TEACHER-STUDENT RAPPORT IN A MIDDLE SCHOOL CLASSROOM IN CHINA: A DIALOGIC PERSPECTIVE

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FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR

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TEACHER-STUDENT RAPPORT IN A MIDDLE SCHOOL CLASSROOM IN CHINA: A DIALOGIC PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

China’s New Curriculum Reform emphasizes the need for students to be active participants in the teaching-learning process, which requires reciprocal dialogue. Reciprocal dialogue is the avenue through which teacher-student rapport is built. Furthermore, it is the building of such rapport which serves as the basis for the student’s active cooperation and participation in the teaching-learning process. This study presents the findings of a basic qualitative study which discusses the classroom, which serves as the basis for analyzing classroom dialogue in order to explore to what extent the teacher-student rapport which is advocated by China’s New Curriculum Reform is being implemented in the classroom.

This study is furthermore supported by Buber’s dialogic theory of building an “I – Thou” relationship between teacher and student. The research sample comprised the classes of three teachers from a Chinese government school which is a model school for implementing China’s New Curriculum Reform. Each of the three classes consisted of middle school students between the ages of 13 and 15. Classroom dialogue was recorded and transcribed, and coded as well. Furthermore, the school principal, teachers and students were interviewed in order to receive feedback on their understanding of teacher-student rapport.

Through analyzing the data of classroom dialogue and interviews with the school principal, teachers and students, it was apparent that teacher-student rapport was affected by many factors, and implementing teacher-student rapport as advocated by China’s New Curriculum Reform is a long-term process, whereby teachers themselves will need more “hands on” experiences regarding building teacher-student rapport.
Abstrak


Melalui analisis data dialog dalam kelas dan temu bual dengan pengetua sekolah, guru-guru dan pelajar, jelas kelihatan bahawa rapport pelajar-guru dipengaruhi oleh pelbagai faktor, dan pelaksanaan rapport guru-pelajar seperti dikehendaki oleh Reformasi Kurikulum Baru di China adalah proses jangka panjang, yang mana guru-guru sendiri memerlukan pengalaman “hands on” dalam kaedah pemupukan rapport tersebut.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In China, the New Curriculum Reform, which has been carried out since 2001, calls for equal and harmonious rapport between teacher and student. The concrete manifestation on teaching is to have equal communication between teacher and students, allows everyone to become actively involved in the learning process, and construct meaning cooperatively; as opposed to the typical method of the teacher lecturing and the students listening. The New Curriculum Reform has led to changed curriculum syllabi, textbooks and educational slogan that emphasizes “knowledge and ability, process and method, emotion, attitude and axiological value” (Ministry of Education of China, 2001, p. 1). This then means teachers should not only let students know about fish, but focus on teaching them about fishing as well; thus the teachers let students obtain ability as well as knowledge. The focus from the teachers’ perspective should pay more attention on students’ learning process, as opposed to the results (scores); thereby helping to foster full rounded human beings with good emotional quality and ability that derives from a healthy relationship. However, in spite of this, the New Curriculum Reform has failed to positively alter the teacher-student rapport.

As middle school education typically involves a relationship between teacher and students for 10 hours a day in China, teachers and students spend most of their time in the classroom, teaching and learning different academic subjects. During this time,
teachers face a variety of challenges as they attempt to create effective environments where students can learn better. One particular challenge is rapport building between teacher and student in the classroom. This is a particularly difficult challenge as it affects teacher’s teaching and student’s learning directly. Positive rapport can help make both the teacher and student feel peaceful and more relaxed with one another; thereby helping to create an environment for enhanced learning. In contrast, inharmonious teacher-student rapport can make both teacher and student feel frustrated, confused and helpless, which can then negatively impact the classroom environment.

In China today classroom teaching departs from the original intention of the New Curriculum Reform. The mission of the New Curriculum Reform is not being implemented and thus remains a theory. Teacher and student are the main participants of classroom teaching; thus, research on teacher-student rapport is necessary.
1.2 Rationale of The Study

The rationale of this research study began following a conversation I once had with a middle school principal in China, who made the statement, “our school is like a big factory for the sake of examination, we have no time, also no need to pay attention to individual student.” Driven by examination, students’ needs of emotion, expression, creativity and so on are ignored. Students become confused about the meaning of learning. Teachers are still the authorities at the top. The spatial distance between teacher and student closes in as the classroom size grows larger, and the emotional distance grows wider as the emphasis is placed on how the students score.

Importance of teacher-student rapport

The topic of teacher-student rapport is inseparable from the realm of education. Since the birth of education in human society, teacher-student rapport has always been an important aspect of education. The common assumption is that everything starts from the teacher-student rapport. As noted by Xiao (1999a), teacher-student rapport is the cornerstone of education. The human being’s education is always accomplished on the basis of the teacher-student rapport. Any integrated focus on education is inseparable from focusing on the teacher-student rapport (Li, 2006). It is not only because teacher-student rapport is a pertinent dimension in education, but also because education and teaching need to be carried out within the teacher-student rapport. Education cannot be regarded as education if there is no concrete relation between teacher and student; and for the purpose of achieving educational goals, the teacher-student rapport per se is an
An important factor that is an indispensable approach in achieving educational goals. Thus, the teacher-student rapport is the most important relationship that affects educational and teaching activities (Bao, 2005). Because teacher-student rapport may be defined as an interpersonal relationship (Frymier & Houser, 2000), it may be assumed that both parties depend on each other to maintain the relationship; thus, both participants in the relationship are equally important.

How should teachers teach and how should students learn? How can the teacher and student get along with each other? Different answers have been given, many of which are controversial based on different philosophical views and opinions (Li, 2006). Thus, re-thinking and re-surveying the teacher and student’s role, status and relationship are very important and necessary.

Classroom teaching is the primary basis of educational activities and the life of teachers and students. How to locate the roles of teachers and students? How do teachers manage to communicate with students? How do the beings of teachers and students in the classroom affect the whole life of the classroom? Only by carrying out qualitative research based on grasping the actuality of classroom teaching can researchers provide factual evidence and precondition for the theoretical framework.

**Importance of dialogue theory**

The wording “dialogue” evokes the type of culture based on intercourse and interaction, communion and cooperation from the views of sociology and anthropology. It is a culture related with and based on democracy, equality, understanding and catholicity.
It is a bidirectional communion that contains aspects of speech, emotion and thoughts, based on respect, and trust between speakers and listeners, through language or non-language (He, 2004). The isolated individual state can less and less adapt to the developmental needs of society. The cooperative spirit has spread to each area of society. Cooperation needs dialogue, and dialogue gradually becomes human beings’ state of existence and subsistence.

