RELATIONSHIP AMONG TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION, STUDENTS’ MOTIVATION AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN THE BIBIANI-ANHWIASO-BEKWAI DISTRICT

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BY
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Thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology of the Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Educational psychology.

JULY 2017
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate’s Signature………………………………..Date…………………….
Name………………………………………………………………………………

Supervisors’ Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor’s Signature……………………..Date……………………
Name………………………………………………………………………………

Co-Supervisor’s Signature…………………………..Date……………………
Name………………………………………………………………………………
ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship among teacher-student interaction, motivation and academic performance, of JHS students in the Bibiani – Anhwiaso – Bekwai District in the Western Region of Ghana. The design used in this study was the correlational design. The simple random sampling procedure was used to select 155 teachers and 281 students for the study. Four research questions guided the study. A 48-item teacher and students’ questionnaires respectively were used for teachers and students’ data collection. The statistical tools used for the analysis of data included frequency distributions, means and percentages. Inferential statistics, notably, the Pearson moment correlation coefficient and the independent sample t-test were also used for the data analysis. The results of the study showed that, there was a statistically significant relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ motivation. It was also found that teacher-student interaction correlated with students’ academic performance. Teachers helped students with academic difficulties. Again, it was found out that there was a statistically significant relationship between students’ motivation and academic performance. However, the study showed no statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of motivation and academic performance. It is therefore, recommended that the Ghana Education service (GES) and Ministry of Education should make it mandatory for counsellors to organize motivational talks for students on regular basis from the Basic School to Senior High Schools. Additionally, School counsellors and teachers should be motivated and supported by the government in order to have a healthy relationship with students.
KEY WORDS

Expectancy
Force
Gender
Interaction
Motivation
Performance
Teacher
Student
Valence
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DEDICATION

To my wife Madam Cecilia Boduah and my children Henry Ebate Buah,
Lillian Forson Buah, Louisa Korankyewah Buah and Mark Fordjour Buah
who bring joy and Inspiration in my life. I love you all!!
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

In recent times, attention has been drawn to students’ academic performance and the factors that motivate them to learn. Teacher-Students interaction has been identified as one of the major factors that influence students’ motivation and academic performance. In search for high academic performance among students in the country, the leaders in education are discovering the important contribution of teacher-student interaction to students’ motivation and academic performance. Teacher-Student interaction is the teacher-directed interaction style that the teacher is expected to guide students to perform well in their study (Eschenmann, 1991).

A proliferation of research from Eschenmann and other scholars suggest that if teachers take their time to build relationships, they can motivate their students to learn. Further research (Whitaker, 2004) also suggests that teachers need to have a strong belief that building relationships are important to the motivation process. There is the need to capitalize on these beliefs for the students’ benefit. It is important that educators recognize the influence they have on their students, and consider strongly their students’ perceptions of them, (Eschenmann, 1991). Teachers have to ensure that they are meeting students’ needs, both academically and emotionally. Creating classroom
environments that promote positive cultures with healthy interactions can motivate students to channel their energies and desires to reach their goals.

According to Whitaker (2004), the main variable in the classroom is not the student, but the teacher. Great teachers have high expectations for their students, but even higher expectations for themselves. These teachers recognize the importance of connecting with their students, that if they are unable to connect with them emotionally, then influencing their minds may be impossible (Whitaker, 2004).

Whitaker suggests that teachers are the first and perhaps most important point of contact in a student’s life. Despite the many reforms, educational movements, and programmes implemented to improve education, there is no other element that can be profound as the human element. He urges, “It’s the people, not the programmes” (Whitaker, 2004, p.9). More profoundly he states, “There are really two ways to improve a school significantly: Get better teachers and improve the teachers in the school.

“A fundamental question for a student is ‘Does my teacher like me?’ Given a rigorous, aligned curriculum, the answer to that simple question is our best predictor of student’s achievement” (Terry, 2008, p.1). Teacher knowledge and efficacy of student’s motivation and performance are crucial components to creating relationships that motivate. Both teachers and students have to value their contributions. A student has to feel worthwhile and appreciated. A teacher needs to recognize that he or she can have a positive effect on his or her students. Wiseman and Hunt (2001) refer to this as “teacher efficacy” and note that the more the teachers believe in this the more they will cause it to happen (p1).
Other researchers (Walker, 2004; Whitaker, 2004) revealed that for many primary grade level students, the classroom environment and more specifically the teacher can influence a student’s desire to cheat academically, or drop out of school, as well as demonstrate a decline in academic motivation and performance. Students are influenced by perceptions of their teachers’ evenhandedness, competence, caring and support as well as the nature of the teacher-student relationship that exists, (Stipek, 2002).

A student wants to feel connected to people and to feel as though he or she deserves to be loved and respected (Stipek, 2002). According to Stipek, many of the children who are not doing well academically are the same ones who have poor relationship with their teachers. Typically, the more they fall behind academically, often, the more this relationship is weakened. If they are constantly reprimanded in class, the environment and the teacher-student relationship begin to hold negative associations. In her research, Stipek found that students who perceived a more nurturing relationship with their teachers tended to have better attitudes towards academics and often did better than their peers who lacked the same support system. Stipek also referenced a Belmont and Skinner study conducted in 1993, which supported the idea that a good teacher-student relationship positively influenced learning. The more connected children feel the more they are willing to attempt tasks and to seek help when necessary. The student who feels this sense of connectedness may want to maintain it or please the teacher by doing well in class since students adapt to their environment (Stipek, 2002). If educators create a culture where students are expected to succeed, many often conform. Researchers van der Westhuizen, Mosoge, Swanepoel, and Coetsee, (2005), suggest that an
effective organizational culture can enhance academic performance and lead to reduced student drop out and failure rates, effective discipline, and regular attendance.

According to Freiberg and Stein (1999), “the school climate is the heart and soul of the school”. Stewart (2008) identifies three facets of school climate: school culture, school organizational structure and the school social structure. The school’s culture influences students’ connectedness to their environment which research suggests affects academic performance. The second element is school’s organizational structure, which Stewart uses to describe school and class size, both found to lead to positive behavioral and scholastic achievement. The third element Stewart explored was the school’s social structure, which includes characteristics such as staff and student ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, teacher skill and preparation (Stewart). Though many empirical studies have been done on the influence of teacher-students interaction on students’ motivation and academic performance in the western countries, little or no attention has been paid to this in Ghana especially in the study area, hence, the motivation to carry out this study. However, the researcher conducted this study to assess the relationship among teacher-student interaction, students’ motivation and academic performance.

**Statement of the Problem**

For the last three decades, scholars in the domain of learning environment research have shown a considerable interest in conceptualizing, measuring and examining perceptions of psychosocial characteristics of the learning environment in terms of teacher-student interpersonal relationships...
(e.g., Fraser, 1998; Fraser & Walberg, 1991; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 1998). A number of studies have revealed the importance of teacher-student relationships for students’ motivation and academic performance (e.g., den Brok, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2004; Henderson, Fisher, & Fraser, 2000).

Studies have shown that teacher-student interpersonal relationships have effects on both teachers and students. Teachers experiencing healthy interpersonal relationship with their students have argued that they experience better satisfaction with their job and with reduction of burn out (Ben-Chaim & Zoller, 2001). Similarly, students’ perception of teacher interpersonal behaviour are strongly associated with their motivation and performance in all subjects (den Brok et al., 2004). Hence, healthy teacher-student interpersonal relationship sets the bases for students to engage in learning activities (Brekelmans, Sleegers, & Fraser, 2000).

One of the most pressing issues in the debate for reform in education is the overwhelming presence of seemingly unmotivated students, sometimes, despite vast resources and continuous efforts of school districts (Burns, 1992). Research shows that problematic teacher student relationships, which are characterized by conflict and low levels of affiliation, are sources of teachers’ stress and negative emotions (Yoon, 2002). Again teacher–student interactions, in particular in disorderly classrooms, may correlate with feelings of stress and burn out (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000).

Marzano (2003) studied the practices of effective teachers and determined that “an effective teacher-student relationship may be the keystone that allows the other aspects to work well” (p. 91). Thus the relationships that
teachers develop with their students have an important role in a student’s academic growth.

Meyer and Turner’s (2002) study illustrated the importance of students and teachers’ emotions during instructional interactions. They revealed that “through studying teacher-students’ interactions, our conceptualization of what constitutes motivation to learn increasingly has involved emotions as essential to learning and teaching” (p.107). Their results provide support for further study of the inclusion of interpersonal relationships in the instructional setting and to what degree those relationships affect students’ learning environment. The quality of the relationship between a student and the teacher will result in a greater degree of learning in the classroom according to Downey (2008).

It was discovered from the study area through the researcher’s personal interaction with some teachers that apart from their contact hours in the classroom they did not have any reason to interact with the students. They commented that their business was to go to classroom and teach. It was also discovered that some teachers also use the contact hours for their personal business and therefore do not have adequate time to interact with their students (Report on Education, 2014- Bibiani- Ahnwiaso- Bekwai District). From the literature it is clear that some related studies have been done on relationship among teacher-students’ interaction, students’ motivation and academic performance in the western countries but little or no studies have been done on relationship among teacher-students’ interaction, students’ motivation and academic performance in Ghana especially in the study area. Thus, there is a gap in academic research concerning relationship among teacher-student
interaction, students’ motivation and academic performance. Hence, the motivation to undertake this study in the Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai District to find out the relationship among teacher-student interaction, students’ motivation and academic performance.

**Purpose of the Study**

The general purpose of the study was to find out the relationship that teacher-student interaction has with students’ motivation and academic performance. The relationship between students’ motivation and students’ performance was also examined in this study.

The study specifically sought to:

1. Find out the relationship between teacher-student interactions and students’ motivation.
2. Examine the relationship between teacher-student interactions and students’ performance.
3. Assess the relationship between students’ performance and motivation.
4. Find out if differences exist between male and female students in terms of motivation.
5. Find out if differences exist between male and female students in terms of their academic performance.

**Research Questions**

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ motivation?
2. What is the relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ performance?
3. What is the relationship between students’ performance and motivation?

4. Do differences exist between male and female students in terms of their motivation?

5. Do differences exist between male and female students in terms of their academic performance?

**Significance of the Study**

This study will describe purposeful affective strategies and interactions with students that a teacher uses to effectively engage students in the learning process. This study will contribute to the field of education by providing teachers and administrators with guidance on relationship-building strategies that a highly effective teacher utilizes in a real world, authentic setting – the classroom.

The results of this study will benefit students, teachers, parents, etc. in various ways. The results of this study will equip teachers with the appropriate resources and skills to appropriately meet the needs of their students beyond academic instruction. The literature reviewed and results of this study found that teacher-student relationships are crucial to student success. Therefore, the results of this study would equip teachers with the necessary skills for building a healthy teacher-students’ relationship in order to motivate their students to learn. The results of this study is also intended to guide educators and administrators to organize workshops on the significance of teacher-students’ interaction for both teachers and students. The result of this study will also add to the knowledge of teachers on the importance of motivating their students.
Delimitation of the Study

The study was restricted to only teachers and students in selected schools in the Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai District, Ghana. The study was delimited to this area because the researcher had access to the schools, teachers and students in the District easily. The researcher also personally identified problems with teachers and students’ interpersonal relationships during his monitoring of some schools in the study area. The study was also delimited to the three specific objectives stated under the purpose of the study. This study attempts to measure the relationship between teacher-student interactions and student’s motivation, the relationship between teacher-student interactions and students’ performance, the relationship between student’s motivation and academic performance, the difference that exist between male and female students in terms of their motivation and the difference that exist between male and female students in terms of their academic performance.

Limitation of the Study

The researcher faced the challenge of collecting data from respondents and most especially from the teachers on time since they were preoccupied with official work other than to attend to the researcher. However, this challenge was resolved by persistent visits to such teachers on rescheduled appointments by the researcher. Again, due to time and other resource constraints, the study could not cover the entire population of the 35 public Junior High schools in the Bibiani – Anhwiaso – Bekwai District in the Western Region which is 4,111 comprising 155 teachers, and 3956 students. Some of the pupils also felt reluctant to respond to all the questions on the questionnaire with the view that the information they would provide could be
used to victimize them. These posed a challenge to the true presentation of the findings. In order to deal with the challenges faced, the researcher reassured the students who were reluctant to respond to all the items on the questionnaire that all the information provided would be confidential and would only be used for academic purposes.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were utilized:

**Expectancy**- The individual’s conviction concerning the probability that a specific act will result in a specific and desired outcome (Vroom, 1964/1995).

**Force** - Force is the element, which causes the individuals to act on their belief about the probability of achieving an outcome for a task (Vroom, 1964/1995).

**Valence** – This is the idea that the individual has a preference to the outcome of a task (motive). An outcome is positively valent when it is the desired outcome; it is negatively valent if the outcome is not desired (Vroom, 1964/1995).

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five (5) chapters. The organization of the chapters are grouped and described as follows;

Chapter One is the introduction of the study. The chapter one describes the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, and significance of the study, limitation of the study, delimitation of the study and organization of the study.

Chapter Two is the review of related literature. The chapter two of the study has been divided into the following sub-headings; Teacher-students’
interaction, the relationship between teacher-students interactions and students’ motivation, the relationship between teacher-students interactions and students’ performance, the relationship between students’ motivation and academic performance, the differences that exist between males and females students in terms of their motivation, the differences that exist between male and female students in terms of performance, Victor Vroom’s Expectancy Theory, Atkinson’s Achievement Motivation Theory, Lev Vygotsky’s Social Learning Theory and Constructivist’s Theory.

Chapter Three deals with the methodology of the study. It describes the research design, population, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis.

