An investigation into the role of university-based initial teacher education in teacher-student relationships: A comparative analysis of Germany and Tanzania

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The need to empower student teachers with positive teacher-student relationships (TSRs) competencies resonates with the fact that students are not merely cognitive but also emotional and social beings. Indeed, the interactions of the cognitive, emotional and social dimensions work to impact on their learning and performance. The benefits for positive teacher-student relationships within and outside class contexts cannot be overemphasized. Students are hard-wired with the need to connect in relationships with their teachers. Teacher-student relationships determine students’ school engagement, their adaptation to developmental changes and their motivation to learn. Also, TSRs influence students’ discipline, stability to social adjustments, value orientation and their identity formation and development.

Undeniably, the building of positive TSRs and teaching and learning processes are essentially mutually inclusive. To be able to form and sustain positive TSRs, student teachers need well-developed knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy attributes. This comparative study of Tanzania and Germany argues that positive teacher-student relationships form a critical requirement for effective teaching, learning, and holistic development of students in schools. To this end, the initial teacher education has a duty to nurture the TSRs attributes alongside other teacher competencies.

Despite the acknowledgement of the necessity for positive TSRs by researchers, educators, and administrative authorities, literature provides no evidence of the contribution of the initial teacher education to the positive TSRs abilities. The existing studies on TSRs have focused mainly on TSRs in schools and on the problems related to unhealthy TSRs (Giles, 2008; Jones, 2009; Knoell, 2012; Raufelder et al., 2013; Sands, 2011; Wubbel et al., 1993) and others. This disjuncture between the reported problems faced by teachers in forming and sustaining positive TSRs and the opportunity for initial
teacher education to empower student teachers for positive relational exchange frames this study.

The study employed a combination of the conceptual change, self-efficacy, and goal contents theories. The utilization of the theories was justified by the study assumptions that in order to produce teachers who are capable of handling positive TSRs in schools, the initial teacher education have to transform, orient, and reorient student teachers on the relational exchange knowledge. Secondly, apart from the pro-relational knowledge, student teachers ought to demonstrate improved self-efficacy as a yardstick of their preparedness and commitment to positive TSRs. Lastly, the study examined the implication of student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining teaching on their TSRs self-efficacy. Motivational dynamics have been proven to influence teachers’ occupational satisfaction and their behaviours (Weiss & Kiel, 2013; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Hence, the motivational reasons held by student teachers to join the teaching profession were viewed as an important construct which also may influence the student teachers’ self-efficacy for positive TSRs.

This study sought to answer the following question: Does the university based initial teacher education contribute to positive TSRs (competencies) among student teachers? To ascertain for this role, the study investigated and compared student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, perceived self-efficacy, as well as the approaches employed in this regard. The study was anchored on the Pragmatism epistemology and ontology. The study used qualitative and quantitative techniques to study two typical cases, namely; the Universities of Leipzig and Dar es Salaam, in Germany and Tanzania respectively. The study deployed both probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling techniques to arrive at the sample size $N=721$ for student teachers; both final-year ($n=548$) and beginners ($n=173$) and eight (8) university teacher educators.

Findings of the study show the presence of significant changes in the student teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs. Comparatively,
student teachers in Germany revealed higher levels of the TSRs knowledge and perceived self-efficacy than their Tanzanian counterparts. However, the qualitative findings revealed inadequacies in TSRs knowledge among the final-year student teachers in both countries. The beginner student teachers in Germany demonstrated higher command in positive TSRs knowledge and self-efficacy than their Tanzanian counterparts. It was further unveiled that the student teachers’ knowledge had a significant association with their self-efficacy for positive TSRs. The approaches employed in promoting positive TSRs competencies include the teaching practice, educational courses and role modelling. However, these approaches were constrained by the strict focus given on academic performance, lack of clear orientation on the nature of positive TSRs, and overlook of important and potential aspects of initial teacher education. Despite having approaches to promoting positive TSRs abilities, teacher educators demonstrated varied and contradicting perspectives of what constitutes the nature and character of positive TSRs. The study considered contradicting perspectives among the hurdles to effective orientation of the positive TSRs.

Moreover, findings indicated that student teachers in Germany and Tanzania joined the teaching profession as a result of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational reasons. It was found out that the intrinsic motivation reasons were more important among German student teachers. Conversely, extrinsic motivational reasons were relatively more important among student teachers in Tanzania. The analysis of motivational reasons indicated a strong positive association (Cramer’s V .175) between intrinsic motivational reasons and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs.

The study concludes that although positive TSRs feature in the initial teacher education, its implementation has suffered inconsistency, underrepresentation, and misinterpretation by teacher educators and student teachers. The study recommends for an integration of a compulsory positive TSRs content or module to address for depth, breadth and evaluative treatment of the competencies (the proposed framework of integration has been suggested). Moreover, the study recommends for the redefinition and reaffirmation of the
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

positive TSRs phenomenon in the theoretical and practical aspects of the university-based initial teacher education.

Nicht zu leugnen ist die Tatsache, dass die Bildung positiver LSB und die Lehr- und Lernprozesse wesentlich miteinander verbunden sind. Um positive Beziehungen zu bilden, brauchen Schüler*innen stark ausgeprägte Kenntnisse, Ansichten und Attribute der Selbstwirksamkeit. Die vorliegende komparative Studie von Tansania und Deutschland lässt die Schlussfolgerung zu, dass positive LSB eine unabdingbare Voraussetzung für effektives Lehren und Lernen sowie für die ganzheitliche Entwicklung der Schüler*innen in den Schulen darstellt. Angesichts dieser Erkenntnis ist bereits die grundständige Lehramtsausbildung in der Pflicht, neben anderen Lehrer*innenkompetenzen unbedingt auch die Eigenschaften und Fähigkeiten, die für die Gestaltung positiver LSB nötig sind, anzulegen und zu fördern.
Trotz der Anerkennung der Notwendigkeit von positiven LSB durch Forscher*innen, Ausbilder*innen und Verwaltungsbeamt*innen liefert die vorhandene Literatur keine Evidenz für den Beitrag der Studienerfahrung der grundständigen Lehramtsausbildung zu positiven LSB-Fähigkeiten. Die vorhandenen Studien über die LSB haben sich hauptsächlich auf LSB in Schulen und auf Probleme in ungesunden Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen fokussiert (Giles, 2012; Jones, 2009; Knoell, 2012; Raufelder et al., 2013; Sands, 2011; Wubbel et al., 1993).

Die Diskrepanz zwischen den in der Literatur berichteten Problemen, mit denen Lehrer*innen beim Aufbau und Erhalt positiver LSB konfrontiert sind, und der nicht voll ausgeschöpften Möglichkeit, die Studierenden gleich am Anfang des Lehramtsstudiums in ihren Fähigkeiten zur positiven Beziehungsgestaltung zu bestärken, bildet den Rahmen für diese Studie.


Schließlich hat die Studie einen Kausalzusammenhang zwischen den motivationalen Gründen der Lehramtsstudierenden für ihre Studienentscheidung und ihrer positiven Selbstwirksamkeit bezüglich der LSB festgestellt. Motivationale Dynamiken beeinflussen...


einen signifikanten Zusammenhang zwischen den Kenntnissen der Lehramtsstudierenden auf der einen Seite und ihrer gefühlten Selbsterfahrung im Umgang mit positiven LSB auf der anderen Seite dar.

Die angewandten Ansätze bei der Förderung positiver Kompetenzen in Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen (LSB) beinhalten Lehrmethoden, pädagogische Lehrgänge und Rollenmodellierung. Allerdings wurden die Ansätze durch den strengen Fokus auf die akademische Leistung, das Fehlen einer klaren Ausrichtung auf die Art der positiven Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen (LSB) und einen Überblick über wichtige potentielle Aspekte der grundständigen Lehramtsausbildung eingeschränkt. Obwohl Lehramtsdozenten über einige Ansätze zur Förderung positiver LSB-Fähigkeiten verfügen, offenbarten sie zu der Frage, was Natur und Charakter positiver LSB ausmacht, unterschiedliche und widersprüchliche Perspektiven. Die Studie betrachtet diese Widersprüche als Teil der Hürden auf dem Weg zur effektiven Ausrichtung auf positive LSB.

Außerdem zeigten Forschungsergebnisse, dass Lehramtsstudierende in Deutschland und Tansania den Lehrerberuf als Folge von intrinsischen und extrinsischen Motivationsgründen antraten. Es wurde darauf hingewiesen, dass intrinsische Motivationsgründe unter deutschen Lehramtsstudierenden wichtiger waren. Im Gegensatz dazu waren extrinsische Motivationsgründe relativ wichtiger unter Lehramtsstudierenden in Tansania. Die Analyse der Motivationsgründe zeigte eine starke positive Assoziation (Cramer's V .175) zwischen intrinsischen Motivationsgründen und wahrgenommener Selbsterfahrung für positive Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen (LSB).

Abschließend stellt diese Studie fest, dass – obwohl positive LSB innerhalb der ersten Lehramtssemester eine Rolle spielen, scheitert ihre Umsetzung zum Teil an deren Inkonsistenz, Unterrepräsentiertheit und Fehlinterpretation durch Lehramtsdozenten und Lehramtsstudierende. Die Studie empfiehlt die Integration verpflichtender LSB-Inhalte oder Module, so dass die entsprechende Tiefe, Breite und evaluierende Betrachtung von
positiven LSB-Attributen (anhand des vorgeschlagenen Rahmenkonzepts) zu gewährleisten. Weiterhin empfiehlt die Studie eine Neudefinierung und eine erneute Bestätigung der Verankerung des Phänomens „Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen“ in den theoretischen und praktischen Aspekten der hochschulbasierten grundständigen Lehramtsausbildung.
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<tr>
<td>ACSEE</td>
<td>Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.A</td>
<td>Bachelor of Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sc.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Science</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCM</td>
<td>Conceptual Change Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EACEA</td>
<td>The Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCT</td>
<td>Goal Contents Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITE</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMK</td>
<td>National Conference of States Education Ministers</td>
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<tr>
<td>LIT</td>
<td>Conceptual Change Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>M.A</td>
<td>Master of Arts</td>
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<tr>
<td>M.Sc.</td>
<td>Master of Science</td>
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<tr>
<td>MMR</td>
<td>Mixed Methods Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoEVT</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Vocational Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEDP</td>
<td>Primary Education Development Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>The Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEDP</td>
<td>Secondary Education Development Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>TCU</td>
<td>Tanzania Commission for Universities</td>
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<tr>
<td>TDMS</td>
<td>Teachers’ Development Management Strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>TIE</td>
<td>Tanzania Institute of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>TSD</td>
<td>Teachers Service Department</td>
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<td>TSRs</td>
<td>Teachers-student relationships</td>
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<td>UDSM</td>
<td>University of Dar es Salaam</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>URT</td>
<td>United Republic of Tanzania</td>
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Dedication

To my third born daughter, Grania. I dedicated my Master’s thesis to your senior sister and brother, Christen and Caleb.

...Waliopandwa katika nyumba ya Bwana watasitawi katika nyua za Mungu wetu.

(ZABURI 92:13).
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

It is never an overstatement to argue that everything (living or non-living) exists in harmonious relationships with their surroundings. Some examples to this allegory may range from buildings which may require crustal rocks support under their basement to decide on their height and enhancement structures. On their outside, buildings may as well require harmony in terms of their compatibility with climatic conditions which eventually necessitate a particular kind of roofing material, colour, and chemical composition. Likewise, the vegetation types in the field of ecology are well known for deriving their harmony as they relate to the specific sets of physical and chemical characteristics of the soil, topographical and climatic conditions.

The above list can be extended to animals’ ecosystems, cultural systems, settlements and organisations. One notices that the presence of a harmonious relationship is a constant condition for existence. In particular, human beings are the most relationship-craving creatures on the planet Earth. Unlike the non-living entities, human beings do not only need favourable relationships to safeguard their physical beings but also in their internal life cycles and functions. It is the relationship factor that human beings find in their social, educational, occupational, and organisational settings which fulfil their essential inner gratification for them to live and grow, realise their potentials, and define their dreams and purpose.
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Considering the nature of teaching and learning processes, with its involvement of internal processes (like cognition, reflection and others), one recognises the profound need for supportive relationships if effective teaching and learning are tantamount to occur. Admittedly, despite having numerous stakeholders who may indirectly relate to teaching and learning, the most direct and critical form of relationships exists between teachers and their students (Hattie, 2012). Jones, Ryan and Bohlin (1999) submit that students spend an average of 5 to 7 hours a day with a teacher for almost 10 months in a year (in American context—But may be longer in other contexts). It is essential that in order for the time they spend together to be educationally rewarding, an atmosphere of positive relationships between them is logically vital and professionally indispensable (Spilt, Hughes, Wu, & Kwok, 2012).

Arguably, it is the quality of teacher-student relationships (TSRs) that work to predict the magnitude of their engagement and interaction (Kesner, 2000; Kok, 2012). This quality, consequently, triggers either their ultimate connection or aggravation (Liberante, 2012; White, 2007). Apparently, the teacher-student relational exchange and teaching-learning processes are essentially mutually inclusive processes. It is such that the realisation of the former is the prerequisite for the attainment of the latter (Hughes & Kwok, 2007; Spilt et al, 2012). Thus, the pertinent question is whether initial teacher education prepares our teachers to relate well with their students.
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

The above illustration of the necessity for positive TSRs in the teaching and learning framework is best captured in Haim Ginnot’s conclusion regarding teachers’ power of influence over children under their care. In his book: *Between teacher and child* (1972) Ginnot concludes that:

I have come to the frightening conclusion that I am the decisive element. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood that makes the weather. I possess tremendous power to make life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration; I can humiliate or humour, hurt or heal. In all situations, it is my response that decides whether a crisis is escalated or de-escalated and a person is humanised or de-humanised. If we treat people as they are, we make them worse. If we treat people as they ought to be, we help them become what they are capable of becoming (p. 15).

From the excerpt, it can be gathered that teachers are by virtue of their role entrusted with vigorous powers of influence to students. This power stems from comprehending individual students’ needs and the ultimate connection teachers ought to form with them towards attaining the needs (Palmer, 1997; Santrock, 2007). In the above Ginnot’s confession, it would appear that the quality of teacher-student relationships formed and maintained is a key attribute that determines students’ capacity to engage and benefit from teaching and learning experiences in school (Van Uden, Ritzen & Pieters, 2013). Conversely, the opposite happens when the TSRs suffers inadequacy (Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012).

It is widely acknowledged that primarily, teachers have a relational role to their students (Hattie, 2012; Sands, 2011; UNESCO, 2009). Research findings support that positive
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TSRs are requisite for students’ academic and non-academic ends of education (Hughes and Kwok, 2007; Kesner, 2000; Shapira-Lischinsky, 2009; Spilt et al, 2012; Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012). Similarly, the studies show that teachers with positive TSRs competencies record more successes in their everyday professional undertakings and in dealing with their students (Drake, 2010; Kesner, 2000; Maulana, 2011). Given these findings, competencies teachers need to form and sustain positive teacher-student relationships in schools are viewed as a vital ingredient of teachers’ professional excellence (Cooper, 2011; Doncan-Morgan, 2009; Spaulding, 2005). As such, positive TSRs competencies in the form of a combination of knowledge, beliefs, and virtues are considered imperative to teachers (European Commission on Teacher Education, 2013). As a sine qua non of teachers’ excellence, a teacher education worthy the name is duty bound to educate student teachers on positive TSRs knowledge, promotes their beliefs and self-efficacy. These attributes will, in turn, empower them to exude positive TSRs in schools (Giles, 2012; Jones, 2009). Certainly, when teachers are able to form and sustain positive relationships and engage their students, the teaching and learning processes becomes more satisfying, effective and enjoyable (Doncan-Morgan, 2009; Liberante, 2012).

The value and rationale behind comparing TSRs phenomenon between Germany and Tanzania teacher education are best captured in the arguments for comparative education by its early protagonists such as Kandel (1933), Hans (1958), and later Chaube and Chaube (1993). For instance, in his earliest book on comparative education theory,
Kandel (1933) opines that the primary purpose of comparing two or more education systems is to discover not only differences existing between them but also the factors that bring about such differences for the purposes of improvement (Kandel, 1933). In their analytical view, Chaube and Chaube (1993) maintain that regardless of socio-economic differences between countries, certain foundations and principles of education are universal (p. 22) Thus, comparative education penetrates national systemic and cultural boundaries to study how the foundations and principles are interpreted (within countries’ socio-historical framework), institutionalized and contextualised in the education system (Sexton, 2008).

As it will be noted in the forthcoming review of the literature, teacher education systems in Germany and Tanzania provide varied and interesting variations in terms of curricular organisation, management and its implementation (Bargain, 2014; OECD, 2010). Such variations are indeed a product of contextual factors like the guiding philosophy of education, socio-economic stability to mention a few (Beur, 2015; Chaube and Chaube, 1993; OECD, 2010; OECD, 2005). Literature also reveals how teacher education systems in the two countries have over time grappled with dynamics like the increasing demand for teachers in schools, policy adjustments, national and regional agreements (Den Hertog & De Jong, 2002). These dynamics have had a subsequent influence on macro and micro teacher education practices and arrangements (Bargen, 2014; Den Hertog & De Jong, 2002; Lukanga, 2013; Terhart, 2007).
In general, human relationships are dependent on socio-cultural norms, customs, and traditions of the social contexts in which they exist (Doncan-Morgan, 2009; Guerrero, Anderson & Afifi, 2011; Liberante, 2012). In the same way, regardless of their competencies, teachers’ practices in schools are circumscribed by socio-cultural and institutional dynamics which often times impact their professional environment and decisions (Putnam & Borko, 2000). Nevertheless, positive TSRs practices are commonly considered as a prerequisite for any effective teacher-student engagement (Meier, 2005; Pianta et al., 2012). Indeed, this study viewed the positive TSRs competencies as a universal, human-centred attribute of quality teachers’ service (Kesner, 2000; Spaulding, 2005; UNESCO, 2009). Thus, it focused on the role of the university-based initial teacher education experiences in promoting knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy which student teachers need in order to embark on a positive relational exchange with their students.

1.2 Background to the problem

Evidence from literature does show that human relationships of either positive or negative nature have an impact on quality of life (Glasser, 1998; Price, 2008; Spilt et al., 2012). The absence of quality relationships between individuals leads to negative effects including, but are not limited to, anxiety, depression and frustrations (Hughes & Kwok, 2007; Knoell, 2012; Meier, 2005). Giles (2012) and Pianta (1998) define TSRs as the emotional-based experiences that emerge out of teachers’ interactions with their students. It would appear in this definition that first, a relationship is a growing entity and as such, it assumes a continuum of magnitude (Jones, 2009).
Secondly, a relationship is a natural association or bond which occurs as a result of a successful, positive and regular behavioural interdependence between and within the actors (i.e. teacher and students) (Cushman, 2003; Jones, 2009). Thirdly, positive teacher-student relationship building is a voluntary process that requires both actors’ attention in order to perpetuate behavioural interdependence which sustains it (Guerrero, Andersen & Afifi, 2011; Kesner, 2000). Of a vital importance to this study, is the fact that teacher as a facilitator of learning is viewed as a key agent in initiating and sustaining the relational exchange process in the teaching and learning situations (Kok, 2012; Price, 2008). Henceforth, possession of adequate pro-relational knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy is deemed vital in forming and sustaining positive TSRs.

Positive TSRs is one of the most powerful elements in the learning environment that influences students’ development, their academic motivation and school engagement as a whole (Gupta & Fisher, 2011; Liberante, 2012; Wubbel et al., 1993). Positive TSRs is a foundation as it provides students with an effective condition to model and stirs up learning while offering the necessary conditions for sustaining a sociable climate in a school (Drake, 2010; Jones, 2009; Kesner, 2000). Positive TSRs builds a necessary platform through which meaningful sharing of cognitive, psychomotor and affective goals can be facilitated (Gupta & Fisher, 2011; Sands, 2011). It is such an important condition that teachers in schools on one hand, and students on the other, ought to constantly build as they take part in the teaching and learning processes (Campbell, 2003; Lickona, 1991).
Positive TSRs offer an important tunnel along which human values (which is an integral part of quality education) can be communicated and modelled to students by their teachers (Steiner, 2004; UNESCO, 2009). Education is value loaded and teaching is a value-laden process in its very nature (Graham, Haidt & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Likona, 1991). This implies that first, teachers are constantly in the context surrounded by values that govern and permeate their actions and decisions (Anangisye, 2006; Carr, 2000; Klaassen, 2012). Secondly, teaching is associated with transmission of human values through both ways; formal learning and direct imitation (Malti & Latzko, 2010; Parashar, Dhar & Dhar, 2004). Human values and norms such as self-discipline, respect, dignity, justice, commitment, service, integrity, utility, cooperation and freedom are best learnt from teacher modelling roles (Narvaez & Lapsey, 2008). In this regard, positive TSRs enable teachers to espouse what is required by and through their actions to students (Klaassen, 2012; Mgonda, 2010).

Positive relationships are fundamental for effective classroom management and discipline (Meier, 2005; Spaulding, 2005; Hughes & Kwok, 2007). In his pledge to the Choice Theory (A new psychology to personal freedom), Glasser (1998), opines that indiscipline and ill-behaviours in schools are greatly caused by disconnectedness between teachers and students. Consequently, the disconnectedness or lack of bond causes students to make negative behaviour choices in order to fulfil their innate feelings and needs (pp. 234-240). Glasser (1998) presents a critique to assertive classroom discipline and management approaches for de-humanizing school and classroom practices. He maintains
that teacher-student interactions ought to be built on the basis of warm, friendly, intellectual relationship to aid students to choose rational behaviours. To this end, he prescribes seven care habits to be emulated by teachers. They include being supportive, trusting, encouraging, and showing acceptance. Others include listening, respecting and negotiating differences. On the other hand, teachers are called to avoid seven “deadly habits”. These include blaming, criticising and complaining. Other habits are threatening students, nagging, punishing, and exercising bribery in order to control (Drake, 2010; Glasser, 1998).

Arguing in the same line, Hattie (2012), Mmari (1989) and Campbell (2003) opine that good teachers among other things should like their students; and are expected to constantly enjoy the company of the groups and be able to act as leaders. They view that forming genuine human relationships is an indispensable means of giving students maximum academic and social help they need for learning and development (Cooper, 2011; Mmari, 1989). Positive TSRs stand out as a vital precursor upon which academic and social help can be extended to students (Drake, 2010).

The need for supportive relationships cut across all levels of education. This is because teaching and learning are essentially social processes (Fan, 2012; Jones, 2009). However, in secondary schools where the majority of the students are between early and late adolescence periods of development, the necessity for positive relationships and sound social competency becomes more significant to their teachers (Pianta et al., 2012). It
follows that, at adolescence, students enter the **Identity** versus **Role confusion** stage of their psycho-social development (Erickson, 1968; Sekol, 2009). At this fifth stage of their psychosocial development, students need an atmosphere of warmth and security from their guardians like parents and teachers in order to form and develop their identities as they turn to adulthood (p. 5).

In light of the above psychosocial view, teachers’ sense of respect and care is particularly very important to help students in their identity formation. Students at this stage and age require encouragement and reinforcement to help them in the formation of strong self, self-reliant attitude and control without which students will feel unsecured and confused in future (Malti & Latzko, 2010; Van-Uden et al., 2013). Successful completion of identity formation among adolescents leads to fidelity and propels their commitment and desire to live by society’s standards and expectations (Erickson, 1968; Pianta et al., 2012; Sekol, 2009).

Professionalism in the teaching profession requires teachers to foster and display genuine human relationships to students under their care (Cooper, 2011; Stainer, 2004). In the same line, Shapira-Lischinsky (2009) points out three distinguishing canons for teacher professional excellence namely: mystification of knowledge, reciprocity of efforts and positive relationships. That is, the noble obligation entrusted to teachers to pass on knowledge to learners; to equally and constructively share it (knowledge) and to build sustained learning relationships with their students respectively (p. 474).
The latter canon by Shapira-Lischinsky (2009) resonates well with Carl Rogers’s view that the successful teacher-student relationships in schools are sustained by certain attitudinal qualities which exist between teachers and learners (Rogers, 1969). In expounding the above qualities, educators such as Kesner (2000), Meier (2005), Travis (1985) and White (2007) opine that teaching requires initial trust in the teacher by their students. This can be possible through the creation of acceptance by exercising patience and authority without being authoritarian, fostering cooperative learning, minimising aggravation, and relational communication. Other virtues include respectfulness, ability to communicate positive expectations to build students’ self-concept, and role modelling. It is through such atmosphere; an emotional, intellectual and social bond between them is produced and sustained (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Glasser, 1998; Palmer, 1997).

Irrefutably, teachers’ competence to form and sustain positive relationships with their students crucially hinges on their knowledge and beliefs about the power entrusted to them, as well as the expectations students hold towards them (Frostenson, 2015; Kuzborska, 2011; Price, 2008; Spaulding, 2005). As human beings, students need to feel a sense of being valued and cared for by their teachers (Cushman, 2003; Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012). For instance, Boynton and Boynton (2005) summarise some of the effective TSRs practices by pointing out five strategies teachers must employ. They include teacher’s capability to first, to communicate positive expectations. Second, correct students in constructive ways. Third, develop a positive classroom pride. Fourth, demonstrate care to students, and fifth, preventing and reducing teachers’ own
professional frustration and stress (pp. 56-59). However, attempting to replicate these pro-relational classroom strategies or virtues alone may prove futile if the strategies are not backed-up by an appropriate knowledge, deep sense of commitment, self-efficacy, reflectivity and endurance on the side of the teacher (Campbell, 2003; He & Levin, 2008).

Henceforth, the realisation of positive TSRs in secondary schools is not a quick fix; and has a lot to do with the quality of teacher preparation, and the structure of teacher education involved, among other things (Liberante, 2012; Mulcahy, 2011; Spaulding, 2005). It can be viewed to be contingent upon various dimensions, namely; first, the quality of teacher education in terms of teacher recruitment, theoretical and practical related professional competencies offered to pre-service teachers in colleges and universities (Campbell, 2003, Carr, 1999). Second, the role of sustained commitment to their professional ethics in discharging the day-to-day teachers’ tasks (Anangisye, 2006, 2010; Hamre & Pianta, 2006; Latzko, 2012).

Anticipation for positive TSRs as a vital requirement for teaching and learning has prominently been reflected in administrative documents like policies, evaluation reports and circulars (Doncan-Morgan, 2009; OECD, 2011; UNESCO, 2009). Despite the difference in nomenclatures assigned to the TSRs, it stands out that the teacher-student relationship is a widely acknowledged quality for teachers’ professional service (Hattie, 2012, 2008; Cooper, 2011; MoEVT, 2007; UNESCO, 2009). In particular, the Teacher
Education and Development Strategy [TDMS] (2007) in Tanzania makes a firm pronouncement on the positive TSRs in the teaching and learning discourses (p.10). In Europe, the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) has gone even further to adapting and mainstreamed the positive TSRs as one of its indices in an attempt to compare and explain the quality of teaching and learning processes among the OECD member countries and beyond (European Commission, 2013; OECD, 2011). In both contexts, one puzzle hitherto exists: to what extent does the initial teacher education translate the positive TSRs competencies in order to meet the above anticipation?

Contrary to the above anticipation and directives, several critical issues have been revealed by different studies on teacher education and in schools. As such, the studies present sceptical scenarios and indicators, worthy of review in explaining the supposed role of initial teacher education in promoting the positive TSRs. These issues are summarised as follows:

Firstly, despite the acknowledgement that positive TSR is a vital element of initial teacher education; studies have provided evidence of increasing cases of teacher professional malpractices and unethical conducts among teachers and students in secondary schools in Tanzania (Anangisye, 2006, 2010; Boimanda, 2004; Masath, 2013; Mgonda, 2010). The reported cases are indicative of worsening TSRs in schools. In the same vein, a recent ethnographic research conducted in Germany by Raufelder, Bukowski and Mohr (2013) has observed that secondary schools in Germany are
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caracterised by the unsupportive atmosphere for a socio-emotional and relational aspect of teaching and learning. Schools have been pre-occupied with a strict focus on academic achievement with no attention to positive relationships between teachers and students (Raufelder et al., 2013). Further to that, it was observed that teachers had reduced relationships to institutional roles. Teachers in schools had neither adequate room for forming and sustaining an interpersonal bond with their students nor did they perceive it as a significant phenomenon in itself (p. 13).

Secondly, studies by Anangisye (2006) and HakiElimu (2011) in Tanzania, and studies by Hilligus (2015), Kotthoff and Terhart (2013), Terhart (2007), and Schutz, Crowder and White (2001) in Germany, have revealed that increasingly, there exist teachers recruited in the initial teacher education in the recent years, who have been reported to join the teaching profession with motivation other than the intrinsic motivation. That is, the love and passion for teaching or motivation to contribute to the development of young people and society as a whole (Boimanda, 2004; HakiElimu, 2011; Van-Uden et al., 2013). Arguably, teachers’ motivation for choosing teaching career has a direct influence on their long lasting commitment to professional undertakings which may also include how they relate with students (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2012; Van-Uden et al., 2013; Weiss & Kiel, 2013). In this regard, it is of interest to find out whether or not the varied motivational reasons held by student teachers have any implication on their relationship pattern with their students.
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Thirdly, the initial teacher education has been increasingly been criticised for being examination-oriented (for employment) than the actual emancipation, enablement, and transformation of student teachers (Buer, 2015; Bennel & Akyempong, 2007; Kafyulilo et al., 2012; Lukanga, 2013). Some criticisms have partly dwelt on the diminishing professional standards of the teachers (Mulcahy, 2011; Weiss & Kiel, 2013). In this account, it is logical to presume that little or no attention whatsoever has been given to competencies which do form part and parcel of the examination and certification repertoire. Such competencies like the positive TSRs deride the vital quality of teachers’ professional service (Cooper, 2011; Masath, 2013). Within the contexts characterised by resource constraints, the initial teacher education experience has been reduced to simply an acquisition of just survival knowledge and skills to teach than the pursuit of fostering becoming. In order to foster “becoming” among student teachers, the focus ought to shift from what student know and can do to (Epistemology) to what they are expected and can become (Ontology) (Dall’Alba, 2009). This necessarily requires a change in their competencies (Ishumi, 2009; Hager & Hodkinson, 2011).

1.3 Theoretical frameworks of the study

A theoretical framework refers to a statement of how things are connected; its purpose, *inter alia*, to describe and explain the phenomena to be investigated (Agerfalk, 2014; Ary, Jacob & Soreensen, 2010). Theoretical framework summarises existing knowledge and explains observable events, constructs and their relationships (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). It represents the best efforts in trying to
understand the basic structure of the ‘world’ and provides evidence regarding constructs being studied (Hatch, 2002).

In framing this study, it is noted from the literature that promoting positive TSRs attributes among novice teachers is a vital and dynamic process that is built on their knowledge, belief, self-efficacy, and motivation (Hager & Hodkinson, 2011; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008; Spaulding, 2005; Sands, 2011). Whereas the knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy are viewed as a direct result of an effective initial teacher education experiences, the motivation held for joining teaching is presumed as passive; yet a stable psychological construct which may invariably influence the post-training teachers’ professional accomplishments (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Silva, Marques & Teixeira, 2014). The subsections below contextualise and rationalise the theories which are deemed relevant in supporting the lines of reasoning adopted in this study. They include the conceptual change, self-efficacy, and goal contents theories.

1.3.1 The conceptual change theory

The heart of the conceptual change theory anchors on the fact that learning must be demonstrated by a change in individual’s knowledge, beliefs and perception of a phenomenon (Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003). The theory of conceptual change is credited to the original works of Posner, Strike, Hewson and Gertzog (1982) and its later improvements by Hewson and Thorley (1989) and Hewson (1992). Etymologically, the theory was derived from a synthesis of Piaget’s learning theory and Kuhn’s concept of
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normal science and scientific revolution of 1962 (Kuhn, 1962; Posner et al., 1982, p. 1). Although the theory has previously been used in studying natural science concepts among students, it has great relevance in explaining the acquisition and application of knowledge and beliefs in a wider array of endeavours and disciplines (Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003).

Human concepts are mental categories or pictures of the real world experiences (Krathwohl, 2002). Concepts are useful in that they serve in a mental categorization of events, groups, objects, information, situations, associations, generalisation and discrimination (Rips, Smith & Medin, 2012). As a result of the above conceptual functions, individuals can learn, predict, understand, plan as well as guide their behaviours and actions (Rips et al., 2012). Unlike in its laymen’s use, concepts are by their very nature innate (mental). It turns out that individuals draw from these conceptual faculties (knowledge) to process their thinking, beliefs, attitudes, behaviours, actions, judgement and in making decisions (Rips et al., 2012). In this study, the acquisition of knowledge and beliefs about TSRs phenomenon work together to sufficiently inform student teachers’ conceptual representation of the valid truth about its necessity in teaching and learning (Richard, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991).

The theory underscores the development of fundamentally new knowledge through the process of restructuring elements of existing concepts in the course of knowledge acquisition, observation and role modelling (Ausubel, 2000; Krathwohl, 2002; Posner et al., 1982). In this sense, conceptual ‘change’ goes beyond one’s specific beliefs and
involves restructuring the very concepts used to formulate those beliefs, leading to an abandonment of the existing conceptions and acceptance of the new conceptions (Posner et al., 1982; Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003). In particular to an initial teacher education, ‘conceptual change’ among student teachers may take different forms, for instance, it may mean: (a) extinction of formerly acquired (mis)conceptions in the light of new concepts; (b) exchange or replacement of formerly lesser plausible concepts by more plausible ones; and (c) extension of narrowly conceived concepts to the required precision capable of raising individual student teachers TSRs competencies (Hewson, 1992; Hewson & Thorley, 1989).

The justifications for employing the conceptual change theory in this study include the following: (1) studies conducted on learning acknowledge the fact that learner’s prior knowledge and experience have enormous influence on learning new concepts (Ausubel, 2000; Kaplan & Murphy, 2000; Frankish & Ramsey, 2012). Student teachers join the initial teacher education with a range of preconceptions (knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes) about teaching as well as patterns of TSRs. Often times; their preconceptions do not conform with perspectives taught to them (Christensen, Massey, Isaac & Synott, 1995; Socket, 2006). Subsequently, the mismatch inhibits effective transformation of student teachers into the TSRs knowledge and competencies expected of them (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). Usually, this happens when initial teacher education offers ineffective knowledge orientation to enable student teachers (novices) negotiate their own
knowledge with their future professional roles (He & Levin, 2008; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999).

(2) Teachers’ beliefs about TSRs cannot be underestimated when fostering positive change towards professional competencies (Kuzborska, 2011). The system of beliefs developed by teachers of the dynamics of TSRs in teaching and learning has a direct impact on their future professional experiences (Richard et al., 1991; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008).

(3) The necessity for the effective TSRs knowledge anchors the fact that student teachers in universities are the products of the same conventional teaching practices and theories (Christensen, et al., 1995; Steiner, 2004). This implies that if teacher education is not rigorously structured to realign student teachers’ knowledge and beliefs about positive TSRs, they cannot be expected to proficiently handle the relational exchange. In such a situation, teachers are likely to apply knowledge and experiences to which they themselves learned, engaged in schools or related to their teachers (Christensen et al., 1995; Cooper, 2011; Sockt, 2006). No matter how inappropriate such practices were, student teachers are likely to perpetuate them in their future professional roles. For instance, the knowledge given during initial teacher education ought to challenge student teachers in the inappropriate adult-child power relations (Manke, 1997). Such power relations have traditionally placed learners at a disadvantaged end by praising a culture of teacher/adult dominance and students submission (Dixon, Graber & Brook-Gun, 2008).
As an alternative, the orientation in knowledge should enable student teachers to appreciate and place a higher value on respect for learners’ freedom, responsiveness, care, and cooperation in the teaching and learning process (Kesner, 2000; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992; Wills, 1992).

(4) Analogous to the modern views of teacher education, teacher education is viewed as a process of constant change towards greater professional autonomy through knowledge construction across formal and informal learning (Carr, 200; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). Campbell (2003), Mulcahy (2011), and Sexton (2008) equate initial teacher education to an initiation process which calls for shaping and re-shaping of teachers’ knowledge and abilities regarding their future service. As future professionals, student teachers are capable of learning and unlearning the positive TSRs competencies. This, in turn, helps them to suit well in their future professional roles (Cooper, 2011; Maulana et al., 2011; Spaulding, 2005).

(5) The knowledge (of TSRs) which student teachers need in order to relate well with their students is: (i) voluntary; in that it necessitates a pedagogical attention and approaches to be acquired; and can be learned along with other competencies because it operates within the student teachers’ conceptual faculty (Intelligibility) (Hewson & Thorley, 1989; Maulana, 2011; Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003). (ii) The knowledge is imperative for their future professional success and it manifests in a wide array of teachers’ professional tasks. For instance, it operates in both verbal and non-verbal
aspects of communications, as well as within and outside the classroom environments (Beebe & Timothy, 2009; Wubbel, Creton, Levy & Hoymayer, 1993).

1.3.2 The self-efficacy theory

The self-efficacy theory is the extension of the Social cognitive theory by Albert Bandura (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy refers to one’s belief about their capabilities to execute a certain task and succeed in a given situation. Individuals’ self-efficacy determines and controls how they think, feel, and act on tasks ahead of them (Gavora, 2010; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Strong self-efficacy in an individual is linked to a strong sense of commitment and interest to succeed in their given tasks, whereas weak self-efficacy can result to low commitment, poor enthusiasm, low confidence and task avoidance (Bandura, 1995; He & Levin, 2008).

Although self-efficacy develops in individuals from childhood experiences, it can in specific contexts be influenced by mastery experiences of tasks given. For instance, it can also be influenced by social modelling through witnessing other people’s successes on similar tasks; social persuasion through verbal encouragement given to people that they can succeed in performing some given tasks to avoid their self-doubt and psychological responses (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). It involves stabilising ones’ internal and external reactions to tasks ahead of them. Improvement of psychological responses through orientation to tasks like the relational exchange works to determine the state of one’s self-efficacy for different accomplishments (Bandura, 1994; Gavora, 2010).
Notwithstanding the usefulness of the conceptual change theory which works to reinvigorate the place of TSRs knowledge and beliefs, the development of student teachers’ self-efficacy to form and sustain the TSRs is of equivalent significance. Left alone, the acquired competencies in positive TSRs knowledge may not produce the expected results. It is argued that the theoretical effective instruction ought to be paired with the practical and reflective aspects of teacher education to allow for the development of a strong sense of self-efficacy for positive TSRs roles (Kesner, 2000; Van Uden et al., 2013). In a school context, efficacious teachers tend to be more resilient in fostering students’ learning needs (Pandergast, Garvis & Keogh, 2011). They persevere longer with isolated students and are lesser aggrieved with incongruous students behaviours (Gavora, 2010; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). As such, they are linked to higher levels of teaching commitment than the less efficacious teachers (Hattie, 2012; Van-uden et al., 2013).