Referring to the dialogic notion in the realm of education, school is not only an educational institution for teachers to enhance student learning, but also an interactive community of human beings. Students are humans first and learners second (Barry & King, 1999). Biggs (1999) stated that students’ deeper understanding can be achieved through dialogue with their peers and their teachers, because dialogue can motivate students to seek meaning from the other’s view as well as that of themselves (Splitter, 2009).

After doing literature review, I chose Martin Buber’s “I-Thou” relation dialogue theory as the theoretical background of his research study. This is not only because this theory is a more applicable and integrated theory, but also because it focused on the affective domain, it is about making students feel good about themselves and gaining confidence.

Sample of choice: Middle school classroom

I chose to carry out this research study in the sample school (see Chapter III, section 3.3), because this school is chosen as a model school to implement the New Curriculum
Reform, as well as training teachers who are from other schools. The New Curriculum Reform is the social and educational background of this study, and it is a reform for basic education in China; for those reasons, I purposely chose a middle school classroom as my research site.

Moreover, compared to elementary students who are mainly in the concrete operational stage, students in middle school level are in the formal operational stage according to Piaget’s developmental theory. Regarding aspects of language, middle school students’ language continues to develop in subtle but important ways. They add a wide variety of abstract words to their vocabulary and can define them easily and accurately. Formal operations permit middle school students to become masters of irony and sarcasm (Berk, 1998). Their ability to move beyond the literal meaning of words and the grammatical structure of speech becomes more complex. Thus, they already have the ability to dialogue with teachers.

Also, students in the model class (sample class of this research study) were selected through a mathematics exam before they entered this school. Thus they were believed to possess comparatively high level of abstract and logic abilities.

For reasons elaborated above, I decided to carry out this research study in a middle school of China through the perspective of dialogue.

1.3 Background of Problem

Each day at school, children strive to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships and to develop a sense of belonging. The quality of teacher-student rapport has been
shown to be an important predictor of student’s behavioral scholastic competence in elementary and middle school years (Pianta, Steinberg, & Rollins, 1995; Wentzel & Asher, 1995). The role of the modern teacher goes far beyond that of just relaying knowledge on a subject. Teachers are called on to teach more and more new things in more and more creative ways. In order to be more effective in the classroom, teachers need to build positive rapport with their students. Many students need positive adults in their lives. Fisher accurately notes that strangers do not hold much influence over people (Fisher, 2001). Thus, if teachers want to influence their students, they must cultivate positive rapport with each of them.

Current education in China is still teacher-centered, examination-orientated, and textbook-based. In China, teachers are regarded as having the floor in the classroom. Teacher is the main speaker and students are listeners. Teachers like to maintain their authority among students, only focusing on the student’s academic achievement and discipline while ignoring the student’s personality and dignity, deprive the student’s opportunity of expression, which cause tension and inhospitality in teacher-student rapport; accordingly, teacher’s good will is doomed to failure.

1.3.1 The New Curriculum Reform

In June 2001, the Chinese Ministry of Education issued the Programme on the Reform of the Basic Education Curriculum (Experimental) (hereinafter called New Curriculum Reform for short), which stresses the communication and interaction between teachers and students in the teaching process. This teaching format is aimed at embodying the
characteristics of having equal communication between teachers and students, allowing for everyone to become actively involved in the learning process, and constructing meaning cooperatively. As far as the students are concerned, the process would highlight their subjectivity, exhibit their personality, and liberate their creativity. As for the teachers, the process would transit the role teachers have been playing, which means that teaching becomes the process of the teacher’s life activity, specialty development and self-fulfillment.

As the New Curriculum Reform is a profound educational reform, when teachers implement it, they may face a lot of problems, such as how to carry out “dialogic teaching in class” which is highlighted in the New Curriculum Reform; how they can transform old teaching methods to a dialogic approach fast and successfully as called for by the New Curriculum Reform, and so on. The Education Department does provide various training programs for teachers to help them adapt to this reform; however, upon my visit to a middle school in Changchun city (which is located in Jilin province, northeast of China), I observed that the teacher-student relationship holds a more traditional autocratic focus as opposed to exhibiting a more cooperative and dynamic relationship. But, as the principal of this middle school has observed so far, despite the attempt by some of the teachers to implement the principles of the New Curriculum Reform, it is simply not being implemented. This is of particular concern to this principal because her middle school has been chosen to be the model school for the New Curriculum Reform and her teachers will be expected to train teachers in other schools.
I informally visited this middle school campus in May 2009, and observed that the missing component is the concept of dialogue theory, which is highlighted by curriculum experts who initiated this New Curriculum Reform.

The curricular expert Jin Yule (2003) highlights that, “this basic educational curriculum reform is in essence an innovation of curricular culture. It is a profound reform of curricular culture” (Jin & Chen, 2003, p. 69). In the process of curricular culture reform, independence, cooperation, exploration and dialogue become the main topics. It was the time that dialogic theory emerged and quickly attracted universal attention. The main component missing is the interactive dialogue between the teacher and students.

1.3.2 Importance of Dialogue

Dialogue is an approach to explore the causes of crises that human beings face, and it helps us to solve social problems. Bohm (1996) posits that dialogue can “possibly make a new change in the individual and a change in the relation to the cosmic” (p. 156).

Cayer (1996), in his doctoral dissertation titled An Inquiry into the Experience of Bohm’s Dialogue, highlights some of the effects that the people whom he interviewed had experienced in dialogue. These effects are: improved capacity to communicate with and relate to people (p. 159); change in the sense of self (p. 167); experiencing the transpersonal (p. 169); development of a more subtle awareness (p. 173); and personal growth (p. 179).
Nealon (1997) states that:

If social space is understood as a rich dialogue of voices rather than a fight for recognition and domination, then the other is not necessarily a menacing or hostile force. The dialogue of multiple voices has become a powerful metaphor considered foreign or threatening. (p. 131)

Since the identity of any culture is always shifting, one’s horizon must also shift when one moves to encounter what lies beyond one’s understanding. In fact, it is because of this continual shifting that one is always moving toward a better understanding. One seeks to discover other peoples’ standpoint and horizon. Gadamer (1993) comments that, “by so doing one’s ideas become intelligible, without one necessarily having to agree with them” (p. 270), and one can come to terms with others (Crowell, 1990). Habermas (1984) points out that the concern of dialogue is not to necessarily win an argument, but rather to advance one’s understanding and well-being.