Chapter Four focuses on the results of the study. This chapter describes the findings of the study and discussion of the results. Chapter Five focuses on the summary, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The general purpose of the study was to find out the relationship that teacher-student interaction has with students’ motivation and academic performance. Chapter two is the review of related literature. This chapter has been divided into the following sub-headings; Teacher-student’s interaction, the relationship between teacher-student interactions and student’s motivation, the relationship between teacher-student interactions and students’ performance, the relationship between students’ motivation and academic performance, the concept of students’ academic performance, gender differences in academic performance, gender differences in motivation, Victor Vroom’s Expectancy Theory, Atkinson’s Achievement Motivation Theory, Lev Vygotsky’s Social Learning Theory and Constructivists’ Theory.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The main theories for this study are; Victor Vroom’s Expectancy Theory, Atkinson’s Achievement Motivation Theory, Lev Vygotsky Social Learning Theory and Constructivists’ Theory.

Vroom’s Expectancy Theory

Vroom’s Expectancy Theory (1964/1995) states that an individual’s choices are linked to the psychosomatic events occurring at the same time as the behaviour (Vroom, 1964/1995). He establishes the relationship between
one’s expectations that they have the ability to do what is required, that the outcome is desirable and that the promised outcome will be delivered if they do their part. There has been expansive debate as to whether or not teachers can in fact motivate their students. This study investigates, applying Vroom’s (1964/1995) theory to their students (Nugent, 2009).

As previously stated, expectancy is the individual’s belief as to whether or not the outcome is possible. Many seemingly “unmotivated” students display “learned helplessness” where they simply stop trying or pretend to lack abilities (Bruns, 1992). Teachers need to help their students to believe in the idea that they can be successful and create continuous opportunities for small successes upon which their students can build. To reiterate, educators have the distinct ability to influence the climate for their students. They can either make or break a child’s attitude to education, by the culture of achievement or the lack of such that they nurture. If the teacher believes in them, then tendency is generally that they will be more motivated to learn.

Payne (2003) argues that in order to level the playing field for their students, educators will have to help their students to set higher standards for themselves, as well as teach the students to self-advocate and recognize the costs of the choices they make (Payne, 2003).

If all the conditions of Vroom’s (1964/1995) theory are met, which means the student has the expectancy that hard work and application can lead to academic success (e.g. passing exit exams). The student’s academic success becomes positively valent, as well as that student’s belief in the idea that this
academic success can lead to a more rewarding future as his teacher has suggested, then the force to act should result. This force is called motivation.

According to Cross, (2001) motivation comes from within, yet she urges educators to expend the effort necessary to enhance students’ self-worth, teaching them how to set and surpass positive expectations based on their own abilities and teach them to value that success. The combination and repetition of these actions should help to mobilize students toward being achievement motivated.

Researches by Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996) support the argument that needs cause behavior or force action, and motivated behavior will increase if students perceive that they have both the ability (expectancy) to achieve a valued task (valence) and are confident that they will be rewarded. To implement Vroom’s (1964/1995) theory, a student in a classroom needs to be taught the depth of his abilities and how they correlate to his needs by presenting tasks which are at the level of the student’s development. The student must also be made aware of the values of completing tasks assigned him/her. He then needs to be provided with the tools to fulfill those expectancies and see the value in the reward. Much of this Force could be lost in a classroom where the teacher sees no value in interacting with and diagnosing his or her students’ potential. From this theory, it was revealed that students’ performance increases when they are motivated. This theory provides the basis for teachers to motivate their students so that the students will be successful. It was also revealed that students have the motivation to learn if they anticipate a desired outcome.
therefore, teachers should try as much possible to present task at the level of
their students.

**Reward and Reinforcement**

Nye (1996) emphasizes that reinforcement strengthens a behaviour, while reward may or may not strengthen a behavior. Reinforcers always strengthen the behaviour to which they are directed. Different types of rewards such as cash, awards, or other prizes may strengthen the behaviours that follow the action, these will then become reinforcers and not just rewards. Rewards are usually not instantly based on behaviour, whereas effective reinforcers are. For example, when a child who generally does not complete a task, does so, the commendation of that child, which leads to an increase in task completion would be considered a reinforcer. The reinforcer is an immediate response to a specific behavior. On the other hand, a child who is attending a day camp during the summer receives a certificate for camper of the day at the close of business, would be considered a reward, as it does not address any specific behaviour.

B.F. Skinner categorized these as operant behaviour “behaviour which operates on the environment to produce consequences” (Nye, 1996, p48). Nye goes on to add that this kind of behaviour is produced instead of provoked or initiated by external stimuli and is indicative of the fact that the individual is an active being.

Reinforcement can be further categorized as positive or negative. Alberto and Troutman (2003) defined positive reinforcement as “the contingent presentation of a stimulus, immediately following a response that increases the future rate and/or probability of the response”. The student then
would be positively reinforced if he or she was given an incentive such as praise, which led to an increase in the behaviour being praised; if the praise was given based on the occurrence of the specific desired or requested behaviour; and if it was given immediately upon completing the desired behaviour. Negative reinforcement on the other hand is defined as “the contingent removal of an adverse stimulus, immediately following a response that increases the future rate and/or probability of the response” (p44).

The student would then be negatively reinforced if he or she was faced with an unpleasant stimulus such as punishment. When he or she demonstrates the desired behaviour the teacher would then remove the stimulus or punishment? The student in this example is negatively reinforced for the behaviour. The goal is to make the behaviour dissipate (Alberto & Troutman, 2003).

**Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation**

Motivation can be prompted by either external or internal stimuli. The former is called Extrinsic Motivation, which is the motivation inspired by external rewards or a tangible result (Walker, 2004); while the latter is Intrinsic Motivation, which is the motivation that comes from within, where the enjoyment or success in the task is the actual reward, without the promise of a tangible reward (Walker, 2004). Lavoie (2007) cautioned educators about the over-dependence on rewards or extrinsic motivation, arguing that although it may produce modification in the child’s behavior, it will have very little impact on their actual motivation. In one illustration, the student worked hard, not to progress in school, but to earn the reward (Lavoie, 2007).

The issue with this technique, if over used is that it creates dependence, an almost Pavlovic operant conditioned response, where the students work for
the reward. In the absence of a reward, apathy may return. Instead, the goal in education should be to move the child towards a love of learning or personal satisfaction.

Perceptions of Motivation

In a study by Eschenmann in 1991, health occupation students assessed teachers based on their personality or personal manners: clarity in instruction, instructional methods and problem solving skills. The result strengthens the argument that there is indeed a positive relationship between teaching style and student performance. Student achievement is prompted based on the student’s perception of their teachers. It is argued that students whose teachers are interested in their development and growth have high performance levels (Eschenmann, 1991). The first and most important tool to assisting an individual to succeed is the attitude we have towards their success. “Teacher quality is the single most accurate indicator of a student’s performance in school” (Carter, 2000, p18).

Educators need to educate, yet expectations tend to have a greater impact than what is actually taught. In fact, efficacy and perhaps even empathy may have a greater impact on a child’s success than a teacher’s mastery of the content (Carter, 2000).

In a relatively recent study by Pearson (2003), the performance of poor urban schools was compared to that of middle class suburban schools. The teachers interviewed were divided into three ethnic categories: white teachers, trans-racial teachers, and teachers of color. It was noteworthy that it was not necessarily the teachers who shared the students’ ethnicities or cultures that believe in their possibilities, nor believed in their inherent failure. The results
indicated that it was the teacher’s perception, not their ethnicity or culture that made the biggest difference in children’s lives. The teachers surveyed, who were the most successful were the ones who believed that teaching was a calling for them. Once again, as Carter (2000) noted, Master Teachers believe in the culture of achievement and consequently they hold high expectations for their children.

This is unlike a teacher who looks at her class and sees students whom she believes will fail, instead of seeing students with whom she will have to work harder to assist in being successful. The educator, who makes excuses for failure, often relieves himself or herself of the responsibility to ensure the success of these children. The Master Teacher sees the children’s diversity as a pro and not a con and views a multi-lingual child as having the advantage of experiencing and enjoying both cultures.

Equity theory addressed the idea that student performance is greatly impacted by their perceptions of the fairness of their teachers (Wren, 1995). Wren states that this theory emphasizes the importance placed on individuals’ feeling that they are receiving fair and equitable treatment, such as motivation, which is based on fairness. This theory states that students will exert more effort for a task if they believe their effort will result in a reward that is appropriate for the effort they exerted as well as, that the rewards will be comparable to their peers under similar circumstances (Wren).

Again, the main concern projected under this theory, is with fairness. Students need to feel as though they have a fair chance at being successful, as any other student in their classroom. Many educators are unaware of the depth and scope of their influence (Eschenmann, 1991). The behavior and attitude of
students are often affected by their view of their teacher’s styles or behaviours (Eschenmann, 1991). Students, especially younger children, often model or reflect what is projected to them. Many times, behavioural issues or disruptions can be prevented when the teacher has thoroughly planned the lesson, taking into consideration the different learning styles present in the class. Once the students are actively engaged, take personal ownership of the material, because the teacher has found a way to speak their language, then one of the benefits will be reduced time of task.

In addition to modeling their teacher’s behavior, a child’s behavior is influenced by how the teacher responds to his or her actions. Often teachers are more verbal when a student does something that needs to be corrected, instead of when a child does something worthy of being recognized. According to Boss and Vaughn (2002), it is imperative that educators look for positive or desirable behaviors and let students know they have observed such. Here, positive feedback may act as an antecedent for positive behaviour. In this situation, it would be desirable to manipulate this antecedent to continue the desired behaviour. This can be done by varying the instructional content and delivery method to cater for individual learning styles or interest (Choate, 2004). It is important to provide accommodations and a well-planned instructional cycle that will reduce the amount of idle time for students (Choate, 2004). Students should also be involved in the creation of classroom expectations and room arrangement to provide a sense of ownership.

Having a child complete a task without enjoyment but because of fear of punishment is different from having the same child complete the same task because he was taught to appreciate and be excited about the material. Lavoie
reinforces the argument that every individual is motivated, adding, “all human behaviour is motivated…every behaviour that we manifest on any given day is motivated” (Lavoie, 2007). Unfortunately, the motivation may not be to achieve the given task. It may be to avoid it or to avoid the embarrassment that engaging in a task, such as a struggling reader is being made to read aloud in front of a class of his peers, may produce. The role of the educator, according to both Lavoie (2007) and McGinnis (1985) would be to build high morale before even teaching a skill. Because a student can often feed off his or her teacher’s enthusiasm, it is important then that the teacher is also enthusiastic about the task.

Teachers, who are effective in motivating their students to learn, generally have fewer discipline problems than less effective teachers face (Wiseman & Hunt, 2001). Wiseman and Hunt (2001), further note that there is in fact a relationship between best practices in teaching and best practices in motivation and management. The effective teacher is often better able to deter the misbehaviour not simply to respond to it. Here, the teacher will be managing the classroom, not acting as disciplinarian. In other words, the teacher would be proactive rather than reactive.

In order to motivate students, few principles are necessary. First, establish high expectations, or create expectancy and work toward getting the students to that level or above (McGinnis, 1985). In his book “Bringing out the best in people”, McGinnis (1985) references an experiment where a group of teachers were given the names of “supposedly advanced” students at the beginning of the year. These names were in fact randomly selected. At the end of the school year, these students outperformed their classmates, with respect
to GPA. The conclusion was that this was because the teachers already believed they were high achievers and treated them as such. According to Carter (2000), it is necessary to create an environment where children feel they should and will succeed.

Second, focus on the student’s strengths and help him to use these to overcome or over shadow weaknesses. Third, know your students, different students have different needs and hence will be motivated by different things. For some students, it will be the recognition, others the validation, some, the extrinsic material reward. It has to be of value to be a motivator. Fourth, provide tough love; refuse to accept failure due to lack of effort or to see them fall. There will be times when a student wants to quit, let them know that you refuse to accept that. He or she should eventually learn that this is because you care about and have high (realistic) expectations for them (Carter, 2000).

It is important however, that both the educator and student know that there are times when failure will occur, but not to allow this to cripple the entire journey. Use failures as teachable moments and redirect. Finally, often the best thing an educator can do beyond equipping is to believe that the student at some point or another will be able to experience success and to communicate this to that child. Each step along the way, celebrate small victories.

Lavoie (2007) emphasizes that not every educator will make learning fun, but educators should instead make it achievable and meaningful, and reiterates that learning cannot take place without motivation.

Walker Tileston (2004) reinforced the idea that teachers’ expectations are often the catalysts for students’ development. She argues that by setting a
mastery level for 75%, there is the expectation that 25% will fail. This begs the idea of collateral damage or casualties, and as she added, this may seem ok until your child is one of the 25%. No child is disposable (Walker Tileston, 2004). Expectations are therefore significant as they can cause a teacher to act in ways that can either help or hurt student’ performance.

**Relationships, Cultures, and Student Achievement**

There are many who seem to have the ability to bring out the best in people. “Motivators are not born, they are made” (McGinnis, 1985.). “There is no such thing as an unmotivated person” (McGinnis, 1985). Instead, different things and different environments motivate different people. He adds that the task then is to channel the existing passion and energies into the correct paths. McGinnis (1985) emphasized the strong difference between motivation and manipulation. It is imperative that a teacher does not confuse the two. According to McGinnis (1985), an effective leader, (teacher) needs two main ingredients; first, that individual should have “an astute knowledge of what makes people tick” (McGinnis, 1985) and second, a contagious spirit.

Glasser (1998) describes an effective teacher as one who is “able to convince not half or three quarters but essentially all his or her students to do quality work in school”. In this teacher’s classroom, no child will be left behind. He proposes the idea of Choice Theory, where he argues that human beings are born with five basic needs: love, power, survival, fun, and freedom. In order to satisfy these basic needs most individuals seek to relate or connect to other people on a social basis. Theoretically, this is identified, as Affiliation Motivation.
Anderman and Kaplan (2008) identified affiliation as a social motive and have reviewed research that suggests that social goals lead to initiation, management, and intensity of a behaviour as it related to things such as academic performance. The research also focused on how social perceptions affected academic performance.

In their study, adolescents who believed they were valued or respected by their peers were more likely to report adapted achievement motivation. These research results indicated that teens are generally influenced both positively and negatively. The results demonstrated adaptive achievement if the teen had a good quality friendship and a best friend who valued academic work. Maladaptive achievement was reported among students who had poor quality friendships and classmates (friends) who did not value academic work. (Nelson & DeBacker, 2008). It is therefore important to create positive relationships or cultures where success is celebrated and expected.