The student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy for teaching and their preparedness to relate positively with their future students in the classroom is an important yardstick in determining how effective the initial teacher education is, in addressing TSRs in both pedagogical and professional terms (Gavora, 2010; Li, 1999; Van Uden et al., 2013). Student teachers’ sense of preparedness to relate and handle relationships with their students might be viewed to be associated positively with the degree to which the initial teacher education, both through theoretical and field practices addresses the positive TSRs (Pandergast et al., 2011; Palmer, 1997; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Consequently,
the better student teachers perceive and feel prepared to handle relationships with their
students, the better they would tend to perform in their future professional
accomplishments (Chan, 2004; Klassen et al., 2009; Sands, 2011; Van-Uden, et al.,
2013).

Teachers capable of transforming relations in schools are viewed as among other things, a
product of a pedagogical process that has equipped them to accommodate and embrace
principles of positive TSRs during their teacher education (Cooper, 2011; Pandergast et
al., 2011; Meier, 2005). It is after such transforming experience, student teachers are
expected to demonstrate positive beliefs about their own capability to relate and connect
with students as a result of different learned strategies and practices (Gavora, 2010).
Ultimately, student teachers ought to appreciate the fact that positive TSRs are critical for
students’ holistic development (Campbell, 2003; Spaulding, 2005).

In the light of the above, it is important to note that teachers’ held perceived self-efficacy
for TSRs determine their abilities in handling relationships within the school contexts
(Pianta & Steinberg, 1992; Steiner, 2004). Essentially, the initial teacher education is,
therefore, duty-bound to build up not only student teachers’ knowledge but also their
practical capabilities to make them confident in forming and sustaining positive TSRs
(Gavora, 2010; Pandergast et al., 2011; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992). This demands that the
initial teacher education works to realign student teachers’ prior knowledge and
self-efficacy for positive TSRs, which exist within the culture of which they are part (Frankish & Ramsey, 2012; Dixon, Graber & Brook-Gun, 2008).

1.3.3 The goal contents theory (GCT)

Goal contents theory is a mini-theory of the Self-determination theory (SDT). The theory asserts that human goals are motivated and directed towards fulfilling three broadly categorised psychological needs. These needs include autonomy (feeling of originality), competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2012). The satisfaction of the three needs is viewed vital for growth, wellness and integrity whereas their frustrations are linked to non-effective functioning and psychopathology in human beings (Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2006; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). These needs or motivation are referred to as psychological nutrients which navigate the strength of the inner resources towards goal attainment (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013).

In particular, two types of motivation can be identified as extrinsic and intrinsic (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Although people may be transiently motivated by external factors, (such as pay, grade, praise and others) they are more consistently motivated from within by the intrinsic factors (named above), which operates innate the individual generating interest, enthusiasm, and quest to conform to rules and in satisfying the psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The intrinsic factors may not necessarily be externally gratifying, but they propel passion, curiosity, and a sustained effort in goal attainment (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Teachers are intrinsically motivated when they choose to
join the teaching profession because they have the feeling of passion for teaching service and want to contribute to the development of young people (Van-Uden et al., 2013). On the other hand, teachers are extrinsically motivated when they choose to join teaching based on external factors such as salary, job security, status, or an influence of significant others (Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2006; Van-Uden et al., 2013).

Intrinsically motivated activities or behaviours are energised by psychological drives or their derivatives and for which the reward is the satisfaction associated with the activity itself (Ryan & Deci, 2008; Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2006). This is to say, one gets rewarding gratification in the service or activity for its own sake. Intrinsic motivation induces people as they experience a sense of autonomy in causality, competence and relatedness in a given social context (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2006). Conversely, extrinsic motivation activities are not energised by the psychological drive, instead by an outcome that is separable from the activity itself (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Silva et al., 2014). Thus, behaviours shown are usually a means to a specific end, and are geared towards detachable consequences (Parkman & Mahon, 2011).

Teaching, in its formal sense, is not merely a cognitive or a technical procedure but a complex, personal, social and often elusive set of embedded processes and practices which focus on the whole person (Olsen, 2008; Giles, 2008). At the backbone of this prescription, is requisite for teachers’ stable commitment to relationship building in teaching and learning as a necessary springboard to their professional success (Hamre &
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Pianta 2006). In its ethical nature, teaching is a *vocation*; meaning that teaching is, at its best connotation a calling (Anangisye, 2006, 2010; Meier, 2005). This implies that those who are called to teach are first and foremost motivated to and by the service of a teacher than external factors like material gain (Giles, 2012). In this regard, teachers are called to interact with their clients (students) with respect as ends and not as means (Anangisye, 2006 & 2010; UNESCO, 2009).

Motivational reasons held by student teachers in joining the teaching profession are viewed as an important factor which may have an influence on their teaching and the pattern of interaction with students (Weiss & Kiel, 2013). In the same way, it influences the pace at which student teachers understand, accept, and appreciate the value of positive TSRs in dealing with their students (Chan, 2004; Palmer, 1997; Sexton, 2008; Van-Uden et al., 2013). Anchoring on Ryan and Deci (2008), and Vansteenkiste and Deci (2006) it can be presumed that the more intrinsic motivational reasons student-teachers demonstrate towards the teaching profession, the higher are their chances to develop positive self-efficacy for healthy relationships with their students. In particular, student teachers’ held motivational reasons ratings for joining teaching are useful in drawing a particular implication on their corresponding self-efficacy levels for positive TSRs (Holland, 1973; Parkman & Mahon, 2011).
1.4 Statement of the problem

The disjuncture between the relevance of positive TSRs competencies in the initial teacher education and the current deteriorating teacher-student relationships in schools (as presented above) frames this study. While indicators of poor TSRs exist in schools (Boimanda, 2004; Mgonda, 2010; Anangisye, 2010; Masath, 2013), studies in teacher education conducted in Tanzania have focused only on aspects of teacher education such as professional ethics (Anangisye, 2006; 2010; Boimanda, 2004) teaching and learning methods (Kafyulilo et al., 2012; Lukanga, 2013) and teachers’ job satisfaction (Bennel & Akyempong, 2007; HakiElimu, 2011). In Germany, a recent ethnographic study conducted on TSRs in secondary schools has revealed unpromising TSRs in secondary schools (Raufelder, Bukowski & Mohr, 2013). Apparently, the study has shed more light on the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) analysis of the TSRs situation in Germany (OECD, 2011). In particular, the teachers’ inability to form and sustain a relational atmosphere in schools is singled out as one among the prominent challenges on the ground (Raufelder et al., 2013).

Albeit the acknowledgement of its inevitability by educators and researchers, the literature provides no explicit evidence on the contribution of the initial teacher education both in Germany and Tanzania in preparing student teachers for positive TSRs competencies (Giles, 2008; Meier, 2005; Pianta et al., 2012). An inclusion of the same in the university-based initial teacher education is deemed necessary for equipping student
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teachers with positive TSRs knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy (competencies) they need for forming and promoting positive relationships with their students.

This study presumes that the university-based initial teacher education, among other things, ought to equip and transform student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and their perceived self-efficacy, to be able to effectively form and sustain positive relationships with their students. It is perceived that successful teacher-student relational exchange is both; the pre-requisite for a holistic development of students in schools and a precursor for teachers’ fruitful professional accomplishments (Jones, 2009; Sands, 2011; Spaulding, 2005; European Commission, 2013). In the same line, teacher education among other things ought to enable student teachers to appreciate the fact that, positive TSRs are non-interchangeable attributes of teaching and learning (Meier, 2005; Palmer, 1997; Wubbel et al., 1993). Indeed, the capabilities to positively relate with learners take precedence over other teachers’ qualities (Liberante, 2012; Shapira-Lischinsky, 2009).

1.5 The purpose of study and research questions

The role of initial teacher education in promoting teachers’ positive TSRs competencies is too fundamental to be left to chances. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the role of university-based initial teacher education in fostering positive TSRs knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy among student teachers in the context of the prevailing TSRs approaches and perspectives. The study explores the differences in the attributes as experienced by student teachers in Tanzania and Germany.
Central research question

Does the university-based initial teacher education contribute to positive teacher-student relationships (competencies) among student teachers?

From the central research question of the study and its guiding theoretical framework, the following research sub-questions are addressed in a comparative manner:

1. What is the student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs?

   (a) What is the final-year student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs?

   (b) Is there a significant difference in the final-year student teachers’ TSRs knowledge between Germany and Tanzania?

   (c) Is there a difference in positive TSRs knowledge between final-year and beginner student teachers for Germany and Tanzania?

2. What are the student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs?

   (a) What are the student teachers’ beliefs about positive TSRs in teaching and learning process?

   (b) What is the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs?
(c) Is there a significant difference in the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy between Tanzania and Germany?

(d) Is there a difference in perceived self-efficacy between final-year and beginner student teachers for Germany and Tanzania?

(e) Is there any association between (final-year) student teachers’ TSRs knowledge and their perceived self-efficacy?

3. What are the approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs?

(a) What are the approaches through which student teachers learn about positive TSRs?

(b) What are teacher educators’ perspectives on the nature of positive TSRs?

4. What are the implications of student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining teaching on their perceived self-efficacy levels to form and sustain positive TSRs?

(a) What are the student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession?

(b) Is there any association between student teachers’ held motivational reasons and their perceived self-efficacy levels to form and sustain positive TSRs?
1.6 Scope of the study

Three areas are important in defining the scope of the present study. Firstly, when arguing for the necessity of the positive TSRs competencies, this study does not intend to suggest for a dichotomy or trade-off of the relational competencies by other teacher competencies. Also, this study intends not to convince that dimensions of teacher’s quality should be viewed in terms of narrowly defined behavioural competencies, but in terms of dispositions, which teachers demonstrate. Undeniably, teacher’s quality is indeed a holistic concept which calls for a constellation of competencies rather than isolated bits of measurable behavioural objectives to be nurtured independently of each other (Fredriksson, 2004). This study affirms the fact that the TSRs competencies are not the sole quality student teachers need to be effective, but a vital aspect in the combination of tacit and explicit knowledge, skills, understanding, value orientation, attitude, and emotions. Certainly, their realisation leads to effective embodied human action in teachers’ professional roles (Fulford, 2015; UNESCO, 2009).

Secondly, although positive TSRs competencies are a critical component in the realisation of educational goals at different levels of education (Liberante, 2012), this study confined itself to the university-based initial teacher education as a unit of analysis. This study assumes that presence of TSRs knowledge coupled with effective approaches and perspectives could effectively equip student teachers with TSRs competencies. Therefore, the study investigated the role of the university-based initial teacher education in equipping the student teachers with the positive TSRs knowledge, beliefs, and
perceived self-efficacy. Preferably, for the above-mentioned reasons, the study focused on the secondary initial teacher education. Due to the explorative nature of the study problem, the researcher approached the study conclusions with caution.

Thirdly, the university-based phase of initial teacher education is the main and the most critical phase of initial teacher education in both countries which comprises of up to five and three years of study for Germany and Tanzania respectively (Hilligus, 2015; Terhart & Kotthoff, 2013; URT, 2007). In order to gain the teacher professional status or civil servant status, after the university phase, student teachers in Germany are as a rule required to enrol for 1 to 2 years (depending on specialisation and the individual state regulations) of preparatory training (Referendariat) in teacher seminars (Lehrerseminar) which works in partnership schools (Seminarschulen) managed by the Kultusministerium of the federal state. During the preparatory training student teachers are entitled to a half of their monthly pay (Jones, 2010).

Likewise, in the Tanzanian university-based initial teacher education structure, the post-university induction takes the form of 12 months (One year) probationary service in public schools. Afterwards, student teachers may attain their full professional and employment status after successful approval of their service by the Teachers Service Department (TSD) (URT, 2009). In both countries, therefore, one commonality observed is that the university-based phase of initial teacher education assumes the lion’s share in terms of duration spent and the contents of the initial teacher education. Based on this
rationale, this study took interest to study the university-based phase of initial teacher education.

1.7 Significance of the study

The study is significant in the following ways: firstly, the study explores empirical evidence of the state of positive TSRs knowledge, beliefs, and perceived self-efficacy among student teachers. It also examines the TSRs approaches and perspectives. In this regard, the findings offer an important yardstick for re-examining the strengths, challenges and opportunities facing the initial teacher education in the context of positive TSRs competencies. For instance, the study sheds light on the fact that in equipping teachers for effective handling of positive TSRs in schools, the initial teacher education has continually and erroneously embraced the low view of what actually constitutes positive TSRs phenomenon. Subsequently, the existing approaches and perspectives in place reduce the positive TSRs phenomenon to mere means to some academic ends. Findings of this study inform and revamp curriculum developers to rekindle the pro-relational approaches to ensure their vibrancy in the university-based initial teacher education. To that effect, the study proposes a positive TSRs integration framework (as the empirical contribution of the study) in view of ensuring effectiveness in addressing the TSRs within the existing initial teacher education contexts. The framework highlights the nature, contents, scope, approaches, methods as well as the possible evaluation trajectories.
Secondly, literature evidence depicts that many dimensions of teacher professionalism like teacher motivation, teacher supply management, teacher ethics, and teacher identity have been well mainstreamed in the on-going scholarly discussions about quality of education and teacher professionalism. However, superficial attention whatsoever has been given on matters regarding TSRs, notwithstanding its pivotal role in teaching, learning, and in learners’ development as a whole (Cooper, 2011; Mulcahy, 2011; Kok, 2012). The study findings, present a reminder to educators and researchers in TSRs as a necessary facet of quality education and teachers’ excellence.

Thirdly, positive TSRs competencies are the learned phenomena. In this study, it has been found to be dependent upon other factors within and external to the student teachers. The comparative analysis of Germany and Tanzania offers a differential role in understanding some of these factors like labour market conditions and learning cultures. As such, these factors which operate within the countries’ education contexts permeate and influence processes and outcomes in the initial teacher education (Hager & Hodkinson, 2011). This study considers such dynamics as an important starting point to more research trajectories in exploring factors such as family value system and family background on positive TSRs. It is hoped that such studies will build up new insights on initial teacher education practices especially in the area of positive TSRs pedagogy.
1.8 Organisation of the dissertation

This dissertation is organised and presented in six chapters. The first chapter introduces the study and its background. It identifies the central claim and the rationale for the study. It also presents the theoretical framework that informs the study lines of reasoning leading to the problem statement and research question and sub-questions.

The second chapter of this dissertation reviews the historical account of positive TSRs by few selected educational thinkers and philosophers. The chapter also reviews TSRs perspectives and their inherent manifestation in the teaching and learning contexts. The chapter examines the initial teacher education in Tanzania and Germany in light of its usefulness in promoting quality teacher education and positive TSRs in particular. Finally, it reviews and compares relevant empirical studies in the TSRs and synthesizes the argument for this study.

The third chapter covers research methodological issues and their application in the study. The chapter introduces the epistemological paradigms and justifies the positioning for the present study. Subsequently, the chapter discusses and describes the population, selected cases, sample and sampling procedures, data generation and analysis procedures utilised in the treatment of the data. It also presents the reliability and validity procedures employed in the study, compliance with research ethics, and the study limitations.
The fourth chapter presents the qualitative and quantitative findings in a concurrent fashion. Findings which answer the respective research question and sub-questions are logically present together in figures, graphs, tables, and textual formats. In the fifth chapter, a discussion of the research findings is presented. The rationale behind this chapter is to give a possible interpretation of the study findings. In the chapter, an implication is drawn from the theoretical framework and the literature in an attempt to understand the experiences of positive TSRs phenomenon. This chapter also attempts a comparative discussion of the phenomenon as indicated by the data between Germany and Tanzania.

Finally, the last chapter presents the study summary, conclusions and study contributions. It presents the study recommendations which are deemed necessary in promoting the positive TSRs competencies in the initial teacher education for Germany and Tanzania. Informed by the study findings, this chapter proposes an integration framework for teacher-student relationships (TSRs). In particular, the framework considers the present possibility of employing various aspects of the initial teacher education to promote student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, self-efficacy and other competencies.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the review of theoretical and empirical works deemed relevant in appreciating the ongoing discussion in the body of knowledge about the TSRs phenomenon in general, and the contribution of initial teacher education to positive TSRs competencies in particular. It starts by tracing the place of positive TSRs phenomenon as perceived by different educational thinkers and philosophers. Secondly, the chapter highlights the pre-eminent nature of the positive TSRs in teaching and learning milieu with an interest in the approaches, assumptions, practices and their limitations. Thirdly, it reviews both the German and Tanzanian secondary teacher education and their underlying characteristic features. Fourthly, the chapter widely reviews and compares some relevant empirical studies and discusses their implications and limitations in addressing the positive TSRs. Finally, the chapter synthesizes the arguments and justifies the purpose of the present study.

2.2 Teacher-student relationships viewpoints
A prescriptive account on the notion of teacher-student or teacher-learner relationships is no longer a novel concept in education discourses (Kok, 2012; UNESCO, 2009). For example, during indigenous education in African societies and widely, the necessity for sound relationships in the education processes was echoed in the contents, methods and fundamental values which governed education delivery (Anangisye, 2008; Graham et al., 2008; Smith, 1997). As of late, the impetus for interpersonal dimensions of teachers’
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competencies has been a focus of many educational researchers since the 19th Century (Smith, 1997).

The necessity for and the place of positive TSRs in teaching and learning is seen in the perspectives of educators and thinkers of education. Although at different intensity, purpose and relevance, several thinkers of education have in the history of education accorded special importance to positive TSRs (Jones, 2009). Review of educational thinkers’ viewpoints on positive TSRs is presented in two categories. These categories are normative and descriptive viewpoints to positive TSRs.

The normative viewpoint of positive TSRs comprises the education thinkers’ views which describe positive TSRs as a necessary condition or a means for which an effective teaching and learning processes, as well as development, can occur. They include but are not restricted to the following: Firstly, John Amos Comenius (1592-1670). He is referred to as the father of modern education. He was a Czech educator, theologian and a philosopher (Palmer, 2001). His contributions and ideas have had a great influence on education systems and policies in the world even today (Ishumi & Nyirenda, 2002). Among his important contributions was the idea of universal education, as presented in his book Great didactic (Keatinge, 1967). He maintains that: everything must be taught to everyone (p. 130). According to Comenius, friendly TSRs arouse students’ desire to learn and to know. In his view, teaching and learning must take place in an attractive,
intrinsically compelling and friendly attitude of warmth and acceptance in attaining the goal of holistic education (Curren, 2003; Keatinge, 1967).

Secondly, Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778). He was a Swiss political thinker and educator who strongly believed in naturalism (Bloom, 1979). In his famous book on *Emile* or On Education, Rousseau maintains that everything has its natural law upon which those things work. He calls for educators to accord respect to learners’ inborn abilities and freedom in the learning process (Bloom, 1979, p. 140, Rousseau book III). To this end, teachers are called to cooperate and extend care to their students, when guiding them towards their discoveries and exploration of new phenomena (Palmer, 2001).

Thirdly, Johan Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827) was from Zurich, Switzerland. He was strongly influenced by Jean-Jacques Rousseau’s Naturalism ideas. He views that education should be devoted to the creation of a moral man by educating head, hands and heart (Palmer, 2001). In this regard, the educational experience should not consist of an imposition of fixed doctrines and alien concepts but that of helping students to develop their own constructive powers (Downs, 1975). According to Pestalozzi, a successful development of constructive powers within students requires an atmosphere of emotional security based on respectful, hopeful and caring relationships between teacher and student (Curren, 2003).
Fourthly, Paulo Freire (1921-1997) a Brazilian philosopher, educator and critical theorist of education (Ishumi & Nyirenda, 2002). In his famous book, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970), Freire criticises the banking system of education. He postulates that education process capable of liberating individuals from their socio-economic setbacks should promote their consciousness through a conscientization process (Freire, 1970). That is, raising learners’ awareness of their perception of reality from a *magic* level through a *naive* level to a *critical* level. At the critical level of awareness, learners can transform their situations. Central to this end, Freire posits that pedagogical processes must permit horizontal relationships and shared power relations between teacher and learners as a precondition for relevant dialogue that would lead to uncovering the realities (Manke, 1977; Palmer, 2001).

In the **descriptive viewpoint**, this includes educators and thinkers who not only acknowledges the primacy of positive TSRs as a condition for a successful teaching and learning but also goes further in an attempt to portray the TSRs structure in terms of values, methodologies, and approaches upon which such relationships can be realised. Socrates (469–399 BC), as a firm believer of rationalism, Socrates views that successful education experience ought to be built on effective human relationships that permit students opportunity for recollection of what they already have in their minds (Palmer, 2001; Scott, 2000). He invented what is referred to as the Socratic Method in education discourses (Ishumi & Nyerenda, 2001). To him, dialectical (dialogical) TSRs should provide moderating influence necessary for guiding and limiting aspirations of the youths.
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(students). He particularly warns that without such relationships youths are likely to become wild, or drift into misology, misanthropy, and cynicism (Scott, 2000). As a student of Socrates, Plato (427-347 BC) concurs with his teacher on dialectic methods and rationalism (Palmer, 2001). He reiterates that good relations are fundamental to collective efforts in ideal education, which would, in turn, lead to ideal society “the republic” (Ishumi & Nyirenda, 2002; Pieratt, 2011).

Vittorino da Feltre (1378-1446) was one of the great thinkers in the Medieval/Renaissance period (Pieratt, 2011). He was an Italian humanist and a great teacher. He established a school in Mantua Italy. His ideas on education reflect existentialist viewpoint and child-centeredness orientation. He emphasized on the developmental stage of learning and appreciation of individual differences in teaching and learning processes (Palmer, 2001). According to Vittorino da Feltre, students should not be forced into pre-determined experiences, rather; they should be encouraged to develop their capacity and interests towards learning (McCormick, 1906; Pieratt, 2011). Vittorino believed that positive interpersonal teacher-student relationship is a critical condition for propagating in learners a long-lasting interest, motivation, and creativity (Maulana et al., 2011). In his school, Vittorino had often recreated, befriended and dined together with his students (Palmer, 2001).

Another example of descriptive viewpoint can be traced to John Dewey (1859-1952), a progressive educator and American philosopher (Palmer, 2001). He was firmly convinced
that education is a social process which entails living and not only a preparation for future living (Schutz, 2001). Essentially, Dewey views the purpose of education to be that of preparing effective citizens for a democratic society. Prescriptively, he proposes for the processes of education which invite truth and possibility to be adapted to an ever-changing world. In his views, democratic values should not only constitute an important goal of education but an inherent characteristic of its processes (Ishumi & Nyirenda, 2002; Jerlink, 2009). Dewey exalts the values of respect, equality, justice, free communication and he denounces authoritarian relationships in the educational processes (Ishumi & Nyirenda, 2002). In his view, therefore, by virtue of their functions, teachers are asked to exercise democratically-sound relationships with their students (Glasser, 1998; Palmer, 2001). This would, in turn, serve as a precursor in fostering democratic mental habits among students and generates students’ social consciousness and collective goals (Schutz, 2001).

2.3 Human relationships
Succinctly defined, a relationship is a way two things are linked. Also, the way or manner in which two or more people feel and behave towards each other (the Cambridge online dictionary, 2015). Therefore, relationship calls for connection, correlation, interconnection, interdependence, interrelationship, linkage, ties and bond. Classifying human relationships may sound complicated because a relationship exists in different shapes, types and sizes (Beebe & Timothy, 2009). Relationship networks may involve friendships, family members, romance and sexual attraction. They may also cover
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gender, co-workers, marriage and so forth (Anderson & Guerrero, 1998). With regards to the present study, three (3) types of human relationships with reference to their behavioural interdependence (or mutual influence which the two parties have on one another) are highlighted. This highlight establishes the scope of behavioural interdependence and inherent characteristics thereof. Based on the characteristics, and virtues involved the classification aids in comprehending the supposed teachers’ role of relating to their students.

The first and lowest level of relationships is the role relationships which are typically casual relationships developed at a task level. In role relationships, behavioural interdependence between two people is often temporal, replaceable and it lacks unique patterns of interaction (Guerrero, Andersen & Afifi, 2011). The second level consists of interpersonal relationships which are higher level human relationships than the former. At the interpersonal level, behavioural interdependence transcends mundane tasks to involve a fair degree of social-emotional connection. The mutual influence is higher and the patterns of interaction are unique and repeatable (Jones, 2009). The third level is close relationships which are characterised by qualities of an interpersonal relationship and go further to comprise the emotional attachment, fulfilment of needs, and irreplaceability (Guerrero et al., 2011).

From the above classification of human relationships, several implications can be deduced in understanding the nature of human relationships. Firstly, behavioural
interdependence or mutual influence presented by both relating parties is a key factor in determining the extent and depth of relationships. Secondly, a relationship is no longer a static but a dynamic entity. This means that, with an increase in a reciprocal influence, a relationship grows and moves from role through interpersonal to close levels (Jones, 2009). Thirdly, as the scope of relationships increases mutual influence also enlarges and stabilizes among and between the relating parties. Fourthly, in classroom settings, behavioural interdependence can be created and sustained based on a consistent display of the positive relational virtues by the teacher (Drake, 2010; Glasser, 1998).

### 2.3.1 Teacher-student relationships (TSRs)

Teacher-student relationships refer to a connection between teachers and their students (Fulford, 2015; Liberante, 2012). This relationship is said to be positive when their encounter and connection involves features like care, responsibility, mutual respect and supportive climate (Jones, 2009; Pianta et al., 2012). According to Giles (2008), the most important feature of the TSRs relies on what happens between a teacher and student. He views that at its lower level of conceptualization, relationship comprises of interpersonal space across which teacher and students interact. However, at a much higher level of conceptualization, positive TSRs constitutes bonding of teachers and students as they connect in the course of relating (Giles, 2008; Kesner, 2000).

In light of the above, the first view of interpersonal relationship presumes that relating normally takes place over this relational space between them. Giles (2008) further
purports that the interactions or transactions are exchanged from teacher to students or the reverse in the course of relating. Sometimes, the exchange in the relational space between teacher and student may be dominated by transmission, indicating that the exchange is greatly unidirectional; from teacher to student. In this situation, the relationship is asymmetrical and is characterised by information giving rather than information sharing (Giles, 2008; Piaget, 1960).

This type of relationship according to Palmer (1997) and Buber (As cited in Palmer, 2001), is referred to as “I-it” relationship which is characterised by teacher dominating the relational space and objectifying a student. In this situation, the teacher is a source of knowledge, whereas the student is a passive vessel to be fed knowledge from the teacher (Freire, 1970; Lukanga, 2013; Piaget, 1960). Palmer (1997) views that the symmetrical exchange process “I-thou” relationships are a better form of relating; this is because teacher and student tend to assume an equal position of power and priority in their interpersonal space (Manke, 1997; Piaget, 1960). This view, however, is limited in its scope by erroneously making an assumption that teacher-student interactions are equivalent to TSRs (Cooper, 2011).

The second view of relationships rests on the premise that interpersonal space is a necessary but not sufficient condition for effective relationships (Palmer, 1997; Veldman, et al., 2013). This view, therefore, upholds a connectedness quality of relating. The connectedness is characterised by not only an exchange of information in an interpersonal
space but also by the formation of a bond between teacher and student (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Palmer, 1997). The formation of a relational bond is a holistic quality of relating capable of influencing the whole person. For instance, arguing from an existentialist standpoint, Buber (1958) maintains that when a dialogue is dominated by the *I-Thou* pattern of relationship then, the two beings encounter one another, but the opposite happens when the *I-It* pattern of relationships dominates (Fulford, 2015; Palmer, 2001). According to Buber (1958), educational experience can only be successful when an inter-human dimension of relating between teacher and students is successfully realised (Glasser, 1998; Palmer, 2001). Apparently, Buber suggests that teachers need to relate with students as their fellow beings, and they should be able to see the other side of their students (Fulford, 2015; Hattie, 2012). In this context, teachers are warned to avoid objectifying students but relate with them as their fellow beings. Buber acclaims collegial and friendly relationships between teachers and students. He underscores the need for teachers’ willingness to influence students while displaying integrity, authenticity, presence, and availability to students (Palmer, 2001).

In the same vein, Palmer (1997) and Steiner (2004) trace the origin of this holistic inter-human bond from human self, which combines emotional, intellectual, spiritual and physical domains. Palmer (1997) illustrates that good teachers should join their self, students and subject matter in the fabric of life. They often draw on their own lives and induce their students. He postulates further that the inter-human connection good teachers make is not held in their chosen methods of teaching but in their hearts. By the term
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heart, Palmer (1997) implies the inward place where emotions, intellect and will unite in the human self (p.3).

From this assertion of the connectedness view, it can be gathered that: a meaningful teacher-student relationship transcends exchange and transaction that take place in the interpersonal space in the course of teaching and learning (or the task level). It entails that relationship formation goes beyond the limits of the teaching method, whether these methods are participatory or not in order to allow for connectedness to the learners and getting the learners connected to the subject. This view would appear to suggest the fact that teacher-student interactions are and may not be equivalent to their relationships but serve as a vehicle for teacher-student relationship building. Giles (2008) concurs with Kesner (2000) and Palmer (1997) positions by adding that teaching methods which dictate or standardise the kind of relational space should not be regarded as more significant than the positive TSRs. Similarly, teachers should not perceive TSRs as just a means to the attainment of academic goals. Instead, the positive TSRs ought to be perceived as an important end in itself (Fulford, 2015; Steiner, 2004).

Apparently, the connectedness argument appears to echo Anangisye (2006, 2010) in his argument that teaching is inherently ethical in its very nature and character. Thus, by virtue of their work teachers are called and serve a noble profession. Normatively, they ought to be first and foremost, motivated by values of humanity over material gain (Wood, 2002). The ethos of their profession inspires them to foster learners’ holistic
development while extending cooperation, care, respect and justice to their students (Carr, 2000; Campbell, 2003; Jones, 2009). Essentially, as argued by Fulford (2015), the foregoing argument demands that teachers work to promote the scope of their relationships with students over and above the task or activity level.

The necessity for connectedness and the sound relational atmosphere is also echoed in the Humanist Psychologist, Abraham Maslow. In his Human Needs Hierarchy, Maslow maintains that human beings are by their very nature constantly motivated by five hierarchical needs (Maslow, 1954). It follows that successful fulfilment of lower level needs is a necessary essential for the attainment of the higher ones (Maslow, 1954). The needs include; physiological, safety/security, affection/belongingness, esteem and self-actualization (Maslow, 1943, 1954). Though the Maslow hierarchy of human needs theory has gained relevance in many other fields like business, economics and sociology, its application in understanding learners’ needs in the field of education is of central significance. In particular to this study, it can be argued that a fulfilment of the affective needs of belongingness among students is not limited to peers and parents alone. Teachers in classrooms and schools have the lion’s share in gratifying for this innately ingrained need as a prerequisite to foster students’ engagement and success in their educational pursuit (Liberante, 2012). Arguably, successful TSRs aid students to cross over to the higher (esteem needs) of their social and academic achievements, while the failure to do so results in a destruction of students’ sense of belongingness, and eventually, propelling timidity and frustration (Glasser, 1998; Guerrero et al., 2011).
2.3.2 Building positive teacher-students relationships attributes/competencies

Simply put, competence refers to a complex combination of tacit and explicit knowledge, beliefs, skills, understanding, values, attitudes and desires which lead to effective, embodied human action in the world, in a particular domain (Crick, 2008 cited in the European Union, 2013, p. 9). Teachers’ competencies empower them as professionals, to think, know, feel and act as professionals (p. 12). Increasingly, teaching is linked to cognitive, psychosocial and administrative demands (Hattie, 2012; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Consequently, such demands make climbing the ladder of professional maturity more challenging to teachers (Little, 2006; Weiss & Kiel, 2013). Therefore, their initial education is viewed as a precursor experience for this journey through orienting them to the basic competencies and expectations (Little, 2006). Literature suggests that there is a consensus among educators that building positive relationships between teachers and students has moral implications. It requires a thorough orientation on the side of teachers (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Sands, 2011; Liberante, 2012). Certainly, competencies ought to be part and parcel of initial teacher education (Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Cooper, 2011).

Hamre and Pianta (2005) and Pianta et al. (2012) also add that positive TSRs can be promoted by providing student teachers with knowledge about the pro-relational virtues, followed by a guided real life classroom practices. Equally important is the provision of a remedy and individualised feedback to student teachers on the observed patterns of the relational building. The more teachers are exposed to the actual relational interactions
with students the more confident and sensitive they become in handling relationships in future (Hamre & Pianta, 2005; He & Levin, 2008).

Jones (2009) points out that positive TSRs can be qualitatively measured. He opines that effective TSRs in schools emerge as a product of supportive structures, supportive initiatives, and more importantly, supportive behaviours on the side of teachers (Cooper, 2011). Teachers should be able to constantly reflect and determine the degree to which they relate to students based on their behaviours in the classroom and at school (Cushman, 2003; Pianta & Walschy, 1996; Palmer, 1997). The cognition of the degree of relationship provides the basis for improvement. Jones (2009) cautions teachers that TSRs should not be regarded as a dichotomy of good or bad because positive TSRs exist in a continuum. Thus, assessment of their own relational behaviours with their students can help teachers to determine the level of their relational status in the continuum and provides room for remedy and improvements (p. 7). Table 2.1 below presents the TSRs continuum.
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Table 2.1 Teacher-student relationships support continuum levels

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Relationship Framework</th>
<th>Learning Relationship-Support for Students from Teacher</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>0-ISOLATED</strong></td>
<td>Student feels significantly isolated by a teacher.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student lacks an emotional and social connection to teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1-KNOWN</strong></td>
<td>Teacher knows the student. Teacher shows some awareness of student’s interests, aspirations, interests and challenges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2-RECEPTIVE</strong></td>
<td>Teachers have contact with teachers in multiple settings. Teachers exhibit positive behaviours of “being there” that show genuine interest and concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3-REACTIVE</strong></td>
<td>Teachers provide help to students when requested, but support may be sporadic and inconsistent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4-PROACTIVE</strong></td>
<td>Teachers take some initiative to show interest and provide support. Students express verbal commitment for ongoing support and validate their dedication with their actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5-SUSTAINED</strong></td>
<td>Presence of extensive, ongoing, pervasive, and balanced support from teachers, that is consistent and sustained over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6-MUTUALLY BENEFICIAL</strong></td>
<td>Positive relationships are everywhere and commonplace in the way that teachers support the student as a learner.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source*: Modified from Jones (2009) and Sands (2011).

From Jones (2009) levels of TSRs, the following observations can be made: Firstly, the building of positive teacher-student relationships calls for teachers’ awareness and demonstration of the TSRs competencies. This is because positive relationships have to be nurtured and could not be an automatically occurring phenomenon. Secondly, teacher-student relationships are subject to growth and continuity and exist in a magnitude. Thirdly, teachers are key players in forming and promoting the positive relationships with their students by sustaining behavioural interdependence between them in the course of routine interactions. Hence, from these assumptions, it is imperative that teachers are supposed to be well equipped with TSRs knowledge, beliefs, and perceived
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self-efficacy to be able to usher in positive relationships whenever dealing with their students.

Literature provides that in a classroom or school context, the following sets of strategies have proven to be effective in sustaining positive relationships: First, communicating positive expectations. Studies by Veldman et al. (2013) and Van-Uden, Ritzen and Peters (2013) have shown that teacher’s expectation on students’ performance has a positive impact on their behavioural and academic outcomes. In addition, it works to promote student self-confidence, promotes their attachment to class, and gravitate their self-esteem (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). It is important for teachers to tell and encourage their students regularly that they have the ability to do well.

Second, correcting students in constructive ways (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Hamre & Pianta, 2005). In this approach, teachers need to realise that the objective for correcting students is to have students reflect on what they did, be sorry and make a better choice in future, at the same time communicating care and respect for the student. Ironically, some teachers administer corrections as a way to punish a student out of anger, frustration and disappointment (Spaulding, 2005). According to Boynton and Boynton (2005), teachers ought to follow the four philosophical precepts when correcting students, namely; correct students in a private location, treat students with care and love, stay calm and avoid frustration (Rothland, 2013; Travis, 1985). Teachers ought to employ behavioural
management strategies that show care and expectation as opposed to anger, hatred and vengeance (Glasser, 1998; Spaulding, 2005).

Third, teachers ought to develop positive classroom pride by displaying parental approval and enthusiasm on students’ accomplishments (Meier, 2005). Teachers are expected to demonstrate that they care and they exist to see students succeed in their academic and life in general (Jones, 2009). This may go hand in hand with displaying students’ works and reinforce students verbally (Boynton & Boynton, 2005). Teachers should use students’ strength to build up their self-esteem and confidence in themselves. During their teaching, teachers are required to display courtesy and respect to students’ perspectives. Teachers are advised not to ridicule their students’ perspectives no matter how stupid they might be (Pianta et al., 2012).

Fourth, engaging in frequent social conversations with students to enable a teacher to show interest and spend some time talking with students about a non-academic world. This allows the teacher to listen to them and advise them in a social tone (Hamre & Pianta, 2005). Teachers should make themselves available to students who are having hard times in both academic and social related matters (Campbell, 2003; Drake, 2010). It is necessary that out of their busy schedule, teachers slot in a short time and let students feel free to see them.
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Fifth, avoiding and reducing frustrations and stress. It has been argued that frustrations and stress are unavoidable in the teachers’ work (Rothland, 2013; Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Christensen et al., 1995). Teachers are in their daily professional engagements bombarded with a myriad number of complex issues as they deal with students from varied backgrounds (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Cooper, 2011). In this context, teachers are supposed to have a meticulous grasp of students’ emotional, moral and psycho-social world to be able to help them adjust and benefit from a learning process (Pianta et al., 2012; Vogt & Rogalla, 2009). Frustrations and stress may distort teachers from making rational decisions (Price, 2008). Teachers must at all times prevent or reduce frustrations when dealing with students to avoid distracting their relationships (Rothland, 2013; Sands, 2011).