Truth can only happen in dialogue and that dialogue is only possible with a degree of distance between the “I” and “Thou” – and this does not characterize our pre-given state. The “I-Thou” relationship is the key concept of Martin Buber’s dialogue theory. According to Buber (1958), “I” and “Thou” are one unity and cannot be separated; there is no “I” without “Thou” and no “Thou” without “I”. Both “I” and “Thou” co-exist; they are both important in the “I-Thou” relationship that is characterized by trust, confirmation and inclusion.
Gadamer’s (1976) notion of truth is that genuine speaking is the universal human task (p. 243). In Gadamer’s (1993) own words:

Language has its true being only in dialogue, in coming to an understanding.

This is not to be understood as if that were the purpose of language . . . it is a life process in which a community of life is lived out . . . but human language must be thought of as a special and unique life process since, in linguistic communication, “world” is disclosed . . . thus the world is the common ground, trodden by none and recognized by all, uniting all who talk to one another. All kinds of community are kinds of linguistic community . . . as verbally constituted, every such world is of itself always open to every possible insight and hence to every expansion of its own world picture, and is accordingly available to others. (pp. 446-447).

As Gadamer has described here, if people want to understand one another, the only possible way is through dialogue. For the “truth” is the goal of understanding, thus a hermeneutic notion of “truth” requires dialogue.

Dialogue, which has transcended the linguistic field, entered into every aspect of human political, economic and cultural life. It has or is becoming people’s lifestyle or existence, and will be elevated as a life philosophy that represents the spirit of the era. The concept of dialogue challenges everything in the non-dialogue era. As noted by Zhang (2005), the value of “dialogue” in current and future education has been realized by the educational field on the basis of self-examination.
1.4 Statement of Problem

In China, even after the implementation of the New Curriculum Reform, many problems still exist; one of these is the lack of teacher-student rapport (Lin, 2006; Zhao, 2003). Chinese education attempts to entrench the relationship between teacher and student with a series of rules and principles, and guarantees an orderly relationship that is rendered cold and emotionless. Meanwhile, there is a lack of love and care between teachers and students (L. Yang, 2006). Most teacher-student relationships are “teacher-centered” where knowledge is something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners (Wang, 2002). The students receive learning from the teacher rather than interpreting it.

The phenomenon where teachers ignore the student’s personality and dignity, and maintain the role as leaders among students, causes inequality between teachers and students, and even causes tension and inhospitality in teacher-student rapport (Liao, 2001). It goes against the concept and principle of the New Curriculum Reform, and goes against the educational goal of all-round development of students as well.

Students are the main bodies in elementary and middle school. In law, their age falls within the period of non-capacity or limited capacity for civil conduct and in need of special protection (OuYang, 2005). However, in some elementary and middle schools, especially schools in the countryside, teachers carry out corporal punishment on students or abuse them (Ning, 2006), which causes all round harm (C. Yang, 2006) on both student’s body and mind, hurts their self-esteem (C. Yang, 2006), and badly destroys the normal teacher-student rapport (Liu, 2004).
Regarding dialogue between teacher and student, as the teaching methods are more teacher-centered and textbook-based, therefore, the purpose of all the questions is to elicit standard answers. Accordingly, current classroom teaching exhibits a lot of false dialogue (Y. Li, 2005; Liu, 2004; Wu, 2003), and “speech poverty” (Luo, 2006) between teacher and student, which is mainly represented as “aphasia of spirit”, “only reading without speaking”, “never speak at all” or “nothing to say”.

Recently, more and more scholars and educators are paying attention to the current teacher-student rapport, and try to re-think, re-understand and re-construct teacher-student rapport from the view of dialogue (Zheng & Dai, 2006), view of post-modernism (L. Xu, 2006; X. Yang, 2004), view of cultural ecology (Xiao, 1999b), view of life and so on (Yan & Ma, 2006). But most of these researches are based on theoretical research, which leads to the situation where theory is separated from practice. As those journal articles and research papers cannot really help teachers to reflect their own experiences, they cannot provide a practical solution to overcome the problems that teachers face. It looks like a metaphysical castle in the air, which is beautiful, but without foundation; consequently, the countermeasures based on these theories are romantic and Utopian. Any theory must be based on fact; only in this way can the theory grow and have endless life force.

When talking to the principal in the sample school where I intend to carry out this research study, she is concerned because the school is supposed to be modeling the New Curriculum Reform, and this school does call for applying “dialogue” which is highlighted by New Curriculum Reform into classroom teaching; however she does not
see this happening. This sample school emphasizes teacher training and does provide a lot of opportunities for teachers. The principal has sent teachers overseas to visit other model schools in order to promote different understanding and obtain knowledge regarding healthy teaching practices. But teachers are not putting the theory into practice.

Based on the reasons above, the premise of this study is based around “dialogue” (dialogic theory). This research investigates the teacher-student rapport in a middle school classroom, especially the dialogic behavior between the teacher and student in classroom teaching, which provides a perspective for me to take a close look at how teachers implement their rapport with students and what problems they are facing now. This study is also aimed at finding out strategies for building good teacher-student rapport. Rapport building is the beginning of education, and it is one of the essentials of the New Curriculum Reform. According to Buber’s dialogic theory (1958), in education teachers must stand simultaneously at both poles of education – their own and their student’s, in order to make up for the lack of mutuality in education, because a teacher is capable of apprehending the student’s existence, while a student is unable to comprehend the complexity of the teacher’s personality (Yaron, 1993). Thus teachers should build rapport with students on their own initiative.

By employing dialogic theory, teachers may take action to improve rapport with students by:

1) Building a positive and harmonious environment for learning;
2) Establishing an “I-Thou” relationship by providing students with humanistic solicitude through trust, confirmation and inclusion;

3) Weakening teacher’s authority, transferring authority power into practical intelligence of teaching;

4) Fostering teacher’s dialogic spirit, and so on.

1.5 Purpose of Study

This study investigates the teacher-student rapport through the analysis of dialogic behavior of teachers and students in a middle school classroom, for the purpose of describing the patterned process of classroom dialogue that characterize the teacher-student rapport.