Educators need to help their students to establish high standards for themselves. This needs to be done by supporting them and helping them to nurture the desire for greater accomplishments, as well as teaching them to set the bar a little higher each step of their journey.

According to McGinnis (1985), few individuals can be coerced into higher performance that can last any significant amount of time, and will not generate any lasting far-reaching effects. Educational institutions need to create specific systematic programmes to equip each child with the tools they need to learn at higher levels (Dufour, Dufour, Eaker & Karhanek, 2004).

Carter (2000) argues against the idea that we need to “dumb down” material for struggling students. Instead, he argues that we need to teach
students the tools they need, as well as help them to establish the attitude for that success (Carter, 2000). Apart from setting high standards, schools need to create the climate that will nurture that attitude (Dufour, Dufour & Eaker, 2002). Schools need to convince the students that they can be successful. Hold both the staff and students accountable for commonly determined standards; raise the bar higher after each success and as Pawlas (2005) noted, celebrate each small victory to motivate them to keep working.

According to Ruby Payne (2003), “we can neither excuse students nor scold them for not knowing; as educators, we must teach them and provide support, assistance, and expectations”. Educators have the distinct role of being guiding lights for their students. Teachers and administrators alike need to recognize that often students come to them without the skills they need to succeed. In fact, that is the primary purpose of the educational system, to provide them with the tools for success. As educators create the culture of achievement and geminate the idea in each child that they can be successful (expectancy) that should in turn precipitate the desire to experience success. For example, if the student desires success of passing an exam, then a passing grade becomes positively valent, while failure is negatively valent because the student does not desire that result. Aside from instilling the idea in students that they have unlimited potential and can be successful (expectancy), the educational system needs to teach students to desire this success, or add valence to success. Payne argues that it is essential to teach a child the rules of each class so that he or she can have mobility (Payne, 2003). Educational institutions need to teach students the value of success, and make it a point to celebrate success and small victories. If we create a culture where students are
expected to succeed, many often conform to the norms. The key is to ensure that they are aware of those norms.

A healthy and challenging academic culture should prompt both achievement and competence motivation in the students who are socialized in that environment. Perhaps, one of the most widely researched types of motivation is Achievement Motivation. It is defined as “the desire to accomplish something of value or importance through one’s own efforts and to meet standards of excellence in what one does” (Hyde & Kling, 2001). With this type of motivation, the force to seek out and attain specific goals or objectives that will result in personal advancement mobilizes individuals. Here the success at the goal is the reward. Murray’s Taxonomy of 20 needs lists achievement as the second highest need (Schunk et al, 2008).

In addition to providing support to the individual, removing stereotypes is crucial in facilitating achievement motivation. Hyde and Kling (2001) in Women, Motivation, and Performance, concluded that stereotype threats could have three possible effects on achievement motivation: First, individuals can still be influenced by a negative stereotype even if they do not believe in or accept it. The example they gave was of a female being afraid to take on a mathematics course for fear that failure will prove the stereotype true. Second, stereotypes set up a system that reinforces itself, meaning, the fear of confirming a negative stereotype leads to behaviour that ends up doing just that which was the fear in the first instance, confirming the stereotype. Third, stereotype threat may be induced by current situations in academic situations. Individuals, in this study, females, may be less likely to take on a challenge if it is widely accepted that they are expected to fail and pressure is
brought to bear on them because of those expectations. The research therefore suggests that these barriers need to be removed so that both males and females have equal access and challenges in academia and are able to experience achievement motivation.

The second type of motivation that may be prompted by this culture of success and performance is Competence Motivation, which is the desire to master a task or skill. This force propels the individual to work at producing quality work that demonstrates skill, pride, and mastery. Wilson and Trainin (2007) suggest that teachers need to be aware of students’ self-efficacy and perceptions of competence, especially within the primary grade students. The authors emphasize the significance of helping children to comprehend their capacity to manage performance on a task (Wilson & Trainin, 2007). In a similar study, students who had low competence reported less teacher support than did those with high motivational beliefs (Patrick, Mantzicopoulos, Samarapungavan & French, 2008).

In 2007, Crow made the distinction between “competence” and “perceived competence” in “Information Literacy: What's Motivation Got to Do with It?” She referenced a Miserandino’s study from 1996, whose results indicated a positive correlation between students who believed they were competent and their intrinsic motivation. Despite having a study sample of competent students, results indicated that only those who “perceived” themselves as competent, wanted to do well and learn, while their peers who did not believe they were competent (despite performance) acted in a manner that would be academically detrimental, such as faking school work (Crow, 2007).
Walker Tileston adds that students must believe in the significance (valence) of the task, believe that they have what it takes to be successful (expectancy) and feel positive about the environment (Walker, 2004). As such, if a task does not meet one or more of those elements, or the student does not care for the teacher that is asking them to do the task, then they may do it poorly or simply refuse to do the task. Again, here, a teacher needs to build a nurturing relationship with his or her student and provide tasks that will meet one or more of the basic needs. According to the Expectancy Theory, these tasks are seen as being achievable and having value. Inform the child of how the task can affect the need and can be of value.

Lavoie (2007) argued that the child who is fearful of being embarrassed would instead go to great lengths to demonstrate motivation to avoid that task. Teaching a struggling reader how to read, by forcing him to tackle uninteresting material will further make the task unbearable. Instead, using content that the child finds appealing will appeal to his desire for fun or enjoyment. Emphasizing the critical need for literacy may appeal to the desire for survival. According to these arguments, students need teachers who will lead them and not boss them around. Using non-coercive lead management, the teacher finds ways and things to motivate the student. She offers rewards and incentives such as praising the child, versus using punishment or embarrassment.

Based on Choice Theory, Glasser (1998) promotes the use of cooperative groups, which he argues satisfies the need for power and belonging. Regarding setting the atmosphere for motivation, prior research by Walker (2004) has reiterated the need to create a nurturing environment.
Walker Tileston goes further to speak to the significance of both the physical and emotional climate in which a child is expected to learn. “Students need to feel comfortable in the classroom- both physically and emotionally” (p.28). The physical set up and atmosphere can influence learning. The smells and the sounds also play a role. Emotionally the child should feel safe. He or she should know that they are accepted, and know what is expected of them. Students should feel comfortable to try. He or she should not be afraid to try and sometimes fail.

Wiseman and Hunt (2001) examined the idea of the instructional climate or atmosphere, adding that students should be provided personal interactive lessons. Students should be told beforehand why and how the lesson would be important and real life applications should be included often. Feedback should be timely and appropriate (2001).

As previously stated, by Jerome Bruns (1991), there are children everywhere that face “learned helplessness”, pretending not to have ability, or refusing to complete tasks.

Some are able to do the minimum that is expected of them and others fall behind and face the consequences. The work-inhibited child becomes the underachiever because he or she “over an extended period of time, routinely does not complete assigned work that they are able to understand and are able to complete intellectually” (Bruns, 1992). He emphasizes that this definition excludes the child who has a weak subject, or has had a bad quarter, or bad test. Instead, this is specific to the child who has this problem across the board without any specific external stimuli.
To assist these students and inspire a love for learning, Bruns revisits the teacher-student relationship: create nurturing relationships with these students. This child needs a teacher who will make the extra effort to show that they care about the student as an individual. He suggests that teachers should be attentive, show you care and notice their absence, be sincerely supportive. He also emphasizes that the work inhibited child needs to be taught how to work, rather than to be taught the academic skills.

According to Walker (2004) what educators can do is to teach them skills that will help them to begin a task with energy and to complete it even when it becomes difficult. This is the child who needs to be taught how to manage his or her time, how to deal with a difficult task and how to stay with the task to completion. It is important that a teacher understands the difference that instead of seeing the child as lazy, see him or her as needing to find new individualized ways to get the job done. Some of her suggestions were to work slowly with the child through different tasks, recruit volunteers or allow students to help each other, as well as use positive reinforcement or rewards and feedback to encourage growth. Most importantly, avoid placing blame. A child who is trying, even a little bit may stop doing so if they fear it is not enough.

Walker (2004) repeats the caution to teachers on the use of extrinsic or external motivation such as reward of money or other prizes. She argues that constantly using such to motivate a student may result in a decreased sense of internal or intrinsic motivation where the child is motivated by the actual joy or success of completing the task. Hence the focus for any educator should be to teach the child the joy of learning, whether it is to read or to complete a
math problem. As such, when the external reward can no longer be offered to the child, he or she will still be motivated to be successful. One external reward that may enhance or lead to intrinsic motivation is perhaps praising or positively reinforcing the child. When he or she is successful at a task and is praised verbally by the teacher, they then feel better about themselves and may associate the success with that feeling. To later revisit that feeling he or she may attempt another such task with the aim of completing it successfully. On the other hand, threats and coercion will do very little to create positive long-term results.

“Create a culture of achievement”, is what Carter (2000) proposes. To do so Wiseman and Hunt (2001) have identified the following necessary ingredients:

First create safety and order. A child must feel safe emotionally as well as physically. He or she must also be able to see that there is a prescribed order to the environment.

Second, the student must be given opportunities to be successful. Vary the tasks so that the child has the opportunity to experience success at different levels. A child who constantly fails will eventually give up. Small doses of success will lead to a greater desire for the same. Third, clearly define objectives. Explain what they will be learning, as well as how and why the skill will be meaningful to the child. Fourth, challenge the student. Provide tasks that while they can accomplish, will challenge and take them to a higher level of thinking or acting. Fifth, get the students’ attention and involvement; find ways to draw them in at the beginning of the lesson. The task should be more than meaningful; it should also be interesting. This will entice the
student to want to know or do more. The sixth key factor is providing timely and appropriate feedback (Wiseman & Hunt, 2001). This is even more important if there is a need to redirect the child’s skill or behavior. If this is done at the time the error or misbehavior occurs, it may be easier to correct the behavior than doing so after the fact when the child no longer recalls the event. Correct a skill before the child has mastered the wrong thing. Correct a behavior before it becomes habit. This is even easier to do if expectations were clearly defined and have been consistently followed.

Students often model the instructor’s attitude to a task. It is therefore important that the instructor approach the task with enthusiasm. “Enthusiasm cannot be forced, but it can be developed” (Miller & Rose, 1975). It is also important to communicate the desire for each child’s success.

Wiseman and Hunt (2001) allude to the idea of the “self-fulfilling prophecy or the phenomenon that a student’s performance is greatly influenced when a teacher holds certain beliefs about their student’s abilities to perform”. In addition, the teacher’s expectations show in their attitudes, as well as they treat students differently, no matter how subtly, based on their perceptions of them.

Ruby Payne (2003) says that support, insistence, and high expectations are the foundations for success in any classroom. She suggests that support is provided by directly teaching and scaffolding a child through a task. Insistence she adds is not giving up being persistent in believing that a child can succeed and prodding him or her to the task, or even helping that child to find the motivation within to do so. The “high expectations” is simply believing that
each child can and will be successful, and translating these expectations to the student by visible or audible actions.

Based on the theory of Observational Learning, Theobald argues that a teacher’s actions tend to have significant impact on the students learning. “Motivation is influenced through observation” (Theobald, 2006). Hence, it is important for a teacher to reflect a positive motivated attitude. Because of the nature of the relationships that often form between teachers and students, the students may be apt to adopt a similar attitude (2006). As a result, she suggests that educators insist up reflecting both intensity and enthusiasm for learning, as well as model self-confidence. Theobald offered the following ideas to demonstrate intensity and enthusiasm: First, leave your problems at home. Do not direct negative energies towards students because of personal problems.

Second, wear a smile and laugh whenever possible. As simple as it sounds, wearing a smile helps to create friendly and comfortable environment. Ensure that your voice also projects the same warmth and variety.

Third, interact with the students. Be personal, be yourself and share your personality, greet students at the door and be courteous. Teachers should operate as facilitators and cause student directed activities to occur. Maintain eye contact and move around the class, while trying to include all the students in a lesson. Also if possible role-play, allow the students to see the material come alive.

Fourth, dress appropriately and be prepared. Professionalism is important. Set positive examples for students to mirror. Proper planning will be evident in how smoothly the lesson runs as well as your ability to deal with circumstances as they arise during a lesson (Theobald, 2006).
In order to model self-confidence, Theobald (2006) urged educators to share their success stories with their students. Be proud of your students and what you are doing.

Ways to do this include inviting visitors to the classroom as well as simply speaking about your students to a colleague or friend and telling your students that you are proud to do so. Demonstrate respect for order and regulations. Allow your students to see you following school or district rules. Ensure that they do not hear you being derogatory about a colleague or superior. However, she insists that teachers must be strong and respectfully stand their ground when necessary. When issues present themselves both with the students as well as other staff members, deal with them in a professional manner, bearing in mind the message that your response may send. Model the attitude that you would want your students to have, to their peers as well as to those to whom they are subordinates.

In order for something to be considered a reward, it must have a value. As Vroom’s Expectancy Theory (1964/1995) illustrates, the individuals have to believe in their own abilities or possibilities to achieve the outcome in question. The result has to be a reinforcer, it is positive if the outcome increases the reoccurrence of the act; it is negative if its absence prompts action (Alberto & Troutman, 2003). The key is that the desire for an outcome must move them to some sort of action. Finally, this theory rationally states that the outcome will not prompt action if the promised reward is not likely to be awarded.

In other words, the outcome needs to have some measure of certainty once required variables are met. Imagine how much more a student could be
motivated if he is taught to believe in his possibilities, if his values are positively conditioned and the system stands up to its end of the bargain. Educators have the distinct role of being architects in the blueprint of their students’ lives and minds. Teachers should apply Vroom’s (1964/1995) theory and germinate the expectancies, help them to identify valence, be the catalyst in creating the force they need to move, and be instrumental in them experiencing reward. If these are done with fidelity, they may in fact prompt the stimulation or growth of intrinsic motivation. Buckingham and Coffman (1999) believe in inspiring a person to work harder. The argument is not for educators to create talent or abilities where none exists.

