



ESJ Social Sciences

# Impact of Teacher-Student Relationship on Motivation levels & Academic Performance in Learning Chinese as a Second Language among Pakistani Students

*Nimra Nawaz*

Shanghai International Studies University, China

[Doi:10.19044/esj.2023.v19n10p17](https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2023.v19n10p17)

Submitted: 19 March 2023

Accepted: 19 April 2023

Published: 30 April 2023

Copyright 2023 Author(s)

Under Creative Commons BY-NC-ND

4.0 OPEN ACCESS

*Cite As:*

Nawaz N. (2023). *Impact of Teacher-Student Relationship on Motivation levels & Academic Performance in Learning Chinese as a Second Language among Pakistani Students*. European Scientific Journal, ESJ, 19 (10), 17.

<https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2023.v19n10p17>

## Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of Teacher Student Relationship (TSR) on Pakistani students' motivation and academic performance in a Chinese as a Second Language class. The sample of the study consists of 80 Chinese-language elementary school students. A total of three research questions and hypotheses were used in the study. A pre-post-test design was used to achieve the objectives of the study in which special treatment was given to the experimental group, whereas no treatment was given to the control group. SPSS was used as a statistical tool to examine the results of the present research. The results of the study proved the effectiveness of TSR in improving students' motivation and academic achievement, as the experimental group showed a better performance in the post-test than the control group. Moreover, the correlation test results indicated a positive significant relation between the TSR, academic performance, and student motivation.

**Keywords:** TSR; Second Language Acquisition; Academic Achievement; Motivation

## 1. Introduction

With the advancement of civilization and globalization, people are required to stay abreast with the times and grasp bilingualism or

multilingualism, which is why language acquisition is becoming necessary. with the gradual expansion of China's international influence, the significant increase in economic strength, the continuous improvement of comprehensive national strength, and the increase in the frequency of Chinese use, the practical value of Chinese has become increasingly prominent, setting off a wave of foreigners who want to learn Chinese and want to further deepen their understanding of Chinese culture. upsurge. According to relevant survey results, in recent years, the number of people in the world who are learning Chinese through various means is as high as 30 million, and more than 3,000 colleges and universities in more than 100 countries are teaching Chinese, and the whole country is scrambling to open Chinese courses. The Chinese language training institutions in the society are also booming. This enthusiasm for Chinese language teaching is rapidly spreading all over the country, and they are actively offering courses.

With the increasing frequency of friendly exchanges between China and Pakistan and the deepening of economic and trade activities, more and more people in Pakistan are learning Chinese, and Chinese has become the second most popular foreign language learner in Pakistan. Chinese teaching in Pakistan started earlier than Chinese teaching in other emerging countries. It began in 1970 with the National Institute of Modern Languages (National Institute of Modern Languages) founded by the Pakistani military in the capital, then in the second year, the Chinese Department was set up. In other words, the Chinese Department was one of the earliest departments established in the college. Although Peshawar University and Hunza University in the northeast also offered Chinese courses successively, both of these two schools stopped teaching shortly after the start due to lack of Chinese teachers and insufficient number of students. The initial purpose of setting up Chinese language teaching in Pakistan is to train top translation talents for the government and factories or enterprises aided by China. The students are mainly civil servants and scientific and technical personnel, who account for more than 80% of the total number of students. But from the current point of view, there is a great increase in the number of students from the non-government, and so far, besides the National University of Modern Languages, six other universities in Pakistan have also offered Chinese courses.

It's clear that learning a second language is becoming more and more popular these days. So, there needs to be a lot of research done on the problems that students face when learning a second language. Even though there are many problems that students face while learning a second language, but Teacher-Student Relationship (TSR) is one of the most common and important issue that student face during their second language learning because it is a key aspect in sustaining students' attention and interest during second language

acquisition. (Cazden, 2001; E. Leu, 2004). TSR is the most fundamental and significant aspect of classroom management and learning (Marzano, 2003). It is considered the main way in which teachers and students exchange information, ideas, and emotions in the classroom. It is a medium through which education and teaching activities can proceed smoothly. Cultivating a positive teacher-student connection contributes to the improvement of the overall quality of second language acquisition. According to Wilson (2011) and Morris (2013), establishing a healthy and positive TSR can meet the psychological requirements of students and teachers in language teaching and positively affect the bilateral activities of learning a second language (Pianta et. al., 2008; Hamre & Allen, 2012). Numerous studies have identified teachers as critical social mediators influencing students' school commitment, academic motivation, and disengagement. Additionally, studies highlight the significance of interactions and connections amongst students and teachers in improving performance, which is critical to the motivational process (Juvonen, 2006; Nugent, 2009).

Students are more engaged and active in learning a new language when they feel comfortable in the classroom environment (Hamre & Pianta, 2006; Skinner & Greene, 2008; Roorda et al., 2011; Maulana, 2013). The TSR is the most important and elementary factor of a good learning environment. It has a deep impact on students' academic, emotional, and social development. A healthy TSR, or emotional engagement between teacher and students, will undoubtedly have a positive influence on second language learning (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Gregory & Weinstein, 2004; Cornelius-White, 2007; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Research conducted by different researchers supports the notion that students who have strong and positive interactions with their class teachers and find them to be more supportive achieve greater academic success. (Hughes et al., 2012; Gehlbach et al., 2012; Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Skinner & Green, 2008; Spilt et al., 2011; Rimm-Kaufman & Sandilos, 2012).