Indeed, modern education has paid great attention to researches on teacher-student rapport. Many scholars have argued the importance of positive teacher-student rapport (Frymier & Houser, 2000; Morganett, 1995; West, 1994). If the rapport is positive, there will be possibilities for teaching and learning. If it is negative, subsequent strategies will be apt to fail, even those strategies that are well thought out (Scarlett, Ponte, & Singh, 2009). As well, various research studies (Anderson & Helms, 2001; Mendro, 1998; Powell & Anderson, 2002; Strong & Tucker, 2000) have emphasized the important role of teachers in the successful implementation of any educational program. Teachers have significant impact on establishing a good teacher-student rapport both in and out of the classroom (Barry & King, 1999). The affective climate is one of the “most important ingredients of effective teaching” for teachers to build up, maintain and improve
positive teacher-student rapport (Ramsden, 1992).

Poplin and Weeres (1994) reported a powerful qualitative study that investigated the question “What is the problem with schooling?” The number one problem identified was relationships. They wrote:

Participants feel the crisis inside schools is directly related to human relationships. Most often mentioned were relationships between teachers and students. Where positive things are noted, they usually involve reports of individuals who care, listen, understand, respect others and are honest, open, and sensitive (p. 12). They continued, “Students desire authentic relationships where they are trusted, given responsibility, spoken to honestly and warmly, and treated with dignity” (p. 20). Students want to be treated as equal human beings with trust, love and sincerity, and empowered by their teachers.

The objectives of this research are focused on understanding which kind of being the teachers and students are in the course of classroom teaching, which kind of life they are living in the classroom and how the teacher is trying to build rapport with students regarding dialogue. Teachers and students employ dialogic behavior to declare their lifestyles and states of being. This research goes along the thread of inquiries, and has dialogic behavior as a crucial point of entry for investigating the teacher-student rapport, for the purpose of revealing states of beings and lifestyles of teachers and students in the classroom, and their effects on education and teaching.

For the purpose of this study, I am going to observe three teachers (see Chapter III) who are recommended by the principal of this sample school. These three teachers are
all model teachers who have won many awards and achieved honors. They are in different phases of implementing dialogue, hence facing different problems. In this research study, the three teachers’ names were coded as teacher A, teacher B and teacher C for purpose of privacy and confidentiality.

I informally visited the sample school before collecting data, and observed these three teachers’ classes. Teacher A uses a little dialogue; Teacher B is exploring and trying to implement dialogue, which means that there was not much deep dialogue going on in their classes; however, they provided a chance for me to explore the reason and problems they might face. Teacher C tries a lot to implement dialogue. Here “dialogue” refers to the second meaning of dialogue as defined (see section 1.6.5, the definition of dialogue), which means the dialogue with spirit and notion that derives from dialogic theory, such as equality, embracement, trust, understanding, intercourse, and cooperation in the teacher-student rapport.

1.6 Research Objectives and Questions

It is the purpose of the research study:

1. To describe the main characteristics of dialogic behavior through analyzing dialogic segments;

2. To describe the teacher-student rapport represented by classroom dialogic behavior of teachers and students;

3. To explore factors (overt and covert) that affect the teacher-student rapport in the classroom;
4. To understand the principal’s perception of teacher-student rapport;

5. To understand the teachers’ perceptions of teacher-student rapport;

6. To discuss strategies for rapport building between teacher and student;

Based on the objectives listed above, this study will answer the following research questions:

1. What are the main characteristics of dialogic behavior in the middle school classroom?

2. How is the teacher-student rapport being represented by classroom dialogic behavior?

3. What are the factors that affect teacher-student rapport in the classroom?

4. What is the principal’s perception of teacher-student rapport?

5. What is the teachers’ perception of teacher-student rapport?

6. What are the strategies proposed by teachers to enhance teacher-student rapport?

1.7 Definition of Terms

Before carrying out this research, it is necessary to define several concepts as they are used in this research.

1.7.1 Teacher-Student Rapport

The *Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary* (1984) defines rapport as a relationship marked by harmony, conformity, accord or affinity. Carey, Stanley, Werring, and Yarbrough (1988) stated that rapport is the quality of a relationship characterized by
satisfactory communication and mutual understanding. Burns (2002) posits that rapport is the name given to the magic that emerges when two people interact to form positive or primarily positive impressions or attitudes toward one another.

Rapport is a relationship that is built between people who are working together; such as teacher and student, businessman and client. Referring to this research, teacher-student rapport refers to the positive relationship between the teacher and student. It is accord threaded with the sense of trust and respect.

As this study is supported by dialogic theory, thus, teacher-student rapport goes for the “I-Thou” relation (see section 2.9.1), which is from Buber’s dialogic theory and characterized by trust, confirmation and inclusion.

1.7.2 Teacher-student Relationship

The term “teacher-student relationship” is synonymous with “teacher-student rapport.” It appears frequently in journal articles, dissertations and books as many researchers apply it in their works. Thus, in this study, the definition of “teacher-student relationship” will be given as it is the most widely used.

Teacher-student relationship refers to the relationship formed by teacher and student during the course of education and teaching. This includes the status, function and attitude of teachers and students. The teacher-student relationship is the interactive character of teachers and students, and the attitude to, as well as their behavior toward each other. For the purpose of accomplishing certain educational tasks, the relationship formed by teachers and students directly affects the result of education.
There are two aspects of meanings for teacher-student relationship in school: first, the status of teachers and students forms role relation in the course of educational activity; second, the communication between teacher and student forms a mental relation. The two relationships are connected and cannot be separated. Mental communication proceeds on the basis of the role relation. The two relations form the particularity of interpersonal communication between teacher and student (Sun, 2001).

Follett believed that the teacher-student relationship is a reciprocal leadership (Follett, 1970). He described “if leadership does not mean coercion in any form, if it does not mean controlling, protecting or exploiting . . . It means, I (think) freeing. The greatest service the teacher can render the student is to increase his freedom—his free range of activity and thought and his power of control” (p. 2).

As to the nature of the teacher-student relationship, Chinese scholars give many interpretations: the teacher-student relationship is a kind of social relation (Li, 2002); is a kind of interpersonal relationship (Bao, 2004); is a kind of psychological relation (Wang & Wang, 2002); or it is a relation which mixes with social relationship, interpersonal relationship and psychological relationship (Chen, 1997; Dong & Liu, 2002; Hu, 2002; Yang, 2002).

Referring to this research, the teacher-student relationship has the same meaning as teacher-student rapport as mentioned above. It contains aspects of social relationships, interpersonal relationships and psychological relationships formed by teachers and students through their dialogic behavior in the classroom environment. In practice, the teacher-student relationship contains a working/teaching relationship, a natural...
interpersonal relationship, an ethical relationship and an emotional relationship that are represented by dialogic behaviors between teachers and students.

