the situation and characteristics of a tertiary situation help the lecturer and student to be involved actively in the learning process (section 2.2, 2.2.1., 2.2.2 and 2.2.3).

- As indicated in section 2.3, the knowledge of lecturers in tertiary situations with reference to lecturers as total person and relations of lecturers provides an opportunity to understand a lecturer as a total person.

- The lecturer's knowledge of students in tertiary institutions helps the lecturers to motivate the students in the teaching-learning situation.

The essences of effective lecturers with reference to lecturers and their relationship with their area of specialisation, are involvement in area of specialisation, experience in area of specialisation, knowledge of area of specialisation and sharing with students in terms of involvement in as well as experience and knowledge of area of specialisation (section 2.5).

The essential characteristics of facets of the lecturer-student relationship are general attitude to students/a student, communicating lecture content with students/a student, involving students/a student cognitively in the lecture content and fairness in performance assessment (section 2.6).

5.2.2 Conclusions from empirical investigation

The following section focuses on the conclusions from the empirical investigation.

1 Problem 1

Is there a significant difference between male and female students' evaluation of their lecturers?

The null hypothesis (H01) is stated thus:
There is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two t-tests were performed. Table 4.1 (see section 4.3.1) shows the t-value and probability of evaluation of lecturer as subject specialist of males and females. According to this table, the probability is greater than 0.05 which means that there is no significant difference among their lecturers as subject specialists, although the male students had a more positive view of their lecturers.

Table 4.2 (see section 4.3.1.) shows the value and probability of evaluation of lecturers’ relationships of males and females. According to this table the probability is greater than 0.05 which means that there is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships, although male students tended to evaluate the lecturers more favourably than females.

For hypothesis one, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected.

2 Problem 2
Is there a significant difference among students of different ages in their evaluation of lecturers?

The null hypothesis $H_{02}$ is stated thus:
There is no significant difference among students of different ages in their evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two anova tests were performed. Table 4.3 (see section 4.3.2.) shows F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students of different age groups. According to this table, the youngest and the oldest students evaluated their lecturers less favourably as subject specialist than the other age groups. However, this was not significant on the 5% level of significance.
Table 4.4 (see section 4.3.2) shows F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturers' relationships by students of different age groups. According to this table no significant differences are found among the diverse age groups on the 5% level of significance in their evaluation of their lecturers' relationships. In this instance the middle age group (of between 23 and 28) was not so positive as the younger and older age groups in their evaluation of their lecturers' relationships.

In conclusion: For hypothesis two, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected.

3 Problem 3

Is there a significant difference among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers?

The null hypothesis ($H_{03}$) is thus stated:

There is no significant difference among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two one-way anova tests were performed, followed post hoc by Tukey. Table 4.5 (4.3.3) shows F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students of different year groups. According to this table, students view their lecturers more positively as subject specialist from second to third to fourth year. However, the differences among the year groups are not significant.

Table 4.6 (see 4.3.3) shows F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturers' relationships by students of different year groups. According to this table there is a decline in the way students evaluate their lecturers' relationships from second to fourth year. However, once again the probability is greater than 0.05. Thus no significant difference could be found among students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers' relationships.
This means for hypothesis three, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected.

4. **Problem 4**

Is there a significant difference among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers?

The null hypothesis (H₀₄) is thus stated:

There is no significant difference among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two one-way anova tests were performed, followed post hoc by Tukey and LSD. Table 4.7 (see section 4.3.4) shows -value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturers as subject specialist by students of different departments. Since the probability in this table, is greater than 0.05, no significant difference could be found among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers as subject specialists. Engineering students evaluate their lecturers least favourable as subject specialists whereas Business Studies students evaluate their lecturers most favourably in this regard.

Table 4.8 (see 4.3.4) shows F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturers' relationships by students of different departments. According to this table there is a significant difference among students of diverse departments’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. There is a significant difference between (a) Engineering students on the one hand and (b) students from Business Studies as well as Catering and Food Science on the other hand, in their view of their lecturers’ relationships. Engineering students are significantly more positive in their view of their lecturers’ relationships than students from other departments.

Students from the department of Catering and Food Science do not view their lecturers as positively as students from other departments regarding both aspects of
evaluation. In conclusion, the null-hypothesis can be rejected for hypothesis four with regard to the fact that there is a significant difference between (a) students from the departments of Engineering and (b) students from the departments of Business studies and Catering and Food Science in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships – Engineering students evaluate their lecturers more positively. However, the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists.