Sixth, teachers as a role model who sets an example before students (Spaulding, 2005). Educators converge on the view that teachers’ conducts have far-reaching impacts on the lives of their learners (Anangisy, 2006; Campbell, 2003, Steiner, 2004). Teachers’ relational culture and values they display amongst themselves influence the students’ perceptions of relationships (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008). Students spend at least one-quarter of their working hours in schools with their teachers (Pianta et al., 2012). To teachers, this is enough time to influence students and model them as they relate among themselves.
In the same vein, Pianta, Hamre & Allen (2012) observe that classrooms are complex social systems and are inherently built on successful relationships between teachers and students. They stress that fundamental to effective student engagement rest on the quality of relationships between teacher and students (Pianta et al., 2012). Drawing from the Attachment Theory, they posit that when teachers provide emotional support in a predictable, consistent and safe environment, students become more self-reliant and are able to take risks as they know that an adult will be there to help them if they need assistance (p. 372).

In his model to TSRs, Jones (2009) posits that forming positive TSRs is a key to realising student’s cognitive, emotional and social engagement in school (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Drake, 2010). More importantly, Jones (2009) and Doncan-Morgan (2009) critique the traditional classroom management styles for creating an impression that a classroom is a place for students to conform to rules rather than a place for collaboration among personal beings (Cushman, 2003; Palmer, 1997). As it is, “classroom management” principles originate from the Industrial model of human resources management. The model is by its very nature restrictive, rigid and demands efficiency as opposed to relationship building and collaboration (Glasser, 1998). Table 2.2 summarises the differences in the characteristics of the two classroom management practices.
Table 2.2 Differences between the traditional and the relational classroom practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Domain</th>
<th>Traditional Management</th>
<th>Relational Building</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom rules</td>
<td>Mandated</td>
<td>Negotiated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Without question</td>
<td>Power with respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notion of values in relating</td>
<td>Means to academic ends</td>
<td>Important end in itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation of effectiveness</td>
<td>Student passive and quiet</td>
<td>Student actively engaged [C, E, B]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk taking</td>
<td>Discouraged</td>
<td>Encouraged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control mechanism</td>
<td>Punishment/ negative feedback</td>
<td>Positive reinforcement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary teacher’s role</td>
<td>Absolute attention</td>
<td>Source of encouragement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Jones (2009).

From the review of strategies for positive TSRs and the practices alluded in Table 2.2, it would appear that novice teachers need a formal orientation to be able to proficiently handle the relational exchange. Like any other teachers’ professional competencies their ability to form and sustain positive TSRs would increase with professional maturation (Little, 2006; Vogt & Rogalla, 2009).

2.3.3 Building positive TSRs through communication

Communication plays a critical role in TSRs (Kok, 2012; Wubbel et al., 1993). Bad communication deters relationships whereas good communication forms, develops and sustains it (Guerrero, Andersen & Afifi, 2011). Teacher-student communication is another important area of concern when reflecting on positive TSRs. As observed in the preceded discussion by (Giles, 2008; Jones, 2009; Palmer, 1997). Teachers connect with their students as they communicate expectations, share experiences, transmit or transact
subject matter in school settings. In this regard, a teacher-student communication and
how communication patterns are handled resonate with TSRs (Beebe & Timothy, 2009;
Mc Croskey & Teven, 1997).

Aristotle in his earliest rhetorical approach to communication, as presented in the book
Art of Rhetoric published in 333 B.C postulates that three factors are necessary for
effective persuasion namely; ethos, pathos, and logos (Aristotle, 1926). Ethos entails,
personal character and reputation of the speaker; pathos, refers to the speaker’s ability to
hook and stimulate emotions of the audience and; logos involves logical or rational
nature of the argument or message presented (p. 32). The implication for teacher-student
communication is that in order for teachers to be successful in their occupation,
communicative relational elements are crucial for their students to recognise them as
credible (ethos). Similarly, their instructional process, both verbal and non-verbal should
appeal to students and stimulate their affective response (pathos). Lastly, their
presentation should be rational and convincing (logos).

The relational approach to instructional communication, however, views the rhetorical
approach by Aristotle as inadequate to effective communication because of its emphasis
on the source (source-centeredness) (McCroskey & Teven, 1997). Relational Approach
upholds the instructional relational communication process involving both teacher and
student in a mutual creation and use of verbal and non-verbal message (Beebe &
Timothy, 2009). In this milieu, the focus is not only on the message content but also in
the mutual relations and behavioural outcomes between teachers and students as key actors. It draws on the contemporary educational theory that meaning can be mutually created and equally shared in a relational climate (Sands, 2011).

The relational approach, therefore, underscores the importance of how the teacher and student respond to one another in a collaborative process (Mc Croskey & Teven, 1997). It advocates for teacher’s observation of elements like relational power, humour, clarity, immediacy, affinity and credibility (Drake, 2010; Beebe & Timothy, 2009). Relational responses between teacher and students propel teacher’s motivation to teach at the same time promote students’ motivation to learn (Beebe & Timothy, 2009; Price, 2008). It stresses that teacher’s non-verbal messages and behaviours during interaction create meaning in their relationships with students. Leary (1957) opines that healthy relational communication discharges and invites constellation of interpersonal reflex, which is observable and expressive of face-to-face social behaviours constituting a response to the interpersonal situation of the relating parties (p. 61).

Extending on Leary’s (1957) work, Wubbel, Creton, Levy and Hoymayer (1993) present a comprehensive analytical tool to interpersonal teacher-student behaviour based on communication behaviour patterns. The analysis provides a vital contribution to efforts to describe and provide language to different patterns of relationships occurring between teachers and students (pp. 13-18). Wubbel et al. (1993) identify two-dimensional attributes, namely Proximity (cooperation and opposition) and Influence (domination and
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...submission). Proximity depicts the degree of closeness; that is cooperation or opposition between a teacher and a student in their communication. Influence indicates who is in control or domination of the communication, how and how often (Wubbel et al., 1993). The dimensions of proximity and influence are considered to exist as a continuum and are therefore flexible over time, space and prevailing conditions of teacher-student interpersonal behaviour (Gupta & Fisher, 2011). The combination of teacher-student behaviour as they communicate projects the pattern of interpersonal behaviour. These patterns of interpersonal behaviour are plotted within the eight major coordinates of proximity-influence dimensions as presented in Figure 2.1 below:
From the eight sectors in Figure 2.1, eight interpersonal teacher-student behaviours are identified namely leadership (in DC), helpful and friendly (in CD), understanding (in CS), and student responsibility and freedom (in SC). Others include uncertain (in SO), dissatisfied (in OS), admonishing (in OD) and strict (in DO) (Wubbel et al., 1993; Gupta & Fisher, 2011). Table 2.3 below presents key characteristics of teacher-student interpersonal behaviour mentioned above.
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Table 2.3 Characteristics of interpersonal teacher-student relationships as revealed in their communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sn</th>
<th>Interpersonal behaviour pattern</th>
<th>Teacher-student communication characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Leadership (in DC)</td>
<td>Teacher shows leadership qualities, makes student attentive to tasks and assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Helpful/Friendly (in CD)</td>
<td>Teacher exercises friendship and help students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Understanding (in CS)</td>
<td>Teacher shows understanding and extends caring behaviour to students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Student responsibility and freedom (in SC)</td>
<td>Teacher respects student’s autonomy and gives freedom to students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Uncertain (in SO)</td>
<td>Teacher shows more submission less opposition, lack of clear direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Dissatisfied (in OS)</td>
<td>Teacher demonstrates opposition, dissatisfaction with students’ responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Admonishing (in OD)</td>
<td>Teacher demonstrates anger, temper and impatient behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Strict (in DO)</td>
<td>Imposition of strict demands by teacher and need for conformity/compliance from students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Wubbel et al. (1993)

In the context of the present study, the synthesis given by Wubbel et al. (1993) as presented above would appear to reiterate two important conjectures. First, communication carries a relational message; therefore, teachers ought to adapt communication patterns that communicate their good intentions when interacting with their students in order to enhance positive TSRs. Second, the model depicts variations in the interpersonal behaviours based on communication patterns; this provides teachers with the relational matrix upon which to navigate their communication patterns in view of fostering positive TSRs (Maulana et al., 2011; Spaulding, 2005).
On the other hand, their analysis falls short in addressing TSRs in its entirety by making an assumption that the positive TSRs relationships are contingent upon interpersonal communication behaviour only. The model does not include non-verbal aspects of communication which according to the recent studies are equally critical in promoting TSRs (Beebe & Timothy, 2009). In addition, the model describes what happens between teacher and students in the course of classroom communication, little is said on how such communicative competencies can be acquired by teachers in shaping their intrapersonal abilities in the first place, which could then result in healthy interpersonal patterns of their communication with students (Maulana et al., 2011). Much as we need positive teacher-student relationships to characterise classrooms and schools; an important question remains: do we prepare our student teachers to fulfil this fundamental requirement?

2.4 Student teachers’ motivational reasons for choosing the teaching profession

According to Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herman (1951), career choice is influenced by the interplay of several factors including one’s perception of his or her abilities, preferences, interests as well as the harmony between these factors and job requirements. On their qualitative—phenomenological study among teachers in Germany, Schutz, Crowder and White (2001) observed that career choice is a product of individual aims and interests, family influences, and available job offers. They also add professional relevant experiences, as well as, a subjective assessment of one’s abilities to be imperative to teachers’ career choice.
From the aforesaid findings, it can be observed that student teachers make their decision to enter the teaching profession as a result of different reasons or factors at different times and places. For instance, in Tanzania, the study by Anangisye (2006) and HakiElimu (2011) revealed that the teaching profession has over the recent years been accessed by student teachers as the last resort or as stepping stone towards better-paying professions and jobs. In the account of the above studies, a small proportion of the teachers joined the teaching profession because of love and commitment to teaching. In this regard, their choice was instigated by the hope that with teaching, they would at the end of their teaching course be able to secure employment to start with, and they would continue to search for better careers of their choice.

In Germany, studies conducted by Terhart and Kotthoff (2013), and Weiss and Kiel (2013) reveal that student teachers at different school levels and specialisation had different reasons for their choice of the teaching profession. Terhart and Kotthoff (2013) show further that the teaching profession in Germany is still accessible for members of less educated social status when compared to other fields of study like Law, Medicine and Engineering. This implies that influences from families, as well as social status, are among the determinants of career choices among student teachers. Teaching has continued to attract student teachers with relatively low Abitur\(^1\) results (p. 79). This would appear to suggest that students’ ability as indicated by their examinations

\(^1\) *Abitur* [In Germany education system] this refers to the National Examination results attained after a secondary education that gives students merit for any university education. Based on these results students can be selected to join different university fields of study.
performance was a relevant consideration in their career choice (Terhart & Kotthoff, 2013; Weiss & Kiel, 2013).

In light of the above claims, the question: why one wants to become a teacher? has recently experienced a growing attention by researchers across the globe. Arguably, the attention is exacerbated by increasing attrition rates of teachers out of education systems within their first few years of their service (Packman & Mahon, 2011; Chan, 2004). Probably, the most relevant question in line with the present study was what could be the implication of student teachers’ motivation to the quality of TSRs in schools, given a varied nature of student teachers’ motivations at their point of entry (Packman & Mahon, 2011; HakiElimu, 2011). Van Uden et al. (2013) assert that teacher’s held motivational reason for choosing to join teaching determines their professional commitment as observed in students’ engagement and interaction behaviours. It follows that the more intrinsically motivated the student teachers feel to choose the teaching profession; the better would be their commitment to engage with their students (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Vansteenkiste & Deci, 2006).

2.5 Teacher education

Teacher education is a service activity for an education system (Lukanga, 2013; Townsend & Bates, 2007). It entails all processes through which prospective and in-service teachers are enabled to acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours they require to perform their teaching tasks effectively in the classroom, school and
community (Cooper, 2011; Frostenson, 2015). Arguably, the attainment of quality education has a direct link to the quality of teacher education at a given education system (Li, 1999; Bhalalusesa, Westbrook & Lussier, 2011).

Carr (2000) compares initial teacher education to a form of teacher professional initiation which is characterised by a well-established body of theoretical and practical grounded experiences. He posits that teacher education should be structured in such a way that at graduation, student teachers are well equipped to facilitate teaching and learning, develop their students’ potentials and abilities, serve as role models, and help to promote students’ self-confidence and creativity in a well rewarding atmosphere (Campbell, 2003; Hong, 2010).

Hager and Hodkinson (2011) and Ronfeldt and Grossman (2008) opine that teacher education should be regarded as a process of fostering “becoming” than a mere “train-to-teach”. To this end, teacher education among other things must construct and develop in student teachers (novices) identities that fit in the teaching profession (Dall’Alba, 2009; Mulcahy, 2011; Sexton, 2008). Identities in this context refer to a relatively stable constellation of knowledge, beliefs, values (competencies) that translate how student teachers define themselves in their teaching professional roles (Hong, 2010; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008).
Central to the effective formation of these identities is the prerequisite that teacher education duration, ought to be structured as a transitional and transformational time (Dall’Alba, 2009). It should permit student teachers to successfully negotiate their own image, beliefs and values in the image, beliefs, motives and values reflected them in their teacher education programme (Rodfeldt & Grossman, 2008, p. 43). Similarly, as student teachers adopt new roles, they must also learn to negotiate their personal identities with their professional roles. Indeed, in this context, Rodfeldt and Grossman (2008) support Schon (1983; 2008) on the primacy of a constant reflective practice (both reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action) in the construction of the professional identity among student teachers (Bhalalusesa et al., 2011; Sexton, 2008; Schon, 2008).

Teacher education can be categorized into two basic types based on the purpose for teacher education; namely, initial teacher education and continuing teacher education or alternatively, pre-service and in-service teacher education, respectively (Bhalalusesa et al., 2013; Green, 2014). Initial teacher education involves a pre-service course attended by teacher trainees before their commencement of actual teaching in schools. In some contexts, newly recruited teachers in schools after their initial teacher education may be given intermediate support and training within the first few years of teaching in order to help them adjust well and cope with professional realities in schools (Cooper, 2011; He & Levin, 2008). Intermediate support constitutes an induction teacher programme. Continuing teacher professional development (CPD) is an in-service teacher education which targets at specific learning needs of practicing teachers (Esu, 1999; Hager &
Hodkinson, 2011). It provides a vital platform for professional teachers to continually update, develop and reflect on their professional competencies.

The major components in initial teacher education include first, improving the general educational background of the teacher trainees through grounding them in the theories and concepts of educational foundations, educational psychology, and sociology of education (Jones, 2010; Kuhlee, 2012). It also empowers them to master the curriculum and pedagogical theories, as well as educational management principles (Cooper, 2011). Second, promoting their mastery of the subject matter (in arts, natural or social sciences) for which they are prepared to teach. Third, promoting pedagogical competencies and their understanding of children’s learning process. Fourth, developing and promoting professional skills and competencies (Carr, 2000; UNESCO, 2002). It should be noted that the emphasis on these components of teacher education may vary with respect to time, place and the purpose of the teacher education.

In theory, there are two conventional models of pre-service or initial teacher education programmes. These are concurrent and consecutive models (EACEA, 2009). As it will be shown with the review, these models are operational in Germany and Tanzania. Concurrent teacher education refers to the model where student teachers combine both subject-matter such as Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Sciences and simultaneously completing the requirement for Bachelor of Education or professional education courses. In the concurrent model, it is assumed that student teachers have achieved sufficiently
high marks in their high school courses to qualify them to enter a programme. In a consecutive model, it follows that after attaining Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science or its equivalent, student teachers are enrolled for a year or two in the faculty of education to receive their Bachelor of Education, Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) or a Master degree in other cases (EACEA, 2009; Li, 1999).

2.6 An overview of Tanzania and Germany secondary school teacher education

Comprehending teacher education is a precursor to grasp the underlying assumptions, beliefs, and philosophies that inform teacher professionalism (Carr, 2000; Campbell, 2003). As an important aspect of the education system of any country, teacher education and teacher professionalisation are usually influenced by socio-cultural contexts (Frostenson, 2015; UNESCO, 2002). This section reviews current Tanzania and Germany secondary school initial teacher education in view of shedding light to the features influencing teacher professionalism and its implications for TSRs competencies.

2.6.1 Secondary school teacher education in Tanzania

Initial teacher education which prepares secondary schools teachers in Tanzania is at present offered by two types of institutions, namely: colleges of teacher education and universities, both public and private (TIE, 2007; UDSM, 2012). Colleges of teacher education are centrally administered by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. Except for the private colleges which subscribe only to policy and curricular administrative functions of the ministry, public colleges rely predominantly on the
government in matters pertaining to financing, manpower allocation and curricular arrangements (Tanzania Institute of Education [TIE], 2007).

As a principle, the colleges of teacher education admit for initial teacher education student teachers who have successfully completed Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (ACSEE). Their training end with a summative evaluation managed country-wide by the National Examination Council of Tanzania (NECTA). Upon successful completion of two-year training, they are awarded Diploma of Secondary Education (DSE). More often than not, fresh teachers (with Diploma and Undergraduate qualification) are permanently employed to teach in secondary schools after one year of successful probationary teaching in the respective level (Bhalalusesa et al., 2011; MoEC, 1995; URT, 2009).

During the two years of college education and training, student teachers study academic and professional courses in a concurrent modality. The academic part is provided in order to improve student teachers’ mastery of two teaching subjects (in social sciences or natural sciences). The professional part covers educational core courses in Educational Foundations, Educational Psychology Guidance and Counselling, Educational Research Measurement and Evaluation and, Curriculum and Teaching. In addition, General Studies and Project Methods are offered as general courses (TIE, 2007).
Each academic year is divided into two terms which are predominantly theoretical sessions. The practical session, known as Block Teaching Practice (BTP) normally comes immediately after every second term of the academic year (MoEVT, 2012). During the BTP students spend between five to seven (5-7) weeks attached to secondary schools for an actual field teaching practice, under the guidance of subject teachers and college tutors. Assessment is conducted during the block teaching practice and a grade is given as part of their continuous assessment (Lukanga, 2013; TIE, 2007).

The university-based initial secondary teacher education admits student teachers who have successfully completed the Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (ACSEE), with comparatively higher grades than in the Diploma of Secondary Education (DSE). The minimum entry qualifications in the universities are currently set and regulated by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) (University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), 2012). Competition for university positions in Tanzania is very high that besides having minimum entry qualifications many students are left out (UDSM, 2012).

Universities prepare degree student teachers leading to the awards of Bachelor of Arts with Education (B.A. Ed.), Bachelor of Science with Education (B.Sc. Ed.), Bachelor of Education Arts, and Bachelor of Education Science degrees. These teachers are prepared to teach at secondary school levels (UDSM, 2012). Henceforth, like in the Diploma for secondary education tier, the universities in Tanzania currently use the three (3+) years
duration, concurrent model. In addition, the University of Dar es Salaam offers a one year Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) which employs a consecutive model (UDSM, 2012). An academic year is divided into two semesters (First and Second Semesters) entirely for theoretical instruction. After which student teachers are assigned to secondary schools for practical training. Practical training usually takes up to eight (8) weeks and is always assessed and evaluated (UDSM, 2012).

Newly qualified teachers both at Diploma and first university degree levels are as a rule posted to secondary schools to work for one year probationary time (TIE, 2007). Theoretically, the probationary time is meant to cater for a smooth transition of newly qualified teachers, and to allow for professional support and adjustments while on the actual school environment (URT, 2009). Townsend and Bates (2007) view this as induction time where critical decisions for their commitment to the profession, shaping attitudes, beliefs and practices, and a crossing bridge to enter the professional world are made. Literature gathers that successful transition coupled with teacher professional support has been linked to better career prospects, and professional commitment (Hager & Hodkinson, 2011; Townsend & Bates, 2007).

Notwithstanding the present initial teacher education arrangements and models in Tanzania, studies show that the quality of initial teacher education has from time to time been affected by sets of problems operating at the organisational level and within the context of teacher education itself (Galabawa et al., 2000). These factors are important in
understanding teachers’ quality and their TSRs competencies in particular. For instance, at the organisation level of the initial teacher education, there has been a question of frequent curricular changes in the quest for expanding teacher supply in the country. More often than not, such expansionary approaches have been carried out at the expense of the quality of the initial teacher education; both at Diploma and University levels (Galabawa, et al., 2000; Lukanga, 2013; Wedgwood, 2005).

Literature in Tanzania reveals the notable curricular changes in 1980s where public universities passed the decision to lower Bachelor of Science entry points into education (Science) from 4.5 to 3.5 points (equivalent to 3 E’s level of pass) in order to get enough students teachers to cater for a demand of science teachers in secondary schools (Osaki, 2004). The same decision was made at Diploma of Secondary Education level by admitting into initial student teachers with weak passes for science subjects (Lukanga, 2013; Osaki, 2004).

In the last decade during the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) (sponsored the World Bank and other development partners from 2004 to 2009) the initial teacher education experienced serious alterations (Mungai, 2004, 2005). As a response to high enrolments and increased number of community secondary schools, initial teacher education was reduced from 2 years (in college) to one year at Diploma level (MoEC, 1995; Mungai, 2005); and from four (4) years to three (3) years in the university-based initial teacher education (Osaki, 2004). In the same line, in view of curbing the growing
deficit of teachers in secondary schools, advanced secondary school students were given a few weeks crash programme training on basics of teaching and were “licensed” to teach in secondary schools (Mungai, 2005; Osaki, 2004).

From the above scenarios, changes made in the duration of initial teacher education in view of recruiting many teachers to grapple with the growing demand for teachers in secondary schools have had the following implications: firstly, dilution of both academic and professional rigour by dropping off important courses in the initial teacher education programme (Kaphesi, 2013). For instance, this resulted in the reduction in the required number of compulsory units from 120 to 90 (Osaki, 2004; UDSM, 2005). In the University of Dar es Salaam, for example, courses such as Sociology of Education, Psychology of Child Development were removed from a list of compulsory education courses (UDSM, 2004, 2005). Such courses were viewed very foundational for student teachers to develop an awareness of students’ emotional and social characteristics which is central to TSRs knowledge building (Hamre & Pianta, 2006; Pianta et al., 2012).

Secondly, it is argued that the above changes in the minimum entry qualifications and duration of initial teacher education had attracted into the teaching profession academically weak students as a result of a weak regulatory framework (Anangisye, 2006; Boimanda, 2004). Thirdly, it produced half-baked teachers who were denied of their supposedly time of professional preparation. Certainly, teacher professional maturity is viewed as a product of well-structured practical and theoretical orientations.
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(Bhalalusesa et al., 2011; Campbell, 2003; Carr, 2000). Fourthly, the changes have reduced the aim of initial teacher education from that of producing reflective practitioners with autonomy in handling teaching and learning situations, to mere training of student teachers for routine tasks of a teacher, whose aptitude in handling delicate relational issues with students could be questionable (Giles, 2008; Kaphesi, 2013; Lukanga, 2013).

Fifthly, alterations brought into the teaching profession student teachers with poor or weak motivation for the teaching career. Many joined the teaching profession as their last resort (Anangisye, 2006). For example, the study by HakiElimu (2011) showed that only 41% of teachers in Tanzania secondary schools joined the teaching profession because of their intrinsic motivation and were passionate about teaching. As explained above, teachers’ motivation and beliefs about teaching are critical determinants of their levels of job satisfaction, enthusiasm, commitment as well as students’ engagement (Klassen, 2009; Van-Uden, 2013; Veldman, 2013).

In a general note, the initial teacher education has been characterised by elements of both fragility and inconsistency (Osaki, 2004; Wedgwood, 2005). On account of these situations, two reasons can be given: firstly, the desire by the authorities to ensure adequate and stable supply of qualified teachers in secondary schools has not been realised. This is due to the fact that enrolments in schools have been growing faster than the number of teachers graduating from initial teacher education, who would finally be retained in the teaching profession (HakiElimu, 2011; Wedgwood, 2005). As a remedy,
the government has from time to time opted for possible alterations in the initial teacher education curriculum (Ishumi, 2009). Eventually, these alterations have been detrimental to the quality of teacher education by substituting teachers’ quality for their quantity (Galabawa et al, 2000; Osaki, 2004; Wedgwood, 2005).

Secondly, teacher education in Tanzania is perceived as an entry point for education goals and demands (UNESCO, 2002). Such demands include, but are not limited to: gender parity in education, universal basic education by 2015 and inclusive education. Others goals include education for democracy, increased accountability for achieving learning targets, competency-based learning, education for competencies in the knowledge-based economies, education for mindset transformation and recently the Big Results Now framework of action (MoEVT, 1999; URT, 1995; URT, 1999). In this context, it can be viewed that the initial teacher education has accumulated overambitious goals aiming at making teachers “jacks of all trades and masters of all” (Lukanga, 2013).

As a result, of overambitious decisions, curriculum planning for efficient initial teacher education has remained a far-fetched dream (Wedgwood, 2005). There is an increasing mismatch between what is taught in initial teacher education in contrast to the practices in schools (Kafyulilo et al., 2013). Worse still, this optimism in initial teacher education comes amidst teacher education environment constrained by limited physical, human and financial resources (Galabawa & Senkoro, 2000; Lukanga, 2013).
2.6.2 Secondary school teacher education in Germany

In Germany, teacher education for secondary schools teachers varies greatly across states (Länder). In general, secondary education begins at the age of eleven (11) but its duration varies with the type of specialisation, whether academic or vocational education (OECD, 2004; Van Beur, 2015). Initial teacher education which prepares secondary school teachers is structured to suit for the supply of teachers into different secondary school tiers (Jones, 2010). The Hauptschule tier (grade 5-10), this consists of less academic secondary schools leading to vocational education. Realschule tier (grade 5 to 11) leading to technical or business education. Gymnasium tier (grade 5 to 12), consisting of an academic-oriented tier that leads to Abitur examination whose results are a prerequisite for university education. In addition, the special needs teacher education is provided for special needs schools (Förderschule). In the state of Saxony, Mittelschule combines both the Hauptschule and Realschule tiers (Den Hertog & De Jong, 2002).

Over the years, some states (Länder) under the political influence of the Social Democratic Party (Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands (SPD), have tried to remedy the segregation effects of the tripartite system through the provision of comprehensive schools (OECD, 2004). Although the initial idea was to replace the three tiers secondary school, the idea did not work out (Jones, 2010). Rather than replacing it, the comprehensive schools have been added to the traditional system (Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013).
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The university-based initial teacher education in Germany is henceforth designed to prepare teachers to suit in the teaching of specific tier namely: *Hauptschule, Realschule and Gymnasium* (Den Hertog & De Jong, 2002; OECD, 2004). As a rule, in order to join a college or university for initial teacher education, student teachers must pass the *Abitur* which is a requisite for study in any German higher learning institution (Jones, 2010). However, based on the *Abitur* results, studies have claimed that the teaching profession has been accessed by students with lower academic performance in contrast to their fellow students joining other university degrees (Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013). This situation poses cynicism like in the case of Tanzania, whether or not their choice to join the teaching profession was instigated by the fact that the teaching profession was the only possible option among the possible options available to them, given their performance.

Before the Bologna Declaration of 1999 and its subsequent ongoing implementation in Germany, initial teacher education followed the traditional model (Hilligus, 2015). This model is characterised by two stages. The first stage takes place in a university or college of high education, and the second stage takes one (1) to two (2) years in teacher training seminars (*Lehrerseminar*) and selected training schools (*Seminarschulen*). While the curriculum in the former stage is determined by the university, the structure and curriculum of the latter are prescribed by the *Kultusministerium* of the federal state. This has resulted in some variations in the contents of teacher education in different states (*Länder*) (Jones, 2010; OECD, 2004).
At the university, student teachers study for four (4) to five (5) years depending on their specialisations. Courses offered at this level include, at least, two teaching subjects, educational theory and psychology, sociology and pedagogy. During the university-based stage, student teachers have to complete 3 months of teaching practice in schools. The university stage ends with First State examination, which includes thesis writing, written and oral examinations of the studied subjects, didactics and educational theory (Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013).

The second stage of teacher education comprises of 1 to 2 years of practical training (Referenderiat) which is autonomously carried out in teacher seminars and schools. Teacher seminars are institutes headed by seminar directors and staffed by seminar tutors as well as mentors who are school-based (Kuhlee, 2012). Student teachers are entitled to receive half a salary during their enrolment in the seminars (Jones, 2010; Van Buer, 2015). All the three tiers (pathways) share the basic structure of the course at this stage (OECD, 2014). Teacher training in seminars is divided into two main phases. The first phase consists of orientation which covers mainly induction and student teachers orientation. On the basis of student teacher’s performance, seminar director decides whether individual student teachers are ready for the next phase (Jones, 2010; Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013).

During the second phase of the seminar-based initial teacher education, the emphasis is given on the development of student teachers’ professional autonomy. Student teachers
spend two and half days in schools teaching and two days at the seminar (Van Buer, 2015). This is done to provide a link between practical experiences gained with theoretical knowledge at the same time allows the student teachers to reflect and evaluate their own performance. This stage of practical teacher training ends with summative evaluation called the Second State examination, which determines teachers’ professional status (Jones, 2010).

Literature gathers that the traditional model of teacher education has several inherent drawbacks. First, the problem of fragmentation of the teacher education programmes and content, where aspects of teacher training, academic and professional components are carried out in separate autonomous institutions ((Bargen, 2014; Jones, 2010; OECD, 2004). This has been accused of lacking discontinuity in the learning process and hampers efficient cumulative learning. Second, the university phase of teacher education has been placing more emphasis on academic mastery of the teaching subjects’ content than in the profession-oriented courses; especially for gymnasium student teachers. This imbalance had resulted to weak teachers’ professional skills (Kotthof & Terhart, 2013; Kuhlee, 2015). Third, the variation in the initial teacher education structure and content among the 16 states, had resulted to inflexibility for teachers trained in one state to teach in a different state (Jones, 2010; OECD, 2004).
The Bologna declaration\(^2\) of June 1999 is an important milestone in explaining the development of higher education in Europe and Germany in particular. This declaration, among other things, called for the adoption of easily readable and comparable degrees in order to promote European citizen employability and international competitiveness of European higher education (Borkach, 2013; OECD, 2004). The Bologna 1999 declaration suggests the adoption of undergraduate and graduate degree cycles. In this milieu, for access to the second cycle student teachers are required to have successfully completed the first cycle which lasts for a minimum of three years (Kotthof & Terhart, 2013; Kuhlee, 2015).

Following the Bologna Declaration, Germany has now embarked on a series of reform processes in higher education including the university-based initial teacher education (Hilligus, 2015; OECD, 2004). As the response, in October 2004, some universities had introduced the BA, MA model of teacher education (Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013). In this model, the completion of the B.A does not give student teachers access to the teaching profession irrespective of the school tier. The professional status is granted to student teachers after they have successfully completed the M.A Education and the Second State Examination (Zweite Staatprüfung) (Kuhle, 2012).

\(^2\) The Bologna Declaration is named after the Bologna accord of 1999. In this accord, 29 European countries created the Higher Education Area with the aim of ensuring equitable standards of higher education qualifications, and subsequently promoting mobility of factors of production within the area (Borkach, 2013).
In the Bachelor/Master model, there are currently two variants: first, the teacher-Bachelor programme, which prepares student teachers for the teaching profession followed by the M.A. Education (which is equivalent to the First State examination (Erstes Staatexamen). This has been adapted and is being offered by the universities in the states of Brandenburg, Hamburg, Saxony, and Rhine-Palatinate (Bargen, 2014; Terhart, 2007). However, currently, the state of Saxony offers the State examination tier of teacher education. 

Second, is the polyvalent Bachelor which is academically based on subjects with no educational courses; on completion it gives the student access to MA or M.A Education. This programme has been adopted and is being offered in Berlin, Bremen, Schleswig-Holstein and Lower Saxony. In Bavaria and Thuringia, the mixed model is used, where some universities offer the modularized State examinations and others offer the BA-MA model (Kotthof & Terhart, 2013).

It is further envisaged that the Bologna processes and reforms in Germany were (are) geared towards not only offering comparable competencies within the European job market but also, was an important moment to adjust and minimise internal teacher education disparities in order to foster uniformity and comparability amongst Germany states (OECD, 2004). The Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK) (translated as: The Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs) coordinates the structuring of the teacher education in order to bring uniformity in the teaching qualifications within the Germany states (KMK, 2005). This has been possible through defining and issuing obligatory modules, competencies and contents for the university-based initial teacher
education in the country (OECD, 2011). As of now, BA, MA courses of teacher education have acquired recognition in all states of Germany (Jones, 2010; Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013).

In a general note, the initial teacher education in Germany provides strong features of governance and control through the stable operation of legal instruments and the relatively rare use of alternatives or non-regulatory instruments (Hilligus, 2015; OECD, 2004). This quality, according to the Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD [PISA], 2011) report credited as the reason for enhancing Germany’s strong education system; and for producing competent teachers, capable of nurturing academic knowledge and skills in schools. In turn, school graduates feed into her excelling vocational, industrial and technological labour force of the country (OECD, 2010, 2011).

At present, therefore, the initial teacher education in Germany is the longest in Europe and it lasts for seven (7) years (Kuhlee, 2012; OECD, 2005). It comprises of 3+2 years of university-based BA/BSC+MA/MSC theoretical knowledge (focused on potential for practical problem solving) followed by 18 months to 2 years practical initial teacher education in schools (guided experiential knowledge) (Bargain, 2014; Kuhlee, 2012). Literature has shown, despite its strength, the teacher education needs to address the lack of communication between universities, centres of teacher education and schools in order to solve the problem of fragmentation in teacher competencies (Bargen, 2014, p. 8). As such, initial teacher education in Germany represents a mixed model characteristics (both
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consecutive and concurrent). As a whole, it can be described as consecutive, but since the first-degree phase requires completing some teacher professional courses like education theories, subject didactics, and school-based teaching practice, it can thus be described as a concurrent model as well (Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013; Buer, 2015).

2.7 Empirical studies on positive teacher-student relationships

This section reviews and compares some empirical studies from different countries conducted on TSRs. Subsequently, the review draws the implications of the studies on emerging issues associated with the contribution of initial teacher education to positive TSRs. The review has observed that many of the available studies were undertaken in the United States of America while fewer studies are recorded by the literature from other countries.

Raufelder et al. (2013) conducted an ethnographic study that aimed at generating a thick description of the TSRs in the context of schools among public secondary schools in rural Southern Germany. This six months study employed participant observation method and generated information on sociological principles that constituted the fundamental component of TSRs. This study was anchored on the developmental contextualism theory. The theory maintains that the dynamic interactions between teachers and students are composed of multiple cognitive and emotional patterns and processes that are affected by the socio-cultural context. That is, social learning experiences and social relationships are predictors of patterns of interaction between teachers and students.
The study revealed the following: firstly, the entire school life culture in rural South Germany manifests the unsupportive atmosphere for socio-emotional and relational aspects of learning. Secondly, they had too much focus on academic achievement that overlooked relational aspects between teachers and students (Raufelder et al., 2013, p. 13). Thirdly, both teachers and students experience unsatisfactory relational experience because relationships have been reduced to institutional roles, and there is no room to advance human (being-level) and pedagogical (role-level) interconnectedness, that would allow for sympathy, constructive and interactive cooperation. The study suggests for a remedial in-service programme to build teachers’ knowledge and social competencies to enable them to sustain the positive TSRs.

Though the study by Raufelder et al. (2013) presents a necessary realistic participants’ (teacher and students) experiences on relational aspect, the theory used in this study confined TSRs phenomenon to the forces within the socio-cultural context of schools. This argument may be true only when one accord a higher premium to the forces operating within the school community (Jones, 2009; Hamre & Pianta, 2006). However, when attempting to view a teacher as “professional” not only as a “social being” one would anticipate teachers to have the competencies to form and sustain positive relationships even in different social contexts. Indeed, the latter argument would appear to echo with the extent to which initial teacher education had empowered teachers with relational competencies (Meier, 2005; Liberante, 2012). The present study reaffirms that an effective professional preparation of teachers among other things, ought to promote
teachers’ relational competencies as a vital ingredient in teaching and learning (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008; UNESCO, 2009).

Sands (2011) studied on the relationship factor: understanding the role and development of TSRs in middle school. The study used grounded theory and explored the process by which relationships evolve between teachers and students in suburban Tennessee middle schools, United States of America (USA). Sands (2011) argues that relationships have a profound influence on students’ social and cognitive development (p.116). The need for the study emerged out of relative neglect of TSRs amidst No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, and American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (ARRA). The study, therefore, was envisaged to offer necessary component(s) in spearheading engagement in schools as propagated by the Acts.

Central to Sands (2011) findings was the fact that students clearly communicated the need for teachers who are motivated to teach the content, care for students and willing to help them (p. 189). It further revealed that for the academically motivated students transactional relationship (role relationship) between teachers and students was satisfactory, whereas students from at-risk environment needed security, and warmth to develop academic trust (Sands, 2011, p. 199). The study recommendations affirmed Johann Comenius (1592-1670), an educator and a thinker, who founded a school based on the culture of love and kindness and believed that teachers must be trained to provide practical, sensory lesson in a positive climate (Palmer, 2001).
The study by Sands (2011) converges with the present study in confirming that both, in-service and initial teacher education, must accord premium to socio-emotional and relational needs as integral parts of cognitive development (Jones, 2009). Teachers ought to embrace the holistic view of learner development (Liberante, 2012; Pianta & Walsch, 1996). Students must leave pre-service teacher education with a clear knowledge of the social nature of a class environment and the skills for connecting with students in order to reach all children (Sands, 2011, p. 203). Thus, the study by Sands (2011) has provided a school-based experience which serves as need assessment to the present study, in investigating the extent to which the university-based initial teacher education contributes to knowledge, beliefs and perceived self-efficacy student teachers need for effective TSRs in schools.

Fan (2012) studied TSRs and its impact on students’ academic achievement in social studies among secondary school students. This study utilised the *expost-facto* design in studying the inter-human factors and their association with students’ learning. It was conducted in Calabar, Cross River State in Nigeria. The study argues that classrooms are social systems in which teachers must interact with their students like members of the social system. Teachers’ success in the teaching and learning is contingent upon how successful relational atmosphere between teachers and students is established, maintained in a classroom and school.
Findings of the study revealed that a significant association exists between the TSRs and students’ academic performance in social studies. The study stresses those positive human relationships virtues of respect, patience, care, immediacy, and affinity which operate like lubricants of high productivity in a teaching and learning context. In this context, the study recommends that teachers in schools should employ cordial relations as they deal with students and among themselves (Jones, 2009). It calls for teachers in schools to embrace the fact that positive TSRs are the indispensable elements of high productivity (Fan, 2012; Meier, 2005).