The teacher-student relationship is a working relationship as opposed to friendship; I am choosing to use the term “rapport” throughout this study. However, since some of the articles in the literature review used the term “relationship” at times, when referring to articles, the term “relationship” will also be used.

1.7.3 Class Time Interaction
This study is going to investigate teacher-student rapport during class time interaction. Usually at the secondary school level in China one period of 40 minutes is focused on a single subject. To be specific, class time starts when teacher says “class begin” and ends when teacher says “class is over”. The school fixes the schedule and informs teachers and students by ringing a bell; however, it is a universal phenomenon that the teacher enters the classroom earlier than the bell rings or dismisses class later than the bell rings. Thus, in this research, when calculating class time, the researcher will consider the real situation.

1.7.4 Verbal Interaction
Verbal interaction is defined as a planned speech event among group members that is regulated by school customs and includes attaching meaning, interpreting, or responding to participants’ verbal and nonverbal messages (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). Flanders defined verbal interaction as any verbal communication that occurs
between an educator and a student or among students during segments of instruction (Flanders, 1970). In this study, verbal interaction means the entire oral communication taking place in the classroom within class time during the teaching-learning process between teacher and students.

1.7.5 Dialogue

The word “dialogue” typically refers to “a conversation between two or more persons” (Shotter, 2009, p. 31). It connotes a mutual relationship, in the sense that through dialogue all participants take part in communicating and clarifying in order to construct meaning. Gadamer (1993) believed that dialogue occurs when the two parties participate in order to achieve “truth”.

Dialogue is a bidirectional communion on aspects of speech, emotion and thoughts, which is based on respect, trust and equality of speakers and listeners, in the media of language or non-language (He, 2004). From the perspective of Bakhtin, dialogue is the relationship between one’s self and another individual. They articulate values with different languages, involving their particular ideologies (McKnight, 2004).

In this research, dialogue has a double meaning: first, it means the reciprocal discourses that happen during classroom teaching between the teacher and student; from this point, dialogue could be considered to have the same meaning of “verbal interaction” mentioned above. Secondly, it embodies or represents a spirit and notion that derives from dialogic theory. This spirit and notion advocate characteristics such as equality, embrace, trust, understanding, intercourse, and cooperation in the teacher-
student rapport. Thus, from this point of view, dialogue happens when the teacher asks an open-ended question aiming to scaffold or facilitate students to explore by themselves and think deeper; therefore they could construct knowledge through participating in dialogue, and at the same time perceive equality, trust, respect and cooperation from the teacher.

1.7.6 Middle School Classroom

In order to understand the impact of space on classroom communication, researchers distinguish between *territoriality* and *personal space* (Hurt, Scott, & McCroskey, 1978). Territory is space that has a fixed or semi-fixed geographical location. Territorial space is relatively stable and secure. Unlike territory, personal space has no fixed or semi-fixed geographical position. Personal space has been likened to an invisible bubble that moves with the individual and may change in size depending on the given situation.

Classrooms are sites in which (a) the teachers and students engage in activities with frequent verbal exchanges and academic work, (b) the intended outcomes of these activities – student learning – occurs gradually over time and is largely unobservable, and (c) decisions made during instructional planning and teaching are also unobservable (Anderson & Burns, 1989).

The term *lifeworld* (Habermas, 1989) was used to describe a classroom situation where the teacher and the students participate in classroom activities jointly aiming at achieving understanding of certain knowledge that are selected in certain ways (Han, 2002). Haslett (1987) stated that, “classrooms reflect a culture’s general beliefs and
values about education, such as how much education is valued, what is appropriate knowledge to transmit, how this knowledge is transmitted, and so forth” (p. 227).

Thus, in this study, the classroom can be treated as a fixed territory; the classroom itself has a limited amount of space and the way that space is employed will affect the types of dialogic behaviors, as well as the amount of dialogue occurring in the classroom.

The classroom, which is this research site, is located in a middle school that is equivalent to a junior high school in Western countries and secondary school (from Form 1 to Form 3 in Malaysia). The classroom particularly means a fixed room where students spend most of school time to process their learning activities. Physical education, which is carried out in the playground, and some of science classes that are carried out in a laboratory will be not considered in this study. The classroom is about 50 square meters with blackboard and multimedia equipment at the front. A platform in front of the classroom makes the teacher stand higher than the students.

1.8 Significance of the Study

Feelings of rapport are linked to the quality of the teacher-student relationship (Gibson, 2006), and predict academic outcomes which contain self-efficacy, expectations of success, achievement values, positive affect, task effort and engagement, interest in school, achievement goal orientation, and so on (Anderman & Anderman, 1999; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Wentzel, 1998). Perceiving rapport is “an organized self process that
involves a belief about one’s acceptability in the environment and the trustworthiness of the social world around him” (Gibson, 2006, p. 11).

Children who reported a higher sense of support from their teacher also showed greater emotional and behavioral engagement in school (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Davis (1998) highlights that classroom communication and building rapport with students are two significant attributes that teachers need to utilize.

With regard to this study and its particular background – New Curriculum Reform, it has been nine years since the New Curriculum Reform (NCR) was formally carried out in China, in 2003. At the moment, this research is a meaningful inspection from the view of teacher-student rapport, to examine how teachers implement the NCR slogan that emphasizes both “knowledge and ability; process and method; emotion, attitude and axiological value”.

Qiquan Zhong, the initiator of the New Curricular Reform, advocated introducing dialogic theory into the field of education. Studying the teacher-student rapport from the view of dialogic theory can provide a breakthrough point for introducing dialogic theory as the nature of education is to foster development in human beings.

This study involves observation of three teachers’ actions in the classroom in this sample school, and interviews in order to find the best strategies to overcome the problems they are facing and the best way to train them. So far to the best of my knowledge no study using this methodology has been done on teacher-student rapport in secondary schools of China.
It is my hope that this study will identify the various types of dialogic behaviors teachers and students use in the classroom, and the reasons for using a particular type of dialogue behavior; we would then be in a position to investigate the functions that these dialogic behaviors serve in classroom discourse and hence the meanings that are communicated.

This study also hopes to create awareness among teachers who may intend to enhance teacher-student rapport through dialogue. Thus, the findings are important to teachers as only when teachers have available knowledge of the teaching process can they be able to exercise effective control over the process of and motivate student learning.

This research employs a basic qualitative study, which can offer a way to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved (Merriam, 1998). In this way, this research can provide help for improving the teacher-student rapport based on practical evidence.