In short, both positive and negative relationships with the class teacher have a deep effect on a student's capability to remain motivated in school and maintain good academic performance (Hughes, 2008). Students who have poor interactions with their class teachers have low grades, feel stressed, and do not have good relationships with classmates (Yoon, 2002; Friedman, 2013). Strayed teacher-student interactions contribute to low academic performance and demonstrate disobedience toward the school system (Boynton, 2005), while positive and strong relationship among students and teachers foster a positive and good attitude toward teachers and results in very positive academic performance. According to studies, students who have positive interactions with their teachers do not often miss school and are likely to create a feeling of belonging with their teachers.

## 2. Literature review

A huge body of data in the literature supports the idea that good TSR is a key component of students' effective academic development (Pianta, 1999; Birch, 1998; Hamre, 2001; Wigfield, 2002; Goodwin, 1999; Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018; Spilt, 2011; Tan et al., 2007; Reza, 2013; Ebrahim, 2012; Paul & Ray, 2014; Kuri, 2013; Lau et al., 2014; Thanh-Pham et al., 2012; Inuwa et al., 2015; Mashadi & Gazorkhani, 2015; Phiwpong & Dennis, 2016; Garcha & Kumar, 2015). Over the last 30 years, many studies have been done to analyze the relationships between teachers and how these interactions influence learning outcomes. According to different studies (Friere, 1990; Hussain, 2013; Liu, 2017), a teacher has the most significant role in teaching-learning activities, and is the core of the teaching-learning process. TSR is the key factor in increasing students' academic performance (Khan, 2011). Because teachers play an important part of learning a second language, they must foster a good and comfortable classroom environment to increase students' interest and enthusiasm in learning. (Spilt, 2011). The efficacy of second language learning in the language classroom is greatly influenced by the teacher's engagement and the quality of the TSR. (Lucha, 2015). To support this notion, Camp (2011) asserts that the efficacy of a teacher can influence students' learning success or failure. Evidence has demonstrated that students like and value teachers who are cheerful, amusing, joyful, well organized, supportive, and considerate of their students. The results of recent researches (Pavelescu & Petric, 2018; Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018; Saito et al., 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019) demonstrate that good teacher student's relationship and enjoyment of the classroom are thought to aid L2 learners in better responding to and processing the target language. According to the findings of the research by Roorda and Koomen (2011), an excellent TSR can serve as a preventative measure against dropout and have an impact on student motivation and attitude toward studying as well as improve academic accomplishment. According to Miness and Cooper (2014), teachers who constantly inquire about their students' lives and keep in regular touch with them, are more likely to be viewed as favorite teachers by their students. According to Varga (2017), teachers and students must have a positive relationship in order for the teaching-learning process to be successful. Further research (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Pianta et al., 1995) revealed that students who have good ties with their teachers are more extroverted and socially capable. Furthermore, it also highlighted that good teacher-student connections promote classroom learning and motivation by establishing a secure and supportive atmosphere in which students can open up and listen to their teachers and do better in class.

Besides helping students improve their grades, the TSR is considered an important factor in enhancing students' learning interests and motivation.

For example, Hughes (2007) asserts that students who have a positive relationship with their teachers are encouraged and motivated to learn a second language. When students have a healthy relationship with their teacher, they are more engaged in the classroom. They are more likely to put in extra effort in class, persist, take advice and criticism, handle stress better, and pay close attention to their teachers. According to Silver (2005), the emotional support and intellectual assistance provided by teachers are extremely crucial in helping students attain academic success. His research results show that a good TSR assists in protecting and helping children who are weak in studies. Hence, interventions aimed at boosting a student's academic performance should take into consideration the student's connection with their teacher (McCartney & O'Connor, 2007). A poor connection, on the other hand, will have a detrimental influence on the teaching-learning process. Because the students lack the desire and enthusiasm to study in the classroom and they tend to be inactive in class. This type of connection frequently results in poor classroom engagement, low level of student motivation, and a lack of enthusiasm for learning. As a result of bad TSR, students suffer a lot. This indicates that such a connection leads students to feel distressed and insecure, as well as reduces their capacity to focus on their studies (Spilt et al., 2012). Increased teacher support for students has a positive influence on lowering depressive symptoms and enhancing self-confidence. As a result of good TSR, students may also learn to behave in a more socially acceptable way (Reddy, 2003; Hughes, 2012).

## **2.1 Research Gap**

In a nutshell, TSR has a significant effect on academic performance and motivation as indicated by numerous studies. However, only a few research studies have been conducted in order to evaluate the effectiveness of TSR on academic performance of students in Pakistan. Particularly, there has been no studies regarding the effect of TSR on learning Chinese as a second language in Pakistan. As a result, there is an intense need to investigate the effect of teacher-student relationship on Pakistani students, especially in Chinese second language acquisition.

To address the above-mentioned research gap, this study examines three research questions. Each is represented with its corresponding hypothesis.

RQ 1: To find out the effect of the TSR on Pakistani students' motivation level in Chinese as the second language class.

Hypothesis 1: Good TSR has a positive effect on improving Pakistani students' motivation levels in Chinese as a second language class.

RQ 2: To find out the effect of the TSR on Pakistani students' academic performance in Chinese as a Second Language class.

Hypothesis 2: Good TSR is helpful in improving the academic performance of the Pakistani students in Chinese as a second language class.

RQ 3: To find out the correlation between TSR, Pakistani students' motivation level, and academic performance in Chinese as a second language class.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive correlation between TSR, Pakistani students' motivation level, and academic performance in Chinese as a second language class.