Instead, it is for them to help the child to believe in and capitalize on talents or skills that have not been unearthed. Step outside of the box or book and find alternate routes to help each child find and grasp different skills. Imagine, if you believe, and help them to believe that they really can learn, (Vroom, 1964/1995) says that they very likely will. Wiseman and Hunt define an effective teacher as one who is able to “motivate students or establish environments in which motivated students are the end result” (Wiseman & Hunt, 2001, p.10). The teacher is the key factor, one that has to believe they can make a difference. “Student motivation increases when teachers establish classrooms that are focused on their students” (2001, p.11).

**Atkinson’s Achievement Motivation Theory**

A second theory was Atkinson’s Achievement Motivation Theory (1957). Atkinson goes beyond value and expectancy to add individual needs as a motivational factor. He labeled needs as motives, expectancies as the probability for success and values or valence as the incentive value. When
these three were combined, they resulted in the individual’s behaviour or action. He categorized achievement motives as being either motive to approach success, which should propel an individual to seek success, and motive to avoid failure, which should deter an individual from failure. The theory therefore argues that individuals whose motives for success were high would approach tasks with an attitude that they can and will be successful and therefore engage in achievement tasks. On the other hand, if individuals had a high motive to avoid failure, and the embarrassment and shame that were associated with that failure, then they too would be motivated to participate and succeed in tasks in order to be spared the embarrassment (Schunk et al, 2008). For both categories, the individual is motivated by the expected outcome.

Cross (2001) agrees that expectancies are tied to self-perceptions. With expectancy, the individual has to believe that he or she has the ability to achieve a particular task. She adds that if the individuals doubt their abilities to be successful at a task, then there will be no motivation for that specific task. Further, she adds, the fear of failure is so intense for some, that it causes the individuals to engage in behaviours that result in the feared failure (Cross, 2001). The motivation in this situation is not to be successful, but to avoid failure. Expectancy then hinges on two types of motivation:

Achievement motivation, which is the motivation to succeed; and fear motivation, which is the motivation to avoid failure. The analogy Cross (2001) presented to paint a vivid picture of both types of individuals was that of a strong versus a weak swimmer falling down a waterfall. The stronger swimmer focuses his efforts on getting to safety, while the weaker swimmer
fearfully tries to avoid being consumed by the water. The first is achievement-directed while the second is fear-threatened (Cross, 2001).

Additionally, self-worth and attribution also influence expectations. Self-worth refers to how the individual feels about his or herself and his or her abilities. The person with high self-worth will see himself or herself as being worthwhile and capable.

Covington and Omelich (1979) argue that effort is a “doubled-edge sword”, meaning effort can lead to success, but in the event of a task attempted and failed, it causes one to question abilities. Attribution, on the other hand, is a factor to which individuals attribute success or failure. The four factors include ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Students who feel they have more power or control over their academic performance tend to be more highly motivated and are generally more successful than those who attribute their results to external variables such as luck (Cross, 2001).

**Lev Vygotsky’s Social Learning Theory**

Social learning theories help us to understand how people learn in social contexts (learn from each other) and informs us on how we, as teachers, construct active learning communities. Lev Vygotsky (1962), a Russian teacher and psychologist, first stated that we learn through our interactions and communications with others. Vygotsky (1962) examined how our social environments influence the learning process. He suggested that learning takes place through the interactions students have with their peers, teachers, and other experts. Consequently, teachers can create a learning environment that maximizes the learner's ability to interact with each other through discussion, collaboration, and feedback. Moreover, Vygotsky (1962) argues that culture
is the primary determining factor for knowledge construction. We learn through this cultural lens by interacting with others and following the rules, skills, and abilities shaped by our culture.

1. Developing Learning Communities
2. Community of Learners Classroom
3. Collaborative Learning and Group Work
4. Discussion-based Learning (Socratic Questioning Methods)

Instruction that supports social learning:

1. Students work together on a task
2. Students develop across the curriculum
3. Instructors choose meaningful and challenging tasks for the students to work
4. Instructors manage socratic dialogue that promote deeper learning.

Vygotsky argued, "that language is the main tool that promotes thinking, develops reasoning, and supports cultural activities like reading and writing" (Vygotsky 1978). As a result, instructional strategies that promote literacy across the curriculum play a significant role in knowledge construction as well as the combination of whole class leadership, individual and group coaching, and independent learning. Moreover, teachers need to provide the opportunity to students for a managed discussion about their learning. Discussion that has a purpose with substantive comments that build off each other and there is a meaningful exchange between students that results in questions that promote deeper understanding. Discussion-based classroom using Socratic dialogue where the instructor manages the discourse
can lead each student to feel like their contributions are valued resulting in increased student motivation.

The teacher, or local topic expert, plays the important role of facilitator, creating the environment where directed and guided interactions can occur. Many other educational theorists adopted Vygotsky’s social process ideas and proposed strategies that foster deeper knowledge construction, facilitate Socratic student discussions, and build active learning communities through small group based instruction.

In essence, Vygotsky recognizes that learning always occurs and cannot be separated from a social context. Consequently, instructional strategies that promote the distribution of expert knowledge where students collaboratively work together to conduct research, share their results, and perform or produce a final project, help to create a collaborative community of learners. Knowledge construction occurs within Vygotsky’s (1962) social context that involves student-student and teacher-student collaboration on real world problems or tasks that build on each person's language, skills, and experience shaped by each individual's culture" (Vygotsky, 1978). This theory revealed that effective teacher-students’ relationship promotes students’ performance therefore, teachers should take deliberate steps to create a healthy relationship between them and their students. This will influence students’ motivation and academic performance.

**Constructivist Framework**

Constructivism is a theory of learning. As such, a constructivist approach to learning sees the learning environment as a “mini-society, a
community of learners engaged in activity, discourse, interpretation, justification, and reflection” (Fosnot, 2005; p. ix).

While constructivist theory of education indicates that knowledge is constructed individually by the student that learning occurs in a social environment (classroom) with experiences that have been carefully constructed by the teacher. In biological theorists’ terms, there is “an active interplay of the surrounding (environment) to evolution and to learning” (p. 11). The constructivist teacher encourages a consideration of others’ points of views and a mutual respect, allowing the development of independent and creative thinking. From a constructivist perspective, meaning is understood to be the result of individuals (in this case, teachers) “setting up relationships, reflecting on their actions, and modeling and constructing explanations” (Fosnot, 2005; p. 280).

Contemporary theorists and researchers’ beliefs have shifted from isolated student mastery of concepts to ideas that real learning is about interaction, growth, and development (Fosnot, 2005). New information from the realm of cognitive science tells us that students learn through progressive structuring and restructuring of knowledge experience, “that deep conceptual learning is about structural shifts in cognition; without exchange with the environment, entropy would result” (p. 279). That knowledge which is actively constructed is a pervasive tenet of constructivist thinking. The way a teacher listens and talks to children helps them to become learners who think critically and deeply about what they read and write (Fosnot, 2005; p. 102). By frequently engaging with the student collaboratively, a teacher increases
his/her understanding of how a particular learner acquires knowledge and therefore becomes responsive to the learner’s needs.

Constructivist theorists DeVries and Zan (2005) write “the preoccupation in most schools with subject matter content has led to situation in which affective development is negatively influenced” (p. 132). Ironically, they say this one-sided preoccupation has created a situation in which intellectual development does not flourish either – they contend that “in order to foster intellectual development, a certain kind of interpersonal framework must be created” (133). It is their opinion that a primary focus of a constructivist education is the development of a network of interpersonal relations that will dominate the child’s school experience. They contend “interpersonal relations are the context for the child’s construction of the self, of others, and of subject-matter knowledge” (p.132).

Bruner (1977) writes that the process of education requires that “schools must also contribute to the social and emotional development of the child if they are to fulfill their function of education” (p. 9).

Bruner develops four themes he considers essential to the process of learning – one of them relates to stimulating the desire to learn, creating interest in the subject being taught, and what he terms “intellectual excitement” (p. 11). He suggests that studying the methods used by ‘successful’ teachers as a way of determining effective practices. Constructivism provides a natural and best frame for this study because a major tenet of a constructivist researcher is to look at the processes of interaction among individuals in the context of where they live and work. Therefore, this theory will equip the teachers with the prerequisite skills that
will enable them to establish a healthy relationship between them and their students. This theory will also add to the knowledge of teachers and students on the importance of good relationship between teachers and students.

**Teacher-Students Interactions**

There is a significant concern about the relationship of a teacher and a student in the success of contemporary teaching and learning process. The relationship is described as inter-personal, in that the relationship involves people, and exists ‘between’ those involved (Buber, 1996 cited in Giles, 2008). Teacher-Student interaction is the relationship between teachers and students in school setting. According to Claridge and Lewis (2005) the relationship teachers have with their learners is fundamental to the success of teaching and learning. A good relationship increases students’ learning outcome, as well as making it much more enjoyable for the teacher. According to (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002), the strong relationships between teachers and students are essential components to the healthy academic development of all students in schools.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) posit that strong teacher-student relationships provide a unique entry point for educators working to improve the social and learning environments of schools and classrooms. Teacher-student interaction plays important role in effective teaching and learning process. Students need teachers to relate to them well and believe in them to become successful and achieve higher academic goals. Since teachers serve as role models to their students, they expect them to show positive relationship with them to motivate and encourage them to learn whatever they teach them and realized their academic goals. Various research findings have proved that healthy teacher-
student interaction or relationship is significant to students’ motivation and academic success. Hamre, Pianta, Burchinal, Field, Crouch, Downer, Howes, LaParo, and Little, (2012) posit that for effective teaching and learning to occur, teachers must keenly involve in positive relations with their learners. The researcher’s observation reveals that positive teacher-student interaction in and out of the classroom is one of the most contributing factors in successful teaching and learning process because it affects students’ readiness and acceptance to study hard to improve their knowledge in their course area and the achievement of their academic goals and objectives. According to Nugent (2009) creating a sense of well-being in teachers’ relationships with students, teachers can motivate students during the learning process. A positive teacher-student relationship, therefore, is crucial inside the classroom and with regards to it various effects; either positive or negative on the performance and development of students, it is necessary for teachers to understand that students need to feel comfortable with, and confident in them. The teacher needs to understand that their relationship with their learners motivates them to learn from the teachers and whatever they teach them.

Downey (2008) conducted a study synthesizing educational research on factors that affect academic success. The rationale for the study was to examine classroom practices that made a difference for all students, but in particular, for students at risk for academic failure. What was determined was that a teacher’s personal interaction with his/her students made a significant difference. The recommendations from Downey’s analysis were that “students need teachers to build strong interpersonal relationships with them, focusing on strengths of the students while maintaining high and realistic expectations
for success”. These interactive relationships should be based on respect, trust, caring, and cohesiveness. A sense of belonging is another important byproduct of a strong teacher-student relationship that is critical to a student’s success in school. Downey concludes by saying “the study served as a powerful reminder that everyday teacher-student interactions in the classroom matter”.

Ravitch (2010) writes that “the goal of education is not to produce higher test scores, but to educate children to become responsible people with well-developed minds and good character”. She says that “accountability as it is now is not helping our schools because its measures are too narrow and imprecise, and its consequences too severe. Overemphasis on test scores to the omission of other important goals of education may actually weaken the love of learning and the desire to acquire knowledge (Ravitch, 2010). The significance of the affective domain in determining effective teachers and teaching practices is a component that the current teacher evaluation system does not give enough credence to.

Students’ learning outcomes (measured by test scores) are considered, overwhelmingly, to be the deciding determinant of a highly effective teacher and a highly effective school.

Langer (1997) writes “if the source of information is someone we respect, we are more likely to be influenced and retain the information than if we view the source as untrustworthy”.

Initial gathering of information relies on the source of the information. “When we have learned information mindfully, we remain open to ways in which information may differ in various situations”. In effect, by building solid relationships with students, teachers are creating discriminating, as well
as lifelong learners. Although, over time, the source of the information may be forgotten, the information received is retained (Langer, 1997).

Cazden (2001) states that “children’s intellectual functioning, at school, as at home, is intimately related to the social relationships in which it becomes embedded. Familiarity facilitates responsiveness which plays an important part in learning”. Cazden believes in the importance of creating a learning environment that incorporates building an affective interpersonal relationship with students. Creating a learning environment that all the stakeholders are invested in will have a positive impact on the learning that will take place. As Cazden writes, “What counts are relationships between the teacher and each student, as an individual, both in whole class lessons and in individual seat work assignments. Now each student becomes a significant part of the official learning environment”.

Marzano (2003) suggests a useful question for anyone wishing to understand factors that improve student achievement is to ask “What influence does an individual teacher have on a student apart from what the school does?” He indicates that all researchers agree that the impact of decisions made by an individual teacher is far greater than the impact of decisions made at the school level. Marzano writes “the core of effective teacher-student relationships is a healthy balance between dominance and cooperation”. Showing interest in students as individuals has a positive impact on their learning according to Marzano.

McCombs and Whisler (1997) posit that the need for the teacher to show a personal interest in their students is vital to their learning. All agree
that the interaction between teacher and student has a significant impact on student learning in the classroom.

Sarason (1999) looks at teaching as a performing art, and discusses the “art of teaching” and the role that teacher interaction plays in creating a “productive learning” environment. He posits that, post - World War II, when training teachers’ education has increasingly focused on subject matter to the detriment of pedagogy. He asks “are there not characteristics of a good teacher which can be observed in which the teacher interacts with children?” Such a candidate would be someone capable of understanding, motivating, and guiding the intellectual, as well as the social-personal development of children. Sarason contends “If you do not know the minds and hearts of learners, you Subvert productive learning” – that this is the starting point of all learning.