Dialogue is a lens through which we can take a close look at what is going on in the classroom. Dialogue behavior is the main media of teaching and learning in the classroom, and is primarily interactive behavior between teacher and student; thus, research at this point can serve as a base for researching teacher-student rapport. Furthermore, it can serve as a base for improving the teaching-learning process. This research will also serve as foundation for further research using a larger sample size.

In this study, one of the participant teachers, teacher C, is also the vice principal of the sample school. The double roles of teacher C will provide different perspectives to
this study – view of class teaching, and view of faculty managing. Thus, with her point of view on teacher-student rapport, the findings will provide more effective and practical strategies.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

This research employs a basic qualitative methodology; and therefore it cannot be generalized to other situations, but can only be used for reference if the situation fits the category of this study. The findings depend heavily on the particular researcher’s observations and interpretations of the data, as the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 1998). In this research I will interact with different teachers and students. Their personality and characters will affect the result of this research to some extent.

Also, the three teachers teach three different subjects: Chinese, history and biology. Thus the different nature of each subject might affect the teacher’s dialogue with students, therefore affecting the research findings.

In the process of observation, my identity is as researcher in particular. Teachers in the observed class will be very clear of my purpose and the premise of the research. In the student’s eyes, I am a teacher who is merely auditing the class. The fact that the teachers will be aware of my presence in the classroom, as well as the premise of the research, may affect what they say and how they act.

Middle schools in different areas experience different situations and background policies, economic status, and culture. Given the limitation of my time and financial
constraints, this research will only focus on a classroom of a middle school in the
capital city of Jilin Province, China.

This research is further limited to the classroom environment, especially in the
site of classroom teaching. Thus, what takes place outside of the classroom will not be
captured within this research. In terms of dialogic behavior, the focus is on the
communication occurring between the teacher and the students. Since non-dialogic
behavior is also important, the research considers non-dialogic factors, such as
environment, as important secondary data for analyzing dialogic behavior between
teachers and students.

Based on dialogic theory and New Curriculum Reform, the proposed learning
approach is more constructive, and the teacher-student rapport is more student-centered.
According to the American Psychological Association’s (1997) the 14 learner-centered
principles are summarized by four domains, namely: the meta-cognitive and cognitive,
affective and motivational, developmental and social, and individual differences factors.
However, this study intends to investigate current teacher-student rapport, thus the
findings and discussion will be limited within the affective and motivational domain.

1.10 Summary

This chapter introduced the background of the problem, the rationale and purpose of
carrying out this research, as well as the significance and limitations of the study. It is
hoped that this study will serve as the foundation for teachers in China to begin being
aware that students learn best in a teaching-learning atmosphere whereby they feel free
to express and discuss academic material far from the worries of being ridiculed if they are wrong. Moreover, it is aimed at narrowing the gap between theory and practice of the New Curriculum Reform.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This study examines the teacher-student rapport through dialogue in a classroom environment; hence, the literature review will focus on the theoretical background of approaches to student-teacher rapport, the studies related to dialogue and teacher-student rapport in the classroom through dialogue. The literature review will begin with a discussion of the theoretical foundations informing the study. Following this discussion, the conceptual framework for the study will be outlined at the end of the chapter.

2.2 Theoretical Background of Teacher-Student Rapport

2.2.1 Traditional Transmission Theory

Skinner (1954) in his “stimulus-response learning theory” defined teachers as transmitters of knowledge and students as passive recipients. According to his theory of association and behaviorism, he advocated rote learning where the teacher presents content and students learn through drill and review. Skinner’s learning theory is the basis of traditional transmission theory (Zhan & Le, 2009).

The traditional transmission theory sees young children as a *tabula rasa* (blank slate) that is painted, and that children are passive recipients of knowledge. Knowledge is passed from adult to child, teacher to student. Namely, it is primarily a one-way
journey of transferring knowledge from teacher to student, with the subjects, standards and methods being determined by the authorities (government, school and teacher).

Teachers try their best to transmit their values, attitudes and ideas to students and students are required to master knowledge that is in the textbooks and teachers’ lectures.

In a nutshell, traditional transmission theory emphasizes textbook-based, teacher-centered and examination-orientated learning and stresses that students should accomplish the goals set by teachers (Husen & Postlethwaite, 1985).

According to traditional transmission theory, the teacher’s role is to instill respect for authority, discipline, perseverance, responsibility, consideration, and practicality.

Both the school and teacher are recognized as successful when students achieve success in examinations that emphasize academic subjects and skills; and when students can demonstrate disciplined minds and behavior, as well as traditional morals and values (Zittleman & Sadker, 2006). It is a fact that within the Chinese culture schools and teachers emphasize very much that students have disciplined minds and traditional moral values and behavior.

2.2.2 Teacher-Centered Model

Related to the traditional transmission theory is the teacher-centered model. According to Halpern (1994), most classrooms today are still teacher-centered where “students sit quietly, passively receiving words of wisdom being professed by the lone instructor in front of the class” (pp. 11-12). Bowers and Flinders (1990) describe a teacher as a “classroom manager.” In the teacher-centered model, the teaching and learning process
is like industrial production; students become “products” and the teacher will check the quality (competency and achievement) through examination, then the levels will be scored and classified.

McDonald (2002) clarified that within the teacher-centered model, the teacher’s work depends upon the student’s abilities and efforts; however, teachers are driven to meet standards and often sacrifice the students’ needs. Thus, teachers in a teacher-centered classroom focus more on learning materials than on the student’s learning process. Teachers usually spend much time preparing learning materials according to the teaching task; they also have to design a fixed schedule of the class to be followed by all students. All in all, teachers are in charge of the class; they determine what to learn, when to learn and how to learn.

Essentialism and perennialism are representatives of traditional transmission theory (Zittleman & Sadker, 2006). Essentialism is a teacher-centered approach, which focuses on rote learning, reasoning, and memorization. The role of the teacher is to transmit “essential” knowledge. Teachers are recognized as the authority in the classroom, not a co-worker with their students; teachers are to be respected and, if necessary, are expected to discipline students who do not show respect. Teachers know what their students need to learn and how best to present the material.

Perennialism holds that the teacher decides what the students are to learn, not what the students want to learn, aiming at developing students’ ability to reason correctly. The students must conform to the teacher’s instruction and learning materials; the student is not the center of the educational endeavor. The school should not focus on
what the students are interested in studying, but on what will bring them to master the essential and eternal knowledge that relate to the role of a student in society.

In short, the Chinese education system is characterized by essentialism and perennialism. The government decides the textbooks, the school decides the time schedule, and teachers decide the learning materials and teaching methods. Teachers force students to keep on top of what they teach, and many teachers teach through the way that they were taught.