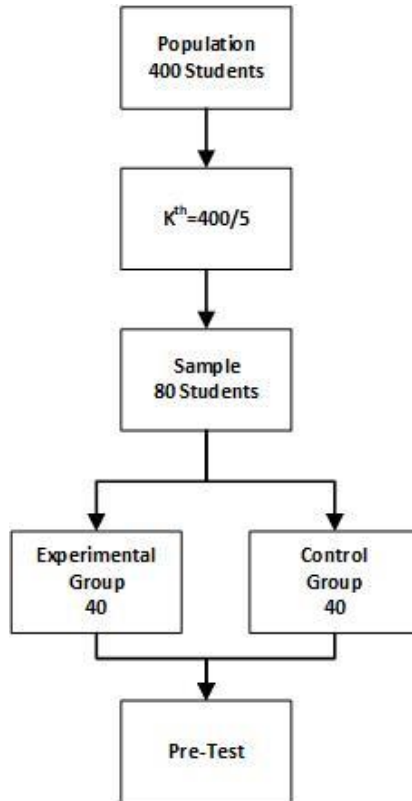
### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Research Design**

The Present research used two combined research methods. At the first level, a quasi-experimental approach was used, with a cooperative and traditional learning environment. Because of its resilience to frequent risks to internal validity, this approach is regarded as a real experimental design. In the second level, the questionnaire method was used. To gather data, quantitative research techniques were employed since they allow for the measurement of variables and the building of numbers that represent the results.

#### **3.2 Population Sampling Techniques**

The population for this study consisted of 400 Pakistani elementary school students. The systematic sampling method was used, and students were chosen at intervals of 5, so 80 students were chosen from a population of 400 students. The students in this study were then divided in two separate groups with 40 students in each group, experimental (N = 40) and control (N = 40). Below figure 1 shows the sampling process.



**Figure 1.** Sampling Technique

### **3.3 Pre- Post Test Design**

Two instruments were used for collection of data of pre-posttest analysis of the study: 1) Questionnaire 2) Written Test.

#### **3.3.1 Questionnaire:**

The first tool used was pre-post questionnaire for “Teacher-Student relationship and motivation level scale”; a certified questionnaire borrowed by Abdulrahman (2007), which was amended according to the aim of study. The questionnaire comprises three sections: A, B and C with a total of 22 questions. Part A elicited from the respondent’s information about their demographic such as Gender and age. The second section of the questionnaire consists on “Teacher-Student Relationship (TSR)” and the third section of the questionnaire consists on “Student Motivation Level (SML)” All the questions were close-ended on a five Point Scale.

#### **3.3.2 Written Test:**

The second tool used was the pre-post written test. The test had a total score of 100. The test was in written form.

## 4. Findings and discussion

### 4.1 Findings

Data analysis was done with SPSS. Demographic data was analyzed statistically. To test the study's hypotheses, descriptive statistics were calculated, and independent samples t-tests and correlation analysis were performed on both groups' pre-post exam and questionnaire results.

#### 4.1.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The demographic information included the analysis in terms of age, sex, mother tongue and second foreign language. The demographic information of respondents is summarized in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1.** Socio-Demographic Information

Description		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	40	50.0%
	Female	40	50.0%
Age in years	12-14	65	75.0%
	15-17	15	25.0%
Mother tongue	Urdu	80	100%
	Other	0	0.0%
Second language	English	80	100%
	Other	0	0.0%

It can be seen from Table 4.1 that from the sample of the total number (80) of respondents, males made up half of the participants (40), while females made up the other half (40). In terms of age, the subjects in this study were young people between 12 and 17 years old. In terms of mother tongue composition, the subjects comprising the two groups in this study were all native Urdu speakers. The second foreign language of all the students in the two groups was English.

#### 4.1.2 Pre-Questionnaire Results

Before the experiment, researcher compared both groups' pre-questionnaire results to make sure that both groups' students were equal in TSR and motivation level. Table 4.2 presents the results of the pre-questionnaire.



**Table 4.2.** Pre-Questionnaire Results

Variable	Level of Relationship	Frequency	Percentage
<b>TSR (Experimental group)</b>	Low	35	87.5%
	Moderate	5	12.5%
	High	0	0.0%
	Total	40	100.0%
<b>TSR (Control Group)</b>	Low	34	85.0%
	Moderate	6	15.0%
	High	0	0.0%
	Total	40	100.0%
<b>Motivation (Experimental Group)</b>	Low	37	92.5%
	Moderate	3	7.5%
	High	0	0.0%
	Total	40	100.0%
<b>Motivation (Control Group)</b>	Low	36	90.0%
	Moderate	4	10.0%
	High	0	0.0%
	Total	40	100.0%

From the above table, we can see that in the experimental group, 35 respondents (87.5%) had a low level of TSR, while 5 respondents (12.5%) indicated a moderate level and no respondents had a high level of TSR. Likewise, in the control group, 34 respondents (85%) had a low level of TSR, 6 respondents (15.0%) indicated a moderate level, and no respondents had a high level of TSR. This implies that in both control and experimental groups, the majority of the students have the same (low) level of relationship with their teachers and there is no difference in the level of the TSR in both groups.