Sarason contends that there are three overarching features for productive learning; the first is recognizing and respecting the individuality of the learner. The second is for the teacher to know the subject matter sufficiently to be able to determine when the learner may have difficulty and be able to intercede to prevent the difficulty from happening. The third tenet is that the teacher is constantly looking for ways to engage and stimulate the learner so he/she wants to learn. By building relationships with students, teachers can fulfill what Sarason contends is the overarching purpose of schooling – motivate learners to experience personal and cognitive growth. It is Sarason’s position that not having a system in place that assesses how teachers interact with children is a major problem in the field of education, one that will continue to short change future generations of students and teachers.
Teachers need to establish a relationship with their students which engender trust, respect, and an understanding of them as learners. He considers it an essential component to teaching and learning – he asks that teachers be “both accomplished performers and astute psychologists”.

Eccles and Wigfield (2002) investigated motivational beliefs and values that guide a student’s learning process. They define motivation as the study of action; in particular, they focus on achievement motivation. They posit that people have expectations about success as well as values and reasons for doing an activity.

There is an expectation for success and a sense of control over outcomes that are related beliefs that motivate individuals when completing tasks – especially challenging tasks. This sense of self-efficacy is strong in some people but weak in others. As reported by Eccles and Wigfield, “not knowing the cause of one’s successes and failures undermines one’s motivation to work on associated tasks”. They determined that having a strong sense of control and confidence over your outcomes leads to success. Eccles and Wigfield refer to a 1998 study by Skinner, Zimmer-Gembeck, and Connell where the development of students’ beliefs was charted over a number of school years. They compared the children’s perceived control to the perception children had of how the teachers treated them. He determined that “children who believed teachers were warm and supportive developed a more positive sense of their own control over outcomes”.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) also investigated the importance of teacher–student relationships. They posit that positive relationships between teacher and student serve as a resource to students as it helps maintain their
engagement in academic pursuits. This extended engagement leads to better grades. Hamre and Pianta cite a study by Gregory & Weinstein (2004) that indicated that student-perceived teacher connection was the factor most closely associated with growth in achievement from 8th to 12th grade. For younger children, Birch and Ladd (1998) concluded that kindergarten children who did not have a good relationship with their teacher exhibited less classroom participation and achievement. These negative relationships continued to affect the quality of the students’ relationships in first and second grade (Pianta & Hamre, 2006). Poor teacher-student relationships were considered a predictor of “sustained academic problems” and an indicator of future school difficulties (p. 52). These findings indicated the importance of teachers building solid relationships as they have a direct impact on academic achievement for years to come.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) suggest that schools actively encourage staff members to engage with their students and learn about students’ outside interests so that staff can connect with them on a more personal level. Hamre and Pianta’s contention is that a strong teacher-student relationship is essential for success in school and because of this, “ways to build good solid teacher-student relationships should be explicitly targeted in school intervention plans”. These strong and supportive relationships allow students to feel competent to make greater academic gains. Hamre and Pianta (2006) acknowledge the growing research that supports the efficacy of building teacher-student relationships and recommend that more empirical evidence is needed to develop how to go to scale with efforts targeting student-teacher relationships and how to sustain these efforts over time. Their position is that
this will ultimately help make schools more responsive to the diverse learning needs in classrooms.

Crosnoe, Johnson, and Elder (2004) researched the effect ‘alienation’ of youths from the school community had on their academic and behavioural performance in school. Alienation is defined as feelings of disconnectedness from others. They contend that “students’ alienation contributes to academic problems which lead to problems on a societal level”. They stress the need to consider more social aspects of schooling such as the relationship that teachers build with their students. They studied whether an affective dimension of teacher-student relationships predicts academic progress and behaviour problems. In a longitudinal study of adolescents, it was revealed that positive teacher-student relationships were associated with better student outcomes both academically and behaviourally. Crosnoe et al. concluded that “students who had more positive views of their teachers did better and had fewer problems in school”. Their recommendation, based on these conclusions, was that research should delve more deeply into teacher-student relationships; in particular, exploring the connection between the affective dimensions of these relationships. They consider good student-teacher relationships to be a resource to schools and the students, and should be promoted as such. Facilitating interpersonal relations, from a sociological viewpoint, is important to keeping students committed to the educational process.

Baker (1999) conducted a study of “at risk students.” These at risk students were defined as students designated as having a high probability of poor developmental or school outcomes. Baker reports that at risk students often report feeling alienated and disenfranchised from the culture of school.
When asked, students reported that they were satisfied with school if they perceived their relationship with their teacher as a caring and supportive one. The current emphasis on instructional methodology and curriculum has usurped the importance of the relationship teachers create with their students. Baker (1999) posits that because elementary students spend such significant amounts of time with one teacher, the opportunity to build relationships between students and teachers is enhanced at this level. Baker surmises that students who have dropped out of school “seem not to have the social connectedness with adults at school that could function as a protective factor in the face of academic or life stressors”. She concludes that students’ interactions with teachers and the quality of the interactions are potential influences on school performance.

Although Baker’s study focused on students who were “at risk” for failure or behavior problems, her findings could also transfer to the school performance of any student.

Brekelmans and Wubbels, (2005) also conducted a study that showed that students’ perceptions of teacher influence were related to cognitive outcomes. The higher a teacher was perceived on the influence dimension, (an interpersonal perception profile), the higher the outcomes of students on a physics test. In their study, teacher influence was the most important variable at the class level. They report that the more teachers were perceived by their students as cooperative, the higher the students’ scores were on cognitive tests.

The Concept of Students’ Academic Performance

Individual student academic performance is a core concept within schools. During the past years, educational researchers have made progress in
illuminating and increasing the performance concept (Campbell, 1990). Furthermore, recommendations have been made in clarifying key predictors and processes linked with students’ performance. With the foregoing convert that we are witnessing within schools today, the performance concepts and performance requirements are undergoing alteration as well (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999).

Ankomah (2011) defines academic performance as the measured output of students at the end of a series of assessments. Tetteh (2011) also sees academic performance as the reach of gain by effort or accomplishment of one’s goal. The Wisconsin Education Association Council (1996) also set their definition of performance as the one requiring students to demonstrate skills and competencies by performing or producing something. Danso (2011) in defining academic performance said academic performance refers to the series of action of a person on a learning task. When performance is used in education, it is often presented as synonymous with achievement or attainment. In addition, academic achievement is seen as a process in which students’ show their ability to pursue tasks. In other words, what a student is able to achieve when he or she is tested on what has been taught usually in formal education. Thus, at the end of a period of carefully planned mode of instruction, students may have to be assessed after having undergone such series of instruction. This will enable educators to measure and categorize the output of the students and eventually establish their performance.

Nevertheless, performance is highly important for an institution as a whole and for the individuals in the institution themselves. Researchers strongly agree that when visualising academic performance one has to
segregate between an action (i.e., behavioural) aspect and an outcome aspect of performance (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Roe, 1999). The behavioural aspect of performance refers to what a student does in the task situation. According to Kanfer (1990), it encompasses student behaviours such as attending to classes, performing class assignment, presenting home work on time and any other school activities as well as teachers teaching basic reading skills to school children. It is of essence to note that not every action of students is subsumed under the performance concept, but only action which is very important for the school goals and objectives. “Academic performance is what the schools admit students to do, and do well” (Campbell et al., 1993). Thus, performance is not defined by the action itself but by judgmental and evaluative processes (Ilgen & Schneider, 1991). In the view of Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit (1997), actions which can be measured are considered to represent performance.

The outcome aspect of performance refers to the result of the student’s behaviour. The described behaviours may result in outcomes such as numbers of class test and assignment done and pupils’ mathematical ability. In many situations, the behavioural and outcome aspects are related empirically, but they do not overlap completely. The outcome aspects of performance largely depend on factors other than the student’s behaviour (Ilgen & Schneider, 1991). For example, imagine a teacher who delivers a perfect lesson (behavioural aspect of performance), but one or two of his pupils nevertheless do not improve their skills to master principles and concepts because of their intellectual deficits (outcome aspect of performance).
In practice, it is very hard to describe the action aspect of performance without any reference to the outcome aspect. Because not any action but only actions vital for schools’ goals constitute performance, one needs criteria for evaluating the degree to which a student’s performance meets the schools’ goals. Again, it is very difficult to imagine how to conceptualize such criteria without simultaneously considering the outcome aspect of performance at the same time. Thus, the emphasis on performance being an action does not really solve all the problems. Moreover, despite the general agreement that the behavioural and the outcome aspect of performance have to be differentiated, I do not completely agree about which of these two aspects should be labelled ‘performance’.

Educational institutions need highly performing individuals in order to meet their goals and to achieve competitive advantage over other institutions as performance is important for the individual as well as the schools they attend. Accomplishing tasks and performing at a high level can be a source of satisfaction, with feelings of mastery and pride. Low performance and not achieving the goals of an individual might be experienced as dissatisfying or even as a personal failure. Thus, performance is a major, although not the only, prerequisite for future career development and success in a competitive environment. Although there might be exceptions, high performers get promoted more easily in a school and generally have better career opportunities than low performers (VanScotter, Motowidlo & Cross, 2000).

Gender Differences in Academic Performance

Over the past decade, many researchers (Xiang, McBride, Guan & Solomon, 2003; Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993) have
conducted a study on gender differences in expectancy-related beliefs. Generally, male students were identified to hold higher ability beliefs and expectancies for success in most traditional accounting education than female students (Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002; Xiang et al. 2006). Furthermore, empirical evidence proved that gender differences among students are as a result of perceived gender appropriateness of the activities performed. (Lee, Fredenburg, Belcher, & Cleveland, 1999; Solomon, Lee, Belcher, Harrison, & Wells, 2003). That is, when students engaged in works deemed as gender appropriate, their expectancy-related beliefs tend to grow.

Xiang et al. (2004) examined but found no gender differences in expectancy-related beliefs among fourth graders (primary four) in a running program. Gender differences are also observed on subjective task values. Many researchers (Eccles et al., 1993; Fredricks & Eccles, 2002; Jacobs et al., 2002) who have examined gender differences have shown that, compared with females, males like arithmetic more hence, they place higher importance on attending accounting class (Eccles & Harold, 1991; Lee et al., 1999; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992).

On the other hand, Xiang et al. (2003) and Xiang, McBride and Bruene (2004, 2006) came out with a finding that male students and female students did not differ significantly in their subjective task values toward accounting as a subject area and participating as a specific activity. In this view, it is not amazing that gender differences in students’ motivational beliefs were found most often in gender-role related activities such as doing class assignment and physical activities.
Relationship between Teacher-student interactions and students’ motivation

In previous literature and studies, many researchers have conducted studies to investigate the characteristics of effective teachers and their influence on learners’ motivation. Cook (1980) observed that the key to improving performance is motivation and for this reason teachers need to understand what motivates their students. Motivation is anything that propels learners to study hard to achieve standardized academic performance. A study conducted by Lockheed (1991) which is cited in Etsey (2005) revealed that, lack of motivation produce poor attendance and unprofessional attitudes towards students which affect the performance of students academically. Teacher-students’ interaction is one of the many factors that motivate students to learn to achieve their academic objectives. Teacher’s emotional support and academic guidance is very important to motivate and enhance student’s academic achievement (Pianta, La Paro, Payne, Cox & Bradley, 2002).

Students who have positive relationships with their teachers feel motivated to learn and supported. Students are more engaged when they have a positive and supportive interaction between their teachers; they tend to work harder in classroom, persevere, accept direction and criticism, manage better stress and pay attention more to the teachers (Little & Kobak, 2003). According to Hughes (2006), a teacher’s positive interaction with the students is one of the facets of classroom climate. The classroom atmosphere or environment has a strong impact upon students. Positive teacher-student interaction creates conducive classroom environment to motivate the students to study hard to achieve standardized academic performance as well as their
positive human development. Creation of an atmosphere that enhances the teaching and learning process is one of the key objectives in the teaching and learning process in classroom environment. By displaying a good attitude, being communicative, and creating a secure setting, the teacher may be able to help students to feel comfortable and motivated to learn a foreign language (Hughes, 2006). Motivation plays a very important role in the process of building good relationships inside the classroom. For example, if students feel they are not performing as expected, they can lose their motivation and, as a result, the relationship with the teacher may be affected in a negative way, which is why an important task of the teacher is to sustain students’ motivation. Teachers have a crucial role to play in effective teaching and learning process and can serve as motivators for learners so as to improve students’ chances for academic success.

Students feel more comfortable and motivated to learn when teachers make some kind of extra effort to reward and encourage them, and demonstrate patience when giving explanations and managing the behaviour inside the classroom. Finally, teachers need to show they believe in a student’s ability e.g. if a student feels confident and also believes in what the teacher is doing, this will help students to learn more (Hawk et al., 2000). Dörnyei (2005) has stated that teacher motivation is an important factor in understanding, since the teacher’s motivation has significant bearings on the students’ motivational disposition and, more generally, on their learning achievement.

According to Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005), the characteristics reported in previous studies can be synthesized into three categories: instructional
competence, personality and teacher-student relationship. (Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1994a; Oxford & Shearin 1994) argue that the classroom environment had a much stronger motivational impact than had been proposed before, highlighting the significance of motives associated with the interaction of teacher and learner group. Indeed, many researchers have emphasized teacher relationship with learners as a salient factor to establish solid foundations for the teaching and learning process and boost learners’ motivation to take an active role in the classroom to demonstrate teacher caring and creating a positive learning environment to support student learning.

As a matter of fact, many researchers have noted that establishing a good relationship with students is important for effective teaching atmosphere. In line with this, Lowman (2000, cited in Daniel Rogers, 2009) stated that the rapport is established when teachers convey to students, through various means, that they are interested in and care about them, and that this concern translates into a desire to help them learn. Equally important, Ayisha Fleming and Clare Hiller (2009) stated that the relationships between teachers and students in the classroom involve complex, dynamic processes of rapport, learning and power which are never fixed or unidirectional.

According to Zhou (2005) cited in Yang, (2008) teacher-student interaction is one of the most important factors which affect teaching and learning process in the eyes of students. In support of that, Wenying and Guy, (2005) emphasize the importance of the role of teacher-student rapport in teaching and learning. Students reserved true enthusiasm for their teachers and the relationships the teacher establishes with them because it motivates and
encourages them to study to improve their academic performance and their human development in general.