5. **Problem 5**

Is there a significant difference among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers?

The null hypothesis $H_{05}$ is thus stated:

There is no significant difference among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers.

To test this hypothesis two one-way anova tests were performed. Table 4.9 (section 4.3.5) shows the F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturer as subject specialist by students with different grades. Table 4.10 (section 4.3.5) shows F-value, means and probability of evaluation of the lecturers’ relationships by students with different grades. According to these tables, no significant differences were found among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers. However, it is interesting to note that with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists, students who achieve best, evaluate their lecturers most positively. On the other hand, in the evaluation of the lecturers’ relationships, students who achieve worse, evaluate their lecturers most positively.

In summary: Null-hypothesis five cannot be rejected.
5.2.3 Final conclusions

When all the tables are studied, the following final conclusions can be reached:

- There is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers as subject specialist, although the male students had more positive view of their lecturers in this regard.

- There is no significant difference between male and female students’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships, although male students tended to evaluate the lecturers’ more favourable than females.

- The youngest and the oldest students evaluate their lecturers’ less favourably as subject specialists than the other age groups. However, this is not significant on the 5%-level of significance.

- There are no significant differences found among the diverse age groups on the 5%-level of significance in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. In this instance the middle age group (of between 23 and 28) was not as positive as the younger and older age groups in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships.

- Students view their lecturers more positive as subject specialists from second, to third to fourth year. However, the differences among the year groups are not significant.

- There is a decline in the way students evaluate their lecturers' relationships from second to fourth year. However, once more again the probability is greater than 0.05, thus no significant difference could be found between students of different year groups in their evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships.

- Some probability is greater than 0.05, no significant difference could be found among students of different departments in their evaluation of their lecturers as
subject specialists. Engineering students evaluate their lecturers least favourable as subject specialists whereas Business studies evaluate their lecturers most favourable in this regard.

There is no significant difference among students of diverse departments’ evaluation of their lecturers’ relationships. There is a significant difference between (a) Engineering students on one hand and (b) students from Business Studies as well as Catering and Food Science on the other hand, in their view of their lecturers’ relationships. Engineering students are significantly more positive in their view of their lecturers relationships than students from the other departments.

Students from the Department of Catering and Food Science do not view their lecturers as positively as students from other departments regarding both aspects of evaluation.

There are no significant differences found among students with different grades in their evaluation of their lecturers. However, it is interesting to note with regard to the evaluation of lecturers as subject specialists, students who achieve best, evaluate their lecturers most positively. On the other hand, in the evaluation of the lecturers’ relationships, students who achieve worse, evaluate their lecturers most positively.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 Recommendations from conclusions

The following recommendations are based on the conclusion derived from this study

From literature study it was concluded that essential characteristics of a lecturer with reference to lecturer-relationship with their area of specialisation are:

- involvement in area of specialisation
- experience in area of specialisation
knowledge in area of specialisation
sharing with students in terms of area of specialisation

On the basis of this finding, it is recommended that these characteristics are incorporated in a questionnaire for students’ evaluation of their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers College.

Another conclusion from literature study is that essential characteristics of a lecturer with reference to lecturer-student relationship are:
- general attitude to students/student
- communicating lecture content with students/student
- involving students/student cognitively in the lecture content and fairness in performance assessment.

These essential characteristics were rated by students from Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College as important. The researcher, therefore recommends that they are used for formulating a questionnaire to be used by students to evaluate their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College.

With reference to gaining an understanding of lecturers in tertiary institutions as total persons specifically with reference to: physically, cognitively, conatively, emotionally, normatively and in their relationships with students, colleagues and parents, with their field of study is essential. Therefore, an in service course should be organised to orient all lecturers to gain an understanding of themselves as total persons.

Student evaluation of their lecturer at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College is a new phenomenon. Therefore, it is recommended that a seminar is conducted to orientate lecturers and get their views on the questionnaire before it is used by those who volunteer to pioneer the activity.
Investigation of the essential characteristics of a lecturer was only done at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College. It is recommended that more investigations are done at other colleges.

Empirical investigation indicates that the evaluation of lecturers by students of different year groups, departments, sex, age and grade point average does not influence students' evaluation of their lecturers. It is therefore recommended that the items used in the questionnaire be adopted for use at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College.