Despite its gravity in support of the positive TSRs among teachers and between teachers and students, the study is silent on the proper onset for building teachers’ awareness and relational competencies to effectively promote the cordial relations in schools. Apparently, the approach suggested by Fan (2012) would appear to be more reactive to TSRs situation than a proactive one (Liberante, 2012; Price, 2008). The current study reiterates the fact that TSRs knowledge and competencies ought to be part and parcel of the initial teacher education. Initial teacher education is viewed as a platform for nurturing cordial virtues, competencies and commitment among student teachers (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Li, 1999).

In the study by Hamre and Pianta (2006), positive student-teacher relationship is viewed as a source of support for students in school. They present the fact that positive relationships served as a resource for students at risk of school failure, whereas conflict
or disconnection between teacher and students gravitate the risk. They observed that positive TSRs help the at-risk students to learn more adaptive behaviour and minimise the risk. The study presents that at school TSRs are influenced by firstly: individual factors like biological facts, gender, genetics and teacher’s mental health (that is responsiveness to stressors) (Hamre & Pianta, 2006, p. 51). Also, it is influenced by developed factors in the teacher like personality, self-esteem, social skills, perceptions, and teacher’s belief on the nature and essence of the relationships (Bandura, 1986; Klassen et al., 2009). It can be observed from their findings that while the former factors are naturally determined, the latter are within the capacity of an effective initial teacher education programme to nurture (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008).

Secondly, Hamre and Pianta (2006) observed that some external factors play a part in influencing relationships in schools. Since teachers do not relate or interact in isolation but they are part of a large school-community that may support or constrain the formation of positive TSRs (Jones, 2009). This means that TSRs and school climate in terms of structures and initiative at hand influences one another. This study proposes three (3) approaches to effective positive TSRs in schools namely; (1) organisation ethos in making schools and classroom a “caring communities” using its resources and structure; (2) promoting classroom ethos and characteristics of the teachers; and (3) social interaction between teacher and students (Hamre & Pianta, 2006, p. 53). However, the suggestions which were given by Hamre and Pianta (2006) amount to a reactive approach than proactive one in building teachers competencies towards positive TSRs. The need
exists as conceived in the present study, to educate initial student teachers and transform their competencies for the enhancement of positive TSRs in schools.

Price (2008) studied the impact of professional development on teachers’ perceptions of TSRs on school climate. This quantitative study involved in-service teachers who were enrolled in a professional development programme in the state of Alabama, United States of America. The study developed amidst the background of escalating moral crisis in schools, and failure of rules and class management programs. This had given rise to anxiety, stress, pandemonium, and burnout among teachers. As the result, teachers developed a negative attitude towards students. The post-intervention data showed that effective professional development practices had impacted perceptions and beliefs of teachers regarding TSRs as evidenced by the decrease in indiscipline cases in schools.

Price (2008) posits that TSRs is at the heart of the promotion of students’ character in school. Drawing on Mendler and Curwin (1999) the study argues that to change students in positive manner teachers must not throw them away. Instead they should bring students closer and make themselves part of the group (Cushman, 2003; Spaulding, 2005). In the study by Price (2008), the in-service teachers revealed that their initial teacher education did not promote their competencies whatsoever they needed to effectively relate with students in schools. The study, among other things, recommends for a more proactive, pre-service relational based initial teacher education as part of teacher professionalism. Price (2008) argues further that initial teacher education should
enable student teachers to leave their colleges and universities prepared to effectively relate with learners.

Knoell (2012) studied the role of TSRs in the lives of fifth graders in Nebraska, United States of America and employed a mixed method analysis. The study intended to promote a holistic understanding of what TSRs play in the lives of students. Using the Class Map Survey, qualitative data were correlated with students’ achievement data (a measure of academic progress). The findings of this study showed that students appreciated and valued a sense of humour; consistent help; active listening like game learning; and encouragement both oral and written. These findings echo with the Relational Approach to instructions which stress that teacher’ non-verbal messages are critical in the positive TSRs building (Beebe & Timothy, 2009).

The study by Knoell (2012) revealed that teachers’ relational virtues mattered more than teachers’ appearance. The study submits that an emotional bond enables students to recognise the school as a home away from home. It increases teachers’ dedication to students’ growth and consequently inspires students to meet academic and behavioural expectations. To that effect, inclusion of the positive TSRs competencies in the initial teacher education is of the essence (Knoell, 2012).

Literature from Tanzania provides no evidence of empirical studies conducted solely on TSRs in schools or teacher education contexts. The available studies on teacher
education, for example by Anangisye (2006, 2010); HakiElimu (2011); Hardman, Frank & Tibuhinda, (2012); Kafyulilo, et al. (2012); and Vavrus (2009) have majorly inclined on such themes as teacher professional ethics, teacher motivation and working conditions, teacher pedagogical competence and implementation of competency-based curriculum in teacher education (Hardman et al., 2012; Kafyulilo et al., 2012; Vavrus, 2009).

Tacitly, however, these studies project to the realities on the ground that is suggestive of: firstly, the poor or compromised relational climate in schools as indicated by overcrowded classrooms, unethical practices, poor or inadequate resource in schools, and poorly motivated workforce in schools (Anangisye, 2010; HakiElimu, 2011). Secondly, the weak quality of initial teacher education as evidenced by the lack of textual and non-textual resources, the presence of tutors in teacher education colleges who are not well versed with appropriate pedagogical approaches; poor mastery of pedagogical skills by student teachers and absence of teacher professional ethics related courses (Anangisye, 2006, 2010). The studies depict that as a consequence of the deprived environment in teacher colleges; student teachers are left to accumulate self-teaching survival skills (Anangisye, 2010; Kafyulilo, et al., 2012; Hardman et al., 2012). These studies, however, excluded the university-based initial teacher education.
2.8 Synthesis of the literature and knowledge gap

From the review, the following observations can be done: First, from the review of secondary schools’ teacher education in Germany and Tanzania, the initial teacher education operates in contexts whose efficiency in producing quality teachers is contingent upon among other things, organisational factors, trainees’ motivation, and curricular related variables. Although these factors exist in the different socio-economic backgrounds, the factors are instrumental in understanding the projected differences in teachers’ professional competencies and TSRs in particular.

Second, studies and theoretical contributions of different educators and researchers converge in acknowledging the significance of positive TSRs in teaching and learning process, as well as in students’ development as a whole (Jones; 2009; Jones et al., 1999; Hamre & Pianta, 2006; Knoell, 2012; Pianta et al., 2012). However, despite acknowledging the importance of positive TSRs in teaching and learning, most educators view the positive TSRs issue as an “add-on” element leading to another probably more important achievement (Price, 2008). On the contrary, this view as pointed by Cushman (2003), Giles (2008) and Meier (2005) derides the necessity of positive TSRs in teaching and learning processes as envisaged in this study.

Third, despite harmony reached by the educators and authors on the teachers’ role in promoting positive TSRs in school, studies have presented no evidence of integration of
the positive TSRs knowledge and other competencies in the initial teacher education. This study attempted to retrospectively investigate this role.

Fourth, whereas the present study regards the unfolding of positive TSRs as a continual process (Jones, 2009; Palmer, 1997), some studies view the TSRs as a dichotomous phenomenon (Price, 2008). This suggests not only a controversy or ambivalence in the conception of positive TSRs within the body of knowledge but also an inherent narrowness of its scope as understood by different studies and educators.

Fifth while the present study proposes a proactive approach to TSRs by developing positive teacher-student relationship attributes within initial teacher education, the literature presents divided views and elucidations regarding the same. For instance, studies by Hamre and Pianta (2006) suggest that relational learning abilities among teachers are the product of effective understanding of emotional and psychological aspects of student development through courses such as Psychology and Sociology of education. Others like Pianta et al. (2012), Price (2008), and Boynton and Boynton (2005) appear to relate such attributes to professional ability developed through the practical part of initial teacher education.

On the contrary to the latter views, educators like Anangisye (2006), Giles (2008), Jones (2009), Palmer (1997), Van Uden et al. (2013) and Weiss & Kiel (2013), maintain that knowledge of learner development and practical-based experience are both necessary but
not sufficient to enable student teachers form and sustain positive TSRs in schools. To them, the positive TSRs call for teachers’ sense of intrinsic motivation in serving their students (Anangisye, 2006; Campbell, 2003). This study offers an attempt to resolve the conflicting views by examining the implications of student teachers’ motivational dynamics for positive TSRs.

Sixth, the nature of positive TSRs which student teachers are expected to acquire can be summarised by an amalgam of five (5) characteristic features: namely, voluntarism, continuity, growth, mutualism, and transcendence. **Voluntarism** refers to the fact that as a phenomenon, positive relationship between a teacher and a student demands due recognition and efforts in terms of teachers’ skilled attentiveness and efforts to make it exist. **Continuity**: This refers to the fact that TSRs exist in a continuum (or levels) at a given time and place, and that its magnitude may be influenced by teachers’ knowledge, skills and commitments (Jones, 2009). **Growth**: unlike continuity, TSRs experience grows among and between the actors as a result of increased behavioural interdependence and support. **Mutualism**: at its highest level, TSRs are sustained by positive reciprocal feedback from each actor (Buber, 1958; Fulford, 2015). **Transcendence** is the notion that positive TSRs have to be holistic or comprehensive. This means that positive TSRs ought to characterise all that happens between them and beyond the ordinary range of perception (Fulford, 2015; Palmers, 1997).
Based on this review of positive TSRs phenomenon, this study sought to comparatively investigate the role of university-based initial teacher education in promoting positive TSRs competencies. The study investigated this role through examining the contribution of the initial teacher education in the positive TSRs knowledge, beliefs, and perceived self-efficacy within the framework of approaches and perspectives.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
In the previous chapter, literature related to the study was discussed and a research gap established. This chapter introduces the research paradigm and design deemed suitable for answering the research questions indicated in chapter one. This chapter begins by giving philosophical positioning of the mixed methods approach, and the rationale for its use in this study. It then describes the study design followed by data generation methods, analysis procedures, and discussion of the validity and credibility of procedures. The chapter also presents study the limitations and ethical procedures involved.

3.2 Purpose of the study
The study argues that positive TSRs are a critical determinant of the successes in students’ learning and development (Liberante, 2012; Spilt et al., 2012). As stated in the first chapter, the purpose of this study was to investigate the role of the university-based initial teacher education in positive TSRs. Primarily the study attempted to answer the main research question: does the university-based initial teacher education contribute to positive TSR competencies among student teachers? The study sought to comparatively describe the role of the initial teacher education through examining the change in student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy for positive TSRs. Indeed, the acquisition of positive TSRs knowledge, beliefs, and perceived self-efficacy calls for inclusion of meticulous pro-relational approaches and perspectives as an integral part of initial teacher education experience. Thus, initial teacher education as a basic stage of professional
initiation is duty-bound to uphold such aspects to enhance student teachers’ relational exchange abilities.

3.3 Research paradigm

A research paradigm refers to the fundamental beliefs, assumptions and worldviews which underpin scientific investigation (Saunders et al., 2009). Research paradigm underpins philosophical assumptions on how the world is perceived henceforth providing a thinking map that guides the researcher (Wahyuni, 2012). Research paradigm, among other things, guides research processes in the design of the study by putting forward a set of ontological, epistemological and axiological assumptions of the investigation. In general, major research paradigms encompass positivism and post-positivism: these are the oldest and widely known for their ontological position that reality is external and objective in its nature (Creswell & Garrett, 2008). In their axiology, the two paradigms employ strict separation of an observer from the observed; or researcher from the participants (Bryman, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). Interpretivism paradigm, on the other hand, anchors on the constructivist subjective view of reality. An interpretive paradigm believes that reality is uncovered from the meaning people attach to or make about phenomena (Creswell et al., 2007; Wahyuni, 2012).

3.3.1 Research paradigm and its rationale

This study was anchored on pragmatism as the guiding philosophical foundations for the research (Creswell et al., 2007; Creswell & Garrett, 2008). The paradigm’s development
is traced in the 19th Century in the works of its protagonists like William James and John Dewey (Kiklick, 2007). Pragmatism epistemological paradigm emerges to avoid the purist philosophical underpinnings (Creswell, 2009; Morgan, 2007). Pragmatism evaluates beliefs and theories based on their utility in practical application or its problem-solving power (Morgan, 2007, 2013). Pragmatism argues against the dualism of purist Positivist or Constructivist paradigms and embraces pluralism in an attempt to advance knowledge (Ary, Jacobs & Sorenson, 2010). Pragmatism, therefore, allows researchers to move beyond boundaries of paradigmatic domains to employ mixed methods which are suitable for addressing the research question (Bryman, 2006; Creswell et al., 2007; Creswell, 2009).

Purists in either Positivistic or Interpretive paradigm often argue that the qualitative and quantitative methods cannot and should in no way be mixed because of their inherent philosophical incompatibilities (Ary et al., 2010; Bryman, 2006). Pragmatism focuses on what works and shifts of energies away from both inherent strict philosophical underpinnings. It allows flexibility and focuses on actions and on what works (Creswell, 2008; Fisher, 2010). This study, therefore, was located in a post-paradigmatic domain and employed methodological diversity in addressing research questions about the role of university-based initial teacher education in TSRs. The rationales behind its verdict and application are presented below.
Firstly, the nature of some of the research sub-questions in the present study demanded both quantifiable and descriptive evidence to substantiate the study claims made elsewhere. For instance, measurement/examination of student teachers’ knowledge and perceived self-efficacy for TSRs as well as their comparative account between the countries (Tanzania and Germany), and sub-groups (beginner and final-year student teachers) could best be explained using both qualitative and quantitative information generated during the data collection, data analysis and data presentation. An attempt to confine this study to only qualitative or quantitative methodologies would deny the researcher the opportunity to understand the positive TSRs phenomenon from the two perspectives.

Secondly, in order to explore the TSRs phenomenon in the two countries from different research perspectives, the researcher needed flexibility in the data generation techniques (Bryman, 2007; Fisher, 2010). In the context of the present study, this was possible through employing both sets of data methods which allowed the researcher to offset potential barriers of contextual unpredictability, and henceforth, produced a more comprehensive picture of the phenomenon.

Thirdly, the researcher thought to free himself from being confined to the philosophical underpinnings at the expense of the liberty to choose ‘what worked best’ methodologically in the different stages of the study (Creswell & Garrett, 2007). This
could only be made possible by deploying a pragmatic epistemology as a guiding philosophy in the present study.

Fourthly, it is argued that all methods have inherent methodological weaknesses and strengths (Sounders et al., 2009). Through intentionally integrating the methods, it enabled the researcher to draw from their strengths while minimising weaknesses of each type of data. That is triangulation and complementarities (Ary et al., 2010; Creswell, 2009). Equally important, given the comparative nature of the present investigation, both quantifiable and descriptive information about the phenomenon (TSRs) was needed in order to adequately address the research sub-questions.

**Concurrent mixed method strand**

The mixed methods approach was informed by the concurrent/convergent strand of data integration (Creswell et al., 2007; Saunders et al., 2009; Teddly & Yu, 2007). Concurrent strand is an integration technique under mixed methods research which permits the researcher to simultaneously combine both quantitative and qualitative data sets in order to understand participants’ experiences of the phenomenon under study (Creswell et al., 2007). In this regard, data collection, analysis, and presentation consisted of merging data and comparing the two (qualitative and quantitative) data sets. This perpetuated confirmability since simultaneous perspectives (of qualitative and quantitative) were brought together. For instance, the convergence of qualitative and quantitative knowledge data was a necessary process in gaining the understanding of the positive TSRs as
experienced by student teachers. Later, the same simplified the comparison between the countries and the sub-groups.

The verdict to use the concurrent (or convergent or parallel) strand of mixed method, was based on the reason that it was time-saving and suited the study plan as compared to the other mixed methods strands namely; the Explanatory sequential (Qual—Quant), the Exploratory sequential (Quant—Qual) and the Embedded mixed methods whose application could require much longer time and resources; both in the field and in the analytical procedures involved (Creswell et al., 2007).

Particularly, qualitative methods (face to face interviews and open-ended written questions) were used to generate rich textual information which helped the researcher in comprehending the student teachers’ knowledge, perspectives and approaches through which positive TSRs were addressed in the initial teacher education. Besides, quantitative method (questionnaire on TSRs) was used to collect statistically comparable data that were used to measure student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy levels, knowledge and motivational reasons (Ary et al., 2010). As such, it made it possible for the comparison of different constructs within the country’s target groups (final year and beginners), as well as the comparison of the same constructs between the two countries.
3.3.2 Ontological assumptions of the study

Ontological assumptions refer to the researcher’s vision of how the world really is or a logical set of assumptions about how the real world works (Fisher, 2010; Given, 2008). It provides for researchers’ position or perspective in terms of his/her beliefs about the nature and existence of reality (Gerring, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). This perspective is critical in addressing the epistemological requirement of the study. In particular, given the comparative nature of the present study, which included two countries or education systems with contextual differences; the researcher then assumed an existence of multiple realities (Sexton, 2008).

Initial teacher education systems are subject to the social-economic, political, technological and historical factors found in Germany and Tanzania (Chaube & Chaube, 1993). Therefore, the study anticipated variations in the initial teacher education practices and reasons for such practices. With this ontological standpoint, the researcher favoured the use of the mixed method research in order to not only to explain the phenomenon in question but also to understand it from varied perspectives.

3.4 Study design

This study employed a comparative case study design (Crossley & Vulliamy, 2006). According to Mills, Durepos and Wiebe (2010), a comparative case study is a useful design for providing a detailed analysis of human diversity with the aim of revealing uniqueness. They argue further that adding “comparative” to “case-study” brings in
additional methodological requirements which relate to research design and research objective (Mills et al., 2010, p. 111).

Indeed, the use of a case study not only provides potential to assess overall relationships but also the ability to generate in-depth and rich contextual information (Mills et al., 2010). In this perspective, Gerring (2007) advocates that to generate sound understanding of a case, (which may be an individual, a firm, a system or a geographical location under investigation) researchers should not limit themselves to traditional classification by fixing case study to qualitative techniques; instead case study can be quantitative, qualitative or mixed in its very nature (p. 7).

Rationales for utilising a comparative case study in this study included the following: firstly, the study was guided by the notion of comparing positive TSRs knowledge, self-efficacy and motivation from initial teacher education students. Literature provides no standard rules on its modus operandi but offers principles (positive TSRs principles and virtues) whose implementation within initial teacher education are largely context-specific and context-determined (Hamre & Pianta, 2006; Jones, 2009). In this regard, case study design enabled exploration of context-specific experiences and practices used to promote student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy for their future positive relationships with students.
Secondly, the study intended to generate a holistic, thick but comparable description of the phenomenon as experienced in particular universities typical for the rest of the university institutions in the respective countries. This necessitated the use of both real-life experiences, evidence as well as the generation of meanings people attach to relationships building phenomenon in order to optimally address the research problem (Creswell et al., 2007; Gerring, 2007). To this end, the study employed multiple sources of evidence and methods (methods triangulation) to generate diverse but context-specific information about the phenomenon under the study. Such information contributed to illuminating the contribution of the university-based initial teacher education in promoting positive TSRs competencies among student teachers.

3.5 Selection of study cases
This study employed the use of specific typical cases. According to Gerring (2007) and Mills et al. (2010), a typical case(s) is an approach for case selection that provides insight into broader phenomena and must be representative of a broader set of characteristics found in other cases. Therefore, the case selected must provide a typical set of values, practices, and characteristics envisaged by the study (Mills et al., 2010). In particular, the University of Dar es Salaam qualified to be a typical case in Tanzania for the investigating the role of initial teacher education in promoting TSRs among student teachers. Several grounds justified this verdict: first, being the oldest government university (established in 1961 as affiliate college of the University of London), the University of Dar-es-Salaam hosts the national treasure in the history of teacher
education through directly preparing teachers (both pre-service and in-service), and through preparing teacher educators in colleges of teacher education in the country (Anangisye, Maarman & Wolhunter, 2009; UDSM, 2012).

Second, many other universities in Tanzania today, both private and public subscribe quite heavily the expertise and experiences to the University of Dar-es-Salaam. For instance, in the matters of personnel, curricular organisation, practices of teacher education, and in a much wider array of its innovations (Anangisye et al., 2009; Ishumi, 2009). The availability of reputable and relatively better resources atmosphere at the University of Dar es Salaam was viewed as critical factors for an effective professional initial teacher education (Fan, 2012; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008).

Third, there exist some similarities in the teacher education course structure and experiences offered by other universities with those at the University of Dar es Salaam. With its constituent colleges of Dar-es-Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) and the Mkawa University College of Education (MUCE) as well as the Main Campus, its current average annual (graduates) at undergraduate level is 3593 student teachers, majority of whom are secondary school initial student teachers who would afterwards serve in both public and private schools in the country (MoEVT, 2012).

In Germany, the University of Leipzig was selected as a typical case study in understanding the role of university-based initial teacher education in promoting student
teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy for positively relate with students in schools. Located in the state of Saxony (Sachsen) Germany, the University’s history records a diversity of both the State Exam and Bachelor-Master variants of initial teacher education experiences (Kuhlee, 2015; Terhart, 2007). Apart from being one of the oldest university institutions in Germany, the University of Leipzig presents a well established organisational structure for the university-based secondary initial teacher education; consisting of preparation of teachers to work in the Mittelschule (grades 5-9/10) geared towards vocational and technical careers preparation; Gymnasium (grades 5-12) which absorbs academically high performing students for higher learning; and Förderschule (special education Grades 1-9/10) which prepares special need students for life in society. Secondary teachers are prepared along the lines of these specialisations. The initial teacher education varies with subject orientations and it is differentiated by the nature of the subject matter and the anticipated level; which consequently, determines the duration of theoretical and practical education (KMK, 2005; OECD, 2010). Consequently, studying university-based initial teacher education at Leipzig University was deemed convenient as it captured some typical characteristics of the secondary school teacher education in Germany (Den Hertog & De Jong, 2002).

Literature gathers that the state of Saxony (Sachsen) was one of the most responsive states to the post-Bologna process which was geared towards equitable higher education qualifications among members of the European Union [EU] (Kotthoff & Terhart, 2013; Terhart, 2007). Together with the traditional State examination qualifications, University
of Leipzig and the State of Saxony in general, was among the earliest states (Länder) in Germany to adopt and implement the secondary teacher education programme with specific teacher education orientation “teacher Bachelor” followed by M.A. Education (Kotthof & Terhart, 2013). The M.A. Education was considered an equivalent of the First State examination level (Den Hertog & De Jong, 2002). With these characteristics at hand, studying initial teacher education and its role in positive teacher-students relationships among student teachers at the University of Leipzig was expected to provide a rich experience of the initial teacher education in Germany.

3.6 Population of the study
A population refers to the total number of elements available for the study which constitutes the characteristic(s) of interest to the study (Sapford & Jupp, 2006; Fisher, 2010). The population in this study comprised of student teachers in initial teacher education, final-year, and beginner student teachers. The student teachers in their final-year were expected to have covered most aspects of their theoretical and practical training and had developed considerable competencies towards their profession and positive TSRs in particular. Therefore, examining their change in knowledge, beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs against the beginner student teachers could help in ascertaining the contribution of the initial teacher education in positive TSRs competencies. Professors/lecturers (teacher educators) were also engaged in the study. Teacher educators are the ones who are directly responsible for professional preparation
of student teachers. They provided lived experiences of TSRs approaches and their perspectives on TSRs competencies building.

3.6.1 Sample and sampling procedures
Sampling is a process of selecting elements by either probabilistic or non-probabilistic procedure from a population by studying which one anticipates to gaining an understanding of the nature of the study population as a whole (Fisher, 2010; Sapford & Jupp, 2006). Therefore, a sample refers to the selected element(s) from the population of interest (Cohen, Manion & Marrison, 2007). Procedures used for sample selection are a function of a number of factors (Cohen et al., 2007). Some of these factors include; population size, nature of variables under investigation (categorical or non-categorical), epistemological and ontological assumptions of the study (like generalizability coefficient threshold), and the level of precision (as expressed by confidence interval and alpha level) expected in the study findings (Cohen et al., 2007; Sounder et al., 2009).

According to Bartlett, Kotrilik and Hagin (2001) and Creswell et al. (2007), in mixed method studies where both qualitative and quantitative data are collected and analysed, selection of sample utilises both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. That is the application of theoretical and statistical logic in sampling (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). In particular, the use of both sampling techniques was deemed essential in order to increase the external validity within and outside the chosen cases (universities). The application of statistical logic was considered advantageous in
promoting transferability of the research findings in places where similar population characteristics exist (Mills et al., 2010; Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

3.6.2 Selection of student teachers

Final-year student teachers were the main focus of this investigation and formed the majority of the participants in this study. To select the sample size for final-year student teachers, the researcher got the actual number (population size) of the final-year student teachers from their respective faculties for the academic year 2014/2015. For instance, the records indicated that there were 663\(^3\) final-year student teachers in the Leipzig University. Whereas, from the University of Dar-es-Salaam there were 3,594\(^4\) final-year student teachers who were expected to finalise their university studies in the academic year 2014/2015. The numbers of population sizes obtained above were used to estimate appropriate sample sizes using the Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001, p. 48) and Fisher (2010, p. 209) sampling tables. Random sample sizes estimation tables at 95% confidence interval, .05 significant levels (alpha level), and .50 proportions of the population. Henceforth, appropriate sample sizes with regards to the above tables’ specifications were \(N=357\) final-year student teachers in Tanzania and \(N=242\) for the final-year student teachers in Germany.

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\(^3\) This figure was obtained by dividing the total final-year student teachers (total of 1326 according to the coordinators’ office data (Faculty of Education, Uni. Leipzig) the number was divided by 2 to get a reasonable estimate of final-year students. Assumed: each year had equal enrollment size.

\(^4\) This figure was obtained from the Academic and Registration Information System (ARIS) of the University of Dar-es-Salaam, MC=1453, DUCE=1181 & MUCE=960.
The sample sizes were then subjected to proportionate sampling procedures to represent smaller strata within the population. The strata within the sample of Tanzania included student teachers in the natural science and social sciences. In Germany, student teachers in the Mittelschule, Gymnasium, and Förderschule specialisations were included. Although a comparison of specialisations was not the focus of this study, their representation was considered necessary in order to highlight any interesting difference in their educational practices projected in their knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy levels (Sapford & Jupp, 2006).

Beginner student teachers were needed specifically to serve as a “control group” in assessing the possible change in TSRs competencies of the final-year student teachers. As such, because the design needed beginners who were fresh in the universities, (student teachers who had not been introduced to courses related to education) both purposive and convenient sampling techniques were used to get classes containing initial student teachers with the said characteristics. Eventually, for Tanzania, Bachelor of Science with Education class (with N=96 beginner student teachers) was conveniently selected, whereas, at the University of Leipzig, fresh student teachers, the State examination student teachers (N=77) were conveniently selected. The fresh student teachers’ responses on knowledge, beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for TSRs were compared with the final-year student teachers’ responses in order to determine whether or not there were any significant differences and changes between them. Despite its limitations in
generalisability this information was very useful in explaining the likely contribution of the university-based initial teacher education in addressing positive TSRs competencies.

### 3.6.3 Selection of teacher educators (Lecturers and Professors)

Teacher educators were thought to be key informants in the study. A total of eight (8) well-experienced professors/teacher educators from different teaching units were purposively selected. That is four from each case university. In order to yield valid information about TSRs as experienced in the initial teacher education, selection of the teacher educators was qualified by criteria of long service experience (of at least ten (10) years of teaching) at the university level. However, during the data collection process, the researcher was not strictly directed by the number, but attention was paid to the saturation point of information in the interviews. O’Reilly and Parker (2013) maintains that saturation is the level of sampling adequacy demonstrating that the depth and breadth of qualitative information sought by the research question (s) have been reached or achieved. This was the point in qualitative data collection where a researcher gets no more new substantial information by adding more respondent(s) (Sarantakos, 2013). To this end, constant contrasting of cases criterion was used to identify new emerging information from teacher educators’ interviews (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). Eventually, a total of eight (8) professors (teacher educators) were interviewed. Table 3.1 below presents the sampled teacher educators and their areas of specialisation.
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Table 3.1 Summary of teacher educators involved in the interview for Tanzania and Germany

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informant</th>
<th>Academic Rank</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Area of Specialisation</th>
<th>Date of Interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Educational Management</td>
<td>21.05.2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Psychology and Special education</td>
<td>09.06.2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Education Foundations, Lifelong Learning</td>
<td>15.07.2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Curriculum Studies</td>
<td>12.08.2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Curriculum &amp; Teaching practice</td>
<td>15.09.2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Special Education</td>
<td>03.03.2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Psychology in School Education</td>
<td>23.03.2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Pedagogy, School Management, and Research</td>
<td>31.03.2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data 2014/2015

3.7 Data generation methods

Data collection processes in Tanzania started in the second week of May 2014, and it ended up in the second week of August 2014. The collection of both qualitative and quantitative data went concurrently (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). In Germany, data collection took place from November 2014 to April 2015 (see Appendix 8, p. 293 for a detailed schedule of research activities). Owing to its pragmatic orientation, the study employed a concurrent mixed method approach for data collection, analysis and presentation (Saunders et al., 2009). This is referred to as methods triangulation technique known for its merit in offering flexibility in generating adequate information about the problem under investigation (Creswell et al., 2007; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Two techniques were used in the data generation processes namely; questionnaire on TSRs and face to face
interviews. Their structure, administration and the rationale for their use in the study are provided below.

### 3.7.1 Structure and administration questionnaire

The structure of the questionnaire constituted of twelve items with both closed and open-ended items. The questionnaire comprised of a mixture items of four levels’ Likert format, multiple choice items as well as the free response (open-ended) questions (see: Appendix 4). The free response items measured student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs (knowledge in basic facts and relational behaviours/virtues). In their construction, Bloom’s taxonomy of education objectives was used (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956). The nature of free response items, therefore, reflected recalling, comprehension and application levels. Multiple choice items measured student teachers’ attribution of their relational knowledge to different aspects of the initial teacher education. The items 5 and 6 which measured student teachers’ knowledge were subjected to the discrimination index analysis \( D_p = \frac{(R_u - R_l)}{0.5N} \). This was logically significant in order to test for their suitability to distinguish the command of positive TSRs knowledge among final-year and beginner student teachers (Rana & Suruchi, 2014). The discrimination index for the items’ responses was \( D_p = .58 \) which is within the excellent psychometric range (Cohen et al., 2007; Rana & Suruchi, 2014).

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5 See Rana & Suruchi (2014): \( D_p \) discrimination index; \( N \) total correct responses; \( R_u \) the number of student teachers in the upper 27% who responded satisfactorily; \( R_l \) the number of student teachers in the lower 27% who responded unsatisfactorily.
The second category of questions was the multiple choice items. In particular, student teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which they believed that positive TSRs were important and constituted an effect whatsoever on teaching and learning process. Their responses were captured in respondents’ ratings with options “No effect=1” to “Major effect=4”. In addition, student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession had nine intrinsic and extrinsic motivation statements. Student teachers rated their responses in four ratings ranging between “Strongly disagree=1” to “Strongly agree=4”. In this case, student teachers rated various motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession. Such reasons included the feeling of passion for the teaching profession, family influence, future career prospects, the need to help in the development of the children and youth, personality fitness, students’ qualifications, and employability. These motivational reasons for the choice of the teaching profession have been used in previous studies like Bastick (2008), HakiElimu (2011), Olsen (2008), Schutz et al. (2001), Van Uden et al. (2013), and Weiss and Kiel (2013).

In addition, a fourteen statements item upon which student teachers rated their own perceived ability (self-efficacy) to form and sustain positive relations with students was used. Student teachers rated their perceived self-efficacy for specific positive TSRs abilities. They freely rated between “Definitely unlikely=1” (minimum ability) to “Definitely likely=4” (maximum ability) (Bandura, 2006). The four levels format was preferred against other options for the reason of yielding strong affirmation on student teachers’ verdict of their own perceived ability (Saunders et al., 2009). In their
construction, biases in their formulation were checked to avoid inviting biased responses. The internal consistency of the self-efficacy items is provided under the pilot of research data instruments p. 123. In general, the questionnaire items called for data which contributed to the understanding of the student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for TSRs. The use of questionnaire was justified by the fact that the present study sought to collect quantifiable data both for comparison and complementing the qualitative findings (Saunders et al., 2009).

The administration of the questionnaires was preceded by scheduling convenient time and place with subject lecturers/professors. The questionnaires were distributed proportionally according to their respective student teachers’ specialisation. Although the interest was not to compare the TSRs attributes among student teachers’ specialisations, the proportional representation was deemed statistically valid and qualitatively logical. In this case, the sample represented the Social Sciences and Natural Sciences student teachers for Tanzania, as well as the Mittleschule (middle school), Gymnasium (Grammer school) and Förderschule (special education) for Germany. The representation of student-teachers’ gender was attempted by distributing an equal amount of questionnaires to male and female student teachers. It was also agreed that student teachers would be at liberty to return the questionnaires during the next class time (up to one week). A box was prepared for them to place in the completed questionnaires. This arrangement was done in order to promote student teachers’ confidence and give them time to respond to the questions freely and unbiased (Gerring, 2007; Scott & Usher, 2011).
For the purpose of determining how significant the initial teacher education had contributed to the change in the final-year student teachers' positive TSRs competencies, the class of beginners (B. Sc. with Education for Tanzania, and State examination for Germany), were conveniently selected. These student teachers were yet to be taught courses related to education (during data collection). Hence, they provided a convenient control group for comparison. It is worth noting that, in the best interest to save time, the administration of questionnaires was conducted in a cross-sectional (snapshot) style of data gathering (Saunders et al., 2009). To that effect, the same questionnaire was administered to the final-year and beginner student teachers. Return rates (response rate) for questionnaires administered to the final-year student teachers were \( N=343 \) (96\%) and \( N=205 \) (85\%) of the targeted sample of Tanzania and Germany respectively. For beginners, the entire class population had participated \( (N=96) \) and \( (N=77) \) for Tanzania and Germany respectively.

### 3.7.2 Structure of interview and its administration

Generation of data from key informants employed the use of interviews. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with university teacher educators (lecturers and professors). In order to generate trustworthy information, the researcher interviewed teacher educators with at least ten (10) years of work experience in a university-based initial teacher education. As described in the preceding section, the number of teacher educators interviewed depended on the saturation of information generated.
In particular, teacher educators provided information on the place of TSRs in teacher education in terms of their perspectives, approaches and challenges experienced. The interview sessions ranged between 45 to 60 minutes. Seven out of the eight professors consented to be audio-recorded while one did not offer her consent. In this case, the researcher used a notebook and a pen to manually record her responses. All interviews took place in the participants’ offices during office hours. Table 3.1 (p. 112) presents a summary of interviewed teacher educators their gender and specialisations.

3.8 Data analysis
Data analysis refers to the process of attaching meaning to the chunks or categories of data collected (Mills et al., 2010). In any research, the data analysis stage is a necessary process because it is a means of data treatment for effective data interpretation and reporting (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008; Yin, 2011). Left as they are, collected data cannot communicate the desired information in addressing the research questions (Cohen et al., 2007). As was described, in this study, both qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques were applied in answering the research questions (Bryman, 2006).

3.8.1 Qualitative data analysis
Denzin and Lincoln (2000) and Yin (2011) maintain that in qualitative inquiry, data analysis is concerned with attempting to make sense of or interpret a phenomenon in terms of the meaning people bring to them. The analysis of the student teachers’ responses of positive TSRs knowledge employed the Summative content analysis
strategy (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). This analysis strategy was deemed necessary in order to allow for a comparison of the quality of the responses (in knowledge) across the two groups of student teachers as discussed in the literature (Given, 2008; Mills et al., 2010). Summative content analysis approach was preferred in order to allow for searching of identified words, their frequency of use, and comparable analysis among student teachers (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The Summative analysis helped the description of both the manifest and latent meaning of the keywords used by the student teachers in expressing their comprehension of positive TSRs and its advantages to teaching and learning.

In particular, a total of 60 scripts (30 from each group composing of 15 satisfactory and unsatisfactory marked responses) were purposively selected. The analysis was preceded by preparing the coding scheme (Mayring, 2000). In this case, themes: *interactions/a kind of relationship/building of interconnectedness/bonding or connection* were revealed as key codes in the text. The next step involved a thorough reading of the responses and marking them in their respective thematic codes. Subsequently, using the coding scheme the marked responses were placed in their respective thematic codes. This was done through constant comparison in order to appropriately place equivalent responses together (Guest et al, 2012). To allow further comparison of TSRs knowledge between Germany and Tanzania, the responses were presented in frequency distribution against their corresponding codes (Table 4.2, p. 137).
Positive Teacher-Student Relationships

Interviews held with teacher educators were analysed using the thematic analysis technique (Guest & Mcqueen & Namey, 2012; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). Initial processes for the analysis involved transcription of audio-recorded interviews with the help of field notes. This was done as soon as possible after the interview sessions had been completed. The interview transcripts were deemed indispensable in simplifying the process of indexing and classifying major themes related to the research questions (Mills et al., 2010; Saldana, 2013; Scott & Usher, 2011). Therefore, data analysis followed the Huberman and Miles (1994) and Braun & Clark (2006) stages of data reduction, organisation, display and interpretation as explained below.

Data reduction involved the ongoing decision to reduce the data that appeared not to conform to the priori and emergent themes of the research sub-questions (Braun & Clark, 2006; Sapford & Jupp, 2006). It simplified the chunks of data with relevant coded themes/patterns. Secondly, across all interview transcripts, and with respect to the specific research question, responses were organised to reflect the priori themes/patterns namely: TSRs approaches, perspectives, beliefs and challenges (for the teacher educators’ interviews). Thirdly, a thorough review of themes was done in order to aggregate comparable themes. Data display and interpretation were conducted by giving elaboration of the observed relationships and comparison between the themes (Saldana, 2013). As it will be presented in the findings chapter, qualitative data output consisted of concepts, themes, and direct quotations which were generated in the process of sharing meaning.
3.8.2 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data analysis involves a systematic approach which entails transforming collected or observed data into numerical data (Saunders et al., 2009). As such, they allowed for quantification, measuring and counting of attributes in answering the research questions (Ary et al., 2010). Being mixed method research (MMR), quantitative data collected from student teachers were equally important in complementing the qualitative data in answering the research questions. The collected responses from the questionnaire for TSRs were analysed to suit the sub-questions and variables involved. Different analytical techniques were adopted with the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM SPSS Version 20) as shown below.