The above table also shows the pre-questionnaire motivation results of both classes. It can be seen from the above table that in the experimental group, 37 respondents (92.5%) had a low level of class motivation, 3 respondents (7.5%) indicated a moderate level, and no respondents had a high level of class motivation. Similarly, in the control group, 36 respondents (90%) had a low level of class motivation, 4 respondents (10%) indicated a moderate level, and no respondents had a high level of class motivation. This indicates that in both the control group and experimental group, the majority of the students have the same (low) level of class motivation before the experiment, and there is no difference in the level of class motivation in both groups.

Although the results of the above two groups of pre-questionnaires show that there is no significant difference between the two classes on the basis of TSR and Motivation level, i.e., both groups have the same TSR and motivation level, in order to verify the accuracy of the results, the researcher also used independent sample t-tests to ensure that the groups are not statistically different from each other. Below Table 4.3 show the results of this analysis.

**Table 4.3.** T test result for pre- questionnaire

Variables	Group	N	Average	SD	SD. Error	T	Df	P
TSR	Experimental Group	40	2.60	0.26	0.04	1.26	78	.21
	Control Group	40	2.52	0.31	0.05			
Motivation	Experimental Group	40	2.51	0.30	0.05	-0.24	78	.81
	Control Group	40	2.53	0.31	0.05			

The independent sample t-test results from Table 4.3 shows that the control group (Mean = 2.52, St. Dev. = 0.05) and the experimental group (Mean= 2.60, St. Dev. = 0.04) have no statistically significant difference in TSR [t (78) =1.26, p =.21]. Similarly, the independent sample t-test results show that the control group (M = 2.53, SD = 0.31) and the experimental group (Mean = 2.51, St. Dev. = 0.30) have no statistically significant difference in motivation level [t (78) -0.24, p =.81]. Therefore, the two classes have the same level of TSR and motivation and it ensures the homogeneity of the sample.

### 4.1.3 Pretest Exam Results

The above results show that the two groups of students are not significantly different regarding the relationship with their teacher and level of motivation in learning Chinese as a second language. However, in order to ensure that both class students have an equal academic level in Chinese as a second language class, the researchers also compared the pretest exam score of both groups. Below is the result of pretest exam scores for both groups.

**Table 4.4.** Pretest Exam Results

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Error	Variance	St. Dev
Experimental Group	40	24	43	69	55.60	1.10	48.66	6.98
Control Group	40	25	45	70	56.95	1.07	45.48	6.74

The maximum score of the experimental group in the pretest exam was 69, the minimum score was 43, and the average was 55.60, while the maximum score of the control group in the pretest exam was 70, the minimum score was 45, and the average was 56.95, as shown in Table 4.4. The average scores of the control and experimental groups in both variables showed that the academic level of both groups was almost the same.

In the pre-test exam, the average score (55.60) of the experimental group was not much different from the control group (56.95). The average scores of the two classes of subjects in the pre-test show that before the formal experiment, all subjects are homogeneous. However, in order to ensure that there is no significant difference, the researcher also performed an independent sample t-test on the two groups' pretest scores.

**Table 4.5.** T-test result for both groups pretest Exam

Variables	Group	N	Average	SD	SD. Error	T	Df	P
Grade	Experimental Group	40	55.60	6.98	1.10	-.880	78	.382
	Control Group	40	56.95	6.74	1.07			

The t-test result from the above table shows that there is not a significant difference between the average marks of both classes in the pretest and that both groups of students were homogeneous before the formal experiment. The independent sample t-test results show that the control group (Mean = 56.95, St. Dev. = 6.74) and the experimental group (Mean = 55.60, St. Dev. = 6.98) have no statistically significant difference in pretest exam scores [ $t(78) = -.880, p = .382$ ].

#### 4.1.4 Correlation Analysis of TSR, Motivation, and Grade at Pre-Test level

Another objective of the study was to find the relation between TSR, grade achievement, and the motivation level of students. To find out this relationship a correlation test was performed. The result is shown in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6.** Pre-test Correlation coefficient matrix

	TSR	Motivation	Grade
<b>Experimental Group</b>			
TSR	-		
Motivation	0.71**	-	
Grade	0.66**	0.68**	-
<b>Control Group</b>			
TSR	-		
Motivation	0.69**	-	
Grade	0.60**	0.72**	-

\*\*p<0.01

The above table shows that for experimental group the correlation between the TSR and motivation was ( $r = 0.71, p < .01$ ); correlation between TSR and grade was ( $r = 0.66, p < .01$ ), and the correlation between the motivation and grade was ( $r = 0.68, p < .01$ ). Similarly, for control group the

correlation between the TSR and motivation was ( $r = 0.69, p < .01$ ); correlation between TSR and grade was ( $r = 0.60, p < .01$ ), and the correlation between the motivation and grade was ( $r = 0.72, p < .01$ ) which means there is a strong positive correlation among TSR, Motivation and academic performance. As both class students have weak TSR scores, so consequently most of the student have low motivation levels and low exam scores.

#### 4.1.5 Post questionnaire Results

After the experiment, the researcher again compared both groups' post-questionnaire results to see if, on the basis of two different treatments, there is any statistical difference in both groups' TSR and motivation level in Chinese as a second language class. According to the post-questionnaire results, students in control group and experimental group have improved differently in terms of their relationship with their teacher and their level of motivation in second language class. Table 4.7 presents the results of post-questionnaire.