Finally it is recommended that all colleges in Zimbabwe offering tertiary education should allow their students to evaluate the lecturers.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

The following variables could have had some influence on the information that was collected.

- Even though the researcher explained to the respondents that this was not a test, they wanted to give impressive answers and were very concerned about answering correctly.

- The study was conducted in a vocational technical college (Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College). Many students involved in the study have technical background. This limits the generalisability of findings.

- The study involved subjects from black population group only.

- The first year students were not involved in this study since the time the questionnaire was administered they were on attachment.

- The sample size is small.
5.5 SUMMARY

The general research problem in this study has been stated thus:

How do tertiary students at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College evaluate their lecturers?

The specific objectives were to:

☑ obtain a detailed description of the tertiary education situation.
☑ gain an understanding of lecturers in tertiary institutions as a total person.
☑ gain an understanding of students' evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College in terms of their lecturers' relationship with their area of specialisation and lecturer-student relationship.
☑ discover whether gender, age, year group, department and grade point average have an influence on students' evaluation of lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College.

After analysing all the tables, the researcher can conclude that:

The fundamental characteristics of lecturer efficiency formulated by both lecturers and students and determined by means of rating scales, discussion and evaluation by a panel of experts identified by the researcher are

(i) lecturers' relationship with their area of specialisation specifically:
- involvement in area of specialisation
- experience of area of specialisation
- knowledge of area of specialisation
- sharing area of specialisation in terms of involvement in as well as experience and knowledge of area of specialisation

(ii) lecturer-student relationship as tertiary education relationship, specifically.
- general attitude to students/a student
- communicating lecture content with students/a student
- involving students/a student cognitively in the lecture content
- fairness in performance assessment

This list will form the basis for students' evaluation of their lecturers at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College.

With reference to essential variables that could affect student evaluation of their lecturers, either positively or negatively, the researcher can safely say that:

The empirical investigation indicates that there is no significant difference among tertiary students of different sexes, different ages, different year groups, and different departments and of different grade point average at Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College in the evaluation of their lecturers.
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Dear Student

I am a student doing an advanced study with University of South Africa on "Students' evaluation of their lecturers".

This is part of an investigation on students and how they see lecturers. The information will be valuable for both students and lecturers. You have to state what you believe your lecturer displays.

Please be assured that your identity will remain anonymous and that the information will be treated in the strict confidence.

Thank you for your cooperation.

S L Masarakufa
Hi there!

a) Please do not write on the questionnaire. Write only on the response page provided.

b) Do not write above the red line, this is for office only. Start below the red line, next to number one.

c) For each item, indicate your answer by means of a single stroke with an HB pencil on the appropriate number e.g. [1] [2] [3] [4]

d) Please make sure that the item number on the questionnaire is the same as the item number on the answer sheet.

e) Sometimes only two alternatives are given from which to choose, but sometimes more. Please ignore the numbers you do not need.
SECTION 1: Information about yourself

1. Class in college
   - First year [1]
   - Second year [2]
   - Third year [3]
   - Fourth year [4]

2. Gender
   - male [1]
   - female [2]

3. Age
   - Up till 19 years [1]
   - 20-22 [2]
   - 23-25 [3]
   - 26-28 [4]
   - 29 years and above [5]

4. Departments
   - Applied Art and Design [1]
   - Business Studies [2]
   - Catering and Food Science [3]
   - Computer Studies [4]
   - Engineering [5]

5. Approximate college average grade point (GPA)
   - Distinction (80 - 100%) [1]
   - Merit (70-79%) [2]
   - Pass (50-69%) [3]
Directions for section 2 of the questionnaire

a) Section 2 contains statements on some of the characteristics of your lecturers. There are no right and wrong answers. Your opinion is what is needed.

b) You must give an answer which suits the lecturer mainly responsible for the major course for which you are registered on the lecturer who is responsible for most lecturing periods in a course. Decide before hand on a specific lecturer and keep that person in mind through out the completion of the questionnaire. Indicate your answers by means of a dash in the appropriate number in the square on the answer sheet provided.

c) Numbers have the following meanings

   1 - I agree
   2 - not applicable
   3 - I disagree

d) Provide your choice to each statement truthfully

e) Make sure you indicate your answer in the space next to the same item number as that of the questionnaire.