Quantitative data analysis commenced with data cleaning process which involved three major tasks, firstly; treatment of the missing variables by substituting in missing values to several unattended or skipped questions. Secondly, treatment of reverse coded questions to suit their direction of perception. For instance, in question number 12, interval items numbered ii, vii, ix, x, xi, xii, and xiii were reverse coded. Thirdly, computing new variables, like Total (cumulative) Perceived Self-Efficacy (TPSE), and Total Knowledge Score (TKSCORE). These were necessary for generating variables required to measure specific TSRs constructs as well in confirming an association between them.

As it will be described below, several quantitative analytical techniques were employed; their choice depended on; (1) the nature of the data (whether categorical or
non-categorical), (2) the nature of research sub-questions (descriptive or inferential), and (3) the apparent suitability of the technique for providing adequate information to answer the given sub-question satisfactorily and comparatively.

The first research sub-question sought to find out about student teachers’ positive TSRs knowledge, and if there is a difference in knowledge between final-year and beginner student teachers. Based on their coherence with the literature, the collected responses were first marked “satisfactory= and scored as 2” and “unsatisfactory= scored as 1” for coherent and non-coherent responses respectively (See: Appendix 6 for the marking guide). The scores (obtained by student teachers in the facts and the relational virtues items) were combined to get their Total Knowledge Score (TKSCORE) per student teacher. Comparative frequencies and percentages were used to show the student teachers’ responses on each knowledge sector specified above. In addition, the non-parametric, Mann-Whitney U test (which uses the median ranks), and the Welch’s T-test were performed. The Welch’s T-test (Welch-ANOVA) was appropriate because it is a robust test even when sample sizes and variances of the two groups are not equal (Games, 1974; Milenovic, 2011). In addition, the Cohen’s $d$ measure of effect size was computed from the descriptive statistics. These analytical techniques were statistically appropriate for ascertaining if there was a significant difference in TSRs knowledge between student teachers in Germany and Tanzania, as well as among final-year and beginner student teachers in both countries.
The second sub-question sought to comparatively find out the student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy levels of positive TSRs. It also answered whether or not there is a difference in the beliefs and perceived self-efficacy between beginners and final-year student teachers. Lastly, it sought to determine the association between student teachers’ knowledge (established in the first sub-question) and their perceived self-efficacy, for Tanzania and Germany. Percentage frequency distributions of the student teachers’ beliefs and self-efficacy (TPSE) were computed for a comparison of the final-year and beginners student teachers as well as between Germany and Tanzania. In addition, the Welch’s $T$-test and its associated effect size index, Cohen’s $d$, was performed to determine the change in the total perceived self-efficacy. Also, the Mann-Whitney $U$ test was performed to find out if there were any significant difference in the perceived self-efficacy (TPSE) between the student teachers in Tanzania and Germany.

As the matter of procedures, the computed TPSE were subdivided into three classes namely, “Low= 21-32”, “Medium=33-44” and “High=45-56”. (The class intervals were decided upon considering the minimum and maximum self-efficacy scores of the scale as well as the values of the ratings). Subsequently, the Chi-squared ($X^2$) test (which is robust for categorical data) and Cramer’s $V$ index (for strength) were performed to ascertain whether or not student teachers’ held knowledge (worked in the previous sub-question) had any significant association with their perceived self-efficacy levels (grouped as High, Moderate, and Low).
The third research sub-question (on approaches and perspective) was mainly qualitative in nature. Its quantitative part only constituted student-teachers’ multiple choice responses of their attribution of positive TSRs competencies to different course aspects. As such, their responses were analysed in the comparative percentage frequencies distribution between Germany and Tanzania.

The last sub-question sought to compare student teachers’ motivational reasons ratings for choosing the teaching profession and later determined whether or not their motivational reasons had any association with their perceived self-efficacy levels of positive TSRs. From the literature (Balyer & Ozcan, 2014; Kok, 2012; Van Uden et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2014) intrinsic and extrinsic reasons were identified and presented in a Likert format. Student teachers’ motivational reasons ratings were summarised into frequencies and percentages against each response (“Strongly Disagree=1” to “Strongly Agree=4”) for both Tanzania and Germany. Comparative tables and comparative-group-bar graphs were produced for intrinsic and extrinsic motivational reasons.

In order to determine whether student teachers’ held motivational reasons had any significant association with their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs, the non-parametric Chi-Squared test ($X^2$) was performed for each motivational reason ratings against the perceived self-efficacy levels. To get a 3x2 table, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational reasons were subdivided into a TDisagree variable; (by merging Strongly Disagree + Disagree), and TAgree variable; (by merging Strongly Agree + Agree). From
these two categories, the cross tabulation was performed against (the above classified) Total Perceived self-efficacy levels (High, Moderate and Low). The Chi-Squared ($X^2$) values for the association were performed at 95% confidence interval, and $p$, .05 alpha (significance value). The Chi-Squared test ($X^2$) results were presented in a combined table for the motivational reasons. In addition, where the association was confirmed to be present, the effect size Cramer’s $V$ index was also given in the respective column.

### 3.9 Procedures for validity and credibility of data

The terms validity and reliability are rooted in positivist perspective and are common in the discourse of quantitative research (Miles et al., 2010). In qualitative studies, given their naturalistic and holistic character, the notion of validity and reliability is reflected using equivalent concepts like trustworthiness, quality, rigour and dependability or credibility (Golafshani, 2003). According to Ary et al. (2010) and Patton (2002), validity and reliability or their alternative concepts are critical considerations which any researcher, in the qualitative or quantitative study should be concerned with while designing a study, analysing results and evaluating a quality of the study.

Reliability refers to the extent to which findings are consistent with time and an accurate representation of the phenomenon of the total population under study (Cohen et al., 2007). The idea presented by the reliability is the notion that if we are dealing with a stable measure of a construct, then the results should be similar over time and that a high degree of stability represents a high degree of reliability (Scott & Usher, 2011). This may
be not acceptable in qualitative studies which advocate subjective ontological stance as dictated by time, space and context (Gerring, 2007). Hence, the main focus of concern is the element of rigour that can give rise to trustworthy findings in the context (Creswell, 2009).

Validity refers to the extent to which research procedures truly measure that which it intended to measure (Golafshani, 2003; Sounders et al., 2010). In other words, how do the research instruments hit “the bull’s eye” of research objectives or questions? According to Golafshani (2003) “there can be no validity without reliability, that is to say, demonstration of the former (validity) is sufficient to establish the latter (reliability)” (p. 602). This implies that reliability is the consequence of the validity of procedures in the study (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell et al., 2007).

In particular, being a mixed method research, this study embraced both views of qualitative and quantitative research assumptions in addressing validity and reliability or trustworthiness, rigour and credibility of research procedures by utilising an amalgam of processes (Golafshani, 2003; Gerring, 2007; Teddlie & Yu, 2007) as shown hereunder.

3.9.1 Selection of study cases

As elucidated in the previous section, evidence obtained from literature support that the two study cases, the Universities of Dar es Salaam, and Leipzig provide typical cases (Gerring, 2007) of university-based initial teacher education experiences. Though the
primary intention of the study was not to generalise the findings, findings are expected to be typical of the experiences in other similar universities and subsequently allow for transferability where similar characteristics exist. This was perceived as a significant condition towards getting dependable information given the typical nature of the initial teacher education practices and curricular arrangements as compared to the rest of university-based teacher education in the case countries.

3.9.2 Selection of sample and participants

Student teachers both final-year and beginners were the majority of participants in this study. In getting a quantitative sample for final-year students, Cochran (1977) random sampling formula for categorical data was used as tabulated in Bartlet et al. (2001, p. 48). The sample size was estimated at a confidence level of 95%, .05 Alpha level (corresponding Z-score of +/- 1.96) and proportion of the population of .50, which accommodates maximum variability within the population (Bartlett et al., 2001). The sample size for beginners involved purposive and convenient sampling given the nature of semesters in the both countries, and the requirement to get fresh student teachers. The sample sizes were also validated against the sample assumption as advised by Cohen et al. (2007). This was done on the sample sizes for categorical and non-categorical variables. Later, both groups (final-year and beginner student teachers) were subjected to proportional stratification in order to get the representation of different teacher education specialisations. The selection of teacher educators employed the purposive sampling technique illuminated by a criterion being ten (10) years or higher in teacher education
service. Based on their teaching experience, they were expected to provide credible information on various aspects of initial teacher education and TSRs phenomenon in particular.

3.9.3 Triangulation of data collection techniques

Data triangulation refers to the process of combining data sources or techniques such as interviews, documents, and observation in order to understand a research question from various points of view (Ary et al., 2011; Yin, 2011). Data triangulation is credited for its capability to aid researchers in checking whether data collected from diverse instruments confirm one another. Two major data collection methods were employed including face to face interviews and questionnaires. The use of multiple methods of data collection in this study provided the researcher with flexibility in exploring TSRs as conceived and realised in the university-based initial teacher education (Creswell et al., 2007).

Being a concurrent mixed study, the present study employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches in data collection, analysis and presentation of findings, by so doing the researcher allowed complementarities between quantitative and qualitative data while minimizing weakness inherent in their purist philosophies (Positivism and Interpretivism respectively) (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Similarly, the use of triangulation minimised the danger of constructs underrepresentation by exploring
theoretical and practical experiences across cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains of teacher education experiences.

3.9.4 Language use during data collection

Ensuring that the research participants actually understand the questions asked in interviews and questionnaires is a key to the validity and credibility of the information given (Saunders et al., 2009). To this end, research ensured that the language used in the interviews and questionnaires was simple and clear. Questionnaires were administered using the common language of instruction for the participants in the universities. In Tanzania, the English language was used whereas in Germany, the German language was used.

3.9.5 Piloting of data collection instruments

A pilot study refers to the preliminary study version of the actual research study which is carried out for the purpose of validating study tools and procedures so as to increase the feasibility and validity of the actual study findings (Arain, Campbell, Cooper & Lancaster, 2010; Miles et al., 2010). Prior to the data collection, both instruments namely the interview schedule and questionnaire were subjected to rigorous scrutiny in checking for their suitability. First, fellow PhD students were asked to review them and afterwards, the instruments were reviewed by the supervising professor.
After gaining the approval of the supervisor, instruments were pilot-tested with student teachers in the Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE) Iringa in Tanzania, a constituent college of the University of Dar es Salaam. Two (2) teacher educators and one hundred (100) student teachers were requested to read and respond to the interview schedule and questionnaires respectively. Informed by the feedback from the pilot study, the researcher was able to establish the suitability of the interview schedule and questionnaire. For instance, (1) the internal consistency of the 14 self-efficacy items was checked by computing Cronbach’s alpha. The scale yielded an average of 0.701\(^6\) alpha as shown in the result table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Pilot data, 2014

Despite the variations in the inter-item coefficient to reliability, all 14 items were retained in the data collection process due to the content-validity of each item in measuring the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy. (2) The pilot of instruments enabled the researcher to check, re-frame and re-align the study sub-questions and re-defined data themes in line with the theoretical framework guiding the study. In particular, for the interview schedule, the question on educators’ perspective was added. This was deemed important because the pilot study indicated that teacher educators manifested some

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\(^6\) Cronbach’s alpha is the coefficient of internal reliability of the items. As a general rule, the alpha coefficient of .70 or higher is considered acceptable or “good enough” in social science researches/ http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/spss/faq/alpha.html.
differences in the understanding of the nature of positive TSRs phenomenon. Exploring such views was vital in informing the study on the rigour of the prevailing positive TSRs competencies and approaches in the universities. In addition, typographical and grammatical errors were noted, raised and corrected. Eventually, the instruments for data collection were ready for use in the actual data collection.

3.9.6 Prior information to the participants
Saunders et al. (2009) uphold that compliance to ethical and administrative specifications is vital for promoting valid and credible information. Participants need to feel a sense of security during and after research. They are required to have a reason to trust the researcher and research itself. Ary et al. (2010) and Resnik and Shamoo (2009) are of the view that confident research participants have a better chance to give reliable information. In complying with this condition, the researcher gave participants all the necessary information: namely participants’ information sheet and consent form (Appendices 1 & 2). Apparently, it developed trust and participants participated confidently and voluntarily.

3.10 Limitations of the study findings
Representativeness: representativeness of the study findings refers to the notion that the findings generated provide a true picture of the broader population characteristics (Gerring, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). This research quality is also known as the transferability or generalizability of the findings. In particular to this study, given the
variant nature of the university-based initial teacher education in Germany, the following can be stated: Firstly, the university-based initial teacher education in Germany operates in two modalities, the State examination and Bachelor-Master variants. The Master level is regarded as an equivalent of the First State examination (Buer, 2015; Kuhlee, 2015). Owing to time and resources constraints, the study dealt with Bachelor-Master initial teacher education programme at the University of Leipzig. Therefore, the study findings that apply to Germany are limited to the State of Saxony. In Tanzania, the university-based initial teacher education employs one dominant concurrent modality. Consequently, this typical case offers representativeness quality of the university-based initial teacher education characteristics.

**On the study approach**: due to the time factor, this study employed the cross-sectional or “snapshot” approach to determine the change in TSRs knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy between final-year and beginner student teachers (Saunders et al, 2009). However, given enough time for the study, an alternative use of a longitudinal approach (to study the change in the competencies in the same cohort across time) could have produced even better findings. Longitudinal approaches are advantageous in minimising possible confounding variables which could hardly be avoided by cohort change in the cross-sectional approach (Ary et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2007).
3.11 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics are moral principles involved in the research process, the scientific integrity of the researcher and the obligations implicit in the participant-researcher relationship (Resnik & Shamoo, 2009). All research studies, both basic and applied are, as a rule, required to be a scientifically-valid and ethically-sensitive. Compliance with scientific ethical principles is derived from the need to observe and keep key research values as declared from time to time in research conventions. Such values include honesty, carefulness, openness, freedom and credit. Others are education, social responsibility, legality, mutual respect and respect for research participants (Creswell, 2009; Resnick & Shamoo, 2009). Few ethical issues were anticipated in this study during various stages of its implementation. In particular, the following ethical related practices were observed:

First was the preparation of detailed participant information sheet and consent forms which were distributed to all participants in the study (see Appendices 1 and 2). Providing important information to research participants about the research is viewed as a critical requirement for successful data collection (Creswell, 2009; Saldana, 2013). The information which was given to participants built trust towards the researcher through the following: (i) it ensured them of data confidentiality and anonymity; (ii) participant consent to data collection procedures; (iii) potential advantages and disadvantages of their participation (Saunders, et al., 2009); (iv) it clarified the purpose of research, research procedures and their role in the research process. This information made the
research participants sufficiently comfortable and shared their experiences without fear or favour, thus, generation of trustworthy data (Ary et al., 2010).

Secondly, additional administrative procedures involved requesting for permission from relevant authorities, who were the gatekeepers in accessing the research participants (Appendices 8). In report writing, the researcher undertook to protect property right laws through acknowledging every material used in the study in accordance with the American Psychological Association (APA) style. Discussion of research findings used modest language. This helped to minimise biases which could have perpetuated stereotypes, racial or group labels.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction
In the preceding chapter, an emphasis was laid on methodological positioning and procedures employed in the present study. The purpose of this chapter is to present the study findings. The study attempted to comparatively address the central research question: does the university-based initial teacher education contribute to positive TSRs competencies among student teachers? The sub-questions under it were: (1) what are the student teachers’ knowledge about TSRs? (2) What are the student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain TSRs? (3) What are the approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs? (4) What is the implication of student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession on their perceived self-efficacy for sustaining positive TSRs?

4.2 Research Findings
4.2.1 Student teachers’ knowledge of teacher-student relationships (TSRs)
The first research sub-question of the present study examined the student teachers’ knowledge about TSRs. This sub-question was very important in ascertaining the extent to which their university-based initial teacher education had facilitated the mastery of positive TSRs knowledge. From the literature reviewed, two knowledge areas were identified and examined. These are firstly, basic facts about positive TSRs; which included the concept of TSRs and its importance in learning. Secondly, it involved an examination of important virtues/relational behaviours needed by teachers for successful
relational exchange with their students. The knowledge areas were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. In particular, this section comparatively answers the following offspring questions: (a) what are the student teachers’ knowledge of TSRs? (b) Is there a significant difference in teacher-student relationship knowledge among final-year and beginner student teachers? In presenting the findings, interest is in describing each individual country’s knowledge characteristics followed by a comparative analysis of German and Tanzanian student teachers.

4.2.1 (a) Student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs

This was a very important sub-question in the present study. To address this question, the analysis of both qualitative and quantitative information/data was necessary. The data present student teachers’ responses to the questions about basic relational knowledge: “What do you understand by positive TSRs? How important is it to the teaching and learning processes? Mention at least three relational behaviours or virtues necessary for teachers to form or sustain positive TSRs.

A thorough content analysis conducted on the student teachers’ responses (final-year). The intention was to identify major themes emerging out of the student teachers’ responses. These were evaluated for their consistency with the ideal view in the literature (see Appendix 6, p. 283). The analysis helped in gaining the depth and breadth of their knowledge about the positive TSRs phenomenon. Some typical responses (R₁ to R₈) given by student teachers are presented in Table 4.1 below:
Table 4.1 Typical coded responses from student teachers’ scripts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Content of the response</th>
<th>Thematic code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R(_1)</td>
<td>…the interaction between teacher and student for academic matters</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_2)</td>
<td>…the reciprocal relationship between a student and a teacher, whereby there is sharing of ideas in the classroom</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_3)</td>
<td>…mutual understanding, respect, care for students</td>
<td>Virtues based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_4)</td>
<td>…good communication between teachers and students in the process of teaching and learning.</td>
<td>Communication/interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_5)</td>
<td>…is the kind of relationship between a teacher and students whose purpose is to cooperate and achieve their academic objectives</td>
<td>A kind of interaction (specialty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_6)</td>
<td>…the manner in which a teacher is positively associated with students to achieve learning.</td>
<td>Building/virtue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_7)</td>
<td>…an interaction which exists during teaching and learning; it helps a teacher to impart knowledge to students</td>
<td>Interaction/ a kind of interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(_8)</td>
<td>…the building of situations, attitudes and gestures/ upon which connection of a teacher and students can result in the teaching and learning process</td>
<td>Connection building or bond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data, 2014/2015

Subsequently, the Summative content analysis, which considered both the manifest and latent meanings of thematic codes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) was performed to sixty (60) scripts. The scripts selected purposively from student teachers’ responses (equal number of satisfactory and unsatisfactory responses). This allowed for a further reduction of the responses into fewer and manageable thematic labels. Four major themes of meaning emerged. Using the thematic codes, student teachers’ scripts were placed in its respective thematic code. The recorded results of tallies for the groups in Tanzania (N=30) and Germany (N=30) are shown in Table 4.2 below.
Table 4.2 Comparative student teachers’ thematic responses on what they comprehended as positive TSRs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sn.</th>
<th>Relational theme/coded</th>
<th>Tanzania (f)</th>
<th>Germany (f)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Interaction process</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>A kind of relationship</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>A building process</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Connecting or bond formation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N=30</td>
<td>N=30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data, 2014/2015

From the table, the thematic code interaction process included a set of student teachers who perceived the positive TSRs as an interaction process. This view was evaluated as narrow in its scope because it tends to confine positive TSRs to mere interactions as dictated by teaching methods or subject matter. Secondly, a kind of relationship, this theme was evaluated as an improved version of interaction, unlike any other relationship. As such, this comprehension agrees that TSRs calls for special consideration of the unique position of relationships in teaching and learning process and the need to fulfill it.

Thirdly, as a building of interconnectedness process, in this theme, positive TSRs are not only the matter of physical propinquity of the two actors but also a continual and growing phenomenon requiring a reciprocal role of both actors. In the last theme, connecting or bonding, which is perceived as a high and an ideal view of what constitutes positive TSRs. It shows the destiny of relational exchange, where relationship reaches stability and can be sustained. From these thematic codes, it was clear that student teachers had
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varied meanings and cognition of positive TSRs which were indicated by the varied precision in the concepts or words they used to explain them.

Comparatively, the results of thematic categorization as showed in Table 4.2 above indicate that in both Tanzania and Germany, the majority of student teachers had a low view of positive TSRs. They associated positive TSRs with an interaction between or a kind of relationship views. However, the results indicate that student teachers in Germany had a better comprehension (the higher view) of what it takes to relate positively with students (13/30) as compared to their Tanzanian counterparts (8/30).

The results of the quantitative evaluation of the final-year student teachers’ knowledge responses were based on their coherence to the ideal views suggested in the literature. Table 4.3 presents their comparative evaluation in Tanzania and Germany. The coherent responses were marked as satisfactory whereas the incoherent responses were marked as unsatisfactory.

Table 4.3 Comparative student teachers’ TSRs knowledge (quantitative) results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Basic knowledge of TSRs</th>
<th>Knowledge of positive TSRs virtues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>133 (64.9%)</td>
<td>39 (11.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>70 (34.1%)</td>
<td>302 (88.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2 (1.0%)</td>
<td>2 (0.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>205 (100%)</td>
<td>343 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data, 2014/2015  
Legend: TSRs = teacher-student relationships.
The results indicate a wide difference in the proportion of satisfactory and unsatisfactory responses among German and Tanzanian student teachers. The findings indicate that German student teachers had a higher proportion of precise/satisfactory responses in both basic knowledge (64.9%) and knowledge of relational behaviours/virtues (61.5%) as compared to student teachers in Tanzania who had only 11.4% and 21.6% for basic knowledge and relational behaviours/virtues respectively.

The combined knowledge of basic facts and relational virtues scores (TKSCORE) for both German and Tanzanian student teachers provide the comparative group bar graph presented in Figure 4.1.
Figure 4.1 A group bar graph showing student teachers’ combined TSRs knowledge scores (basic relational facts & virtues)

Source: Field data 2014/2015

Figure 4.1 shows the student teachers’ combined scores for knowledge of relational facts and relational virtues. It can be observed that the German student teachers dominate the higher end of the graph with the majority scoring average and high scores (3 and 4 maximum scores). On the other hand, the Tanzanian student teachers dominate the lower end with the majority scoring the minimum scores (1 and 2) and few at the average score (3).
Differences in the positive TSRs knowledge between German and Tanzanian student teachers

To test whether there was a significant difference in knowledge between student teachers in Germany and Tanzania, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to check for the data normality to decide on the appropriate statistical technique to be used. The results of Shapiro-Wilk showed that the data were not normally distributed (sig) p>.05. Therefore, the non-parametric test, Mann-Whitney U test (which uses the median and mean ranks of distribution) was used in this case (Milenovic, 2011). The Mann-Whitney U test results indicated that the mean rank of total knowledge scores for German student teachers (N=205) were significantly higher (Mdn=378.78) than Tanzanian student teachers, (N=343) which were (Mdn=205.27), Z= -13.679, p = .000. Hence, p< .05. Based on these results, the presence of the difference in TSRs knowledge between the two groups was confirmed (Melenovic, 2011). Table 4.2 below summarises the results of the Mann-Whitney U test. The test was estimated at 95% confidence interval with a corresponding significance level (alpha) of .05.

Table 4.4 Mann-Whitney U test results for difference in levels of knowledge between German and Tanzanian student teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total knowledge scores (TKSCORE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>12224.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>69177.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-13.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exact Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exact Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point Probability</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Grouping Variable: Nationality
4.2.1 (b) Differences in TSRs knowledge between final-year and beginner student teachers

This sub-question intends to establish if there was any statistically significant difference in the TSRs knowledge between final-year and beginner student teachers, and if yes, what is its effect size?

The question stated above was tested in order to be able to ascertain whether there is a significant difference in TSRs knowledge among final-year and beginner student teachers. Although it is not self-conclusive, the change in TSRs knowledge could partly provide information about the effect of the initial teacher education on student teachers’ positive TSRs knowledge. The Welch’s $T$-test (which is robust even when sample sizes and variances of the two groups are not equal) was performed for each pair of student teachers (final-year and beginners). Subsequently, descriptive statistics were subjected to the Cohen’s $d$ measure of effect size. For Tanzania, the mean TSRs knowledge scores differed significantly by the year of study (Final-year & Beginners). According to Welch’s $T$-test results, $t(181.771) = -5.945$, $p=.000$, the final-year student teachers ($N=336$) scored significantly higher $M=2.84$, $SD=0.68$ than the beginners ($N=95$) with $M=2.39$, $SD=0.56$). The 95% confidence interval is between 2.27 and 2.91 points. These results confirm an existence of a difference in positive TSRs knowledge between them.
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The results of the effect size indicated Cohen’s $d^2 = 0.72$, which is a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988).

Similarly, for the student teachers in Germany, the mean TSRs knowledge scores differed significantly by year of study according to Welch’s $T$-test $t(137.26) = -5.699$, $p = .000$. Final-year student teachers ($N=203$) scored significantly higher, $M=3.27$, $SD=0.72$, than the beginner student teachers ($N=77$) with $M=2.73$, $SD=0.71$. The 95% confidence interval of the difference lies between 2.56 and 3.37 points. These results confirm the existence of a difference between the final-year and beginner student teachers. The corresponding effect size results indicated Cohen’s $d = 0.76$, which is a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988).

These results further indicate the following: Firstly, there is a significant difference in the TSRs knowledge among final-year and beginner student teachers. The difference could be the results of the change in the TSRs knowledge due to their involvement in the initial teacher education. Secondly, comparatively, German student teachers reveal a stronger effect size in the change in positive TSRs knowledge than their Tanzanian counterparts. Thirdly, According to the Welch $T$-test results, the mean TSRs knowledge score for the beginner student teachers differed significantly by country of origin $t(140.041)=3.486$, $p=.001$. The beginner student teachers in Germany ($N=77$) scored significantly higher.

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7 Computation of the Cohen’s $d$ effect size index was aided by the University of Colorado Colorado Springs Online Statistical Portal, found at [www.uccs.edu/~faculty/lbecker/1](http://www.uccs.edu/~faculty/lbecker/1). To compute the Cohen’s $d$, mean scores and standard deviation for the two samples were entered and the index computed.
(M=2.72, SD=0.71) than their Tanzanian counterparts (N=95) with M=2.39, SD=0.56. This finding may stand to confirm that beginner student teachers in Germany start off their initial teacher education with a better command of positive TSRs knowledge than their Tanzanian counterparts. Figure 4.2 presents the beginner student teachers’ knowledge scores in a comparative bar graph.

Figure 4.2 Comparative bar graph showing beginner student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs in Tanzania and Germany

Source: Field data 2014/2015
Figure 4.2 indicates that the TSRs knowledge scores for beginner student teachers in Germany dominate the high end of the graph (with the maximum score of 4) denoting a noticeable difference in the total knowledge scores. On the other hand, knowledge scores for beginner student teachers in Tanzania dominate the low end of the graph (with the minimum score of 2) and diminish towards the high end.

4.2.2 Student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs with their (future) students

This section presents findings on the student teachers’ beliefs about the role of positive TSRs as well as their perceived self-efficacy for sustaining positive relationships with their students. In addition, it answers the question whether or not student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs bears any association with their perceived ability to form and sustain such relational exchange. Supposedly, the stronger the belief student teachers hold on the necessity for positive relational exchange, the higher their readiness to promote it in their dealing with students (Kuzborska, 2011).

To answer this second research sub-question; “what are the student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy (ability) for forming and sustaining positive TSRs with students?” the research sub-question was divided into four manageable parts to be answered comparatively. The question parts include: (a) what are student teachers beliefs about the role of positive TSRs in teaching and learning process? (b) What is the student teachers’
perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs? (c) Is there a difference in perceived self-efficacy levels to form and sustain positive TSRs between final-year and beginner student teachers? (d) Is there a significant association between student teachers’ knowledge of TSRs and their perceived self-efficacy?

4.2.2(a) Student teachers’ beliefs about the role of positive TSRs on learning and development

In this sub-question, student teachers rated their perceived beliefs of the effect of positive TSRs on students’ learning and development. Figures 4.3a and 4.3b present the comparative responses for the final-year and beginner student teachers for Germany and Tanzania respectively.
Figure 4.3a Comparative bar graph for final-year and beginner student teachers’ held beliefs about the effect of TSRs on learning and development (for Germany).

Source: Field data 2014/2015
Figure 4.3b Comparative bar graph for final-year and beginner student teachers’ held beliefs about the effect of TSRs on learning and development (for Tanzania).

Source: Field data 2014/2015

The two graphs for Germany (Figure 4.3a) and Tanzania (Figure 4.3b) indicate the difference in the proportion of student teachers beliefs. For instance, in Germany 50.7 % of final-year student teachers believed that TSRs has a major effect on students’ learning and development whereas, only 30% of the beginner student teachers shared the similar belief. In Tanzania, 57.1% of the final-year student teachers believed that TSRs had a major effect while others had other belief options. On the other hand, only 19.3% of the
beginner student teachers shared this belief among the Tanzanian counterparts. This finding confirms the existence of a difference in the beliefs about the effect of TSRs in learning and development between the final-year and beginner student teachers in both countries.

Table 4.5 presents the comparison responses of the beliefs among final-year student teachers in Tanzania and Germany.

Table 4.5 Final-year student teachers’ comparative responses on their beliefs on the role of the positive TSRs in students’ learning and development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student teachers’ beliefs</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tanzania (N &amp; %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>22 (6.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor effect</td>
<td>32 (9.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate effect</td>
<td>93 (27.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major effect</td>
<td>196 (57.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>343 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data 2014/2015

Concomitant to the present study’s view, results indicate that the majority of final-year student teachers in both Tanzania (57.1%) and Germany (50.7%) believed that TSRs had a major effect on learning and development. Surprisingly, however, an equally high percentage (average of 46.1%) of student teachers had varied beliefs regarding the effect of TSRs while on their final year of initial teacher education. For instance, 15.6% of final-year student teachers in Tanzania believed that TSRs had “No to Minor” effect,
whereas only 4.4% of their counterparts in Germany shared the similar belief. In general, the findings depict an increasing trend towards positive beliefs in the role of TSRs on learning and development.

4.2.2 (b) Student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy for forming and sustaining positive relationships

Figure 4.4 presents a comparative bar graph (in percentages) for the student teachers perceived self-efficacy (TPSE) classified into High, Moderate and Low levels.

Figure 4.4 A comparative group bar graph showing student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy levels

Source: Field data, 2014/2015
Figure 4.4 indicates that student teachers from both Germany and Tanzania had a relatively low percentage of high self-efficacy levels (only 5% and 6% respectively) for forming and sustaining positive relational exchange with their students. The results further indicate that majority of student teachers in both countries had moderate perceived self-efficacy levels. Comparatively, 81% of student teachers in Germany indicated moderate levels of self-efficacy while 70% of their counterparts in Tanzania indicated this level of self-efficacy. Finally, 25% of the student teachers in Tanzania indicated low self-efficacy levels whereas in Germany 14% of the student teachers had low self-efficacy levels.

The Mann-Whitney U test was performed in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in student teachers perceived self-efficacy between Tanzania (N=343) and Germany (N=205). In this regard, 95% confidence interval and its significant level (alpha) .05 were used and the results shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Mann-Whitney U test results for German and Tanzanian student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Perceived Self-Efficacy (TPSE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Grouping Variable: Nationality
The Mann-Whitney $U$ test results indicated that the mean rank for student teachers in Germany was significantly greater ($Mdn=309.37$) than the mean rank of the student teachers in Tanzania with ($Mdn=244.36$), $Z=-4.704$, $p=.000$, hence $p<.05$. Based on the results, the presence of a difference was statistically confirmed (Melanovic, 2011). It was then confirmed that student teachers in Germany had statistically significant higher perceived self-efficacy levels ($p<.05$) to form and sustain positive TSRs than their counterparts in Tanzania.

4.2.2 (c) Differences in perceived self-efficacy levels for positive TSRs between final-year and beginner student teachers

In particular, this sub-question sought to examine whether or not there was a change in the perceived self-efficacy in the final year student teachers. The difference in the perceived self-efficacy between final-year and beginner student teachers could partly stand as evidence of the positive effect of the initial teacher education in promoting student teachers’ self-efficacy (for positive TSRs). The Welch’s $T$-test was preferred in this case because it was appropriate and robust to data with inherent differences in their group sizes and variances (Games, 1974).

For Tanzania, according to the Welch’s $T$-test results, the mean self-efficacy scores differed significantly by year of study (between final-year and beginner student teachers), $t(147.507) = 13.792$, $p=.000$. The final-year student teachers ($N=336$) scored significantly higher ($M=35.96$, $SD=5.46$) as compared to the beginner student teachers ($N=91$),
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\((M=27.13, SD=5.24)\). The 95\% confidence interval of the difference lies between 26.04 and 36.55 points. Thus, these results confirm the difference in self-efficacy levels between final-year and beginner student teachers. In addition, the value of Cohen’s effect size found \(d = 1.651\), denotes a large/strong effect size (Cohen, 1988).

For Germany, the Welch’s \(T\)-test results indicated that the final-year student teachers \((N=199)\) had higher perceived self-efficacy \((M=37.89, SD=5.17)\) than the beginner student teachers \((N=73)\), with \(M=34.59, SD=4.62\), \(t(142.208) = 4.789, p = .000\). The 95\% confidence interval lies between 33.51 and 37.16 points. Cohen’s effect size index, \(d = 0.672\), denotes a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988). Hence, the findings confirm the difference in perceived self-efficacy between final-year and beginner student teachers. The results, therefore, indicate that in both countries, there were statistically significant changes in perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs among the final-year student teachers. Comparatively, final-year student teachers in Tanzania indicate stronger effect size on the change in self-efficacy aspect than their German counterparts. However, the overall final perceived self-efficacy levels for German student teachers remain higher than that of Tanzanian student teachers.

Likewise, the results of the Welch’s \(T\)-test (Welch-ANOVA) analysis of the beginner student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy scores indicate that the beginner student teachers in Germany start off their initial teacher education with higher perceived self-efficacy levels than their Tanzanian counterparts \(t(160.475)=9.541, p = .000\). For instance, the
beginner student teachers in Germany (N=73) have significantly higher self-efficacy levels $M=34.58$, $SD=4.62$, whereas, their counterparts in Tanzania have $M=27.14$, $SD=5.23$. Figure 4.5 below presents a comparative bar graph for the total perceived self-efficacy levels as shown by beginner student teachers in Germany and Tanzania.

*Figure 4.5 Comparative bar graph for the Total Perceived Self-Efficacy (TPSE) levels for the beginner student teachers in Tanzania and Germany*

*Source: Field data, 2014/2015*
From Figure 4.5, the levels of perceived self-efficacy (TPSE) of the beginner student teachers in Germany consistently clustered on the higher end of the graph than those of their counterparts in Tanzania. Conversely, the TPSE levels for student teachers in Tanzania consistently appear to dominate the lower end of the graph. The graph (Figure 4.5) denotes the differences in the perceived self-efficacy at each level between the two country groups.

4.2.2 (d) The association of student teachers’ knowledge of TSRs with their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs.

This section sought to establish whether or not student teachers’ knowledge (of positive teacher-student relationships) had any statistically significant association with their perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive relational exchange with their students. To answer this question, Chi-squared test ($\chi^2$) was performed by cross-tabulating the predictor variable: student teachers’ total knowledge scores (Classified into High, Average and Low), against their total perceived self-efficacy “dependent variable” (classified as High, Moderate and Low) in a 3x3 table. Table 4.7 presents the results of the Chi-squared test.
Chi-squared results for Tanzanian student teachers indicate that there was no statistically significant association \((X^2 (4df) .939 (p > .05))\) between student teachers’ TSRs knowledge and their associated self-efficacy levels. As for Germany, a very strong association \((X^2 (4df) .18.432 (p < .05), \text{Cramer’s } V \text{ index } .216)\) was found out between student teachers’ TSRs knowledge and their self-efficacy scores. This denotes that student teachers’ knowledge was likely to influence their perceived self-efficacy. In general, however, when all student teachers (in Germany & Tanzania, \(N=528\)) were combined, Chi-squared test results indicated a significant moderate association \((X^2 (4df) 18.545, p < .05), \text{Cramer’s } V = .133\) of student teachers’ knowledge and self-efficacy levels.
4.2.3 Approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs

This section presents the study findings on the approaches employed in the initial teacher education in Tanzania and Germany. In addition, it presents different perspectives of teacher educators regarding the nature and character of the positive TSRs phenomenon. In particular, this section attempts to answer the sub-questions: (a) what approaches do the initial teacher education employ in fostering positive TSRs attributes among student teachers? (b) What are the teacher educators’ perspectives on the nature of positive TSRs?

The theoretical framework that guides the present study reaffirms the fact that acquisition of appropriate TSRs knowledge and self-efficacy ought to be a product of effective approaches and perspectives employed in the initial teacher education. This implies that the initial teacher education ought to have well-established approaches, both in theory and in practice in order to impart knowledge and competencies in student teachers for them to be able to develop relational competencies. Data about the approaches that were utilised in this regard were obtained from the thematic analysis of the interviews held with teacher educators as well as from student teachers.
4.2.3 (a) Approaches used to foster positive TSRs competencies among student teachers in the initial teacher education.

The TSRs approaches emerged as major categories in the thematic analysis conducted on teacher educators’ interviews. Priori themes “approaches” were marginally coded with their sub-themes “modes of organisation” and “challenges” across all the interview transcripts (Braun & Clark, 2006; Huberman & Miles, 1993). Subsequently, the coded categories were constantly compared to establish their convergences and divergences. Finally, the major themes (approaches) and sub-themes (their characteristics) were aggregated and their association established. Thus, from the thematic analysis, a total of three major themes emerged which correspond to the approaches employed in promoting positive TSRs competencies. The approaches include the following:

(i) The teaching practice approach

Teaching practice emerged as one of the major themes in the analysis of the interviews held with teacher educators. It was revealed that teaching practice is one of the important approaches employed in promoting positive TSRs. It was found in Tanzania that teaching practice was conducted once every academic year and lasted for eight (8) weeks. As for Germany, teaching practice took five (5) weeks. During the teaching practice, student teachers were posted to schools to practice the theories of teaching and learning in an actual classroom situation. Their interaction with students in and outside the classroom is expected to serve as the avenue for practicing and fostering the positive TSRs
competencies. Teacher educators from both countries expressed a strong conviction that teaching practice was a vital approach through which student teachers acquired positive TSRs competencies. When probed to explain its usefulness in developing the student-teacher relational competencies, some teacher educators pointed out that the effectiveness of the teaching practice has been faced with both organisational and resource problems. The following are teacher educators’ views regarding the place of teaching practice in developing positive TSRs:

During teaching practice, we assess student teachers and want them (student teachers) to show some sense of humour as well as awareness of students’ names. During teaching practice, we encourage them to interact and give a chance for students to interact with them. So they form good relationships out of participation and interaction over the subject matter (Teacher educator (in Germany) 23rd March 2014).