**Table 4.7.** Post-Questionnaire results

Variable	Level of Relationship	Frequency	Percentage
<b>TSR (Experimental Group)</b>	Low	0	0.0%
	Moderate	15	37.5%
	High	25	62.5%
	Total	40	100.0%
<b>TSR (Control Group)</b>	Low	32	80.0%
	Moderate	7	17.5%
	High	1	2.5%
	Total	40	100.0%
<b>Motivation (Experimental Group)</b>	Low	0	0%
	Moderate	14	35.0%
	High	26	65.0%
	Total	40	100.0%
<b>Motivation (Control Group)</b>	Low	31	77.5%
	Moderate	8	20.0%
	High	1	2.5%
	Total	40	100.0%

The descriptive results of the above two groups of post-tests show that there is a difference between the two groups of students regarding TSR and level of motivation. However, in order to ascertain the accuracy of the experimental results, the researcher again used independent sample t-tests to ensure that the difference in performance of the two groups is statistically significant. Table 4.8 show the results of this analysis.

**Table 4.8.** T test result for post-questionnaire

Variables	Group	N	Average	SD	SD. Error	T	Df	P
TSR	Experimental Group	40	4.20	0.27	0.04	18.42	78	.000
	Control Group	40	2.93	0.34	0.05			
Motivation	Experimental Group	40	4.11	0.21	0.03	23.87	78	.000
	Control Group	40	2.92	0.24	0.04			

The independent sample t-test results of the TSR scores show that the control group (Mean = 2.92, St. Dev. = 0.34) and the experimental group (Mean = 4.20, St. Dev. = 0.27) have a statistically significant difference in terms of TSR (T (78) = 18.42, p = .000). Similarly, the results of independent sample t-tests for motivation shows that, the control group (Mean = 2.92, St. Dev. = 0.24) and the experimental group (Mean = 4.11, St. Dev. = 0.21) have a statistically significant difference in terms of motivation (T (78) = 23.87, p = .000). The two groups have developed different levels of relationships with their teacher and have improved differently in terms of motivation in the second language. From the descriptive results, we can clearly see that the experimental group improved more than the control group in both TSR and motivation levels. Therefore, we can say that a good TSR has a positive impact on improving students' motivation levels in a second language class.

The above results support the first hypothesis of this research: Good TSR has a positive effect on improving Pakistani students' motivation levels in Chinese as a second language classes.

#### 4.1.6 Post Test exam Results

After the experiment, the researcher also compared the two classes' students' posttest exam results. Table 4.9 shows the posttest exam results.

**Table 4.9.** Posttest exam Results

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Error	Variance	St. Dev
Experimental Group	40	23	72	95	85.33	1.04	43.25	6.58
Control Group	40	22	57	79	69.5	1.00	40.15	6.34

As can be seen in Table 4.9, the highest score of experimental group in the post-test is 95, the lowest score is 72, the average score is 85.33. On the other hand, the highest score of the control group in the posttest is 79, the lowest score is 57, and the average is 69.5. Both groups' students performed

differently in the post-test, and there is a significant difference in their final scores due to the different type of treatment (in terms of teaching) that was given to both groups.

In order to ensure that the difference between the posttest scores of both groups was significant, the researcher also conducted an independent samples t-test. The Results of t-test are shown in Table 4.10.

**Table 4.10.** T-test result for both groups' posttest exam results

Variables	Group	N	Average	SD	SD. Error	T	Df	P
Grade	Experimental Group	40	85.33	6.58	1.04	10.96	78	.000
	Control Group	40	69.50	6.34	1.00			

The above table shows there was a statistically significant difference [T (38) = .87, p = .000] in posttest results of the control group (Mean = 51.31, St. Dev. = 5.20) and the experimental group (Mean = 52.04, St. Dev. = 3.93). From the descriptive results, we can clearly see that the experimental group improved more than the control group in post-test results. Again, we can say that there is a significant difference in their final scores due to the different types of treatments that were given to both groups.

The above results support the second hypothesis of this research: Good TSR is helpful in improving the academic performance of Pakistani students in Chinese as a Second Language classes.

#### 4.1.7 Correlation Analysis of TSR, Motivation, and Grade at Post-Test Level

To examine the third hypotheses of the present study, which was to find out the correlation between TSR, grade achievement, and motivation level of students, a correlation test was conducted at Post-test level. The result is shown in Table 4.11.

**Table 4.11.** Post-test Correlation coefficient matrix

	TSR	Motivation	Grade
<b>Experimental Group</b>			
TSR	-		
Motivation	0.70**	-	
Grade	0.63**	0.60**	-
<b>Control Group</b>			
TSR	-		
Motivation	0.68**	-	
Grade	0.66**	0.62**	-

\*\*p<0.01

The above table shows that the correlation between TSR and motivation for the experimental group was ( $r = 0.70, p < .01$ ), the correlation between TSR and grade was ( $r = 0.63, p < .01$ ), and the correlation between motivation and grade was ( $r = 0.60, p < .01$ ), which indicates a strong positive correlation between TSR, motivation, and academic performance.

Similarly, the correlation between TSR and motivation for the control group was ( $r = 0.68, p < .01$ ), the correlation between TSR and grade was ( $r = 0.66, p < .01$ ), and the correlation between motivation and grade was ( $r = 0.62, p < .01$ ), that indicates a strong positive correlation between TSR, motivation, and academic performance.

As we can see, in the experimental group, students have high TSR, so consequently most of the students have high motivation levels and high exam scores. On the other hand, the control group students have weak TSR scores, so consequently most of the students have low motivation levels and low exam scores. We can conclude that all three variables have very strong positive relationships with each other i.e., increases in one variable lead to increases in the others and deterioration in one variable lead to deterioration in the others.