2.2.3 Social Learning Theory and Constructivist Learning Theory

Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory focuses on how culture, which contains the values, beliefs, customs and skills in society, is transmitted to the next generation. According to Vygotsky (1987), cooperative dialogue with more knowledgeable members of a culture shared group is necessary for children to acquire the ways of thinking and behaving that make up the shared culture. Vygotsky emphasized support that is provided by adults and more expert peers to children who are trying a new task. Since the teacher is a more mature adult and expert peer for the students, he or she can help them to acquire new knowledge and skills. Bandura supported this perspective. According to Bandura’s (1977) self-efficacy model, teachers may become a significant adult in the student’s life and help students to establish self-efficacy positively.

The Constructivist Learning Theory, a theory for learning, is a paradigm shift from the traditional transmission approach (teacher talk, textbooks, passive learning, and regurgitation of facts/knowledge). Constructivism emphasizes a more cognitive
approach to learning (Collay & Gagnon, 2004). Multiple perspectives, authentic activities, and real-world environments are frequent phrases associated with constructivist learning and teaching. Collay and Gagnon describe the students’ role in constructivism as being “engaged in active learning” and “making their own meaning and constructing their own knowledge based upon their current and/or past knowledge” (pp. 1-2). This means that students learn from doing by themselves. As Henson (2001) states, “constructivism places teachers and students together as learners in an environment that devotes to learning” (p. 386). Teachers are also learners as students are. The significant meaning of this point is that, with the fast-paced rate of technology development around the world, teachers have to learn themselves. They need to learn not only new knowledge, how to achieve this knowledge and the importance of listening to their students.

Elizabeth Murphy (1997) describes both the student’s and teacher’s roles in constructivist classrooms. Murphy suggests that teachers are guides or facilitators of learning, while students are the sense makers; learning emphasizes the process but not the product. Henson (2001) clarifies the significant role of the teacher in constructivist learning by saying “teacher’s responsibilities include creating information-rich environments where students think, explore, and construct meaning” (p. 30). Teachers need to provide multi-information, while students are users of the information.

Based on the Constructivist Learning Theory, the teacher-student relation model vacillates from “teacher-centered” to “student-centered”, meaning the modality of teaching transfers from knowledge transmission to learning facilitation (Dart &
Boulton-Lewis, 1998). Similar changes also represent the change in focusing from students’ academic achievement to focusing on their learning process, from a great concern for students’ knowledge-obtaining to their experience and from enhancing their skills to self-evaluating (Barnett & Hallam, 1999). The teacher’s role changes from that of being a “sage” who transmits knowledge to that of a facilitator who guides students’ learning behaviors, provides opportunities for students to engage in exploration (Birenbaum & Amdur, 1999) and helps students to “construct learning” (Milton, 1998).

In China, educators call for constructive learning, which is an agreed upon approach by many teachers. However, on a practical level, traditional transmission is employed universally. Teachers are controlled by many factors, such as the teaching task, examination, class size and so on.

2.2.4 Learner-Centered Model

The learner-centered model refers to a “perspective that couples a focus on the individual learner . . . with a focus on learning” (McCombs & Whisler, 1997, p. 9). It is rooted in the American Psychological Association’s (1997) 14 learner-centered principles, which are summarized by four domains, namely: the meta-cognitive and cognitive, affective and motivational, developmental and social, and individual differences factors.
Follett (1970) held the idea that “if leadership does not mean coercion in any form, if it does not mean controlling, protecting or exploiting, it means freeing. The greatest service the teacher can render the student is to increase his freedom—his free range of activity and thought and his power of control” (p. 139).

The word “leader” that Follett uses is more like a chairman, who gives power to “the oppressed”, who Freire (2005) referred to as those used to being oppressed and taken for granted. Here, the “leader” is a kind of new authority, which does not mean alienation or cold, it means endow power to create.

According to Follett, the methods and instrumentalities of control should be taught to students, “all in the spirit of freedom, all with the aim of increasing freedom. The teacher releases energy, frees potentialities, but within method, within the laws of group activity and group control” (Follett, 1970, p. 2). Follett’s thought coincides with the spirit of the New Curriculum Reform, which emphasizes the “process, methods and value” of learning. Teaching students how to fish is more useful than giving the fish.

Follett believes that “the essential task of the leader is to free” (p. 2) and assumes that the “core of the teacher-student relation is continuity—an unbroken continuity between the life, understandings and inspirations of the teacher and the life and understandings and aspirations of the student” (p. 4). He argues that the teacher is not a person who has lived while the student is a person who is going to live, but that both of them are living now, in the present. It should be “fresh life meeting fresh life”. Both the
teacher and the student live at present; therefore the teacher should care for the student’s feelings.

_Transformed and transformational, respectful teacher-student rapport:_

In equating teachers and students, Freire (2005) provided a lengthy amount of debate over the teacher’s role. However, in a dialogue with Gadotti and Guimaraes (1985), Freire (1990) tried to clarify his view of the characteristics of the teacher as directive and authoritative, but not authoritarian:

I have never said that the educator is the same as the pupil. . . . The educator is different from the pupil. But this difference, from the point of view of the revolution, must not be antagonistic. The difference becomes antagonistic when the authority of the educator, different from the freedom of the pupil, is transformed into authoritarianism . . . For me, it is absolutely contradictory when the educator, in the name of the revolution, takes power over the method and orders the pupil, in an authoritarian way, using this difference that exists. This is my position, and therefore it makes me surprised when it is said that I defend a nondirective position (Horton & Freire, 1990, p. 76).

From the above statement, it is noted that Freire called upon teachers to play an authoritative role and at the same time respect the student’s autonomy as well.
Mentoring relationships:

In mentoring relationships, non-parental adults (mentors) and adolescents (protégés) meet periodically for an extended period (Rhodes, Grossman, & Roffman, 2002).

Rhodes, Grossman, and Resch (2000) posit that a close mentoring relationship can serve as a “corrective experience” for those adolescents who may have unsatisfactory relationships with their parents. Based on the concept of attachment theory, they hypothesize that these corrective experiences can generalize to other relationships, particularly relationships with parents, through changes to internal working models of attachment (Rhodes, Spencer, Keller, Liang, & Noam, 2006). They extend upon this point when they suggested that “positive changes in conceptions of relationships may also facilitate adolescents’ capacity to use mentors as role models” (Rhodes, Grossman, & Resch, 2000, p. 1663). This particular hypothesis is supported by parenting research, which has found that securely attached children are more amenable to parental socialization efforts (Kochanska, Aksan, Knaack, & Rhines, 2004). When advisor-advisee relationships are considered, the feeling of security in such relationships will be the key point rather than “closeness” or “supportiveness” (Parra, DuBois, Neville, Pugh-Lilly, & Povinelli, 2002).