In view of these previous studies and the reserve observation of the researcher about the relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ motivation, the researcher can confidently state that students are highly motivated when there is a positive interaction between teachers and students. Teacher-student interaction has a significant impact on students’ motivation to study hard and achieve their academic and career objectives. The researcher believes that students who are accepted, loved, appreciated, and guided by their teachers and above enjoy healthy relationship with their teachers are motivated to show positive behaviour towards learning and consequently improve their academic performance.

**Relationship between Teacher-student interactions and students’ academic performance**

Many previous studies and literature agreed that the interaction between teacher and student has a significant impact on student learning in the classroom. Sarason (1999) looks at teaching as a performing art, and discusses the “art of teaching” and the teacher-student interaction plays a key role in creating a “productive learning” environment and standardized academic performance is very significant. Good teacher-student relationships have a great influence on the academic performance of students since they are highly motivated to learn.

There is credible evidence that the nature and quality of teacher-student interactions have a significant effect on the students’ learning outcome and development (Brophy-Herb, Lee, Nievar, &Stollak, 2007; Curby,
LoCasale-Crouch, Konold, Pianta, Howes, Burchinal, & Oscar 2009; Dickinson & Brady, 2006; Guo, Piasta, Justice, & Kaderavek, 2010; Mashburn, Pianta, Hamre, Downer, Barbarin, Bryant, ... Howes, 2008; McCartney, Dearing, Taylor, & Bub, 2007; Pianta, Barnett, Burchinal, & Thornburg, 2009). According to Hamre, Pianta, Burchinal, Field, Crouch, Downer, Howes, LaParo, and Little, (2012), teachers need to be actively engaged in positive interactions with the students in order for learning and standardize performance to occur. Downey (2008) conducted a study synthesizing educational research on factors that affect academic success. The rationale for the study was to examine classroom practices that made a difference for all students, but in particular, for students at risk for academic failure. What was determined was that a teacher’s personal interaction with his/her students made a significant difference. Students need teachers to build strong interpersonal relationships with them, focusing on strengths of the students while maintaining high and realistic expectations for success. These interactive relationships should be based on respect, trust, care, and cohesiveness. A sense of belonging is another important by-product of a strong teacher-student relationship that is critical to a student’s success in school.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) posit that strong teacher-student relationships provide a unique entry point for educators working to improve the social and learning environments of schools and classrooms. Teacher-student interaction plays an important role in effective teaching and learning process. Students need teachers to relate to them well and believe in them to become successful and achieve higher academic goals. Since teachers serve as role models to
their students, they expect them to show positive relationship with them to motivate and encourage them to learn whatever they teach them and realized their academic goals. Various research findings have proved that healthy teacher-student interaction or relationship is significant to students’ motivation and academic success.

Ravitch (2010) also posit that the significance of the effective teachers and teaching practices is a component that affects students’ performance. According to Langer (1997), if a source of information is respected, it is more likely to be influenced and retain the information than if the source is view untrustworthy. Initial gathering of information relies on the source of the information. When information is learned mindfully, learners remain open to ways in which information may differ in various situations. In effect, solid and positive teacher-student relationships assist learners to retain the learned information over a long period of time.

Cazden (2001) states that there is a great importance of creating a learning environment that incorporates building an affective interpersonal relationship with students. Creating a learning environment that all the stakeholders are invested in will have a positive impact on students’ academic performance as well as their personal development. He also emphasized that relationships between the teacher and each student, as an individual, both in whole class lessons and in individual motivates them to study hard and take part in all assessment and consequently produce standardized academic performance.

According to Marzano (2003) all researchers agree that the impact of decisions made by an individual teacher is far greater than the impact of
decisions made at the school level. Marzano further posit that the core of effective teacher-student relationships is a healthy balance between dominance and cooperation. This means that when teachers show interest in students as individuals, it positively affects the performance of the students. It is agreed that the interaction between teacher and student has a significant impact on student learning in the classroom.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) also investigated the importance of teacher-student relationships. They posit that positive relationships between teacher and student serve as a resource to students as it helps maintain their engagement in academic pursuits. This extended engagement leads to better grades and academic performance. Hamre and Pianta cite a study by Gregory and Weinstein (2004) which indicated that student-perceived teacher connection was the factor most closely associated with growth in achievement from 8th to 12th grade. Birch and Ladd (1998) also indicated that students who do not have a good relationship with their teachers exhibited less classroom participation and standardized academic performance. These negative relationships affect the quality of students’ academic performance (Pianta & Hamre, 2006). Poor teacher-student relationships were considered a predictor of “sustained academic problems” and an indicator of future school difficulties. These findings indicated the importance of teachers building solid relationships as they have a direct impact on academic achievement for years to come.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) suggest that schools actively encourage staff members to engage with their students and learn about students’ outside interests so that staff can connect with them on a more personal level.
Hamre and Pianta’s contention is that a strong teacher-student relationship is essential for success in school and because of this, “ways to build good solid teacher-student relationships should be explicitly targeted in school intervention plans”. These strong and supportive relationships allow students to feel competent to make greater academic gains.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) acknowledge the growing research that supports the efficacy of building teacher-student relationships and recommend that more empirical evidence is needed to develop how to go to scale with efforts targeting student-teacher relationships and how to sustain these efforts over time. Their position is that this will ultimately help make schools more responsive to the diverse learning needs in classrooms. It was also recommended that research should delve more deeply into teacher-student relationships; in particular, exploring the connection between the affective dimensions of these relationships. They consider good teacher-student relationships to be a resource to schools and the students, and should be promoted as such. Facilitating interpersonal relations, from a sociological viewpoint, is important to keeping students committed to the educational process. Baker (1999) posits that because elementary students spend such significant amounts of time with one teacher, the opportunity to build relationships between students and teachers is enhanced at this level. The researches on influences of students’ performance conclude that students’ interactions with teachers and the quality of the interactions are potential.

In view of the various rich previous studies and literature on the relationship between the teacher-student interaction and students’ performance, the researcher also posits that teacher-students’ relationship has
a very great impact of the development and performance of the students. Negative interaction between teachers and their students affects the students’ academic performance standard badly. However, healthy and positive interaction between teachers and students helps to motivate and improve students’ academic performances and their personal development in general. The researcher recommends that teachers must build positive relationship with their students in order to encourage them to learn and apply whatever knowledge they give to them. They must appreciate and accept the students, give room to them to seek explanation on information they do not understand, etc. so that it will give them the confidence to study hard to achieve their academic and career goals and objectives.

**Relationship between students’ motivation and academic performance**

There are many significant contributing factors of students’ performance in classroom environment.

According to Muhammad Naseer (2008), ‘motivation is one heart of teaching and learning processes. Motivation is what gets one going, keeps one going, and determines where one is to go. (Naseer, 2008). Motivation is thought to be responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it, (Ryan and Deci, 2009). Motivation is one of the key factors that influence students’ performance in teaching and learning process. Many previous studies have proved that there is a positive relationship between motivation and academic performance and success (Gottrieb, 1990; Johnson, 1996; Kushman, Sieber, & Harold, 2000; Sandra, 2002; Broussard and Garrison, 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2006).
Motivation is one of the essential factors that contribute to academic success. Motivation is crucial to a student’s academic success at any age. Because students form self-concepts, values, and beliefs about their abilities at a young age, the development of early academic motivation has significant implications for later academic careers. Many previous researches have proved that students who are highly motivated academically are more likely to have increased levels of academic achievement and unlikely to drop out of school (Blank, 1997). Academic achievement motivation is used to mean the pupil’s need or drive towards the achievement of success in academic work (Amalaha, 1975).

Students who are less motivated are unlikely to put up standardized academic performance. A highly-motivated student will surely perform better than unmotivated students. This shows that there is an impact of motivation on students’ academic performance and achievement of career goals in general. Students’ motivation always received the attention of academicians as it stands as a challenge for teachers in the classrooms.

According to Bruning, Schraw and Ronning, (1995), Psychologists viewed motivation as significant for human energy and is the base to shape individual attitudes and practices. Motivation also provokes behaviour adjustments and goal achievement.

Motivation is the group of factors that revive, guide and sustain human behaviour towards the fulfillment of their ultimate goals. It transcends human nature from a state of stillness into one of activation. As humans remain alert by their motives, they maintain their focus on their current or unfulfilled needs. Motivated employees are more likely to produce a supervisor quality
product or service than those who lack the essentials of motivation. A motivated work force means a highly productive staff (Smith, 1994), all of which will help you achieve your business goals.

Upon the findings of the various past studies on the relationship between motivation and students’ performance, the researcher also posits that a motivated student is the one who put up better academic performance in school environment. This is because students who are motivated are driven towards the achievement of their career objectives as a result of that study hard to enhance their academic performance. Motivated students develop good attitudes towards learning, are punctual, regular, respectful and active in classroom during teaching and learning process. However, the researcher recommends that teachers must relate well with their students and motivate them to learn in order to produce standardized performance.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

The general purpose of the study was to find out the relationship that
teacher-student interaction has with students’ motivation and academic
performance. Chapter three deals with the methodology of the study. It
describes the research design, population, sampling procedure, data collection
instruments, data collection procedure, validity and reliability of data
collection instruments and data analysis.

Research Design

The research is a descriptive survey through which views and opinions
were sampled from teachers and students. Avoke (2005) citing Blaxter,
Hughes and Tight (1996), indicated that survey research in education involves
collection of information from members of a group of students, teachers or
other persons associated with educational issues. According to Ary, Jacobs
and Razavieh (2002), survey permits the researcher to gather information from
a large sample of people relatively quickly and inexpensively.

It was thought appropriate to use the survey method because it is the
dominant form of collecting data in education and other social sciences (Fink,
2002). The descriptive survey was further considered the most appropriate
design for conducting this study since it is the one that deals with things as
they currently are (Creswell, 2003).
Again, information gathered from the descriptive research can be meaningful or useful in diagnosing a situation since it involves describing, recording, analyzing and interpreting conditions that exist. Most surveys are based on samples of a specified target population – the group of persons in whom interest is expressed. They are designed to provide a ‘snapshot of how things are at a specific time’. There is no attempt to control conditions or manipulate variables (Kelley, Clark, Brown & Sitzia 2003).

Creswell (2002) also noted that a survey study can be done in a short time in which investigators administer a survey to a sample or to the entire population of people in order to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviours or characteristics of the population. Creswell (2002), however noted that, survey data is self-reported information, reporting only what people think rather than what they do. Survey is also deemed appropriate for the study as the current views, attitudes and opinions of students and teachers will therefore be sampled. It also has the potential of providing a lot of information that will be gathered from the respondents. The study is basically aimed at gathering useful data on those conditions and variables that cannot be manipulated and which would help in finding out the relationship among teacher-student interaction, student’s motivation and academic performance in the Bibiani–Anhwiaso – Bekwai District.

The descriptive survey however is not without difficulties. Kelley, Clark, Brown & Sitzia (2003), pointed out some demerits associated with its use. These include the danger that, the significance of the data can become neglected if the researcher focuses too much on the range of coverage to the exclusion of an adequate account of the implications of those data for relevant
issues, problems, or theories. Also, the private affairs of respondents may be pried into and there is therefore the likelihood of generating unreliable responses and difficulty in assessing the clarity and precision of questions that elicit the desired responses (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

In spite of these demerits, the descriptive survey seemed appropriate. This is because the breadth of coverage of many people or events means that it is more likely than some other approaches to obtain data based on a representative sample, and can therefore be generalisable to a population (Kelley, Clark, Brown & Sitzia, 2003). Also, it has the potential of providing a lot of information that could be gathered from the respondents. The design was considered useful in generating data that would help find the relationship among teacher-student interaction, student’s motivation and academic performance in the Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai district.

Population

Population of a study is the entire aggregation of items, objects, persons, or an institution that defines the objects of the investigation or from which samples can be drawn for a study (Patton, 2002). According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002), population is used to refer to the entire group of individuals to whom the findings of a study apply. It is whatever group the investigator wishes to make inferences about. According to Mungenda et al (Ibid), target population is the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects the researcher wishes to generalize the results of the research. This study targeted the entire population of the 35 public Junior High schools in the Bibiani – Anhwiaso – Bekwai District in the Western Region of Ghana which is 4,111 comprising 155 teachers, 956 JHS 1 students, 1,340
JHS 2 students and 1660 JHS 3 students. The researcher focused on JHS 2 and 3 students which is 3000 students. This is because they have spent at least one year with their teachers.

**Sampling Procedure**

The sampling procedure prescribes the method with which a sample is drawn from the population, where many items that are needed solely for the purposes of the study are chosen through selection technique. It is unprecedented to include all the respondents in the study since the study covers such a vast area. It is thus significant to draw a sample from the population. The sampling frame for any probability sample is a complete list of all cases in the population from which the sample is drawn (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). A sample is a smaller and more accessible sub-set of the population that adequately represents the overall group, thus enabling one to give an accurate (within acceptable limits) picture of the population as a whole, with respect to the particular aspects of interest of the study. A sample normally drawn in order to learn something about the aggregate or population, (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007).

The researcher adopted a purposive sampling technique to select Sixteen (16) public Junior High Schools (JHS) in the Bibiani- Anhwiaso-Bekwai District for the study. From these schools, the researcher focused on JHS 2 & 3 students because they have spent at least one year with their teachers. A total of four hundred and ninety-one (491) participants, comprising 155 teachers and 336 students were taken as the sample size based on the sample size determination table of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000). They state that if you have a population of 3000 participants, then, the sample
selected should be 341. Out of the 155 teachers, 90 were males and 65 were females. All the teachers from the selected schools formed part of the study. From the 336 students, 151 were females and 185 were males. Simple random sampling technique precisely the lottery method was used to select the students for the study. The lottery method of simple random sampling technique which provides participants with equal opportunity to be randomly selected was used to select 21 students from each school. Numbers 1-25 were written on pieces of paper including blank papers for the students in each of the two combined classes in each school to pick. All those who picked the first twenty-one (21) numbers were taken for the study.

Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect the data for the success of the study. A likert-type questionnaire was used to collect the data for the research questions stated. According to Creswell (2002), a questionnaire is a form used in a survey design that participants in a study complete and return to the researcher. The author further stated that, participants make choices to questions and supply basic personal or demographic information.

Likewise, Sommer and Sommer (2001) suggest that a questionnaire is a series of written questions on a topic about which the subject’s opinions are sought. They proceeded that, it can be self-administered, that is when people answer a questionnaire they have received in the mail or at the same event. The questionnaire is a formally organized set of written items presented in a uniform manner to a number of persons or respondents to elicit response from them on a specific subject matter. One of the reasons why the questionnaire
was used for this study was that the sample size was large and as a result the researcher could not conduct one-on-one interview for all of them.

The Questionnaire on Teacher-Student Interaction (QTI) is a self-reporting questionnaire designed to assess teacher behavior inside the classroom, their interaction with their students and the varied perceptions or responses to these interactions. In 1993, Wubbels, Creton, Levy, and Hooymayers developed the Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behavior, which later evolved into the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) (Lourdusamy & SweKhine, 2001). The researcher adapted the existing QTI for the purpose of this study. The existing 64-items QTI was modified and reduced the items to 32 and some of the items were also modified to suit the participants for the study. This study only analyzed teacher and student response. Teacher behaviour is grouped in two dimensions: first the Proximity dimension, which measures cooperation versus opposition and the second, the Influence dimension, which measures dominace versus submission. The four domains addressed by the QTI are Dominance, Submission, Opposition, and Cooperation. These are further divided into eight scales: Leadership, Helping/Friendly, Understanding, Student Responsibility or Freedom, Uncertain, Dissatisfied, Admonishing and Strict (Lourdusamy & SweKhine, 2001).

The questionnaires for the respondents were grouped into four sections (A, B, C, & D.). Section A consisted of socio-demographic information on the respondents including gender, school, etc. Sections B, C, and D seek to collect information on the teacher-student interaction, relationship between teacher-students’ interactions and students’ motivation,
the relationship between teacher-students’ interactions and students’ academic performance and the relationship between students’ motivation and academic performance respectively. The QTI questionnaires for teachers and students were responded to using a 5-point Likert scale labeled: Never (a value of 1), not often (a value of 2), sometimes (a value of 3), often (a value of 4) and always (a value of 5).

The motivation and performance questionnaires for teachers and students were responded to using a 5-point Likert scale labeled: strongly disagree (a value of 1), disagree (a value of 2), neutral (a value of 3) agree (a value of 4) and strongly agree (a value of 5). The questionnaires were given to the supervisors and other experts to check the items construction to establish the content validity of the instruments.

The Likert scale gauges the degree to which there is agreement or disagreement with the statement representing a common issue. The Likert scale was preferred to other scales because it is the simplest, but an equally efficient approach in terms of graduation.

**Pilot-testing of Instrument**

The credibility and validity of any study greatly depends on the data collection instruments hence considered as one of the most important aspects of any research. There was a pilot-testing of instrument before actual data collection took place. The pilot-testing was conducted to ascertain the validity and reliability of the instruments. Sefwi Wiawso Municipality was chosen for the pilot-testing of instrument because it has similar characteristics like school types, curriculum, professional qualification of teachers, and age of students and it also shares boundary with the selected district for the study. The
schools that were used for the pilot-testing were Wiawso Experimental JHS, Asafo Catholic JHS and Asafo D/A JHS. Teachers and students that constituted the participants of the pilot testing were 30 teachers and 30 students. The data gathered were analysed and the Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient was established for the various QTI scales.

Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the various QTI scales of the student data are leadership (0.84), understanding (0.86), uncertain (0.98), admonishing (0.81), helpful/friendly (0.91), student responsibility (0.89), dissatisfied (0.94) and strict (0.84). This means the reliability coefficient for the various QTI scales of the student data ranged between 0.81 (Admonishing) and 0.98 (Uncertain). The overall Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the student’s questionnaire was 0.88.

Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the various QTI scales of the teacher data are leadership (0.93), understanding (0.94), uncertain (0.94), admonishing (0.93), helpful/friendly (0.96), student responsibility (0.91), dissatisfied (0.96) and strict (0.86) and the overall Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the teacher’s questionnaire was 0.92.

This indicates that the instrument was able to differentiate between classes and teachers. Also the reliability analysis of the result of instrument proved that the QTI questionnaire administered was reasonably reliable and it’s in line with DeVellis (1991), study, such a reliability co-efficient is said to be respectable. Therefore, the instrument was considered reliable and appropriate to collect the relevant data to answer the questions posed. Also, according to Frankel and Wallen (1990), as a rule of thumb in a research, the reliability co-efficient should be 0.7 or preferably higher. With this, the
instrument could be said to be of good quality capable of collecting useful data for the study. The queries that came out of the items were catered for. The reliability of the instrument was determined using Statistical Product and Service Solutions version 19.0 (SPSS 19.0). All these actions were taken to ensure that the instrument is capable of collecting quality and useful data for the study.

Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients of motivation and students’ performance is 0.95; teacher-student interaction and students’ performance is 0.92; and teacher-student interaction and students’ motivation is 0.97. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients in previous studies of variable gauges academic behaviour of Motivation for Learning Iliina Instruments by Iliin (2000) was 0.86. This indicates that the instrument is reliable. The QMD was originally constructed for the Flemish context (Belgium) to assess the extent to which students engage in learning for four different reasons: external motivation, introjected motivation, identified motivation and intrinsic motivation and this makes it valid.

Data Collection Procedure

The questionnaires were administered personally in the sixteen (16) selected public Junior High Schools (JHS) in the Bibiani – Anhwiaso – Bekwai District. At each school permission was sought from the Headmaster and the purpose of the study was explained to the teachers and students. After identifying the respondents, the purpose of the questionnaire administration was explained to them so that they fully understood the issues. In some instances, some of the respondents preferred to responding to the questionnaire at their own convenient time. To ensure that most of the
questionnaires distributed were retrieved, its administration was done during school hours. This did not only ensure easy and convenient distribution but also ensured easy identification of respondents. At the end of the administration of the questionnaires, 155 questionnaires distributed to teachers were retrieved and 281 out of 336 questionnaires distributed to students were retrieved. The return rate of the questionnaires for teachers was 100% and the students’ rate was 83.6%.

**Data Processing and Analysis**

The data collected from respondents were edited, coded and analysed by the researcher. The editing was done by going through the questionnaires collected from the field to check for the consistency of responses. Tabulation was done after editing. This was where the researcher summarized the quantitative data into statistical tables for analysis. The collected data were statistically analysed using the Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) computer software version 19. Frequency tables and graphs were also used in the data analysis in order to make comparison and draw conclusion.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The general purpose of the study was to find out the relationship among teacher-students interaction, students’ motivation and academic performance. This chapter analyses the data collected from the respondents. The data was collected within the objectives of the study. This chapter contains the respondents’ demographic profiles, the relationship between teacher-students’ interactions and students’ motivation, the relationship between teacher-students’ interactions and students’ performance, the relationship between motivation and students’ performance gender differences in terms of students’ academic performance and gender differences in terms of students’ motivation.

The design used in this study was the correlational design. The instrument chosen for the data collection was questionnaire. The statistical tools used for the analysis of data included frequency distributions, means and percentages. Inferential statistics, notably, the Pearson moment correlation coefficient and the independent sample t-test were also used for the data analysis. The tests were conducted for significant differences at a significance level of 0.05.

Description of Sample

The study was carried out in the Bibiani – Anhwiaso – Bekwai District in the Western Region of Ghana with a sample size of 155 teachers and 281 students.
Distribution of Demographic Variables of Students

Table 1 presents the distribution of demographic variables of students involved in the study.

**Table 1- Distribution of Demographic Variables of Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibiani Methodist JHS</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibiani Catholic JHS A</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibiani Catholic JHS B</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.G.B.L JHS</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani D/A  B JHS</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asempanaye D/A JHS</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bassengele D.A JHS</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community JHS, Babiani</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani D/A C JHS</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwamekrom D/A JHS</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hwenampoli D/A JHS</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibiani Presby JHS</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani S.D.A.JHS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antronsu D/A JHS</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awaso Presby JHS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanaso D/A JHS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JHS 2</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JHS 3</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, Enu (2017)

Table 1 shows that 11.0% of the students attended Babiani Community JHS. This was followed by 7.5% of students who attended Babiani Catholic
JHS ‘A’ and Babiani Presby JHS while 3.6% of the students also attended Babiani SDA JHS.

Table 1 further shows that 55.2% of the students were in JHS 3 while 44.8% were in JHS 2. Also, 55.5% of the students were males while 44.5% were females. This shows that the classes and gender were fairly represented.

**Distribution of Demographic Variables of Teachers**

Table 2 presents the distribution of demographic variables of teachers involved in the study.

**Table 2- Distribution of Demographic Variables of Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hwenampoli D/A JHS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwamekrom D/A JHS</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani Catholic B JHS</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani Catholic A JHS</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani Community JHS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani SDA JHS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani D/A B JHS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani Presby JHS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. G. B. L JHS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani D/A A JHS</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awaso Presby JHS</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asempanaye D/A JHS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanaso D/A JHS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babiani Methodist JHS</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bassengele D/A JHS</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atronsu D/A JHS</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>155</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows that 7.7% of the teachers taught in Babiani Methodist JHS. It was revealed that 7.1% also taught in Kanaso D/A JHS while 4.5% taught in Catholic B JHS.

The study showed that 45.2% of the teachers taught only JHS 2. The study showed that 54.8% also taught JHS 3 only. Considering the subjects’ teachers taught, it was observed that 14.8% of the teachers taught Integrated Science, 14.2% taught English Language, 13.5% taught Mathematics, 12.3% each taught RME and Social Studies while 9.0% also taught ICT.
It was further revealed that 58.1% of the teachers were males while 41.9% were females. Table 2 further shows that teachers for all the subjects were fairly represented. This means that the teachers who participated in the study were not teachers for only few subjects. It was also revealed that both sexes were represented fairly which will help in the generalization of the findings.

Research Question One

What is the relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ motivation?

The purpose of research question one was to find out the relationship that exists between teacher-students’ interaction and student’s motivation. The Pearson moment correlation coefficient was conducted and the result is presented in Table 3.

Table 3- Pearson Product Moment Correlation of Teacher-students Interaction and Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-student Interaction</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.403*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, Enu (2017) Significant at $P<0.05$ (2-tailed)

From Table 3, the result shows that teacher-student interaction had moderate and a significant relationship with motivation ($r = .403$, $p<0.05$ (2-tailed). This implies that teacher-student interaction tends to have influence on motivation of students.

This is because when teachers establish good relationship with their students, the students feel that their teachers are there to provide them the support they need which increases their confidence level. Teacher’s emotional
support and academic guidance is very important to motivate and enhance student’s academic achievement (Pianta, La Paro, Payne, Cox & Bradley, 2002).

Students who have positive relationships with their teachers feel motivated to learn and supported. Students are more engaged when they have a positive and supportive interaction with their teachers; they tend to work harder in the classroom, persevere, accept direction and criticism, manage better stress and pay attention more to the teachers (Little & Kobak, 2003).

According to Hughes (2006), a teacher’s positive interaction with the students is one of the facets of classroom climate. The classroom atmosphere or environment has a strong impact upon students’ motivation. Positive teacher-student interaction creates conducive classroom environment to motivate the students to study hard to achieve standardized academic performance as well as their positive human development. Creation of an atmosphere that enhances the teaching and learning process is one of the key objectives in the teaching and learning process in classroom environment. By displaying a good attitude, being communicative, and creating a secure setting, the teacher may be able to help students to feel comfortable and motivated in the classroom (Hughes, 2006). This clearly indicates that teachers should maintain good relationships with their students in order to motivate them.
Research Question Two

What is the relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ performance?

The purpose of research question two was to find out the relationship that exists between teacher-student interaction and students’ performance. The Pearson Product Moment was conducted and the result is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4- Pearson Product Moment Correlation of Teacher-students Interaction and Students’ Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-student Interaction</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.146*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, Enu (2017) Significant at $P<0.05$ (2-tailed)

From Table 4, the result shows that teacher-student interaction had low and a significant relationship with students’ performance ($r = .146, p<0.05$ (2-tailed)). This implies that teacher-student interaction tends to have influence on students’ performance.

Good teacher-student relationships have a great influence on the academic performance of students since they are highly motivated to learn. There is credible evidence that the nature and quality of teacher-student interactions have a significant effect on the students’ learning outcome and development (Brophy-Herb, Lee, Nievar, & Stollak, 2007) According to Hamre, Pianta, Burchinal, Field, Crouch, Downer, Howes, LaParo, and Little, (2012), teachers need to be actively engaged in positive interactions with their students in order for learning and standardized performance to occur. Birch and Ladd (1998), also indicated that students who do not have a good relationship with their teachers exhibited less classroom participation and
standardized academic performance. These negative relationships affect the quality of students’ academic performance (Pianta & Hamre, 2006). Poor teacher-student relationships were considered a predictor of “sustained academic problems” and an indicator of future school difficulties. These findings indicated the importance of teachers building solid relationships as they have a direct impact on academic achievement for their students.

Hamre and Pianta (2006) suggest that schools actively encourage staff members to engage with their students and learn about students’ outside interests so that staff can connect with them on a more personal level. Hamre and Pianta’s contention is that a strong teacher-student relationship is essential for success in school and because of this, “ways to build good solid teacher-student relationships should be explicitly targeted in school intervention plans”. These strong and supportive relationships allow students to feel competent to make greater academic gains. This shows that a healthy teacher-student interaction has a positive influence on students’ academic performance.

Research Question Three

What is the relationship between students’ motivation and performance?