The above results support the third hypothesis of this research: There is a positive correlation between TSR, Pakistani students' motivation level, and academic performance in Chinese as a second language class.

From the above results, we can conclude that TSR is an important factor in encouraging students to learn a second language. A good TSR motivates students to put forth their best effort in learning Chinese. The students in the experimental group have better TSR, Motivation and Exam scores as compared to the control group. This gap between the two classes is because the experimental group has received special treatment, it has become the cause of building good TSR as well as increasing the class motivation, due to which students have improved their grade marks as well. On the other hand, control group did not receive any special treatment, So, the majority of the control group students still have a low level of relationship with their teacher. Consequently, they have a lack of motivation or have a low level of motivation in Chinese as a second language class, and it also affects their grade. We can also conclude that these three variables have a very strong positive relationship.

## 4.2 Discussion

The first goal of the present study was to determine the impact of the TSR on a Pakistani student's motivation level in a Chinese as a second language class. The second goal of the study was to determine the impact of the TSR on a Pakistani student's academic performance in a Chinese as a second language class. The third goal of the study was to find out if there was a correlation between the TSR, Pakistani students' motivation level, and

academic performance in a Chinese as a second language class. The quasi-experimental research design was used to investigate the above-mentioned objectives. As some studies have emphasized, that in TSR experimental studies, sometimes the positive results are not just because of a good TSR but could be because of a different class syllabus, teaching methodology, or teachers themselves. Therefore, the best technique to avoid the effect of external factors in research is to use the same teacher, class syllabus, and teaching methodology (Bryan & Atwater, 1994; Chin, 2006). Therefore, with the reference to the above studies, the control group and experimental group in this study were taught by the same teacher and were taught the same class syllabus.

Different research results show that relationship between students and teachers have a positive effect on students' motivation levels and academic performance. The post-questionnaire results of present study also show that after the experiment period, the experimental group students, feel more motivated in their class in comparison to the control group students. These results are also supported by researches carried out by Reddy (2003), Hughes (2012), and Lucha (2015). According to Williams (2010), the perception of students about their relationship with their teachers have a very important role in developing their interest and motivation in learning and pushing them to study more effectively. Similarly, another study revealed that cooperative learning is the most effective teaching style that encourages students to study in groups in order to enhance their interest, confidence, and desire for learning (Aziz & Hossain, 2010).

Similarly, the results also support the second hypothesis of the present study that good TSR is helpful in improving the academic performance of the Pakistani students in Chinese as a second language classes. The post-test findings of the present study demonstrate that a positive teacher-student has a beneficial influence on students' academic progress. As in the Post-test results, we can clearly see that the experimental group showed significantly higher scores than the control group. These findings indicate the efficacy of teacher-student interaction in academic advancement. These findings corroborate prior research (Friere, 1990; Hussain, et al., 2013; Khan, 2011). Similar results have been given by (Spilt et al., 2011; Lucha, 2015; Roorda & Koomen, 2011; Miness & Cooper, 2014), who found that the most significant factor in enhancing students' academic success is the establishment of healthy TSR. The formation of strong teacher-student interactions is the single most essential factor in raising students' academic success levels. The present study supports the research findings of Liu (2017). According to his research, as compared to traditional learning approaches, cooperative learning is more effective. Because the lecture method is focused on putting information into a theoretical narrative without regulating, integrating, and organizing



perceptions and scientific principles. Therefore, it is an ineffective method and it significantly adds to students' poor accomplishment levels.

Similarly, results from the analysis of the present research also support the third hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between TSR, Pakistani students' motivation level, and academic performance. These results support previous findings (D. W., 1998; Ahmed & Mahmood, 2010; Reza, 2013; He & Qi, 2018; Ebrahim, 2012; Wang et al., 2015) that there is a strong positive correlation between TSR, academic performance and motivation level. The study's findings may be supported by the fact that students in the experimental group worked in a highly cooperative atmosphere, with teachers and students assisting one another to do better throughout the experimental group activities. Cooperative learning is a style of teaching and learning in which students collaborate to achieve a shared objective (Arends, 1998). Another significant element that may have contributed to the positive outcome was that these students were exposed to such therapy for the first time, and the thrill and delight of doing something new in their normal lessons may have enhanced their motivation to perform.

## **Conclusion**

In a nutshell, we can say that the TSR is the most fundamental aspect of classroom instruction. The enhancement of students' motivation and academic progress is stimulated by the change in the TSR. The positive TSR has a significant influence on both student learning motivation and academic success. A positive teacher-student connection encourages students to participate actively in class, share their thoughts, and take an interest in their class, which automatically results in improving their grades. It can be demonstrated that the positive teacher-student interaction in the classroom influences not only students' learning motivation but also grade achievement. Most students who have a positive relationship with their teacher have high self-esteem and perform better on exams.

The TSR is one of the prime factors that directly affect the healthy development of students' personal traits, the quality of education, and their performance in classroom. It is recommended that the teachers create a positive TSR and learning environment. Generally speaking, the establishment of a TSR is not a difficult task. Teachers and students can only have a better communication and get to know each other when teachers love and respect their students, treat them fairly, praise them, and encourage them. Teachers must actively seek out and use effective methods and techniques, improve exchanges and communication with students in all aspects of thinking, life, and study, and express our emotions in appropriate and acceptable ways. In addition, teachers should be good at listening to students' emotions so that they can vent their emotions normally. In addition, they must learn to identify and

master certain skills in identifying and judging emotions, gain insight into the emotional state of students, and make appropriate responses to students' emotional responses to build a harmonious TSR. This improves communication and exchanges between teachers and students, as well as among students. Students' language cognitive abilities are improved, and language-teaching activities are carried out with a new language teaching method to better realize the purpose of language teaching.