f) Do not write your name on the sheet

Thank you for your kind co-operation!
SECTION 2

Items 6 to 45 refer to the lecturer in relation to the subject matter, that is the subject in which he/she specialised (or in which he/she is a subject specialist); merely referred to as 'his/her subject'.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>NOT APPLICABLE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. My lecturer continuously searches for more information on the area of specialisation.
7. My lecturer is not interested in the area of specialisation.
8. My lecturer is not keen to discuss the area of specialisation.
9. My lecturer is easily carried away by the area of specialisation.
10. My lecturer holds the area of specialisation in high esteem.
11. My lecturer does not target for achievement in the area of specialisation.
12. My lecturer does not deal systematically in the area of specialisation.
13. My lecturer considers the area of specialisation to be of great importance.
14. My lecturer does not spend time dealing with area of specialisation.
15. My lecturer knows that he/she has mastered the area of specialisation.
16. My lecturer does not display interest in their area of specialisation.
17. My lecturer is not at ease with the area of specialisation.
18. My lecturer is committed to the area of specialisation.
19. My lecturer has a thorough knowledge of his/her area of specialisation.
20. My lecturer is not willing to involve others in the area of specialisation.
21. My lecturer does not lead me to appreciate his/her area of specialisation in a dynamic way.
22. My lecturer is not enthusiastic about his/her area of specialisation.
23. My lecturer enjoys dealing with his/her area of specialisation.
24. My lecturer enjoys dealing with his/her area of specialisation.
25. My lecturer shows confidence of the area of specialisation.
My lecturer can analyse information in the area of specialisation.

My lecturer cannot synthesise information in the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer cannot link everyday events to the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer cannot deal with the area of his/her specialisation in a logical manner.

My lecturer keeps up with new discoveries in the area of specialisation.

My lecturer does not use clear language when referring to the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer possesses thorough understanding of the area of specialisation.

My lecturer is keen on inservice education in the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer demonstrates mastery of his/her area of specialisation.

My lecturer spends much time on the area of specialisation.

My lecturer does not allow me to get involved in the area of specialisation.

My lecturer succeeds in getting me involved in his/her area of specialisation.

I would like to be as involved as my lecturer on the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer does not want me to experience the area of his/her specialisation positively.

My lecturer does not succeed in getting me to experience the area of his/her specialisation positively.

It would be glad if I could experience the area of my lecturer as positively as he/she does.

My lecturer does not want me to acquire knowledge of the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer does not succeed in getting me to acquire knowledge of the area of his/her specialisation.

I would like to be as knowledgeable as my lecturer in the area of his/her specialisation.

My lecturer’s area of specialisation influences my understanding, ideals, and feelings, my whole being.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>My lecturer respects me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>My lecturer does not trust me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>My lecturer does not accept unconditionally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>My lecturer knows me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>My lecturer does not have positive expectations of me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>My lecturer establishes a pleasant relationship with students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>My lecturer does not show a caring attitude to students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>My lecturer does not make themselves known to students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>My lecturer serves as identification models to students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>My lecturer understands me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>My lecturer presents lecture content interestingly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>My lecturer does not present lecture content in an enticing manner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>My lecturer discusses complex matter clearly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>My lecturer uses aids such as pictures, diagrams and information technology, in dealing with the lecture content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>My lecturer uses body language - convey positive attitudes to us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>My lecturer does not understand students as individuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>My lecturer does not use well selected and understandable terms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>My lecturer deals with the lecture content at the level of my understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>My lecturer does not speak clearly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>My lecturer avoids generality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>My lecturer encourages me to think in a rational way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>My lecturer makes me perceptive to applications of the lecture content in the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>My lecturer does not motivate me to learn the lecture content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>My lecturer does not confront me with problems in lecture content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>My lecturer helps me to solve problems by applying lecture content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>My lecture does not question me on the lecture content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>My lecturer is not willing to listen to me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
73 My lecturer allows me to take part in the discussion.
74 My lecturer does not allow students to formulate new ideals.
75 My lecturer makes me feel that I am dealing with important matter in the lecture content.
76 My lecturer helps me to discover my strengths.
77 My lecturer does not help me to discover my weaknesses.
78 My lecturer does not allow me to find ways to improve my weaknesses.
79 My lecturer helps me to become aware of my performance.
80 My lecturer helps me to become aware of my progress.
81 My lecturer gives me perspective on where I stand in relation to my peers.
82 My lecture uses assessment activities which make provision for individual student differences.
83 My lecturer uses assessment activities which allow for different levels of complexity.
84 My lecturer does not assess in a consistent manner.
85 My lecturer is not prejudiced in assessing my performance.

THE END