Teaching practice is mandatory for education students. Student teachers are sent to secondary schools and other educational institutions to experience the actual teaching environment. We go there and assess them. A look at the assessment form will show you that we assess their classroom management abilities, such as how they interact with students and how they address students by names (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 15th July 2014).

With regards to the manner in which teaching practices were being conducted, several bottlenecks were presented. The following quote from the interviews held with teacher educators clearly captures some of the bottlenecks to the effectiveness of the teaching practice as an approach for fostering positive TSRs:
Teaching practice could have been a very useful place to enhance such competencies, but there is a time problem to prepare and build such awareness to the supervisors and student teachers. As a result, we have situations where student teachers fail to give freedom to their students in classes; they perpetuate a master-servant relationship which cannot lead to effective learning (Teacher educator (in Germany) 3rd March 2015).

It can be deduced from the above quotations that teaching practice was an essential avenue where (some) practical relational skills among student teachers were developed, observed and evaluated in the actual teaching and learning situation. However, teacher educators admitted that there existed a lack of clear direction on what should be observed and evaluated. In this situation, TSRs aspects like the relational virtues and techniques to connect with students tend to be overlooked in the assessment and evaluation repertoire. Eventually, teaching practice has been reduced to an assessment of subject knowledge and lesson preparation. In these contexts, teacher educators qualified the existing ambivalence among educators over the TSRs phenomena. Their views are depicted in the following quotations:

Well, I think problems are many. For instance, there is a huge mismatch between the competencies we want our teachers to acquire and what we actually teach them. Inadequate time for teaching practice coupled with financial constraints is among them. Our teaching approaches do not develop competencies because with the semester system our (teacher educators’) attention has always been towards covering what has been planned in the course outline. I clearly see that there is something missing in terms of relational skills for teachers other than what we actually do here. The problem is that even lecturers are narrowly focused in terms of what they actually observe, and we are too much convergent on focusing on what the curriculum wants us to accomplish in a given time (Teacher educator (in Tanzania), 21st May 2014).
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For me, teaching practice constitutes only 20% of the expected goal we would give to our student teachers. There are so much that they miss because of our mode of teaching them [...] You see when we assess our students during the teaching practice, the forms show that we have to look on knowledge of the subject, teaching methods and the way student teacher interacts with students, but it is not clear what is this relationship? What is its nature? It is not clear! Is it just saying Hi? Or is it giving them motivation? Is it to do with positive and negative reinforcement? (Teacher educator (in Tanzania), 15th February 2015).

It would appear from the above quotations that apart from the shortage of time, teacher educators had no clear understanding of what constituted the positive teacher-student relationships and how its assessment during the teaching practice ought to be. Because of the lack of clarity, teacher educators did not focus on positive TSRs when assessing their student teachers in teaching practice. In this regard, assessments of competencies during teaching practice focused on the ability of student teachers to present what the curriculum wanted. Admittedly, positive TSRs competencies did not stand out as a significant aspect to nurture, observe, or evaluate.

(ii) The education courses approach

Education courses emerged as another major theme in the thematic analysis conducted on teacher educators’ interviews. Under this approach, it was unveiled that student teachers were taught several courses that had a direct or indirect implication on the nature of positive TSRs. Teacher educators described five courses which were taught during the span of initial teacher education. The courses included Educational Career, Guidance and Counselling, Teacher Professionalism and Ethics in Education, Curriculum and Teaching
and Introduction to Education Psychology as well as Organisational Behaviour in Educational Institutions.

With regards to how effective education courses were in enabling student teachers to learn and acquire the relational competencies, several subthemes emerged as challenges which directly or indirectly impacted on the education courses approach. First, the methods employed when teaching and evaluating the courses had usually maintained a rigid focus on imparting student teachers with knowledge for its own sake, while very little was done in fostering its practical application. As such, the relational knowledge and techniques were rarely evaluated or mainstreamed for application, unlike with other pedagogical skills. Relationships forming abilities were not seen as a priority as compared to other aspects such as teaching methods and teaching subjects. In this regard, the following views were given in elaborating the situation of the approach as experienced by teacher educators:

Well, as I have said, I think TSRs is one of the very important aspects of teachers’ professionalism. To my view, we only talk and want it to happen! We do not give it the required weight in teaching or in preparing our student teachers. We mostly teach some issues of relationships but we do not go into the depth of teacher-student relationships and skills needed, and probably this is a deficiency on our part. You know, in a situation where you have many things to teach in your course within a given semester, minor things are overlooked. So in terms of its priority, I can directly say teacher-student relationship does not feature much (Teacher educator (in Tanzania), 21st May 2014).

Secondly, an absence of a corresponding hands-on experience to the theoretical instructions emerged as another important challenge to the education course approach.
Teacher educators in Germany and Tanzania opined that hands-on practices associated with positive relational knowledge would enable student teachers to apply immediately what they had learned in the courses regarding TSRs. That means, besides the teaching practice sessions (which takes place once per year), there were no practical lessons for student teachers to immediately practice the newly learned knowledge and skills. This situation of compartmentalising theoretical and practical aspects of the training denied student teachers the opportunity for reflective practice. The following response from interviews presents the magnitude of the challenge as experienced by teacher educators:

I would say in Psychology, we have courses on how to study the behaviours of the learners, though they are not offered to all student teachers—and that is a big problem also. In Psychology, you get all the courses to do with the cognitive, affective and psychomotor development of a child. When it comes to teaching, I would love to teach not only subject didactics and all the methods of teaching theoretically but also to actually go to a class and be taught how all these unfolds-to practically do it, this is where our student teachers could develop such relational competencies but I’m sad to say this is not happening! (Teacher educator (in Germany), 9th June 2015).

Thirdly, an exclusion of some key pedagogical courses in the current initial teacher education programme in order to cope with the reduced duration of initial teacher education. Teacher educators in Tanzania were of the view that this was one of the challenges facing the educational courses approach in promoting TSRs. In this context, the following was among the responses made in relation to the notion of courses exclusion:
I would say... we have courses on how to study learners’ behaviours and others on good relationships though they are not obligatory courses to all student teachers. Some are very important but they are elective and this is a big challenge. This has reduced the status of our initial teacher education to develop such competencies. I would love not only to teach them theoretically but also practically. I’m sad to say this is not happening! (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 9th June 2014).

The exclusion of important courses was further informed by the finding that the duration of initial teacher education was reduced from formerly four, to the current three years. Consequently, the reduction had resulted in the change of some courses’ status from being compulsory to elective. For instance, courses such as Sociology of Education, Introduction to Child Development, Philosophy of Education and the like were necessary for every student teacher to develop TSRs knowledge but were made elective. Indeed, the courses were critical in making student teachers reflective practitioners in their daily professional tasks. It was noted that much emphasis (in terms of course units) was given to academic core subjects at the expense of educational courses.

(iii) The role modelling approach
The last major theme revealed that role modelling was one of the approaches employed to promote student teachers’ relational abilities with their students. It was found out that student teachers not only learned from the classroom instructions but also from real life experiences. In this regard, it was learnt during the interviews with teacher educators that relational patterns demonstrated by teacher educators to student teachers in the universities had the potential to guide student teachers to imitate the ideal patterns of
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TSRs. Accordingly, under this theme, teacher educators underscored the relevance of social learning by being role models of positive TSRs to their student teachers as follows:

Yah! I think we have some courses which teach them how relationships and interactions with their students ought to be. To me, the best way to transform skills on effective teacher-student relationships is through my conduct. I believe that student teachers imitate the way I take care of them, the way I listen to them and give them time to talk to me. So the whole notion of role modelling is very important in transmitting such skills to student teachers. This is, however, an ideal situation. However, situations in our teaching and learning environment do not favour best practice like when you have a big class with a thousand plus student teachers to teach (Teacher educator (in Tanzania), 15th July 2014).

Indeed, in this approach, teacher educators were expected to model the TSRs that are professionally ideal to their student teachers. They were expected to demonstrate what they taught. However, teacher educators in this regard admitted that the approach had not been successful because teacher educators sometimes failed to portray the kind of relationships that were professionally ideal. Some subthemes under this approach emerged as pertinent challenges that hinder role modelling. These included time constraints, which made teacher educators to focus on content coverage prescribed within the semester than being flexible in developing student-teachers’ relational competencies. Ironically, teacher educators were preachers of what they did not practice.

Correspondingly, another set of data for the approaches were obtained based on the student teachers’ quantitative responses. That is the findings from the questionnaire item (student teachers’ multiple-choice responses). The item required student teachers to indicate: which specific part of the initial teacher education had promoted their teacher-
student relationships knowledge and other abilities? Student teachers’ responses to this question disproportionately spread over different course aspects indicating their attribution of TSRs to different aspects of initial teacher education. Their choice in this regard reflected the specific course aspects that had a great contribution to promoting their competencies of positive relational exchange. Table 4.8 and Figure 4.6 present a summary of student teachers’ responses for both Tanzania and Germany.

Table 4.8 Student teachers’ attribution of their TSRs knowledge/abilities to different course aspects of their initial teacher education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Aspects</th>
<th>Germany (f &amp; %)</th>
<th>Tanzania (f &amp; %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Educational courses</td>
<td>28 (13.7%)</td>
<td>122 (35.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Subject didactics</td>
<td>13 (6.3%)</td>
<td>7 (2.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Teaching subjects</td>
<td>7 (3.4%)</td>
<td>38 (11.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teaching practice</td>
<td>143 (69.8%)</td>
<td>171 (49.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. None of the above</td>
<td>14 (6.8%)</td>
<td>5 (1.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>205 (100%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>343 (100%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field data 2014/15*
Figure 4.6 Group bar graph showing student teachers’ attribution of their TSRs knowledge and competencies to different course aspects

Source: Field data 2014/2015

From Table 4.8 and Figure 4.6, results from the student teachers responses indicate that both in Germany and Tanzania, teaching practice was the most important aspect of the initial teacher education (ITE) which had a greater contribution in promoting the student teachers’ knowledge and competencies about positive TSRs. Results further indicate that teaching practice was more important among student teachers in Germany (69.8%) as compared to their counterparts in Tanzania (49.9%). Educational courses were rated the
second in the order of importance to both countries. It is noticed that the same had the greater contribution among student teachers in Tanzania (35.6%) as compared to their counterparts in Germany (13.7%). Other aspects of initial teacher education, namely, subject didactics and teachings subjects had the smallest contribution in promoting student teachers’ knowledge and competencies towards the positive TSRs competencies. These quantitative results from student teachers would appear to resonate well with the approaches revealed by teacher educators in the qualitative findings. They both gave the greatest priority to the teaching practice followed by educational courses as important approaches. Teaching subjects and subject didactics appeared to be of less importance to the majority of student teachers. Similarly, the same did not feature in the teacher educators’ narratives and themes of the approaches.

4.2.3 (b) Teacher educators’ perspectives on the nature of and character of positive TSRs

Teacher educators are key facilitators in the teacher education process. As they engage with student teachers, teacher educators influence and transmit their beliefs, perspectives, knowledge and other competencies to student teachers. In this regard, their perspectives on positive TSRs were deemed vital in examining the extent to which TSRs were communicated and translated by teacher educators to student teachers. This would, in turn, determine the expected intelligibility, plausibility and fruitfulness of TSRs phenomenon to student teachers. The thematic analysis of the interviews held with teacher educators revealed varied perspectives regarding the nature and character of
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TSRs. Four perspectives emerged as major themes in the analysis of themes. The subsections (i) to (vi) below present the perspectives and their characteristics as emerged from the interviews held with the teacher educators.

(i) Nurturing perspective of positive TSRs
Nurturing emerged as one of the major themes in the thematic analysis of teacher educators’ interviews. Under this perspective, teacher educators in Tanzania and Germany viewed that positive relationships between a teacher and a student were a learned ability. They opined that the foundation of successful TSRs is built on student teachers’ understanding of the nature and character of the relational building, relational virtues and methods. This theme characterised successful positive TSRs, as a product of both theoretical and practical orientation, which initial teacher education, must provide to novice teachers in colleges or universities. As professionals in their field, this perspective held teachers responsible for establishing and sustaining positive relationships necessary for students’ development and learning. In line with this perspective, the following quotes from teacher educators reveal the need to nurture positive TSRs competencies alongside initial teacher education:

The teacher-student relationship was there in the past, and I could personally see it, but we do not see it now; it is not there now—not because it does not exist at all, but is not done the way it is supposed to be. The role of initial teacher education is to prepare student teachers to know the emotional development, the expected social interaction with the students and the limits [...] But I repeat the way things are done now it is very difficult to cater for this role (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 9th June 2014).
I like to liken education with a garden; where a gardener would constantly go and give water and care to the plants in order to grow. Similarly, teachers as gardeners must supply love, care, and positive relationships as means to promote an intellectual, emotional and social development of children in their teaching. This makes the teaching of relationship skills very foundational to our student teachers. It should not be like giving them knowledge and offer them little or no care to apply it (Teacher educator (in Germany) 3rd March 2015).

If I can use a house metaphor, I would equate good relationships as the foundation on which the whole house is constructed. I think this it is an important thing in teachers’ ethos. Our student teachers must be educated in this area and find it possible to promote such kind of relationships in their classes. Whether the class size is small or big it is possible for a teacher to apply some strategies to make his or her students feel that they are valued and respected by their teacher, and this makes learning and development more interesting. I find teacher-student relationships to be at the heart of teachers’ ethos and professionalism (Teacher educator (in Germany) 23rd March 2015).

From the quotations above, one commonality emerges that positive TSRs competencies, can be acquired by student teachers through their initial teacher education. Initial teacher education is an important avenue through which relational exchange knowledge and other competencies can develop.

(ii) Teacher-student relationships as a circumstantial entity

Circumstantial entity emerged as another prominent theme during the analysis of teacher educator perspectives. The theme was built up by the subthemes (related perspectives) that: positive TSRs exist outside of teachers’ efforts or preparedness and/or knowledge about positive TSRs. Or teacher-students relationships are automatic and come through regular classroom interactions. It is also built up by the subtheme that TSRs are
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contingent upon situations such as school leadership, culture, and school policy. The quotations bellow present two typical responses from the proponents in favour of the circumstantial theme:

If I’m talking to you it means we are in a relationship in our communication. If it is in a classroom situation, the teacher is there talking to students, then my belief is that there is a positive relationship between them. If teaching involves two parties, the teacher and the taught then this necessarily suggests that there is a good relationship involved [...] why teach people you don’t relate with? Provided they are your students, you are in good relationships already (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 15th July 2014).

We only teach our student teachers to have a commitment to the teaching and learning process, that is, making sure that learning has to occur at the end of the day. We do not train them on how to relate to students. No! We don’t have courses for that, but we train them on the best teaching and learning methods. We tell them that when they go to a class they will meet students with different backgrounds and may have a different pace of understanding. So we train them well beforehand (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 12th August 2014).

From the quotations, positive TSRs are erroneously considered synonymous to interactions between teacher and students over the subject matter. It is noted further in this perspective that knowledge of subject pedagogy is seen more vital than the knowledge of the nature and character of TSRs to student teachers. In addition, the perspective displays the belief that student teachers’ competency in the teaching and learning methods could cater for the positive TSRs.
(iii) Positive TSRs as a resource dependent phenomenon

Availability of resources was another important theme in the teacher educators’ perspectives. This theme was built up through aggregating two related perspectives (subthemes). Firstly, effective positive TSRs in schools were contingent upon the availability of resources needed for effective participation of the students in the teaching and learning process. Teacher educators claimed that teachers’ competencies to form and sustain positive TSRs with their students are second to the state of resources available for effective teaching and learning. Under this subtheme teacher educators had this comment:

Teacher-student relationships do not only come about by teaching the teachers here at the faculty but it comes with resources. For example, the teacher is given enough books and facilities, and then from these resources, a teacher is comfortable enough to employ excellent methods of teaching and learning. In the course of doing that, good relationship develops with his/her students. So it is all about the resources that enable the classroom interactions. We don’t have a very special thing to train them (student teachers) on how to positively relate with the students (Teacher educator (in Germany) 3rd March 2015).

Secondly, teachers’ ability and commitment to positive TSRs exclusively depends on their incentive (material reward) associated with their teaching job. In this view effort to prepare effective teachers ought to be reflected in the material reward they receive from their service. In support of this perspective the following was commented:
Teachers as employees need motivation and that comes naturally. Even if you already are committed to your profession you still need motivation. Many teachers in this country who were once committed to the teaching profession are not taking it up because of poor motivation. I think we are doing our best as a Faculty of Education to teach them (student teachers) methods, methodologies, and pedagogy; I don’t think we are missing out anything! But the reality on the ground is not cushioning up the efforts when these student teachers enter their work environment. The situation on the ground is so frustrating so to speak! New teachers are received in poverty stricken environment, poor accommodation facilities and no teaching and learning resources. In this situation, what do you expect them to do? (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 12th August 2014).

Besides the teaching and learning resources (textual and non-textual materials) alluded in the first quotation, teacher educators viewed the state of teachers’ motivation (incentive: pay and accommodation facilities) as a key factor in enabling teachers to form and sustain healthy relationships with their students. They opined that the teachers’ ability to relate well with their students in schools could best be understood not only by the quality of initial teacher education but also through adequate teachers’ motivation in their day to day professional functions.

(iv) Positive TSRs originate from student teachers’ background

In this perspective, the ability of student teachers to successfully relate with their students was a direct function of student teachers’ family background and upbringing. It was opined that successful relational exchange as a value-laden phenomenon was dependent upon one’s family exposure to such basic human values and norms. This perspective upheld the roles of a family as a basic unit of socialization in orienting children into
widely acceptable relational values, norms, and virtues. Such values include respect, dignity, justice, care, freedom and the like. Thus, an acquisition of these virtues during their upbringing was considered a prerequisite to enable the student teachers develop and then embark on positive TSRs when at school. The following quotation was given in support of this theme by teacher educators:

Like in any other profession, getting competent teachers who are committed to relating well with their students must partly bear some connections to their moral upbringing in their families. If for instance, student teachers were once part of a democratic family and their views listened to, their dignity respected; they are not going to face problems in embarking on relational exchange with their students that allow freedom, care, and atmosphere of respect for students’ dignity. This is because they were nurtured up in the same kind of values (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 9th June 2014).

This perspective, particularly, contravened the assumptions of the study that positive TSRs competencies are essentially learned and need to be developed during the initial teacher education. Apparently, in this perspective, teacher educators submitted that student teachers upbringing was the decisive factor in determining the extent to which the virtues for TSRs (sociable and democratic values) can be learned and be accepted by them in their professional accomplishment.
4.2.4 Student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining teaching and their association with perceived self-efficacy levels for positive TSRs

In this sub-question, the study comparatively established the motivational reasons behind the student teachers’ choice of the teaching profession. Afterwards, the association between the motivational reasons and student teachers’ self-efficacy for positive TSRs was established. Two offspring questions were addressed: (a) what are the student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession? (b) What are the implications of student teachers’ motivational reasons on their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs? Two categories of motivational reasons were identified as they were theoretically convenient to the study claim. These were intrinsic and extrinsic motivational reasons (Weiss & Kiel, 2013; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Initially, this section presents the comparative graphs for student teachers’ ratings for both countries. It then ends with the findings of the statistical association between the motivational reasons and student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy.

4.2.4 (a) Student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession

Student teachers in Tanzania and Germany indicated their motivational reasons for choosing the teaching profession. The percentages of ratings varied greatly from one motivational reason to the other, and between the two groups of student teachers. The motivational reasons included intrinsic motivational reasons like (i) teaching fits my personality (ii) I feel passion for teaching, and (iii) I want to help in the development of children/youths. The extrinsic category included (i) teaching has high social status (ii)
teaching provides better career prospects (iii) teaching offers better job security (iv) the influence of my family, (v) it is the only available job given my qualifications and (vi) with teaching, it is easy to get a job. Table 4.9 below presents student teachers’ ratings of the reasons by their nationality.

Table 4.9 Student teachers’ responses to reasons held for joining the teaching profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason/motive</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (SD)</th>
<th>Disagree (D)</th>
<th>Agree (A)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (SA)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High social status</td>
<td>TZ (35.0%) GE (56.6%)</td>
<td>TZ (25.1%) GE (25.9%)</td>
<td>TZ (23.6%) GE (13.7%)</td>
<td>TZ (16.3%) GE (2.9%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of my family</td>
<td>TZ (40.8%) GE (37.6%)</td>
<td>TZ (26.2%) GE (32.2%)</td>
<td>TZ (18.7%) GE (19.5%)</td>
<td>TZ (14.3%) GE (8.8%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping in child development</td>
<td>TZ (11.4%) GE (1.5%)</td>
<td>TZ (10.5%) GE (4.9%)</td>
<td>TZ (35.0%) GE (35.6%)</td>
<td>TZ (42.9%) GE (57.1%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>TZ (19.5%) GE (4.9%)</td>
<td>TZ (15.5%) GE (26.3%)</td>
<td>TZ (34.7%) GE (51.2%)</td>
<td>TZ (30.3%) GE (15.6%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better career prospects</td>
<td>TZ (11.1%) GE (23.4%)</td>
<td>TZ (19.8%) GE (45.4%)</td>
<td>TZ (39.4%) GE (27.8%)</td>
<td>TZ (29.7%) GE (2.4%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It fits my personality</td>
<td>TZ (15.5%) GE (2.0%)</td>
<td>TZ (22.7%) GE (9.3%)</td>
<td>TZ (32.7%) GE (40.5%)</td>
<td>TZ (29.2%) GE (47.3%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only job for my qualifications</td>
<td>TZ (60.9%) GE (62.9%)</td>
<td>TZ (18.7%) GE (21%)</td>
<td>TZ (9.3%) GE (9.8%)</td>
<td>TZ (11.1%) GE (5.4%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easy to get job</td>
<td>TZ (19.5%) GE (43.9%)</td>
<td>TZ (8.7%) GE (41.0%)</td>
<td>TZ (27.4%) GE (14.1%)</td>
<td>TZ (43.7%) GE (0%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of passion for teaching</td>
<td>TZ (20.4%) GE (4.9%)</td>
<td>TZ (14.6%) GE (15.6%)</td>
<td>TZ (32.7%) GE (38.0%)</td>
<td>TZ (32.4%) GE (40.5%)</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: field data, 2014/2015. **Legend**: TZ* Tanzania, GE* Germany

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d I wanted to help in the development of children and youth

One of the intrinsic reasons indicated by student teachers as to why they joined the teaching profession was that they wanted to help in the development of children and youths. This reason was highly positively rated by student teachers in both countries. For instance, the combined percentage of strongly agree (SA) and agree (A) ratings give 92.7% and 77.9% for Germany and Tanzania respectively. The rating, however, indicates
that the motivational reason was more important among German student teachers than their counterparts in Tanzania. Figure 4.7 presents the distribution of the comparative percentage ratings with regard to the motivational reason.

![Group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivational reason: I want to help in the development of children](image)

**Figure 4.7** Group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivational reason: *I want to help in the development of children*

**Source:** Field data, 2014/2015

*Teaching fits my personality*

Student teachers’ ratings of this intrinsic reason indicated that student teachers’ personality was another important motivational reason for their choice of the teaching profession. Positive percentage ratings indicated that 87.5% and 61.9% for Germany and
Tanzania respectively. Also, this motivational reason indicated an increase in negative ratings in the motivation among Tanzanian student teachers (38.2%) as compared to German student teachers (12.3%). As indicated in the previous motivational reason, comparatively, the ratings indicated that the student teachers’ personality was far more important among student teachers in Germany than the student teachers in Tanzania. Figure 4.8 presents the comparative distribution of the entire motivational reason ratings.

Figure 4.8 A group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivational reason: *It fits my personality*

**Source:** Field data 2014/2015
Feeling of passion for teaching

Student teachers’ rating indicated that the feeling of passion for teaching was another intrinsic reason for their choice of the teaching profession. Percentage ratings show slightly higher positive ratings among student teachers in Germany (78.5%) as compared to their counterparts in Tanzania (75.1%). This indicates among others, that the feeling of passion for teaching was slightly more important among student teachers in Germany than in Tanzania. Figure 4.9 presents the distribution of the comparative percentage ratings for the feeling of passion for teaching.

Figure 4.9 A group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivation reason: Feeling of passion for teaching

Source: Field data 2014/2015
Teaching offers better job security

Job security was one among the three most important extrinsic motivational reasons. Student teachers indicated that job security in the teaching profession was one among the reasons that made them choose the teaching profession. Comparative rating between Germany and Tanzania revealed that this reason was equally important among student teachers in Germany (66.8%) and Tanzania (65.0%). Figure 4.10 presents the comparative percentage distribution of rating for the motivational reason.

Figure 4.10 A group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivational reason: Job security

Source: Field data 2014/2015
With teaching, it is easy to get a job

The motivation for choosing to join teaching due to the ease of getting a job after professional training was another extrinsic reason that was positively rated higher by student teachers in Tanzania (71.1%) compared to student teachers in Germany (14.1%). Amazingly, student teachers in Germany completely did not rate “Strongly agree” to this motivational reason (0.0%) whereas their counterparts in Tanzania positively rated it by (43.7%). This indicated a sharp inverse relation of this motivational reason among the student teachers in the two countries. Figure 4.11 captures the comparative percentage distribution for the motivational reason.
Figure 4.11 A group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivational reason: *With teaching, it is easy to get a job*

**Source:** Field data 2014/2015

*Teaching provides better career prospects*

The potential for better career prospects was among the extrinsic motivational reason rated by student teacher for their choice of the teaching profession. This motivational reason was positively rated higher (SA+A) by student teachers in Tanzania (69.1%) than their counterparts in Germany (30.2%) of (SA+A). Conversely, student teachers in Germany had higher negative ratings of 68.8% strongly disagree and disagree (SD+D),
against only 30.9% ratings (SD+D) for Tanzanian student teachers. This indicates that the motivational reason was by far more important among student teachers in Tanzania than in Germany. The Figure 4.12 presents the comparative distribution in percentage for the motivational reason.

*Figure 4.12* Group bar graph showing comparative percentage ratings for the motivational reason: *Teaching provides better career prospects*

*Source:* Field data, 2014/2015
4.2.4 (b) The association between student teachers’ motivation for joining the teaching profession and their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs.

Is there any statistically significant association between student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession and their perceived self-efficacy levels for positive TSRs?

To answer the above question, Chi-squared test ($X^2$) was performed for both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation related reasons. The ratings were transformed into “TDisagree”, Total Disagree (for disagree and strongly disagree) as well as “TAgree”, Total Agree (for agree and strongly agree), the two columns were cross-tabulated with the three categories of the “Total Perceived Self-efficacy (TPSE) scores” (classified in Low, Moderate and High) in rows. Table 4.10 presents the summarised Chi-Squared test results for the association of each motivational reason for Germany and Tanzania. The Chi-squared tests were performed at 95% confidence level (CI) with a corresponding significance value $p$, (alpha) of .05.
Table 4.10 An extract of Chi-squared test ($X^2$) results for the association between student teachers’ motivational reasons and their perceived self-efficacy levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational reason(s)</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Chi-squared results</th>
<th>Decision on the association</th>
<th>Cramer’s V effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helping in the development of children and youths [IM]</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 2.558 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) .752 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching fits my personality [IM]</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) .296 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 1.471 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of passion for teaching [IM]</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) .782 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 6.058 ($p &lt; .05$)</td>
<td>Confirmed</td>
<td>.175, Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching provides better job security [EM]</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 1.105 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 14.722 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching provides better career prospects [EM]</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 3.102 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 2.822 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With teaching, it is easy to get job [EM]</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 10.075 ($p &lt; .05$)</td>
<td>Confirmed</td>
<td>.173, Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$X^2$ (2df) 2.645 ($p &gt; .05$)</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extract from performed Chi-square tests. Actual result tables are presented in Appendix 7.

Legend= df* degrees of freedom, IM* intrinsic motivation, and EM* extrinsic motivation.

The Chi-squared test results shown in the Table 4.9 above indicate that there was no statistically significant association between most of the motivational reasons rated by the student teachers and their perceived self-efficacy levels for relating with their (future) students ($p > .05$). Nevertheless, the Chi-squared test results indicated that there is statistically significant association of ‘Feeling of passion for teaching’ motivational
reason and perceived self-efficacy levels for positive TSRs among student teachers in Germany ($X^2$ (2df) 6.058 ($p < .05$). As for Tanzania, the Chi-squared test indicated that there is a statistically significant association of ‘with teaching is easy to get a job’ motivational reason and student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy ($X^2$(2df) 10.075 ($p < .05$)).

Correspondingly, the analysis of teacher educators’ views about the relevance of the student teachers’ motivational reasons in positive TSRs revealed two important themes. First, no formal criteria were purposely set to ensure that student teachers joining the teaching profession had intrinsic motivation only or possession of the commitment to the teaching profession. The conventional academic merits were the only criterion. Teaching like any other profession was accessed by student teachers with various motivational backgrounds. The following quotations from the teacher educators’ interviews reflect the situation in the recruitment of student teachers in the teacher education:

[...] I am saying this because one requires having the right people recruited in the teaching profession. On the contrary, we are seeing now people who are joining the teaching profession are not committed; because the teaching profession in Tanzania has enough job opportunities. Many are joining teaching for the purpose of getting employment. Also, it is because the Government has extended funding (loans) to teaching degrees as a priority; so many students regardless of their professional preference are convinced to join teaching just because of the funding (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 9th June 2014).
I may not be precise, but from what I know, teaching is not the best profession in Germany in status as other professions. It is not the profession one would stand up in a party and majestically say I am a teacher! So I think this shows that student teachers have various reasons for their choice of the teaching profession. Besides the intrinsic reasons, we have had many student teachers joining special education course in our faculty just because a brother, a sister or another relative in the family has special needs (Teacher educator (in Germany) 3\textsuperscript{rd} March 2015).

Secondly, with regards to the association between student teachers’ motivation and the perceived self-efficacy for positive teacher-student relationships, two opposing observations were identified. The first observation supports the fact that getting student teachers with intrinsic motivation to the teaching profession was a necessary requirement for professional excellence. In this observation, teacher educators reaffirmed that teaching is a sociable profession in its nature; therefore, it requires people with a sense of commitment and love for the teaching job to be able to establish and sustain positive relationships with students. In this regard, the following quotations capture the teacher educators’ experience of the role of intrinsic motivational reasons in professional tasks of teachers:

Sure, it goes without saying! The situation on the ground is different from our experience in the past. In the past, we used to get the right people who were committed to the teaching profession. This is the key attribute to their effective professional conduct. One needs to come to feel that he/she is doing a job which they like. Together with right personalities, teacher education exists to change them and impart in them the professional qualities (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 9\textsuperscript{th} June 2014).
Some of the student teachers got into the teaching profession because their parents had no money to pay for degrees they wanted. In such a situation, I do not think they can be very committed to the teaching profession. These ones will soon or later look for some money to study something they like and feel attracted to. I think the government (of Tanzania) must not continue to give a hundred percent (100%) loan to education degrees at the expense of other degrees (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 15th August 2014).

The other observation that emerged under this theme unveiled that positive TSRs in schools should not be explained only by the intrinsic motivational reasons teachers hold for joining the teaching profession. Instead, the positive TSRs competencies are seen as a direct product of an effective initial teacher education and the supportive structures found at a school level. The following quotations from the teacher educators portray this observation:

I think we are doing our best as the faculty of education, we teach them (student teachers) methods in pedagogy; I don’t think we are missing out anything! But the reality on the ground is not cushioning up the efforts when these student teachers enter their work environment. The situation on the ground is so frustrating so to speak! New teachers are received in poverty stricken environment, poor accommodation facilities—no teaching and learning resources. In this situation, what do you expect them to do? (Teacher educator (in Tanzania) 21st May 2014)

You go to school and you don’t find teachers at all! Classes are big and you have to teach them! You look at the class size there are 110 students, typical of our community secondary schools! Policy-wise you are told a class should have a maximum of 45 students, and here are 65 students more! To me the moment they [teachers] get there they get discouraged and get frustrated. Something just builds up in their mind that what the hell is this? And they start developing a negative notion towards the work. Immediately, the whole morale sinks down and they are not ready to work (Teacher educator, 12th August 2014).
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In the latter theme, effective initial teacher education was seen as supreme to student teachers’ held motivational reasons. They opined that the role of initial teacher education was that of changing and empowering student teachers to be able to autonomously accomplish their professional roles including embarking on positive relational exchange. In addition, the school environment and the support facilities or materials available in schools are deemed as important determinants for teachers’ professional service including their TSRs patterns.
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the presentation of the study findings. The rationale for this chapter includes: firstly, to provide an illumination of the findings of the present study. Secondly, to link the study findings with the literature in explaining their convergence and divergence with respect to the research questions. Thirdly, to draw implications of the findings in light of the conceptual framework employed in this investigation. Fourthly, to conduct a thorough examination of the findings that failed to support the study claims in understanding the role of the university-based initial teacher education in positive TSRs in Germany and Tanzania. This chapter is logically necessary for building justifiable grounds for drawing conclusions and recommendations of the study in the next chapter.

5.2 Discussion of the findings

In this chapter, the discussion of findings is organised in line with research sub-questions. This organisation permits for a systematic approach when addressing the major themes under investigation while allowing for a vertical integration of the phenomena discussed among the research sub-questions. The sections include the following: (1) Student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs; (2) Student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs; (3) Approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs, and (4) The implications of motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession on perceived self-efficacy.
5.2.1 Student teachers’ knowledge of positive teacher-student relationships

An excellent command of knowledge is one of the supreme qualities of teachers’ professional excellence (Cooper, 2011). The rationale for this research sub-question anchored on the fact that student teachers derive their autonomy as professionals from the mastery of theoretical and practical knowledge (Carr, 2000; Mulcahy, 2011; Shapira-Lischinsky, 2009). Conventionally, teaching requires teachers to have a thorough knowledge of their subject matter and its didactics, science and arts of pedagogy, and a repertoire of practical skills that facilitate students learning (UNESCO, 2009). Eventually, possession of the latter quality enables teachers to display approaches that encourage learning and genuine human relationships (Cooper, 2011).

In particular, the development of genuine human relationships in teaching and learning settings rests on teachers’ possession of knowledge and its subsequent application in dealing with students (Veldman et al., 2013). Literature indicates that such knowledge may include, but is not limited to, the following aspects: first, comprehending teachers’ role as the relational agent with students (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Maulana et al., 2011). Second, a thorough grasp of relational development levels in the classroom and school settings (Jones, 2009). Third, the knowledge of virtues required to form and sustain positive relationships. Fourth, awareness of students’ holistic development in order to master their relational needs (Hamre & Pianta, 2005). Fifth, acquaintance to patterns of relational communication, skills and techniques needed for sustained relational building (Guerrero, 2011; Pianta et al., 2012).
In the conceptual change theory; the acquisition of thorough knowledge and beliefs about the positive TSRs was presumed as a key attribute in promoting positive TSRs competencies among student teachers. Arguably, the student teachers’ knowledge of TSRs is viewed as a critical determinant which ascertains the extent to which student teachers comprehend the kind of relationships and virtues they are called to emulate in their teaching service (Pianta et al., 2012).

Student teachers in this regard were asked to respond to questions that reflected their comprehension of basic facts about TSRs, as well as virtues they ought to display in fostering the same. The findings indicated that student teachers in Germany had statistically significant higher command of TSRs knowledge in both basic facts and relational virtues than their counterparts in Tanzania. In light of these findings, despite the change that could be attributable to the initial teacher education, student teachers in Germany revealed a better command of positive TSRs prior to their initial teacher education. It may be argued that the student teachers’ prior knowledge and experiences could have contributed to the difference and change in the acquisition of the TSRs knowledge between them (Ausubel, 2000; Spilt et al., 2012).

The findings from the summative content analysis of the student teachers’ responses presented four thematic clusters of meanings. It was observed from the thematic clusters that despite the difference discussed above, the majority of student teachers in Germany and Tanzania comprehended positive TSRs as an interaction between a teacher and
student for the purpose of attaining academic goals. This comprehension is considered as a low view of the ideal positive teacher-student relationships (Giles, 2012; Jones, 2009). The interaction between teachers and students is what initiates the process of relating and relational building (Jones, 2009). Hence, limiting positive TSRs to just interactions restricts the positive TSRs to a task level and derides the special nature of the teacher-student relationships (Guerrero et al., 2011). Again, the academic-centred motive for positive TSRs is viewed as redundant in its scope. The scope of TSRs should transcend the task level type of relationships (Giles, 2008). Student teachers ought to recognise and place primacy on the holistic nature of learning when dealing with their students. It should not be like that of shopkeepers and their customers, whereby, their “relationships” end with the shopkeepers delivering commodities and receiving the payments. Indeed, this view had more responses from Tanzania as compared to Germany (see Table 4.2, p. 137).

The second thematic cluster of meanings from the analysis of student teachers’ responses linked positive TSRs to a kind of relationship. This theme was (in terms of quality of TSRs) rated higher than interaction view (Jones, 2009). The theme had an equal number of frequencies from Tanzania and Germany. This seems to suggest that student teachers had a better comprehension of the special nature of the TSRs. That is to say, unlike an interaction (or role/task level relationship), positive teacher-student relationships call for a specific kind of attention in terms of knowledge, efforts and virtues to attain it (Campbell, 2003; Pianta et al., 2012). It can be learned from this thematic cluster that the
student teachers demonstrate awareness that forming positive TSRs calls for a speciality or competencies. Furthermore, teaching and learning processes could best be facilitated in the presence of such kind of relationships.

The third theme that emerged from the analysis of student teacher responses on positive TSRs was a building process. This theme was rated the third among the four extracted themes in the analysis. It was evaluated as close to the ideal view of positive teacher-student relationships. In addition, this theme embraces the fact that positive teacher-student relationship is a built phenomenon (Jones, 2009; Maulana et al., 2011). Being a product of a building process, it requires reciprocity of efforts and mutual understanding between the two actors (student and teacher) (Fulford, 2015; Glasser, 1998). It implies a give-and-take scenario and that the teacher as an expert is duty-bound to initiate the process of building relationships using different techniques, communication, organisation and gestures (Cooper, 2011). More importantly, the theme transcends the boundaries of teaching methods by allowing relationship building-driven techniques within and outside classroom settings. Subsequently, as a result of consistency in behavioural interdependence and need fulfilment, the positive TSRs grow within them as a necessary stage for the next level of positive TSRs (Fulford, 2015).