### **Recommendations**

1. In the present study, participants were chosen from a single school and one ethnic group, which posed a constraint because they constituted a homogeneous sample. It is advised that future studies on this topic recruit respondents from a more varied range of backgrounds.
2. The data from this study does not include observation, which is essential. It is anticipated that future researchers will take these restrictions into account if they want to do research on a similar topic.
3. The present research sample is just from a basic language class at elementary school level. Future research could include a study across multiple grade levels.
4. Besides the TSR, there are so many other variables (age, family, investment, personality, learning methodologies, etc.) that also have a high impact on student grade achievement and their motivation level in second language classes, so future researchers can also consider these variables while conducting research on a similar topic.
5. The teacher's response to the students' interests is very important. Teaching is not a one-way process; it's a bilateral activity between teachers and students. In teaching activities, students learn new things and exchange information with their teachers. So, teachers shouldn't think of their students as passive acceptors, but rather be turned into active, lively, and developing cognitive subjects.
6. Language classroom teaching should create a harmonious, coordinated, lively, relaxed, and happy classroom atmosphere between teachers and students. This atmosphere can improve students' curiosity and interest, mobilize students' active learning, and reduce the obstructive effect of emotional anxiety and mentality, thereby improving classroom teaching efficiency. At the same time, students participate in the teaching with good cooperation and heartfelt cooperation. They can happily accept the input of language knowledge, internalize it in their own knowledge system, and then perform language in real or simulated pragmatic contexts.

## References:

1. Abdulrahman, K. A. B. (2007). Students' Views on student-teacher relationship: A Questionnaire-based Study. *Journal of family & community medicine*, 14(2), 81.
2. Aziz, Z. & Hossain, M. A. (2010). A comparison of cooperative learning and conventional teaching on students' achievement in secondary mathematics. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9, 53-62.
3. Bernstein-Yamashiro, B. & Noam, G. (2013). TSR: A growing field of study. *New Directions for Student Leadership*, 2013(137), pp. 15-26.
4. Birch, S. H., & Ladd, G. W. (1997). The teacher-child relationship and children's early school adjustment. *Journal of School Psychology*, 35, 61-79.
5. Birch, S. H., & Ladd, G. W. (1998). Children's interpersonal behaviors and the teacher-child relationship. *Developmental Psychology*, 34(5), 934-946.
6. Birch, S.H., Ladd, G.W. (1998). Children's interpersonal behaviors and the teacher-child relationship. *Developmental Psychology*, 34(5), 934-946.
7. Boynton, M. & Boynton, C. (2005). Developing positive TSR. In *Educator's Guide to Preventing and Solving Discipline Problems*.
8. Camp, M. D. (2011). The power of TSR in determining student success. University of Missouri.
9. Cazden, C. B. (2001). Classroom discourse the language of teaching and learning.
10. Cooper, K. S., & Miness, A. (2014). The co-creation of caring TSR: Does teacher understanding matter? *High School Journal*, 97(4), 264-290.
11. Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered TSR are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113-143.
12. Dewaele, J. M., & Alfawzan, M. (2018). Does the effect of enjoyment outweigh that of anxiety in foreign language performance? *Studies in second language learning and teaching*, 8(1), 21-45.
13. Eccles, J.S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational Beliefs, Values, and Goals. *Annual Review Psychology*, 53, 109-32.
14. Elsayir, H. A. (2014). Comparison of precision of systematic sampling with some other probability samplings. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 3(4), 111-116.
15. Fan, W. & Williams, C. M. (2010). The effects of parental involvement on students' academic self-efficacy, engagement, and intrinsic motivation, *Educational Psychology*, 30(1), 53-74

16. Friedman, I. A. (2013). Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout. In *Handbook of classroom management* (pp. 935-954). Routledge.
17. Gehlbach, H., Brinkworth, M., & Harris, A. (2012). Changes in TSR. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 690-704.
18. Gregory, A., & Weinstein, R. S. (2004). Connection and regulation at home and in school: Predicting growth in achievement for adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 19(4), 405–427.
19. Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625-638.
20. Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625-638.
21. Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625–638.
22. Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2006). Student–teacher relationships. I GG Bear & KM Minke (Eds.), *Children's needs III: Development, prevention, and intervention* (s. 59–71).
23. Hughes J. N., Luo, W., Kwok, O., & Loyd, L. (2008). Teacher-student support, effortful engagement, and achievement: A three-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(1), 1–14.
24. Hughes, J. N., Wu, J., Kwok, O., Villarreal, V., & Johnson, A. Y. (2012). Indirect effects of child reports of TSR on achievement. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 104(2), 350-365.
25. Hughes, J., & Kwok, O. M. (2007). Influence of student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships on lower achieving readers' engagement and achievement in the primary grades. *Journal of educational psychology*, 99(1), 39-51.
26. Hussain, N., Nawaz, B., Nasir, S., Kiani, N., & Hussain, M. (2013). Positive teacher-student relationship and teachers' experience: A teacher's perspective. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research Interdisciplinary*, 13(3), 1-4.
27. Jiang, Y., & Dewaele, J.-M. (2019). How unique is the foreign language classroom enjoyment and anxiety of Chinese EFL learners? *System*, 82, 13e25.
28. Juvonen, J. (2006). Sense of Belonging, Social Bonds, and School Functioning.
29. Khan, I. A. (2011). An analysis of learning barriers: The Saudi Arabian context. *International Education Studies*, 4(1), 242-247.