This research question sought to find out the relationship that existed between students’ motivation and performance. The Pearson Product Moment Correlations was conducted and result is presented in Table 5.
Table 5- Pearson Product Moment Correlation of Students’ Performance and Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ Motivation</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.420*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, Enu (2017) Significant at $P<0.05$ (2-tailed)

From Table 5, the result shows that students’ performance had a moderate and a significant relationship with motivation ($r = .420$, $p<0.05$ (2-tailed)). This implies that students’ motivation tends to have influence on performance. This is in line with the studies conducted by; Muhammad Naseer (2008), ‘motivation is one heart of teaching and learning processes. Motivation is what gets one going, keeps one going, and determines where one is to go. (Naseer, 2008). Motivation is thought to be responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it! (Ryan and Deci, 2009), posit that motivation is one of the key factors that influence students’ performance in teaching and learning process. Many previous studies have proved that there is a positive relationship between motivation and academic performance and success (Gottrieb, 1990; Johnson, 1996; Kushman, Sieber, and Harold, 2000).

Motivation is one of the essential factors that contribute to academic success. Motivation is crucial to a student’s academic success at any age. Because students form self-concepts, values, and beliefs about their abilities at a young age, the development of early academic motivation has significant implications for later academic careers. Many previous researches have proved that students who are highly motivated academically are more likely to have
increased levels of academic achievement and unlikely to be dropout of school (Blank, 1997).

**Research Question Four**

*What difference exists between male and female students in terms of their motivation?*

Research question four sought to find out the gender difference of students in terms of motivation. The independent samples t-test was conducted and result is presented in Table 6.

**Table 6- Independent t-test of Gender of Students and Motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of students</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>32.86</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>32.27</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, Enu (2017) Significant P<0.05 (2-tailed)

The results from the independent t-test Table 6 shows that male students (M=32.86, SD=4.54) were not different from female students (M =32.27, SD = 5.12, t(279) = 1.013, p = .312, (2-tailed) in terms of motivation. The results from the table indicate that there is no difference between male students and female students in terms of motivation. This is in line with the study conducted by Wigfield, Battle, Keller, and Eccles (2002), on the history of society’s belief’s about women’s thinking, of educational opportunities for women, and of research regarding gender differences in academic motivation which revealed a consistent trend toward equality of potential for thinking, schooling, and achievement of men and women. Their study revealed a strong relationship between motivation and learning, but only small, domain specific
gender differences in motivation to learn. These findings indicated a need to use teaching strategies that promote the motivation to learn in both sexes.

**Research Question Five**

**What difference exists between male and female students in terms of their academic performance?**

Research question five sought to find out the gender difference of students in terms of performance. The independent samples t-test was conducted and result is presented in Table 7.

### Table 7- Independent t-test of Gender of Students and Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of students</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>32.49</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, Enu (2017) Significant $P<0.05$ (2-tailed)

The results from the independent t-test Table shows that male students ($M=32.49$, $SD=6.41$) were not different from female students ($M=32.00$, $SD=7.03$, $t(279) = .608$, $p = .544$, (2-tailed) in terms of performance. The results from the table indicate that there is no significant difference between male students and female students in terms of their academic performance. Although, majority of studies show that male students seem to be wrestling with underperformance in school, some others find no difference between females and males in terms of academic performance (Xiang, Chen, & Bruene, 2005; Xiang, McBride, & Bruene, 2004, 2006). Among the studies which do not find significant differences between males and females in academic performance, is the study which considers the education in Nigeria. In this study, no considerable difference in academic performance between genders.
was found; in fact, males have traditionally had higher marks than females (Khwaileh & Zaza, 2011). Likewise, the study of Sue and Abe (as cited in Khwaileh & Zaza, 2011) carried out in the University of California, which among other predictors included gender, found out that there was no major gender difference among students for academic performance.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of the Study

The Chapter is divided into four sections. The first section highlights the summary of the main findings of the study. The second section discusses the overall conclusions of the study. Recommendations for closing the gap are presented in section three. Finally, section four discusses the suggestions for further research in the study area.

The study specifically focused on the relationship between teacher-student interactions and student’s motivation, the relationship between teacher-student interactions and students’ performance, the relationship between motivation and students’ performance, differences between male and female students in terms of their academic performance and differences between male and female students in terms of their academic performance.

The study was carried out in the Bibiani – Anhwiaso – Bekwai District in the Western Region, with a sample size of 155 teachers and 281 students.

Summary of Main Findings

The following are the main findings from the data analysis:

1. There was a statistically significant relationship between teacher-student interaction and motivation. Teachers were found to be open and kind towards students.
2. There was a statistically significant relationship between teacher-student interaction and students’ academic performance. It was found that teachers assisted students who had difficulties in their academic work.

3. There was a statistically significant relationship between students’ motivation and performance. The results indicated that students’ level of motivation translated into their academic performance.

4. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of their motivation. Both males and females experienced the same level of motivation.

5. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of performance. The performance levels of male and female students were the same.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, the following conclusions are drawn.

1. Teacher-student interaction is instrumental as far as the motivation of the student is concerned.

2. Teacher-student interaction should be considered when taking decisions regarding the performance of students.

3. The motivational level of the student plays a crucial role in the academic performance of the student.

4. Gender is not a significant variable to be considered when finding the difference in terms of motivation and academic performance.
Recommendations

From the findings of the study, it is vividly evident that there is a relationship among teacher-student interaction, motivation and academic performance of students. I therefore, provide the following recommendations to serve as a direction for reform regarding teacher-student interaction in junior high schools in the Districts and beyond.

1. Since teacher-student interaction improved students’ level of motivation, I recommend that the Ghana Education Service (GES) and Ministry of Education should make it mandatory for counsellors to organize motivational talk for students on regular basis from the basic school to senior high schools. This would help students see themselves as being good individuals in the society and also feel that they have good qualities and therefore would be able to do things as other people and improve upon their lives.

2. School counsellors and teachers should be motivated and supported by the governments, school administrators, parents and the larger community to help organize talks on teacher-student interaction for both teachers and students at all levels who are said to have poor interaction skills. To achieve this, teachers’ salaries and allowances must be paid regularly. Also, instituting incentive packages by the government, school authorities, parents and other stakeholders to motivate and encourage teachers and counselors can serve as a remediating factor. Students should also be sensitized about the need to have good interactions with teachers so that they can get the necessary help from teachers.
3. Furthermore, I recommend that mechanisms should be put in place by teachers and school authorities to sensitize and motivate the students. This can be done by teachers in the course of their teaching. They should try as much as possible to motivate and encourage their students to increase their participation level in class. Also, the school authorities could also motivate and encourage their students in areas such as awarding them prizes to increase their zeal and desire to study hard. To yield more results, motivational talks should also be organised to sensitize the students about the importance of motivation.

4. Both male and female students experienced the same level of motivation and performance in academic work. I therefore, recommend that teachers should try as much as possible to provide equal opportunities for both male and female students to pursue their academic work in the classroom. This will in turn eliminate gender bias on the part of the teacher and other school authorities in terms of motivating students in the school.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

1. The study was exploratory in nature. In order to accept or refute the findings of the study and generalise them for the whole country, it is suggested that the study is replicated in other Junior High Schools in the country.

2. Future studies should make use of qualitative methods in examining the relationship among teacher-student interaction, motivation and academic performance as they are more comprehensive and free from
biases that come with using self-reported questions or quantitative methods.

3. Future research should also target a larger sample size to make the results a fair representation of the entire population and make it easy to be generalized to a greater population.
REFERENCES


Florida Department of Education *Membership in Programs for Exceptional Students- ESE statistics.*


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APPENDIX A

QTI – TEACHER SELF QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire on Teacher-Student Interaction

This questionnaire asks you to describe your behavior. This is NOT a test. Your HONEST opinion is what is wanted. The questionnaire has 32 sentences about you. For each sentence, tick the number corresponding to your response.

Instructions: Please fill out completely or tick the appropriate response.

SEATION A: Respondents’ profile

Name of your school

............................................................................................................................

Which Class do you teach? JHS 2 [ ] JHS 3 [ ]

Which subject do you teach?

............................................................................................................................

Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

SEATION B: Teacher-student interaction

1 - Never 2 - Not Often 3 – Sometimes 4 - Often 5 - Always

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ behavior</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I talk enthusiastically about my subject.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I explain things clearly.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I know everything that goes on in the classroom.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am a good leader.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDERSTANDING BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I trust my students.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I am willing to explain things again.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. If students have something to say, I will listen.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I realize when my students don’t understand.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UNCERTAIN BEHAVIOUR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I seem uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I am hesitant.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I act as if I don’t know what to do.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am not sure what to do when students fool around.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ADMONISHING BEHAVIOUR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I always assert my position to my students.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I get upset quickly.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I am too quick to correct students when they break a rule.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I am impatient.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HELPFUL/FRIENDLY BEHAVIOUR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I help students with their work.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am friendly.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I am someone students can depend on.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. My class is pleasant.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STUDENT RESPONSIBILITY AND FREEDOM</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Students can decide some things in my class.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Students can influence me.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I let students get away with a lot in class.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. I am lenient.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DISSATISFIED BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I think that students cheat.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I think that students don’t know anything.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I seem dissatisfied.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I am suspicious.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STRICT BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I do not allow laxity among my students.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I am regular in class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. I make sure my students adhere to rules.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Students are afraid of me.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION C: Teachers-Student Interaction and Students’ Motivation

1 – Strongly disagree   2 – Disagree   3 – Neutral   4 – Agree   5 – Strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My students are highly motivated to go to class because I make the class interesting.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My relationship with the students has not made anyone missed a single lesson.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My relationship with the students has encouraged them to study outside of school hours.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The relationship between me and my students always</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
makes them curious to learn new knowledge and skills in a class.

| Students have developed positive attitudes towards learning because of their relationship with the teacher |
| I act as a parent substitute and encourage my students to learn. |
| The positive relationship between me and my students motivates them to learn. |
| My students are motivated to learn hard because I appreciate every effort they make in the classroom. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION D: Teachers-Student Interaction and Students’ Performance**

1 – Strongly disagree 2 – Disagree 3 – Neutral 4 – Agree 5 – Strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My relationship with my students has affected how well my students study.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My relationship with my students has enhanced their performance in class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your relationship with the teacher has improved your learning skills.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My relationship with my students has positively affected their performance in schoolwork.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my explanation in the class has given my students good</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
grades in their end of term examination

| The high expectation I set for my students has improved their performance in the classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My fairness in the classroom has improved my students’ performance in the school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My interactions with my students encourage them to identify their potentials for further studies | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
APPENDIX B

QTI – STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction

This questionnaire asks you to describe your teacher’s behavior (The teacher whose class you are currently in), relationship between teacher-pupil interactions and pupil’s motivation, the relationship between teacher-pupil interactions and pupils’ performance and the relationship between pupils’ motivation and performance. This is NOT a test. Your HONEST opinion is what is wanted. The questionnaire has 55 sentences. For each sentence, circle the number corresponding to your response.

Instructions: Please fill out completely or tick the appropriate response.

SECTION A: Respondents’ profile

Name of your school .................................................................

Which class are you? JHS 2 [ ] JHS 3 [ ]

Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
SECTION B: Teacher-student interaction

1 - Never   2 - Not Often   3 – Sometimes   4 - Often   5 - Always

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. This teacher talks enthusiastically about her/his subject.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. This teacher explains things clearly.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. This teacher knows everything that goes on in the classroom.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. This teacher is a good leader.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UNDERSTANDING BEHAVIOUR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. This teacher trusts us.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. This teacher is willing to explain things again.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. If we have something to say, this teacher will listen.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td>13. This teacher asserts his/her position to students.</td>
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<td>22. We can influence this teacher.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>30. This teacher is regular in class.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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SECTION C: Teachers-Student Interaction and Students’ Motivation

1 – Strongly disagree  2 – Disagree  3 – Neutral  4 – Agree  5 – Strongly agree

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<td>Your relationship with the teacher has not made you missed a single lesson.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Your relationship with the teacher always makes you curious to learn new knowledge and skills in a class.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have developed positive attitudes towards learning because of your relationship with the teacher</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher acts as a parent substitute and encourages me to learn.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The positive relationship between me and my teacher motivates me to learn.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am motivated to learn hard because my teacher appreciates every effort I make in the classroom.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### SECTION D: Teachers-Student Interaction and Students’ Performance

1 – Strongly disagree  
2 – Disagree  
3 – Neutral  
4 – Agree  
5 – Strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Your relationship with the teacher has affected how well you study.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Your relationship with the teacher has improved your learning skills.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your relationship with the teacher has positively affected your performance in schoolwork.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher’s classroom explanation has given you good grades in your end of term examination</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My performance has improved because of the high expectations of my teacher.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My performance has improved because of the teacher’s fairness in the classroom.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher’s interactions with me encourage me to identify my potentials for further studies.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

THESIS WORK
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
MR. LOUIS ENU BUAH

We introduce to you Mr. Buah, a student from the University of Cape Coast, Department of Education and Psychology. He is pursuing Master of Philosophy degree in Measurement and Evaluation is currently at the thesis stage.

Mr. Buah is researching on the topic:

“Relationship among Teacher – Student Interaction, Students’ Motivation and Academic Performance in the Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai District”.

He has opted to collect data at your institution/establishment for the Thesis work. We would be most grateful if you could provide him the opportunity for the study. Any information provided would be treated as strictly confidential.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

Thugsisu Ahuzu Fiadzomor (Mr.)
Senior Administrative Assistant
For: HEAD
APPENDIX D

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARD

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Digitized by Sam Jonah Library
© University of Cape Coast

Our Ref: CES/ERB/14/008
Your Ref: ........................................

Date: 18/03/2016

Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY

The bearer, Louis Edu Bugh, Reg. No. 14/008, is an M.Phil/Ph.D student in the Department of Education and Psychology, College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He wishes to undertake a research study on the topic "Relationship between teacher-student interaction, students' motivation and academic performance in The Eastern and Western Districts." The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies (CES) has assessed the proposal submitted by the bearer. The said proposal satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the study.

In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would give him/her the necessary assistance that may be needed to facilitate the conduct of the said research.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. (Mrs.) Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)