The last thematic code that emerged from the content analysis constituted connecting or bond formation cluster of meanings. This was evaluated as the most ideal of all the themes that emerged from the student teachers responses (Giles, 2008; Liberante, 2009;
Sands, 2011). This theme suggests a more stable and sustainable relational atmosphere where mutual trust has been established and a tangible sense of psychological security between teacher and students prevails (Jones, 2009; Klaassen, 2012). Unfortunately, this view had the least representation of all the themes, the majority being student teachers in Germany. In this theme, attainment of academic goals and objectives was not the only driving motive in the teaching and learning processes but teaching and learning in its holistic sense. That is teaching which considers intellectual, social and emotional dimensions of students’ development (Meier, 2005; Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008). This view is in agreement with Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy which holds that unless physiological and safety needs are satisfied, students may hardly feel motivated by the higher level needs like the need to learn. The need to learn, in this regard, can be placed as one of the esteem needs (Maslow, 1954). This theme, suggests the fact that the creation of positive relational atmosphere (like trust, emotional and psychological security) is a pre-requisite for academic and non-academic attainments of education (Glasser, 1997; Hattie, 2012). This, in turn, benefits not only students in a given class settings but also teachers as they work in a mutually rewarding and responsive atmosphere (Maulana et al., 2011; Palmer, 1997).

Perhaps more important in reflecting the central thesis of the study was the question: Does the university-based initial teacher education contribute to the positive TSRs competencies? This question explicitly called for the manifestation of a change in student teachers’ TSRs knowledge, beliefs and perceived self-efficacy levels as a result of the
initial teacher education. To address the knowledge part, the study compared the final-year and beginner student teachers. As highlighted in the chapter on findings, the results of this comparison were necessary in order to ascertain whether or not the initial teacher education could have contributed to a significant change in student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs.

Findings from Tanzania indicated that the final-year student teachers had a statistically significant medium effect size of change (Cohen’s $d = 0.72$) in TSRs knowledge (as measured by their command of basic facts and behavioural virtues). These findings suggest that as compared to beginners, final-year student teachers had acquired a moderate change in their positive TSRs knowledge. The findings might further suggest that the university-based initial teacher education in Tanzania had accorded some impetus in fostering student teachers relationship knowledge. Like in Tanzania, findings from Germany indicated that in the area of positive TSRs knowledge, the final-year student teachers had a significant moderate effect size of change (Cohen’s $d=0.76$). These findings suggest that the initial teacher education had a significant role in adding positive TSRs knowledge.

The findings in the TSRs knowledge indicated that student teachers in Germany joined the university-based initial teacher education with significantly higher TSRs knowledge ($M=2.72, SD=0.71$) than their Tanzanian counterparts with ($M=2.39, SD=0.56$). Indeed, the revealed difference in the initial knowledge of TSRs could be attributed to factors
such as student teachers’ general knowledge index before the university teacher education, their motivation and interest for joining the teaching profession (Weiss & Kiel, 2013), as well as student teachers’ private reading habits. These attributes might have contributed to the observed differences in student teachers’ prior knowledge of TSRs.

Despite the revealed difference in positive TSRs knowledge among final-year and beginner student teachers in Germany and Tanzania, the findings leave more to be desired in qualitative terms. Generally, the final-year student teachers’ command of TSRs knowledge falls short of the expected precision. This limitation has to do with the shortcomings inherent in the current definition of TSRs and its orientation during the initial teacher education. As it will be suggested later, student teachers’ comprehension and mastery of TSRs could be reverberated by redefining the TSRs and its place in the initial teacher education. TSRs knowledge given to student teacher will, therefore, enable them to embrace the high view of positive TSRs and their role in fostering them.

5.2.2 Student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs

Positive teacher-student relationships are inevitable in the process of teaching and learning as well as in the development of students (Meier, 2005; Pianta, et al., 2012). Student teachers’ beliefs about this fact are viewed as an important springboard for their efforts to form and sustain positive TSRs in their future professional roles (Kuzborka, 2011). Teachers who intend to make a difference embrace TSRs in their day-to-day professional accomplishment as a critical component that has a major effect on teaching
and learning. Such a belief of positive TSRs is an important indicator of the value teachers put in their relational exchange with students (Kuzborska, 2011; Liberante, 2012; Li, 1999).

Equally important, student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy for their ability to promote and form the positive TSRs is a necessary yardstick in determining their preparedness in handling TSRs (He & Levin, 2008). As argued in the Self-efficacy theory, a high individual’s self-efficacy is associated with the likelihood that individual has what it takes. Therefore, they stand a better chance to successfully carry out the given task (Bandura, 1997; Gavora, 2010; Hong, 2010; Li, 1999). In this regard, a high sense of perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs was deemed necessary for executing their expected roles as future teachers.

The findings of the study indicated that an average of 53.9% of the final-year student teachers (in Germany and Tanzania) showed the beliefs about the necessity of positive TSRs. They believed that positive TSRs were crucial for learning and for the overall students’ development in teaching and learning. Besides, a considerable proportion of student teachers (46.1%) were yet to embrace the belief that TSRs had a major effect on learning and development. Possession of such beliefs by final-year student teachers, who were about to begin teaching undertakings might suggest the following: Firstly, in their university-based initial teacher education, the aspects of positive TSRs were either insignificant or not systematically addressed to bring about the expected realisation. Secondly, regardless of the knowledge imparted to them about positive TSRs, many
student teachers were not yet convinced or changed to fully comprehend the vital position of a positive relational exchange with students.

Apart from the beliefs, another vital aspect was concerned with promoting student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain TSRs. This requires equipping novice teachers with not only the necessary knowledge and techniques to embark on successful relationships building but also practical TSRs experiences (Pandergast et al., 2011). Having mastered the necessary knowledge and competencies they need for relational exchange with their students, student teachers are then expected to demonstrate a strong sense of perceived self-efficacy, preparedness, and confidence in accomplishing the same in future (Liberante, 2012; Van Uden et al., 2013). The stronger the beliefs and self-efficacy student teachers have for the positive relational exchange, would imply their higher readiness to promote it when dealing with their students (Li, 1999; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008).

The findings of this study have indicated that a very low percentage of final-year student teachers from both Germany (5%) and Tanzania (6%) had high levels of perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs. The majority of student teachers clustered in the second category, indicating the possession of moderate perceived self-efficacy levels. That is, 81% and 70% for Germany and Tanzania respectively. It was also indicated in this milieu that a considerable proportion of the student teachers had low perceived self-efficacy, the majority being from Tanzania. In general, the results
indicated that student teachers in Germany had a statistically significant higher perceived self-efficacy level \( (p=.000) \) than their counterparts in Tanzania. The existence of such a difference can be attributed to the longer duration of both teaching practice and theoretical instruction given to the student teachers in Germany compared to Tanzania. The difference could be the result of student teachers’ private reading habits. It can also be the impact of prior knowledge of TSRs on student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy (Ausubel, 2000).

More importantly, the impact of the initial teacher education in promoting a change in student teachers’ self-efficacy was determined by comparing beginners and final-year student teachers. The results of this comparison were necessary in order to ascertain if the initial teacher education could contribute to a final-year student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy. This provides information about their preparedness in handling TSRs as compared to that of the beginner student teachers. Findings from Tanzania indicated a statistically significant change in the perceived self-efficacy with the corresponding larger effect size (Cohen’s \( d=1.651 \)) than in Germany with Cohen’s \( d=0.67 \). These results may imply that the initial teacher education in Tanzania had a stronger effect in promoting student teachers perceived self-efficacy levels to form and sustain positive TSRs. The findings also can further suggest that the low TSRs knowledge as shown by the student teachers in Tanzania are likely to have negatively affected their sense of preparedness, hence limiting their perceived self-efficacy to the maximum average of only \( M=35.96 \) out of 56.00 points of the Total Perceived Self-efficacy (TPSE) score.
Also, these findings can be interpreted to mean that the student teachers were not adequately prepared to handle and sustain positive relationships with their students (Li, 1999).

Further to that, a comparison of the German student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy levels, beginners ($M=34.58$) and final-year students ($M=37.88$), suggests that student teachers in Germany start off their initial teacher education with relatively higher perceived self-efficacy levels. This can imply a relatively smaller contribution of the initial teacher education intervention to this particular competence. On the contrary, student teachers in Tanzania start off their teacher education with much lower perceived self-efficacy levels ($M=27.13$) and end up with moderate self-efficacy levels ($M=35.96$) in their final year. These results indicate that the final-year student teachers in Germany demonstrate a relatively higher state of readiness to deal with positive TSRs. Yet, for German student teachers, the presence of the second phase of the initial teacher education (Referendariat) offers more to expect in terms of a practical orientation of the perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs (Hilligus, 2015; Van Buer, 2015).

The findings have also indicated that student teachers’ self-efficacy levels to form and sustain positive relationships with students had a significant association with the student teachers’ knowledge of the positive TSRs. It was indicated that the higher the TSRs knowledge, the higher their perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive relationships with students. This finding affirms the central theoretical assumption of this
study that knowledge acquisition was imperative in raising student teachers’ conception and self-efficacy for positive TSRs. TSRs knowledge enhances student teachers’ confidence in handling positive TSRs (Pandergast et al., 2011). Certainly, the difference in the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy between Tanzania and Germany can likely be a clear illustration of the impact of the difference in TSRs knowledge.

The results of the positive association between student teachers’ TSRs knowledge and self-efficacy levels are in agreement with recent studies on teacher professional competencies and professional autonomy (Frostenson, 2015; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). The study underscores the fact that mastery of knowledge is a key condition for the manifestation of both professional competencies and autonomy in teaching. Indeed, Li (1999) and Sexton (2008), caution that in a situation where initial teacher education is not transformative in changing the knowledge, beliefs and abilities there are chances that student teachers may still remain professionally incompetent in spite of their merit. This limitation may restrain student teachers’ positive TSRs competencies.

In general, according to Raufelder et al. (2013), their observation in Germany revealed that teachers in schools failed to form and sustain positive relationships because of their inability to appreciate its value and the lack of knowledge on how to go about it. In their view, the strict insistence and tilted focus on academic rigour and merit could never be a substitute for the teachers’ preparedness for the positive TSRs. They affirmed that teachers’ competencies (in the areas of knowledge, beliefs, self-efficacy and other
affective competencies) are inevitable during the teachers’ initial education. Arguably, they asserted that the panacea for the effective handling of relational exchange lies in striking a good balance in the nurturing of the cognitive, social and emotional competencies among student teachers.

5.2.3 Approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs

The development of student teachers’ competencies for effective TSRs requires a deliberate application of approaches. In this regard, major themes which emerged from the analysis of the teacher educators’ interviews supplemented the student teachers’ attribution of course aspects to positive TSRs. The broad themes (approaches) therefore include the teaching practice, educational courses with an orientation to positive TSRs, as well as role modelling. The approaches were considered vital for presenting appropriate relationships competencies while allowing student teachers opportunities for reflection and change (Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003).

From the conceptual change theory, the acquisition of thorough TSRs knowledge through various aspects of the initial teacher education is viewed as a necessary attribute in promoting positive TSRs competencies. Themes that emerged from the analysis of interviews (held with teacher educators) have revealed that both Germany and Tanzania rely profoundly on teaching practice and education related courses. Educational courses like Educational Psychology and Sociology of Education were prominent in empowering student teachers with competencies needed for relational exchange with their students. In
light of these findings, one wonders what happens to the rest of the course aspects with the inbuilt potential to promote the said competencies among student teachers (Jones, 2009). An example of such course aspects is Subject Didactics. Subject Didactics aims at theoretically and practically enabling student teachers to communicate their specialised subject contents to students. In doing so, student teachers ought to be taught how to apply different teaching approaches and techniques in line with the overarching theories of education (Frostenson, 2015; European Commission, 2013).

Normatively, Subject Didactics appears to be one of the best avenues through which TSRs competencies could be learned. More often than not, teachers encounter their students when communicating their subject matter in classroom settings. It can be submitted that pairing the pro-relational knowledge alongside their subject didactics would provide the student teachers with a more relevant orientation on the actual positive TSRs strategies. In addition, this was perceived as a critical aspect where the building of supportive relational atmosphere is vital. It can be interpreted that the overlook of Subject Didactics as a positive TSRs training avenue denies student teachers the chance to reinvigorate the link between their own teaching subjects’ contents, pedagogy and relational needs in their practical lesson planning and development (Terhart, 2011; Townsend & Bates, 2011). Teaching activities are susceptible to constant uncertainties (Dall’Alba, 2009; Pandergast et al., 2011). This situation requires that initial teacher education empowers student teachers with “adaptive teaching expertise” in their Subjects Didactics. The adaptive expertise empowers them to navigate their teaching plans, aims,
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practices, and situations to attain students’ learning needs (Hattie, 2012; Vogt & Rogalla, 2009).

The implementation of the teaching practice and educational courses approaches has been reported to operate in a situation constrained by inadequate resources, incompetence among teacher educators as well as organisational pitfalls (Anangisye, 2010; Buer, 2015; Hilligus, 2015; Kafyulilo et al., 2013). As revealed in the findings, these predicaments were not new to the teacher education system. As such, they have forced teacher educators to embark on doing what is possible for them given the resources at their disposal or based on what they know. As a response to the above predicaments, teacher educators resorted to adjusting their teaching (contents and other practices) to suit the state of resources available. Such adjustments not only had detrimental consequences on the quality of teacher education provision but also were at the expense of some vital competencies such as the positive TSRs. Admittedly, positive TSRs attributes were regarded lesser important, because the focus was inclined towards the cognitive aspects of the initial teacher education.

Findings from Tanzania and Germany have indicated that the rush to complete what is prescribed in the syllabus had resulted into teaching only what the lecturers seemed important, like methods of teaching, subject contents and others. This confession by teacher educators raises two important speculations in the initial teacher education discourse. Firstly, there is the possibility that the inevitability of positive TSRs
competencies had suffered inadequacies among teacher educators leading to their neglect or omission in the daily education repertoire. Secondly, there is a likely perpetuation of the old tradition that an excellent teacher is the one in possession of a good command of his subject matter, while attaching little or no importance to other qualities like the relational needs and competencies (Palmer, 1997; Jones, 2009). Indeed, such twisted preference would appear to bring back the defeated notion that anyone with subject knowledge can effectively teach (Hattie, 2012, 2008; Townsend & Bates, 2007).

The implication of the above limitations might suggest the following: Firstly, the unveiled lack of adequate time for teaching practice and corresponding reflective classroom sessions was one of the hindrances to effective mastery of the actual TSRs competencies. Despite having practical teaching sessions their administration and organisation leaves question with regards to their relevance to positive TSRs competencies. Buer (2015) observes that the notion of theory-practice in the university-based teacher education was restricted by the restrictive assessment exercise during teaching practice. Both Buer (2015) and Bargen (2014) critique the assessment of student teachers in schools during the teaching practice do not constitute the actual rigour in fostering professional practice, but is a mere visit for its own sake. They further state that this insufficiency is characterised by an absence of emotional engagement from the student teacher; instead the student teachers assume the perspective of a distant observer (pp. 160-161). They dismiss the argument of previous studies that the teaching practice sessions are too short to promote student teachers’ competencies. As indicated in the
findings, the challenge on the ground is for the universities to ensure the effectiveness of the teaching practice sessions through well-structured follow-ups, positive TSRs informed assessments and student teachers’ support.

Secondly, the inability to model student teachers into the expected patterns of TSRs in the university was also attributed to the problem of limited or inadequate resources as compared to the student teachers enrolled. Teacher educators pointed out that overcrowded classes, as well as large student numbers per teacher educator, were among the reasons for superficiality in their treatment. Owing to the overcrowded classes and the multi-tasked working environment in the university, teacher educators had adopted to meet their student teachers only during lecture time. They failed to conduct regular academic consultations and counselling sessions on professional and social affairs. It can be observed that the approaches to positive TSRs in the initial teacher education do not adequately represent the teacher education’s metaphors of effective participation, construction and becoming (Dall’Alba, 2009; Hagar & Hodkinson, 2011; Mulcahy, 2011). Major focus in the teacher education was inclined towards content coverage while very little emphasis was given to reflective practices that could particularly ensure positive TSRs competencies.

Neglect of the TSRs competencies was manifested in the knowledge and beliefs presented by the student teachers and the perspective given by the teacher educators. It was also clear that positive TSRs lacked a clear strategy of its orientation among the
student teachers. At this juncture, it is worth reiterating Glasser (1998) whose opinion is that the neglect of intellectual relationships always works to de-humanise the education process leading to its loss of value (p. 76). Effective preparation of student teachers must be based on deliberate efforts that are directed toward building their positive human relationships (Glasser, 1998; Klaassen, 2012).

Remarkably, revealed varied perspectives among the teacher educators about the nature and character of positive teacher-student relationships. The different and contradicting perspectives of what constitutes positive TSRs included the following: Some teacher educators perceived it to be a learned ability, which can be nurtured theoretically and practically through teacher education. Others viewed the positive TSRs as an ever-present entity; that occurs naturally without the actors’ efforts or cognitions. They recognised relational exchange ability to be an automatic and serendipitously occurring phenomenon. In addition, some linked the ability of positive teacher-student relational exchange for the state of availability of resources. To them, the presence of teaching and learning materials coupled with sound motivation and incentives for teachers was the most important requirement for positive TSRs. Lastly, was the view that student teachers’ family background, in terms of their early experiences with relational behaviours and values was a critical factor. Student teachers’ family experiences were seen as capable of determining how flexibly student teachers can acclimatize to relational exchange with their students.
The varied perspectives held by teacher educators were considered to impose limitations to the expected orientation of positive teacher-student relationships in the following ways: Firstly, as key implementers of initial teacher education, teacher educators’ perspectives and beliefs are normally transmitted to the student teachers (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). As a consequence, when such perspectives are not coherent among teacher educators, they are likely to lose intelligibility, plausibility and fruitfulness in the student teachers’ conception, thus inhibiting the change (Campbell, 2003; Palmer, 1997). Secondly, contradicting perspectives among teacher educators would appear to suggest that despite their fundamental nature, the realisation of positive TSRs among teacher educators was still vague. This could further suggest that the approaches for positive teacher-student relationships in place lacked clear focus, clear motivation and were uncoordinated.

Thirdly, contradicting perspectives among teacher educators were likely to have projected such varied beliefs and perceptions among student teachers as presented in their responses to the question: what is your belief of the effect of positive TSRs on students’ learning and development? Contrary to the coherent view in the literature (Meier, 2005; Liberante, 2013 & Pianta et al., 2012), their responses in this regard indicated that a high percentage of final-year student teachers in Tanzania and Germany is yet to conceive the positive TSRs as a critical phenomenon with a major effect on student learning and development.
These findings would resonate with the unfulfilled wishes of the Teacher Education and Development Strategy (2007) for Tanzania. The Strategy affirms the need to build teacher educators’ competencies in order to allow for the trickle-down effect of teachers’ skills and competencies to the lower levels of education (Klaassen, 2012). The excerpt below captures the expectations of the strategy:

[…] The best strategy is to start at the top, such as in the production of tutors and lecturers. In this way, good teaching behaviours can trickle down. If there are bad teaching behaviours up there, say at the university level, one would get a poor product which will trickle downwards, introducing compromises of efficiency and effectiveness, at lower levels such as repetition and remediation which affect the performance of the entire system. Therefore, we should start right at the top (URT [TDMS], 2007, p. 10).

The literature on teacher professional competence underscores the primacy of teachers’ autonomy in their professional accomplishment (Frostenson, 2015; Hattie, 2012). At the individual level of their autonomy, teaching entails the teachers’ role to enhance learners’ knowledge through a continual process of building new knowledge from learners’ prior experiences. Teachers must aid them to establish the relatedness of things learnt with their immediate environment (Cooper, 2011; Terhart, 2011). Indeed, the application of this theory to teaching and learning works better in a classroom cushioned with the environment of genuine human relationships (Kesner, 2000; Beebe & Timothy, 2009).

It follows that the preparation of ideal teachers in the universities would require approaches that bring about a change not only in the theory of knowing and doing (epistemology) but also in the theory of being/becoming (Ontology). Hence, the
approaches to enhance positive TSRs among student teachers need to be part of the overarching goal of transforming them to greater professional autonomy as opposed to dogmatism (Dall’Alba, 2009). In this case, initial teacher education ought to promote student teachers’ ability to adapt to the dynamics (in resources and pedagogy) ever happening in a teaching and learning situation (Cooper, 2011). On the contrary, the revealed approaches for enhancing positive TSRs are wrongly tilted to focus more on knowing, with insufficient focus on doing, and least on ways of becoming.

5.2.4 The implications of student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining teaching profession on their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs

From the goal contents theory of motivation dynamics, the need for recruiting student teachers having the passion and interest to become teachers is of utmost relevance (Weiss & Kiel, 2013). Such teachers are likely to have a continuous commitment to professional services and positive TSRs in particular (Silva et al., 2014; Deci & Ryan, 2012). Education harbours innovations and discoveries that in turn, require new or up-to-date knowledge, skills and competencies (Frostenson, 2015). The dynamic nature of the demands for such competencies eventually navigates teacher education in order to accommodate them (Little, 2006; Sifuna, Chege & Oanda, 2006). Evidence shows that the requirements to join the teaching profession in universities and colleges have also been changing over time in response to the aforesaid dynamics (Frostenson, 2015; Sexton, 2008; Terhart & Kotthoff, 2013).
In the last three decades, there has been an increasing attention from researchers on the teaching profession and precisely on the quest to understand the reasons why people to join the teaching profession (Bastick, 2000; Kok, 2012). Arguably, partly this is exacerbated by first, the increase in professional misdemeanours among teachers in the teaching profession (Carr, 2000; Anagisye, 2008; Sexton, 2008). Second, an attempt to restore the traditional and a long-standing nobility of the teaching profession which upholds the notion that people entering the teaching profession are expected to exhibit a moral aptitude to serve humanity (Graham et al., 2008; Socket, 2006). There have been efforts to restore the ethical and moral requirement of the teaching profession. This requirement has customarily been regarded as vital for members of the teaching profession (Campbell, 2003; Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008). Third, is the increasing whistle-blowing by educators on the fact that unlike other comparable professions, teaching is a *vocation* (Anagisye, 2006; Klaassen, 2012; UNESCO, 2009). That is to say, student teachers ought to join the teaching profession because of their love for, and commitment to teaching and not because of the material gain associated with teaching.

The results of this study have demonstrated that in Germany and Tanzania, student teachers were generally motivated to join the teaching profession as a result of different reasons. This finding is in agreement with the study by Schutz et al. (2001). However, the comparative analysis of motivational reasons as shown in Figures 4.7 to 4.12

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8 Vocation is an occupation whose members join it because of inner feeling or a strong sense of calling to it. As such, their motivation to fulfill the occupational responsibility provides them with internal gratification, constant commitment to and display of royalty to the occupational code of conducts
indicates that higher proportions of student teachers in Germany were motivated by intrinsic reasons than extrinsic ones in their choice of the teaching profession. On the contrary, extrinsic reasons were relatively more important among student teachers in Tanzania. Figures 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10 show the reasons, “helping in children development”, “teaching fits my personality” “better career prospects” and “it is easy to get a job” respectively, providing a clear illustration of the differences in motivational reasons among student teachers in Germany and in Tanzania. In addition, the combined summary of the motivational reasons in Figure 4.13 below clearly illustrates the discussed trends.
Intrinsic motivational reasons attracted a higher proportion of positive ratings among German student teachers than their counterparts in Tanzania (depicted by the three broken lines). Conversely, extrinsic motivational reasons had a relatively higher proportion of positive ratings among student teachers in Tanzania than their German counterparts. These findings confirm the findings by Bastick (2000) and Barley and
Ozcan (2014) that teachers in developing countries base their career choices on extrinsic motivation reasons whereas their counterparts in metropolitan countries base their career choices on intrinsic motivational reasons.

The results also show that the association between student teachers’ motivational reasons and their perceived self-efficacy for relating with their students was for most of the motivational reasons not statistically significant except for some motivational reasons like the feeling of passion for teaching among German student teachers, and it is easy to get a job among student teachers in Tanzania. This finding signals an important hint that while it may generally be taken that motivational reasons held by student teachers are not the strongest factor influencing positive TSRs, the identified motivational reasons were important and may have an implication on the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy levels for positive TSRs.

For instance, the findings of the association indicated that the motivational reason feeling of passion for teaching has statistically significant higher positive ratings which increase with high perceived self-efficacy scores. Whereas the motivation it is easy to get a job has statistically significant positive ratings is associated with the low perceived self-efficacy (see Appendix 6, p. 283). These findings echo the Holland’s Career Choice theory which holds that people who work in the profession that match their personality stand a better chance of success and satisfaction (Holland, 1973). In this regard, student
teachers who had the passion for teaching felt more prepared and able as compared to those with less or no passion for the teaching profession.

These findings can be interpreted that feelings of passion for teaching have a stable association with student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy for relating with students, whereas the opposite happens when one joins teaching for the sake of employment. Henceforth, the findings of the association of the student teachers’ motivation and their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs agree with the goal contents theory. That is to say, motivational reasons student teachers hold are an important factor capable of influencing their future condition of TSRs. This finding conforms with the suggestion by Weiss and Kiel (2013) who draw an implication to initial teacher education to recruit student teachers with ‘right’ motive, or avail them with enough time in order for them to reflect on their idealist versus realistic environment of the teaching profession before they can actually be committed to the professional roles (p. 428).

Like other professionals, teachers are motivated by incentives to be able to efficiently discharge their responsibilities (Galabawa et al., 2000; HakiElimu, 2011). The findings above, however, revitalise the fact that albeit the incentives, effective TSRs among other things, partly depend on the very innate state of student teachers’ intrinsic motivation (Chan, 2004). In this regard, teachers come to feel gratified to embark on positive relationships which are requisite for their service. These findings reiterate the argument by Chan (2004) that the quality of teachers’ service is not only determined by the
qualification and pedagogical knowledge of the teacher but also by their dedication and enthusiasm (p. 57). It is also determined by the teachers’ commitment and the right motives they hold for choosing to join the teaching profession, as well as their positive perception of the teaching profession (Chan, 2004).

The incentives assumption, therefore, does not at all time provide a sufficient condition for guaranteed sustainability and teachers’ commitment to positive TSRs. Indeed, from the foregoing argument, one cannot assume that we can simply make teachers form good relationships with their students in schools by only increasing their incentives or material gain. Promoting positive TSRs, thus, is derived from a “good motive” that is, an intrinsic desire for the teaching profession (Weiss & Kiel, 2013), an effective and TSRs informed initial teacher education, as well as an effective incentive system at the place of work. This position is in agreement with Putnam and Borko (2000) who observe that regardless of their level of competencies, teachers’ actions and efficiency in schools are determined by the social, cultural, and institutional factors which unanimously influence their professional settings.
CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter dwelt on discussing the study findings while establishing the link between the empirical evidence and the body of knowledge within the lenses of the guiding theoretical framework. This chapter presents the summary of the study and findings, major conclusions and recommendations. The recommendations presented are considered necessary in view of enhancing the positive TSRs competencies among initial student teachers.

6.2 Summary of the study and findings

This comparative study between Tanzania and Germany argues that positive TSRs are necessary for students’ learning and development. It is imperative, therefore, among other things, that initial teacher education should promote student teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy in order for them to proficiently form and sustain the relationships in schools. Guided by the pragmatic epistemology and ontology, this study employed the conceptual change, self-efficacy and goal contents theories to investigate the role of the university-based initial teacher education in positive TSRs. This study, centrally answered the question: does the university-based initial teacher education contribute to positive TSRs (competencies) among student teachers? In particular, the following sub-questions were attempted: (1) what is the student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs? (2) What are the student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs? (3) What are the approaches and perspectives in promoting
positive TSRs? (4) What are the implications of the student teachers’ motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession on their perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs?

The unit of analysis constituted the university-based initial teacher education. Two typical cases, namely, the Universities of Leipzig and Dar-es-Salaam were selected from Germany and Tanzania respectively. The verdict for selecting the two universities was justified by their typical characteristics in both structure and curricular elements, which provide typical features of the initial teacher education in the two countries. The study sample is comprised of seven hundred and twenty-one student teachers ($N=721$), final-year and beginners, as well as eight ($N=8$) university teacher educators. Owing to the tenets of the pragmatism paradigm, the study subscribed to the theoretical and statistical logics. Henceforth, data collection, analysis, and presentation employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches and procedures as dictated by the research sub-questions. The sections below present the summary of the study findings in their respective research sub-questions.

6.2.1 Student teachers’ knowledge of positive teacher-student relationships

Findings of the study have revealed that student teachers have demonstrated a significant change in their positive TSRs knowledge. For instance, it was established that final-year student teachers had statistically significant higher command of positive TSRs knowledge in both basic facts and relational virtue/behaviours than the beginner student teachers.
The comparative analysis of the effect size between Tanzania and Germany has shown that with regards to TSRs knowledge, student teachers in Germany had larger effect size Cohen’s $d = 0.76$, than their Tanzanian counterparts with Cohen’s $d=0.72$, effect size index. The student teachers in Germany had statistically significant higher knowledge and better qualitative views of what constitutes positive TSRs than their Tanzanian counterparts. Apparently, beginner student teachers in Germany started off their initial teacher education with a better command of positive TSRs knowledge.

Despite the positive change which could be attributed to the effect of the initial teacher education, the qualitative findings have revealed that final-year student teachers for both countries (Germany and Tanzania), exhibited low TSRs knowledge as manifested in their knowledge of basic relational facts and relational virtues. For instance, student teachers in both countries maintained the low view of what constitutes positive TSRs. Majority of the student teachers reflected the limited scope of positive TSRs to mere interaction during a classroom session. As such, the student teachers’ comprehension of the nature and character of positive TSRs fell short of the established characteristicS of voluntarism, continuity, growth, mutualism, and transcendence.

6.2.2 Student teachers’ beliefs and perceived self-efficacy for relating with students

Teachers’ beliefs have a profound influence on their daily professional routine (Kuzborska, 2011; Richard et al., 1991). The study findings have revealed the positive change in the TSRs’ beliefs between final-year and beginner student teachers, for both
Germany and Tanzania. It was also found out that only 57.1% of the final-year student teachers in Tanzania, and 50.7% in Germany had the beliefs that TSRs had a major effect on students’ learning and development whereas the rest had different beliefs options. This could be considered the shortcoming of the initial teacher education to elevate the student teachers’ beliefs about the critical nature of TSRs. The inadequacy in realising the crucial role of the positive TSRs was far from the ideal position portrayed in the literature. Being in the final year, the possession of the belief of the necessity of TSRs on learning and development is considered both timely and necessary.

Findings of the study have further revealed that the majority of student-teachers both in Germany (81%) and Tanzania (70%) manifested moderate perceived self-efficacy levels in their preparedness to form and sustain positive relationships. Only five percent (5%) and six percent (6%) demonstrated high levels of perceived self-efficacy for Germany and Tanzania respectively. Comparatively, the findings indicated that student teachers in Germany have statistically significant higher perceived self-efficacy than their Tanzanian counterparts.

It was unveiled that in both countries, final-year student teachers had statistically significant higher levels of perceived self-efficacy as compared to the beginner student teachers. These findings could indicate that the initial teacher education has a positive role in promoting student teachers’ self-efficacy for positive TSRs. Comparatively, with regards to the change in the perceived self-efficacy, student teachers in Tanzania had a
larger effect size index Cohen’s $d=1.651$, than their German counterparts (with Cohen’s $d=0.67$). However, the student teachers in Germany have demonstrated higher perceived self-efficacy at the end of their university-based initial teacher education than their Tanzanian counterparts.

Lastly, the findings have shown that student teachers’ knowledge of positive TSRs had a moderate association (Cramer’s $V= .133$) to their perceived self-efficacy, such that the higher the TSRs knowledge student teachers had implied the higher perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs. This could mean that more student teachers were made aware regarding TSRs, the better were their beliefs and preparedness to deal with TSRs. Indeed, this finding echoed the theoretical assumptions established in the study.

6.2.3 Approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs competencies

It was found out that the initial teacher education in Germany and Tanzania employed several approaches for fostering student teachers’ knowledge and other competencies to relate with their future students. These approaches include (1) the teaching practice, (2) the education courses with an emphasis on positive TSRs, and (3) the role modelling. It was revealed that other potential courses for imparting practical positive TSRs competencies like subject didactics were narrowly utilised or not regarded at all. Alluding to the effectiveness of the approaches, findings revealed that approaches had faced several predicaments in realising the ends.
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They include, first, skewed focus in teacher education where more emphasis was aimed at enabling student teachers to pass their semester examinations than the acquisition of the competencies. Consequently, the orientation and assessment of the TSRs suffered redundancy. Second, limited time set for practical training and its subsequent assessment had offered no adequate room to deal with TSRs as a competence. Third, an evident absence of clear orientation among teacher educators of what constitutes positive TSRs, and how their assessment could be done during teaching practice and formative sessions. Fourth, reported omission of important courses which would promote positive TSRs knowledge and beliefs among student teachers. Surprisingly, such courses were made “optional” or “elective” and student teachers were not on the obligation to study them. In both countries, the strict emphasis was erroneously inclined towards academic subjects.

Findings have also disclosed that teacher educators had diverse perspectives with regard to what actually constitutes the nature of the TSRs phenomenon. For instance, it was revealed that some teacher educators perceived teacher-student relational abilities as learned and a necessary product of effective nurturing within the initial teacher education. Others perceived positive TSRs to be an automatic and circumstantial occurring phenomenon, so much so that student teachers needed no preparation in that regard. Yet, some teacher educators linked the formation of the positive relationships to an availability of resources and motivation. To some, positive relationships were associated with the ways and values within which the student teachers were brought up by families. Thus, the initial teacher education had very little to do in influencing the phenomenon.
From these perspectives, the varied and contradicting viewpoints were deemed to pose a dilemma against the approaches. It was confirmed that effective communication of positive TSRs would gain plausibility among student teachers when the teacher educators address the TSRs phenomenon from an unambiguous angle of perception.

6.2.4 Implications of the student teachers’ motivational reasons on their perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs

It was gathered that the motivation student teachers hold for the choice of the teaching profession impacts their effectiveness on the professional undertakings (Ryan & Deci 2008; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). The findings of the study have revealed that student teachers in Germany and Tanzania joined the teaching profession as a result of different motivational reasons, which can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic categories. The analysis of individual motivational reasons conducted has shown that the majority of student teachers in Germany and Tanzania indicated that intrinsic motivation reasons were responsible for their choice of the teaching profession. Such reasons included the feeling of passion for teaching, the desire to help in the development of children and youths, and the feeling that the teaching profession fitted their personalities. Comparatively, intrinsic motivational reasons attracted higher positive ratings among student teachers in Germany than their counterparts in Tanzania. This suggested that intrinsic motivational reasons were more important among student teachers in Germany than in Tanzania. Conversely, extrinsic motivational reasons had attracted higher positive ratings from student teachers in Tanzania. This suggested that extrinsic motivational
reasons were more important among student teachers in Tanzania than in their counterparts in Germany. These differences in student teachers’ motivational reasons echoed the findings by Bastick (2000) of the student teachers in the developing and metropolitan countries. In this case, political factors and teachers’ employment dynamics were critical in the career choice.

The Chi-squared test ($X^2$) performed unveiled that except for two motivational reasons, namely “feeling of passion for teaching” and “with teaching it is easy to get a job” other motivational reasons had no statistically significant association with the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs. As for the two motivational reasons, “feeling of passion for teaching” had a strong association with perceived self-efficacy among German student teachers only. Whereas, “with teaching it is easy to get a job” had a strong significant association with perceived self-efficacy among student teachers in Tanzania. It was interpreted that besides the positive TSRs competencies, student teachers need the right professional motives to form and sustain positive TSRs.

6.3 Conclusions
This study sought to provide answers to the central research question: does the university-based initial teacher education contribute to positive teacher-student relationships? Alluding to the theoretical assumptions of the conceptual change, self-efficacy and goal contents theories, realising the above role implied that the university-based initial teacher education is duty-bound to promote a positive change
towards the positive TSRs competencies. Pragmatically, it meant that the initial teacher education had to result to the reorientation of the student teachers’ previous (mis)conceptions to enable them to embrace positive TSRs.

Hence, sound judgement of the above role was achieved by examining the student teachers’ manifestation of the expected constructs at the end of their university-based initial teacher education. That is their change in knowledge, beliefs, and perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs within the framework of approaches and perspectives in the initial teacher education. The latter aspects were taken into account in the guiding research sub-questions of this study. In this regard, the succeeding sections present the major conclusions echoing to the intentions of the research sub-questions of this study as stated in the introductory chapter.

On the knowledge of positive teacher-student relationships

In general, positive TSRs knowledge among student teachers is inadequate and uncoordinated. For example, their comprehension of basic positive TSRs facts was narrow and constituted the low view in depth and breadth, suggesting narrowness in its scope and application (Meier, 2005; Giles, 2008). The majority of student teachers’ responses on the nature of positive TSRs had inherent insufficiency in displaying the TSRs’ features of voluntarism, continuity, growth, mutualism, and transcendence. This insufficiency is attributed to the absence of specific course or course aspects that systematically and appropriately dealt with positive TSRs.
However, the presence of a significant statistical difference in positive TSRs knowledge among the final-year and beginners student teachers in each country, confirms that the initial teacher education might have value addition to the student teachers’ prior knowledge. Comparatively, it can be concluded that German student teachers had manifested a better mastery of TSRs than their counterparts in Tanzania, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. This was the probable consequence of the longer duration of initial teacher education in Germany coupled with higher levels of prior knowledge of positive TSRs than their Tanzanian counterparts. Possibility for improvement lies on the utilization of all aspects of the initial teacher education to enhance the depth and breadth in the knowledge mastery.

On beliefs and perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive TSRs

Student teachers’ beliefs about the necessity for the positive TSRs on learning are an important yardstick in determining their change in appreciating the vital role of positive TSRs. In their final year, the majority of the student teachers (average of 46.1%) did not indicate the positive change in their beliefs about the necessity of positive TSRs in students’ learning and development. In the lenses of the conceptual change and self-efficacy theories, this inadequacy may be attributed to the low knowledge and perceived self-efficacy as revealed in the previous questions.