30. Leu, E. (2004). Developing a positive environment for teacher quality. US: EQUIP, 1-8.
31. Liu, Q., Ba, S., Huang, J., Wu, L. & Lao. C. (2017). A Study on Grouping Strategy of Collaborative Learning Based on Clustering Algorithm. International Conference on Blended Learning: Blended Learning. New Challenges and Innovative Practices (pp. 284-294).
32. Luz, F. D. (2015). The relationship between teachers and students in the classroom: communicative language teaching approach and cooperative learning strategy to improve learning. Bridgewater State University.
33. Maulana, R., Opdenakker, M., Stroet, K., & Bosker, R. (2013). Changes in teachers' involvement versus rejection and links with academic motivation during the first year of secondary education: A multilevel growth curve analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(9), 1348-71.
34. Morris, A. S., John, A., Halliburton, A. L., Morris, M. D. S., Robinson, L. R., Myers, S. S., Aucoin, K. J., Keyes, A. W., Terranova, A. (2013). Effortful control, behavior problems, and peer relations: What predicts academic adjustment in kindergartners from low-income families? *Early Education and Development*, 24(6), 813–828.
35. Nugent, T. T. (2009). The impact of teacher-student interaction on student motivation and achievement.
36. O'Connor, E. & McCartney, K. (2007). Examining Teacher-Child Relationships and Achievement as Part of an Ecological Model of Development. *American Educational Research Journal*. 44(22), 340-369.
37. Pavelescu, L. M., & Petric, B. (2018). Love and enjoyment in context: Four case studies of adolescent EFL learners. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 8, 73e101.
38. Pianta, R. C. (1999). Enhancing relationships between children and teachers. American Psychological Association.
39. Pianta, R. C., Belsky, J., Vandergrift, N., Houts, R., & Morrison, F. J. (2008). Classroom effects on children's achievement trajectories in elementary school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(2), 365-397.
40. Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B. K., & Allen, J. P. (2012). TSR and engagement: conceptualizing, measuring and improving the capacity of classroom interactions. *Handbook of research on student engagement*, 365-386
41. Pianta, R. C., Steinberg, M. S., & Rollins, K. B. (1995). The first two years of school: Teacher-child relationships and deflections in

- children's classroom adjustment. *Development and Psychopathology*, 7, 295–312.
42. Reddy, R., Rhodes, J. E., & Mulhall, P. (2003). The influence of teacher support on student adjustment in the middle school years: A latent growth curve study. *Development and Psychopathology*, 15(1), 119-138.
  43. Rimm- Kaufman, S. & Sandilos, L. (2012). Improving students' relationships with teachers to provide essential supports for learning.
  44. Roorda, D. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., Spilt, J. L., & Oort, F. J. (2011). The influence of affective teacher-student relationships on students' school engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic approach. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(4), 493–529.
  45. Roorda, D. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., Spilt, J. L., & Oort, F. J. (2011). The influence of affective TSR on students' school engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic approach. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(4), 493-529.
  46. Roorda, D.L., Koomen, H.M.Y., Spilt, J.L., & Oort, F.J. (2011). The Influence of Affective TSR on Students' School Engagement and Achievement: A Meta-Analytic Approach. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(4), 493-529.
  47. Sabol, T. J., & Pianta, R. C. (2012). Recent trends in research on teacher-child relationships. *Attachment and Human Development*, 14(3), 213–231.
  48. Saito, K., Dewaele, J.-M., Abe, M., & In'nami, Y. (2018). Motivation, emotion, learning experience and second language comprehensibility development in classroom settings: A cross-sectional and longitudinal study. *Language Learning*, 68.
  49. Silver, R., Measelle, J., Amstrong, J., & Essex, M. 2005. Trajectories of Classroom Externalizing Behaviour: Contributions of Child Characteristics, Family Characteristics, and the Teacher-Child Relationships during Transitions. *Journal of School Psychology*. 43, 39-50.
  50. Skinner, E., & Greene, T. (2008). Perceived control, coping and engagement. Dalam Thomas L. Good (Ed.). *21st Century Education: A Reference Handbook* (pp. 121-130).
  51. Spilt, J. L., Hughes, J. N., Wu, J. Y., & Kwok, O.M. (2012). Dynamics of teacher-student relationships: stability and change across elementary school and the influence on children's academic success. *Child Development*, 83(4), 1180- 1195.
  52. Spilt, J. L., Koomen, H. M., Y., & Thijs, J. T. (2011). Teacher well-being: The importance of TSR. *Educational Psychology Review*, 23(4), 457-477.

53. Swan, J. (2016). *Learn Chinese: A Guide to Learning the Basics of a New Language*. CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform.
54. Varga, M. (2017). *The effect of TSR on the academic engagement of students*. Goucher College.
55. Wilson, B. J., Petaja, H., Mancil, L. (2011). The attention skills and Grade achievement of aggressive/rejected and low aggressive/popular children. *Early Education and Development*, 22(6), 907–930.
56. Yoon, J. S. (2002). Teacher characteristics as predictors of teacher-student relationships: Stress, negative affect, and self-efficacy. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal*, 30, 485–494.