TSRs knowledge has a strong influence on the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy. Despite revealed change in the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy; more can be
expected in this competency through ensuring an efficient use of the pro-relational approaches. The general implication obtained from the study suggests that the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs was moderate for the majority of the student teachers. This could partly be attributed to the low TSRs knowledge student teachers have demonstrated. It could as well be the outcome of inadequate representation of the positive TSRs competencies in the theoretical and practical aspects of the initial teacher education.

**On the approaches and perspectives in promoting positive TSRs**

The presence of approaches for promoting student teachers’ positive TSRs was an important indicator of the efforts to promote the relational competencies among student teachers. The university-based initial teacher education in Germany and Tanzania employed similar approaches in promoting TSRs competencies. Both countries had profoundly subscribed to the use of teaching practice than the other approaches. The approaches had pertinent contextual predicaments which had differently impacted their effectiveness. For instance, poor supervision and assessment of the teaching practice as dictated by the scarcity of resources and time. Others include the narrow scope of what constituted positive TSRs, and the neglect of potential courses. In this case, the effectiveness of the approaches was determined by the ability of the specific university to overcome the predicaments.
Secondly, teacher educators had various and contradicting perspectives. The perspectives pointed to different theoretical and practical implications. For instance, some supported the study view that positive TSRs are nurtured competencies and that the initial teacher education has a duty to cherish them among student teachers. Others likened positive relationships with student teachers’ values orientation during their upbringing, and others linked it to available resources in the context. Yet still, some linked the relational exchange to subjective circumstances occurring when a teacher and a student encounters. Resulting from the varied perspectives, the efforts to communicate the rationale for positive TSRs among student teachers suffered ambivalence. Eventually, the ambivalence had culminated in implausibility and lack of intelligibility among student teachers. As discussed in the conceptual change theory, the varied perspectives, therefore, imposed a hindrance to the approaches in translating positive TSRs competencies.

**Motivational reasons and its implications perceived self-efficacy for positive TSRs**

Student teachers in Germany and Tanzania hold different motivational reasons for choosing the teaching profession. The motivational reasons embodied both intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation for choosing the teaching profession. Comparatively, the higher proportion of student teachers in Germany joined the teaching profession due to intrinsic motivational reasons than their Tanzanian counterparts. Conversely, the higher proportion of student teachers in Tanzania joined the teaching profession due to extrinsic motivation than their counterparts in Germany. Despite the motivational reasons the inherent political situations of teacher employment and career prospects have a strong
influence on student teachers’ motivational reasons to join the teaching profession in both countries.

Student teachers’ motivational reasons for choosing the teaching profession were confirmed to constitute an impact on their perceived self-efficacy to form and sustain positive relationships. This implied that motivational reasons held by student teachers for joining the teaching profession can influence the student teachers’ perceived self-efficacy for relating with their (future) students. More importantly, the command of knowledge of positive TSRs was more important as it had a significant association to the student teachers’ self-efficacy. This suggests that in the current situation where student teachers display both types of motivational reasons for joining the teaching profession, efforts to invest in approaches which enhance TSRs knowledge and beliefs are inevitable.

6.4 Recommendations of the study

i. Future research avenue(s)

This study focused on the university-based initial teacher education as the unit of analysis. Emphasis was given in investigating the changes in the positive TSRs competencies among student teachers. Another research study that focuses on the effect of the specific competency on the actual TSRs practices (at school) is proposed. The study would among other things identify specific relational dilemmas, as well as relational turning points faced by teachers handling the positive TSRs. Eventually, the
study would add up viable insights in areas of knowledge and practices student teachers require for effective relational exchange in schools.

This recommendation is motivated by the impression from the study that positive TSRs building process could largely be subjective and context dependent. Indeed, this suggests that besides possessing the positive TSRs competencies, teachers in schools are faced with the challenge to be adaptive to different socio-cultural conditions before they can effectively form positive relationships with their students (UNESCO, 2009). Thus, understanding positive TSRs in schools could also be reflected in factors like teachers’ background experiences, the moral fibre of the society, gender, resources availability, as well as managerial factors operating outside the initial teacher education.

ii. General recommendations

Despite the significant changes in the positive TSRs competencies among student teachers, findings of this study have revealed that student teachers’ knowledge and perceived self-efficacy fall short of the expected precision. This was viewed to be the obvious consequence of the scanty attention given to TSRs both in the identified approaches and in teacher educators’ perspectives. Apparently, if the power of positive TSRs is not made known to student teachers, it is likely to be not appreciated at all, not used or misused. In light of the guiding theoretical framework, effective mastery of relational exchange and competencies among student teachers goes hand in hand with a
deliberate curricular focus to stir up intelligibility, plausibility and to cause the positive change in student teachers. To this end, the following actions are recommended:

(a) For Tanzania, since the university-based initial teacher education marks the end of formal professional education phase, there is an urgent need to strongly enhance the present university-based curricular arrangement to promote both the depth and breadth in addressing positive TSRs. This can be achieved through an introduction of a course module within the existing compulsory courses, like Teacher Professional Ethics, to allow for an integrated, effective, logical and evaluative treatment of the positive TSRs knowledge and competencies. The course module could entail among other things, the fundamental nature of TSRs like voluntarism, continuity, growth, mutualism and transcendence. In addressing such concepts, implications must be drawn to student teachers’ reflection and realization of the power and the mandate entrusted to them for a positive relationship building, and not just the knowledge for its own sake.

(b) For Germany, literature gathers that practical aspects of teaching are among of the aspects dealt within the post-university phase of the initial teacher education in Germany (in the Referendariat) (Jones, 2010; Buer, 2015). However, the impression gathered from its organisation, inherent curricular arrangement and the duration of this phase require student teachers to have a better supplement of theoretical mastery of TSRs from the University-based phase. With this
background, this study recommends for an introduction of a course module during the university-based phase, like in the Tanzanian case in order to permit for a longer time of exposure of TSRs knowledge and other attributes. Arguably this would eventually foster its application in their regular practical training sessions. Nonetheless, readdressing of the relational concept in the subsequent phase (Referendariat) would offer student teachers an added opportunity to internalize and elevate their ability to change in the positive direction.

(c) In both countries, the use of the teaching practice and other approaches were evidenced to suffer some serious inadequacies despite their eminence as supported by the study findings. This study recommends the following viable practical measures: First, a well-informed inclusion or unpacking of the TSRs aspects in the assessment and evaluation repertoire of the teaching practice sessions. Second, revitalising positive TSRs phenomenon among teacher educators and harmonisation of the diverging perspectives. This can take place through in-house seminars, training and publications. Third, deploying other “sleeping” potential approaches like the subject didactics, whereby the student teachers would be made to realise the power of positive TSRs and its manifestation through relational communication. This recommendation is captured in greater details in the proposed TSRs integration framework presented under the empirical contribution of the study in the next section.
6.5 Contributions of the study

6.5.1 Theoretical contribution
Essentially, the theoretical contribution of the study is concerned with advancing the understanding of the concepts and their interrelationships as employed in the research work (Agerfalk, 2014). Owing to its psychometrics nature, the theories were deemed pertinent in an attempt to explain the place of knowledge, beliefs, self-efficacy and motivation constructs in promoting the TSRs competencies. In particular, the study has reaffirmed the inclusivity of knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy for promoting positive TSRs. Further to that, the study challenges the assumptions taken for granted of what it means to become a teacher. It presents the understanding that initial teacher education must be seen as a balanced process of transforming (changing) student teachers into reflective practitioners capable of embarking on successful relational exchange with their students.

To develop the positive TSRs competencies, the framework accentuates the need for an instructional strategy which brings about the extension, exchange, and extinction of student teachers’ (mis) conceptions in favour of positive TSRs. The study has shown that student teachers’ knowledge relates with their perceived self-efficacy and that the two constructs are mutually inclusive as far as positive TSRs are concerned. Additionally, the study has also shown that the acquisition of positive TSRs competencies not only depended on the cognitive aspects which operate within student teachers’ cognitive
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faculty, but also on the other factors: like student teachers’ motivational reasons held for joining the teaching profession.

6.5.2 Empirical contribution

The findings of this study have highlighted the place of positive TSRs as a critical aspect of initial teacher education in Tanzania and Germany. The study has confirmed the change in TSRs knowledge, beliefs and perceived self-efficacy as measured between final-year and beginner student teachers. The study has revealed a strong association between student teachers’ TSRs knowledge and their perceived self-efficacy. Significant association was also confirmed between motivational reasons student teachers’ hold for joining professional and their perceived self-efficacy.

The study has shed light on the current definition and contextualization of the TSRs as the vital teachers’ competence. The study calls for re-definition, re-affirmation, and re-contextualization of TSRs competencies in the initial teacher education. Regardless of the necessity of positive TSRs in the initial teacher education, the majority of student teachers had minimal knowledge of the TSRs which also influenced their beliefs and self-efficacy levels. It was unveiled that the positive TSRs approaches in place were constrained by several limitations and were uncoordinated. On the other hand, teacher educators presented varied perspectives with regards to the nature and character of positive TSRs. The existence of varied and contradicting perspectives was considered to have a detrimental effect on the acquisition of positive TSRs competencies.
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From this context, the study proposes a framework of integration for positive TSRs competencies in view of: (1) introducing a balanced recognition of TSRs across different aspects of initial teacher education; (2) harnessing other TSRs potential aspects which are currently not used or are underutilised; (3) creating a harmony and the rationale for understanding the nature of positive TSRs inherent in the teachers’ professional service; and, (4) mainstreaming the aspects of positive TSRs into the existing domains of initial teacher education. Figure 6.1 below captures the major components of the proposed framework.

*Figure 6.1 The proposed framework for the integration of positive TSRs competencies in the initial teacher education.*
The framework is made up of five logically connected components. The section below presents the illustration of the components as applied in the proposed framework.

First, the framework stresses on the thorough grasp of the nature and character of positive TSRs. This understanding is critical as it influences the definition and manifestation of the positive TSRs as a learned professional competence. As explained in literature chapter, the nature and character of positive TSRs can be summarised by five major foundations or tenets namely: (i) voluntarism is a quality that positive TSRs calls for deliberate efforts in the form of skills and attentiveness to make it exist (Meier, 2005; Shapira-Lischinsky, 2009). (ii) Continuity: the fact that positive TSRs exists in a continuum (levels or magnitude) at a given time and place, and that they are influenced by the pattern of teacher-student behavioural interdependence (Hattie, 2012; Jones, 2009). (iii) Growth: this is the quality that positive TSRs phenomenon experiences growth between and among the actors which result to the increased behavioural interdependence (Palmer, 1997; Giles, 2005). (iv) Mutualism: is expressed in terms of stability in a reciprocal behavioural interdependence; mutual construction of positive relationships is inevitable for shared power relations in the course of their interaction (Burber, 1958; Manke, 1997). This is a critical condition for sustained positive TSRs. The last one is, (v) transcendence: which suggests that positive TSRs ought to be comprehensive by manifesting itself in the totality of all that happen between teachers and their students (Campbell, 2003; Knoell, 2012; European Commission, 2013; Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008).
Secondly, the content of initial teacher education that addresses positive TSRs ought to include knowledge, and skills of teachers’ role as a relational agent, positive TSRs development levels, relational behaviours and virtues teachers are expected to exhibit in forming and sustaining relational exchange (European Commission, 2013). Also, the content should address learners’ holistic development needs and relational potential in teacher-student communication, both verbal and non-verbal communication (Beebe & Timothy, 2009; Wubbel et al, 1993). To bring about the desirable impact, and to address for the revealed superficiality, the knowledge ought to include all forms of TSRs knowledge, namely; factual, conceptual, procedural and meta-cognitive knowledge forms (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956; Krathwohl, 2002; Schon, 1983; 2008). The TSRs content has to be reflected in the approaches and methods, scope, and in evaluation procedures (Hattie, 2012).

Thirdly, closely connected to the content, is the scope of initial teacher education. Essentially, effective positive TSRs competencies must be developed by the student teachers across varied domains of learning objective. Its representation of the cognitive, the psychomotor and the affective domains of learning objectives is viewed as a vital condition for equipping the student teachers with adequate knowledge, skills and attitudes for a successful relational exchange with their students (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956; Krathwohl, 2002). Equally important, the various domains of learning objectives have to be reflected in the evaluation procedures.
Fourthly, approaches and methods (in formal and informal contexts of initial teacher education) need to be addressed in such a way that the acquired knowledge, skills and other competencies are translated into practical application (Frostenson, 2015; Hattie, 2012). In this regard, the pro-relational approaches ought to strike a balance between theory and practice and allow for both reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action (Hager & Hodkinson, 2008; Schon, 1983). The approaches should make use of the theoretical knowledge and skills obtained by adapting a theory to practice *modus operandi*. The approaches ought to constitute a component part of the entire evaluation repertoire.

The final component of this framework underscores the role of evaluation. It stresses that mainstreaming the evaluation of positive TSRs skills as a critical aspect. This would promote the achievement of its significance in the initial teacher education, and in giving positive TSRs a sense of necessity among student teachers. The evaluation procedures, both formative and summative evaluation conducted are duty-bound to provide a value judgement across diverse domains of student teachers relational exchange competencies. For instance, during the teaching practice, specific positive TSRs competencies should inform the assessment processes. In order to ensure the effective transformation of the student teachers, active and reflective strategies to teach ought to be deployed. These would, in turn, demand a more practice-based and competence based tool(s) of assessment and evaluation.

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APPENDIX 1

Participant Information Sheet

Project Title: An Investigation into the role of the University-based Initial Teacher Education in Teacher-Student Relationships: A Comparative Analysis of Germany and Tanzania.

Researcher: Nkanileka Loti Mgonda.
PhD student in the Faculty of Education, University of Leipzig,

Supervising Professor: Prof. Dr. Maria Hallitzky
Faculty of Education, University of Leipzig,

Sir/Madam,

You are welcome to be part of this study that will contribute to the understanding of teacher-student relationships in the university based initial teacher education. Apart from promoting awareness of the role teacher education play in promoting knowledge, skills and perceptions for relational exchange between teachers and students. The study claims that the ability to form and handle such relationships is integral part of initial teacher professional education. The research among other this will contribute to my doctoral degree.

What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of this comparative, mixed method research is to investigate the role played by initial teacher education in equipping student teachers with knowledge, skills and approaches for handling positive teacher-student relationships in schools. Two “typical cases” from Germany and Tanzania namely: University of Leipzig and University of Dar es Salaam are involved in this study, in order to produce a comparative analysis of the sought phenomenon.

Who are asked to be part of the study?
Student teachers from different specialisations are involved in each university. From Leipzig University: Mittelschule (Hauptshule/Realschule) and Gymnasium, and from University of Dar es Salaam: Natural sciences and Social sciences student teachers are involved. In addition at least six (6) teacher educators (professors and lecturers) from both countries will be involved.
What happens in the study?
In this study you are expected to respond to a short questionnaire or participate in a 45 to 60 minutes discussion. Both ways, your role is to reflect on your relevant experiences about teacher-student relationships in teacher education experience in your university. While discussing, a tape recorder will be used to capture full dialogue and discussion, I will as well make short notes to supplement the recorded discussion. Discussion and dialogue will be both from professors and student teachers will be analyzed by themes.

What are the advantages for participating in this research?
It is my expectation that as a result of your participation in this research, findings will be generated that will help in understanding the role of teacher education in relationships building. Thus, this understanding is critical for re-examining quality teacher preparation between Germany and Tanzania.

How about protection of my privacy?
Your anonymity will be assured because in no case your name and personal details will be used in reporting findings. For questionnaires no names or registration numbers are required in filling them. For interviews, the information you provide will be transcribed and shown to you before actual analysis. Be reminded that, only research supervisor and researcher will look at the interview transcripts in their capacity of controlling research processes. Once the research is complete, information will be stored in discrete form for five years, after which it will be destroyed for good.

Joining the study?
For you to take part in this research, I would like to ask you to first, read this Participant Information Sheet; second, asks for any further clarifications; and third, sign in the form for consenting to participate in this research.

How can I receive feedback on findings of research?
I would like to welcome the opportunity to discuss and share the findings of the research. When the study is complete, I would be enthusiastic to present the findings through conference presentations and publications such as journal articles and books.

Treatment of Participants Concerns
Should there be any concerns regarding the nature of this research should be notified in the first instance to the Supervising Professor [contact details are given below]

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**Many thanks for your participation**
Research Study

An Investigation into the Role of the University-based Initial Teacher Education in Teacher-Student Relationships: A Comparative Analysis of Germany and Tanzania.

Research Summary

Welcome to be part of this study that will contribute to the understanding of teacher-student relationships. This study sought to find out the role of the university-based initial teacher education in promoting knowledge, skills and perceptions for effective relational exchange between teachers and students. The study claims that the ability to form and handle such teacher-student relationships ought to be an integral part of initial teacher professional education. The research among other things will contribute to my doctoral degree. The research study employs a comparative and mixed method design to investigate the role played by initial teacher education in equipping student teachers with knowledge, skills and approaches for handling positive teacher-student relationships in schools. Two “typical cases” from Germany and Tanzania namely: the University of Leipzig and the University of Dar es Salaam are involved in this study, in order to produce a comparative analysis of the sought phenomenon.

By signing below, you are agreeing that: (1) you have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet, (2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily, (3) you are aware of the potential risks (if any), and (4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily (without coercion).

Participant’s name

Participant’s signature and Date

Name of the person obtaining consent

Signature of the person obtaining consent
You are cordially invited to take part in this comparative study between Germany and Tanzania that will contribute to the understanding of teacher-student relationships as a critical attribute of teachers’ professionalism. This study is set to ascertaining the roles teacher education play in promoting knowledge, skills and perceptions for effective relational exchange between teachers and students. It claims that the ability to form and handle such teacher-student relationships ought to be an integral part of initial teacher education. This study will among other things contribute to my doctoral degree in the University of Leipzig, Germany.

By signing below, you are agreeing that: (1) you have read and understood the Participants’ Information Sheet, (2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily, (3) you are aware of the potential risks (if any), and (4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily (without coercion).

Signature.................................................................. Date...................................................................................

Questionnaire Administrator........................................ Signature........................................

1. Please explain what are your views/perspectives about the role of initial teacher education in developing student teachers’ relational competencies with their students in schools as part of their professionalism?

2. Please explain, is the development of teacher-student relational forming abilities, skills and virtues with their students a priority in initial teacher education? If Yes, please explain how?

[Probe its place/percentage in the assessment of, i.e. in the teaching practice, subject didactics and educational core courses].

3. Explain how initial teacher education in this university address teacher-student relationships awareness and competencies?

4. Please specify content(s) of/in initial teacher education and skills/knowledge given in this regard?

5. Explain what are the bottlenecks facing the initial teacher education in promoting student teachers abilities, skills and virtues to positively relate with their students in schools?

Many thanks for your time
APPENDIX 4

QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION [for Germany & Tanzania]

You are cordially invited to take part in this comparative study between Germany and Tanzania that will contribute to the understanding of teacher-student relationships as a critical attribute of teachers’ professionalism. This study is set to ascertaining the roles teacher education play in promoting knowledge, skills and perceptions for effective relational exchange between teachers and students. It claims that knowledge, skills and abilities required by teachers to form and handle such teacher-student relationships ought to be an integral part of initial teacher education. This study will among other things contribute to my doctoral degree in the Faculty of Education, University of Leipzig, Germany.

By signing below, you are agreeing that: (1) you have read and understood the Participants’ Information Sheet, (2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily, (3) you are aware of the potential risks (if any), and (4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily (without coercion).

Signature.......................... Date....................................

Questionnaire Administrator............................... Signature..........................

1. Please indicate your Specialisation [circle one]
   - For Tanzania [UDSM] (1) Social Sciences (2) Natural Sciences
   - For Germany [UL] (1) Hauptschule (2) Realschule (3) Gymnasium

2. Please indicate your nationality (1) Tanzania (2) Germany [circle one]

3. Year of Study (1) First year [Beginner] (2) Final-year [Advanced/Master]

4. Please indicate your gender [Circle your gender]
   (1) Male
   (2) Female

5. What do you understand by positive teacher-student relationships (TSRs) and its role in the teaching and learning process? [please use the space provided to give a short free response]
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

[Signature]
6. Mention any three relational behaviours or virtues you have come to know or use in your initial teacher education; necessary for teachers in forming positive teacher-student relationships in a classroom or school in general.

i) .............................................
ii) .............................................
iii) .............................................

7. Which part of your initial teacher education do you recall to have best promoted your skills and knowledge on how to relate with students? [please CIRCLE your choice]
   i. Education courses
   ii. Subject didactics
   iii. Teaching subjects
   iv. Teaching practice
   v. None of the above

8. Please rate the priority to which your on-going initial teacher education had considered promoting your ability, skills and knowledge to enable you positively relate with students in classroom and school as an aspect of teacher professionalism. Please CIRCLE one below:
   1) No priority
   2) Low priority
   3) High priority
   4) Very High priority

9. How would you rate your own belief of the effect of positive teacher-student relationships in the teaching and learning as well as overall students’ development? (Please CIRCLE one)
   1) No effect
   2) Minor effect
   3) Moderate effect
   4) Major effect

10. Please read the following statements representing different reasons as to why people choose to join the teaching profession and rate them accordingly as they apply to your case. [Please CIRCLE your choice in each statement]
   1= Strongly disagree
   2= Disagree
   3= Agree
   4= Strongly agree
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons held for joining teaching</th>
<th>Ratings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Due to high social status</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. It fits my personality</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Teaching provides better career prospects</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Teaching offers better job security</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. I wanted to help in development of children/youths</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. Influence of my family</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii. I feel passion for teaching</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii. It is the only available job given my qualification</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix. It is easy to get job</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. The tabled statements below present various teacher-student relationships knowledge aspects. Please indicate the extent to which the on-going initial teacher education has been relevant in promoting your relational knowledge and skills in each of the statements. Please **CIRCLE** your choice. Note that:

1= Not relevant at all  
2= Slightly relevant  
3= Relevant  
4= Greatly relevant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain in teacher-student relationships</th>
<th>Ratings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Ability to understand your role as relational agent with students.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Knowledge of virtues like respect, care and justice for effective teacher-student relationships.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Teacher-student relational development stages/levels in classroom and school settings.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Relational potential inherent in communicating with students.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Knowledge of learners’ emotional and holistic development.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. General awareness of skills, and techniques like positive feedback, positive communication and others in the course of relational building.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Please evaluate your own perceived ability as a teacher; in forming and sustaining positive relations with your students alongside the following levels relational perceptions. Note that:

1= Definitely unlikely  
2= Somehow likely
### POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

3= Likely  
4= Definitely likely

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student teachers’ self-efficacy on relational ability/preparedness</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. I’m sure that I can share a warm relationship with the students in my class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. I’m afraid, when I’m teaching in my class that there always will be some struggling within each other. If upset,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. I’m sure the students will seek comfort from me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. I’m sure that the students of my class will value their relationship with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. When I praise a student, I’m sure he/she will beam with pride.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. I’m confident that the students spontaneously share information about themselves.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii. I’m afraid that some students easily will become angry with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii. I’m confident that it is easy to be in tune with what the students are feeling.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix. I fear that some students remain angry or are resistant after being disciplined.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x. I’m afraid that dealing with challenging/disruptive students drains my energy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xi. When some students will be in a bad mood, I fear we’re going to be in for a long and difficult day.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xii. I’m afraid that some students feelings toward me could be unpredictable or could change suddenly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiii. I assume that some students will be sneaky or manipulative with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiv. I assume that most of the students openly will share their feelings and experiences with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many thanks for your time!
Erhebung zur Einschätzung der Bedeutung von Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen als Inhalt der ersten Phase der Lehrerbildung [Deutschland & Tansania]


Ihre Teilnahme an der Studie ist freiwillig. Ihre Daten sind anonym und werden vertraulich behandelt.

1. Bitte geben Sie Ihre Fachrichtung an [eine Antwort einkreisen]
   - Für Tansania [UDSM] (1) Sozialwissenschaften (2) Naturwissenschaften
   - Für Deutschland [UL] (1) Mitterschule (2) Gymnasium (3) Förderschule

2. Bitte geben Sie Ihre Nationalität an (1) Tansanisch (2) Deutsch [Eine Antwort einkreisen]

3. Studienjahr (1) Erstes Jahr [Anfänger] (2) Abschlussjahr [Fortgeschritten/Master]

4. Bitte geben Sie Ihr Geschlecht an [zutreffendes einkreisen]
   (1) Männlich
   (2) Weiblich

5. Was verstehen Sie unter einer positiven Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung und wie schätzen Sie deren Wichtigkeit im Lehr-Lernprozess ein? [Bitte nutzen Sie den unteren Bereich für eine kurze Antwort]

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
6. Nennen Sie drei Verhaltensweisen, welche Sie bereits erlebt oder in Ihrer Lehrerausbildung angewandt haben, die für Lehrer_innen nötig sind, um positive Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen im Klassenraum oder der Schule allgemein zu gestalten.

   i) .................................................................................................................................
   
   ii) .................................................................................................................................
   
   iii) .................................................................................................................................

7. Welcher Teil Ihrer Lehrerausbildung hat Ihrer Meinung nach Ihre Fähigkeiten und Ihr Wissen für eine positive Beziehung Schüler_innen gegenüber am meisten vorangebracht? [Bitte kreisen Sie Ihre Wahl ein]

   i. Bildungswissenschaften
   ii. Fachdidaktik
   iii. Fachunterricht
   iv. Lehrpraxis
   v. Keines der aufgeführten

8. Bitte schätzen Sie unter dem Aspekt der Lehrprofessionalität die Auswirkungen, welche Ihre aktuelle Lehrerausbildung auf Ihre Möglichkeiten, Fähigkeiten und ihr Wissen hat, um eine positive Beziehung zu Schüler_innen im Unterricht und der Schule im Allgemeinen aufbauen zu können. [Bitte eine Antwort einkreisen]

   1). Keine Auswirkungen
   2). Geringe Auswirkungen
   3). Starke Auswirkungen
   4). Sehr starke Auswirkungen

9. Wie schätzen Sie den Effekt Ihrer eigenen Auffassung über Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen sowohl für den Lehr- und Lernprozess, als auch für die allgemeine Entwicklung der Schüler_innen ein? (Bitte kreisen Sie eine Antwort ein)

   1). Kein Effekt
   2). Geringer Effekt
   3). Mittelstarker Effekt
   4). Starker Effekt
10. Bitte lesen Sie die folgenden Aussagen, welche verschiedene Gründe repräsentieren, weshalb sich Menschen für den Lehrerberuf entscheiden, und bewerten Sie, wie sehr die Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen. [Bitte kreisen Sie Ihre Auswahl zu jeder Aussage ein]

1= Nicht zutreffend
2= Weniger zutreffend
3= Zutreffend
4= Sehr zutreffend

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gründe, sich für den Lehrerberuf zu entscheiden</th>
<th>Bewertung</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Wegen des hohen sozialen Status</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Es passt zu meiner Persönlichkeit</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Gute Karriereaussichten</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Lehren bietet eine Arbeitsplatzsicherheit</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Ich möchte Kindern und Jugendlichen in ihrer Entwicklung helfen</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. Familieneinflüsse</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii. Ich lehre leidenschaftlich gerne</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii. Es ist der einzige wählbare Beruf für meine Qualifikationen</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix. Es ist einfach, eine Anstellung zu bekommen</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1= Nicht relevant
2= Etwas relevant
3= Relevant
4= Sehr relevant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feld der Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen</th>
<th>Bewertung</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Möglichkeit, seine Rolle als Beziehungsbeauftragter mit Schüler_innen zu verstehen.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Wissen über Vorteile wie Respekt, Fürsorglichkeit und Gerechtigkeit für effektive Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehungen.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Entwicklung von Beziehungen zwischen Lehrer_innen und Schüler_innen im Klassenraum und in der Schule.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Potenzial der Gestaltung von Beziehungen durch</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kommunikation mit Schüler_innen.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v. Wissen über die emotionale und ganzheitliche Entwicklung von Lernenden.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. Generelles Bewusstsein über Fertigkeiten und Techniken, wie positives Feedback, positive Kommunikation und andere im Verlauf vom Beziehungsaufbau.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1= Nicht zutreffend
2= Weniger zutreffend
3= Zutreffend
4= Sehr zutreffen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selbstvertrauen von Schüler_innen und Lehrer_innen in ihre Beziehungsfähigkeiten</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Ich bin mir sicher, eine herzliche Beziehung mit den Schüler_innen meiner Klasse herstellen zu können.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Ich habe Angst, dass es immer einige Kämpfe untereinander gibt, wenn ich in meiner Klasse unterrichte.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Ich bin mir sicher, dass die Schüler_innen emotionale Wärme bei mir suchen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Ich bin mir sicher, dass die Schüler_innen ihre Beziehung zu mir schätzen werden.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Wenn ich eine_n Schüler_in lobe, bin ich sicher, dass er oder sie vor Stolz strahlen wird.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. Ich bin zuversichtlich, dass die Schüler_innen spontan Informationen über sich selbst preisgeben werden.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii. Ich habe Angst, dass manche Schüler_innen schnell wütend auf mich werden.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii. Ich bin zuversichtlich, dass es für mich einfach wird, im Bilde darüber zu sein, wie meine Schüler_innen sich fühlen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix. Ich fürchte, dass manche Schüler_innen sauer oder nach Ermahnungen widerspenstig bleiben.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x. Ich habe Angst, dass der Umgang mit herausfordernden/störenden Schüler_innen mir meine Energie raubt.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xi. Wenn manche Schüler_innen schlecht gelaunt sind,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xii.</td>
<td>Ich habe Angst, dass die Gefühle mancher Schüler_innen mir gegenüber schlecht einzuschätzen sind oder sich plötzlich ändern könnten.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiii.</td>
<td>Ich vermute, dass manche Schüler_innen frech oder mir gegenüber manipulativ sein werden.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiv.</td>
<td>Ich nehme an, dass die meisten Schüler_innen offen ihre Gefühle und Erfahrungen mit mir teilen werden.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vielen Dank für Ihre Zeit!
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

APPENDIX 6

Marking Scheme for the Items 5 and 6 of the Questionnaire on Teacher-student Relationships (TSRs)

Basis for marking the student teachers’ responses

The basis for marking the student teacher responses was geared towards ascertaining their knowledge precision on how they comprehended positive TSRs and its role in teaching and learning. Given the subjectivity in meaning, roles and virtues as portrayed by the literature, the marking involved rating student teachers’ responses based on satisfactory=2, or unsatisfactory=1, as opposed to the conventional objective score criterion.

5. What do you understand by positive teacher-student relationships (TSRs) and its role in the teaching and learning process? [please use the space provided to give a short free response]

Expected responses

- Is bonding of teachers and students as a result of positive behavioural interdependence
  OR
- A growing connection of teachers and their students as a result of positive virtues in their encounter
  OR
- A continuous interpersonal connection of teachers and students as a result of existing verbal and non-verbal patterns of their interaction.

Positive TSRs determine students’ engagement in learning, their adaptation to learning, their motivation and curiosity to learn. TSRs influence students’ stability to social adjustments, value orientation and in their identity formation. Positive relationship building and teaching and learning process are essentially mutually inclusive.

6. Mention any three relational behaviours or virtues you have come to know or use in your initial teacher education; necessary for teachers in forming positive teacher-student relationships in a classroom or school in general.
**Expected response**: a description/mention of any three (3) positive relational virtues or relational virtues was considered satisfactory. Among them include:

(i) Respectfulness  
(ii) Friendliness/Warmth  
(iii) Care  
(iv) Cooperation  
(v) Responsiveness  
(vi) Helpfulness  
(vii) Showing interest  
(viii) Freedom  
(ix) Mutual trust etc.
## APPENDIX 7

### SUPPLEMENTARY STATISTICAL RESULTS TABLES

**First research question 4.2.1** (student teachers’ TSRs knowledge)

### Knowledge group statistics (Tanzania)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of study</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginners</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>2.3895</td>
<td>.55149</td>
<td>.05658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final-year</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>2.8393</td>
<td>.67652</td>
<td>.03691</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>14.985</td>
<td>14.985</td>
<td>35.338</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>181.911</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196.896</td>
<td>430</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Robust Tests of Equality of Means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Welch</td>
<td>144.335</td>
<td>181.771</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Welch: Asymptotically $F$ distributed.*

### Knowledge groups statistics (Germany)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Study</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginner</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.7273</td>
<td>.71885</td>
<td>.08192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final-year</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>3.2759</td>
<td>.71943</td>
<td>.05049</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>16.801</td>
<td>16.801</td>
<td>32.474</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>143.824</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>.517</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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### Robust Tests of Equality of Means

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Welch</td>
<td>32.498</td>
<td>137.264</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</table>

*Welch: Asymptotically $F$ distributed.*
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Welch’s $T$-test statistics for difference in knowledge scores between Beginner student teachers in Tanzania and Germany

### Descriptives

<table>
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<th>Upper Bound</th>
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### ANOVA

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### Robust Tests of Equality of Means

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a. Asymptotically $F$ distributed.

**Second research question 4.2.2**

Perceived self-efficacy groups statistics (Tanzania)

### Descriptives

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<th>Std. Error</th>
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<tr>
<td>Beginner</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>27.1319</td>
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<td>.54899</td>
<td>26.0412</td>
<td>28.2225</td>
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<tr>
<td>Final-year</td>
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<td>35.9643</td>
<td>5.46674</td>
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286
### ANOVA

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<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
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<td>29.365</td>
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<td></td>
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### Robust Tests of Equality of Means

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a. Asymptotically F distributed.

### Perceived self-efficacy group statistics (Germany)

#### Descriptives

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<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Lower Bound</td>
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<tr>
<td>Beginner</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>34.5890</td>
<td>4.62432</td>
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<td>5.16708</td>
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### ANOVA

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>579.987</td>
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<td>Within Groups</td>
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### Robust Tests of Equality of Means

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a. Asymptotically F distributed.
Welch’s $T$-test statistics for difference in TPSE scores between Beginner student teachers in Tanzania and Germany

**Descriptives**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<td>91</td>
<td>27.1319</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>30.4512</td>
<td>6.19747</td>
<td>.48394</td>
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**ANOVA**

<table>
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<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2252.521</td>
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<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
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<td>162</td>
<td>24.741</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6260.610</td>
<td>163</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Robust Tests of Equality of Means**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>Welch</td>
<td>93.567</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>160.475</td>
<td>.000</td>
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$^a$ Asymptotically $F$ distributed.

**Fourth research sub-question (extra statistical tables)**

**Extra Chi-squared ($X^2$) results tables for the fourth research question.**

The nine motivational reasons were coded reason 1 to 9 in the SPSS. Their meanings are given here under:

Reason 1: Due to high social status
Reason 2: It fits my personality
Reason 3: Teaching provides better career prospects
Reason 4: Teaching offers better job opportunity
Reason 5: I wanted to help in the development of children/youths
Reason 6: Due to the influence of my family
Reason 7: I feel passion for teaching
Reason 8: It is the only available job given my qualification
Reason 9: **With teaching, it is easy to get a job**

*Reason* indicates the reason(s) with significant Chi-squared association to the perceived self-efficacy to some group of student teachers.

TPSE* stands for Total Perceived Self-Efficacy.

### (i) Chi-Squared Tests for Motivational Reason 1 vs. TPSE in three categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>2.163³</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>2.113</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.310</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>337</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>4.943³</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>7.092</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>.379⁴</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
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<td>.830</td>
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<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
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<td>.937</td>
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<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.64.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.95.

### (ii) Chi-Squared Tests for Motivational Reason 2 Vs. TPSE in three categories

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>.296³</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
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<td>.863</td>
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<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.294</td>
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<td>.588</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
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<td>Germany Total</td>
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<tr>
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<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
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</table>

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.65.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.60.
POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

(iii) Chi-Squared Tests for Motivational Reason 3 Vs. TPSE in three categories

<table>
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<td>.026</td>
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<td>.871</td>
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<td>.162</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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</table>

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.87.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.05.

(iv) Chi-Squared Tests for Motivational Reason 4 Vs. TPSE in three categories

<table>
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<td>.084</td>
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<td>.772</td>
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<td>14.722b</td>
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<td>Germany</td>
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<td>.001</td>
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<td>3.681</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.055</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.964</td>
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<td>.375</td>
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<td>.409</td>
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<td>.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>534</td>
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</table>

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.39.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.06.
### (V) Chi-Squared Tests for Motivational Reason 5 Vs. TPSE in three categories

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<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>2.558a</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>2.672</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>1.379</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>337</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>.752c</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>1.359</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>.825a</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
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<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>534</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.93.
  
* b. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.39.

### (vi) Chi-Squared Tests Motivational Reason 6 Vs. TPSE in three categories

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Value</th>
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</table>

* a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.79.
  
* b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.53.
Chi-Squared Tests Motivational Reason 7 Vs. TPSE in three categories

<table>
<thead>
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</table>

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.29.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.00

Showing the direction of scores leading to the stated significance!
(viii) Chi-Squared Tests Motivational Reason 8 Vs. TPSE in three categories

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<td>Germany</td>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>2.390$^c$</td>
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<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
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<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.81.
b. 0 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.09.

(ix) Chi-Squared Tests Motivational Reason 9 Vs. TPSE in three categories

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<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
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<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
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<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
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<td></td>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>534</td>
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a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.38.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.76.
c. 2 cells (19.3 %) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.62.
Showing the direction of scores leading to the stated significance!

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<td>269</td>
<td>534</td>
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POSITIVE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

APPENDIX 8

THE STUDY ACTIVITIES SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN.</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Personnel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Oct. 2013</td>
<td>Registration at the University &amp; Faculty</td>
<td>University of Leipzig</td>
<td>Candidate, International office &amp; Dean’s office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>May to June 2014</td>
<td>Piloting of research instruments</td>
<td>Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE), Tanzania</td>
<td>Candidate, Teacher educators and student teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>June to Sept. 2014</td>
<td>Data collection (Phase 1) &amp; initial processing</td>
<td>University of Dar es Salaam</td>
<td>Candidate, student teachers and teacher educators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>July. 2015 to Dec. 2015</td>
<td>Data interpretation &amp; report writing</td>
<td>University of Leipzig</td>
<td>Candidate &amp; Supervisor</td>
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