The building of close mentoring relationships is seen as the most proximal goal, and the accompanying increase in adolescent self-esteem arising from such a relationship enables the subsequent promotion of more distal, instrumental goals, such as academic achievement (Karcher, Kuperminc, Portwood, Sipe, & Taylor, 2006).
In Chinese middle schools, there is no special mentor available for students. The head teacher may at times play the role of mentor; however, the head teachers’ focus is more on the students’ academic achievement as opposed to their emotional needs.

2.3 Understanding the Nature of Teacher-Student Rapport

Many Chinese scholars and educators discuss the nature of the teacher-student rapport, and provide several versions for reference:

(1) The teacher-student rapport is a kind of social relation. According to Li (2002) the “teacher-student rapport is a kind of social relation, it reflects and contains relations such as society, politics, economics, moral and culture, it is the most basic and important relation in educational activities” (p. 233).

(2) The teacher-student rapport is a kind of interpersonal relationship. “Teacher-student rapport is special relationship between man and man, which is formed in the process of education by teachers and students” (Bao, 2004).

(3) The teacher-student rapport is a kind of psychological relation. Wang and Wang (2002) state that the “teacher-student rapport is a kind of psychological relation; its main manifestation is intercourse in forms of emotion, cognition and behavior between teachers and students in school” (p. 19).

(4) The teacher-student rapport is both a social relationship and interpersonal relationship. Dong and Liu (2002) highlight that the “teacher-student rapport is both social relationship and interpersonal relationship in given educational structure between the teacher and student. It has three different levels: given working relationship, natural
interpersonal relationship and deep social relationship. The three levels interact and form the real meaning of teacher-student rapport in real life. Referring to the contemporary era in China, it is the teacher-student rapport of quality education” (p. 37).

(5) The teacher-student rapport is both an interpersonal relationship and psychological relationship. Yang (2002) states, “teacher-student rapport is basic interpersonal relationship in school between teacher and student; it is also a kind of psychological relationship, the main manifestation of which is intercourse in forms of emotion, cognition and behavior between teachers and students in school” (p. 152).

(6) The teacher-student rapport is both a social relationship and psychological relationship. As Hu (2002) notes, “teacher-student rapport is a special social relationship and a kind of given relation of ‘psychological communication’ as well. The broad sense of teacher-student rapport contains both ethical relation in the whole society and psychological relation in school” (p. 35).

(7) The teacher-student rapport is a system of relation which is formed by multi-level (three or above) relations. Chen (1997) posits that:

There are triple relations between teacher and student, namely social relation, working relation of teaching and learning, and natural interpersonal relation. It cannot be integrated teacher-student relation if it ignores any one of the three; and the interpersonal relation and social relation are based on certain educational structure. Generally speaking, teacher-student rapport is a kind of working relation formed by activities of teaching and learning. (Bao, 2005, p. 34)
Jinyu Li (1998a) comments that four levels of relations form the teacher-student rapport system: the teaching relationship, psychological relationship, interpersonal relationship and a moral relationship (Li, 1998a, 1998b). Yanhu Fan (2001) posits that the teacher-student rapport has three different levels: the working relationship, the natural interpersonal relationship and deep social relationship. These three relations form the real teacher-student rapport. Fan’s thinking is in line with the thoughts of Chen (1997). Wang (2002) highlights that the teacher-student rapport should be formed on five levels: teaching relation, ethical relation, emotional relation, legal relation and interpersonal relation. Junxia Hu (2002) in her dissertation suggests that the teacher-student rapport ought to be formed by the working relation of teaching and learning, social ethical relation and the emotional relation between the teacher and student.

The statements above all confirm that the nature of the teacher-student rapport is viewed as containing one or more characteristics; the bottom-line being that the rapport is between, or among, people. Researchers try to make the concept of “teacher-student rapport” clear; therefore, they classify and label it as teacher-student rapport. On one hand, they want to combine those characters (mentioned above) as a whole; on the other hand, they endow priority to certain characteristics.

These descriptions on teacher-student rapport may reflect some characteristics, contents and manifestations of teacher-student rapport. However, the teacher-student rapport is understood mainly from knowledge-teaching or surface characteristics of the teacher-student rapport, not from the aspect of human beings per se. Second, the understanding on teacher-student rapport is surface, and it does not reflect the complex
nature of the teacher-student rapport. Thirdly, the studies on teacher-student rapport are not based on educational practice, therefore, their statements are only vague and provide a general analysis with impassioned slogans, which make the theory of the teacher-student rapport lose its vitality.

2.4 Influencing Factors

2.4.1 Individual/Group Differences

Although it is hackneyed and stereotyped, individual/group differences truly exist and can influence the teacher-student rapport. Previous research, both qualitative and quantitative, indicates that teachers tend to interact differently with male students than female students (Duffy, Warren, & Walsh, 2002; Hopf & Hatzichristou, 1999; Jungwirth, 1991; Smith, 1992). Generally, male students receive more attention in class from teachers than do female students (Bailey, 1993). However, Fisher and Rickards’s (1997) study showed different result. They reported that female students perceived receiving more positive attention from their teachers than their male counterparts did. On the other hand, the study by Ilatov, Shamai, Hertz-Lazarovitz, and Mayer-Young (1998) goes against the above findings; as their results indicated that teachers did not show any preference on gender.

Despite the research findings discussed above, there is also the opinion that a teacher’s preference is focused more on the student’s personal characteristics as opposed to their gender. The proportion of gender also affects the teacher’s attention. It
is natural to pay more attention to a small gender group; it also makes sense to communicate more with a large gender group when concerned with the whole class.

These interaction patterns between teachers and students may partially depend on the gender of the teacher (Duffy et al., 2002; Hopf & Hatzichristou, 1999), the gender of the student (Duffy et al., 2002), or the subject of the class (Duffy et al., 2002; Holden, 1993; Hopf & Hatzichristou, 1999).

The academic composition of the classes (Ilatov et al., 1998) and the needs of different types of students (Marzano & Marzano, 2003) also affect the teacher-student rapport. In contrast, multiple research studies indicate that academic achievement is influenced by the quality of the teacher-student rapport (Jones & Jones, 1981). Brophy (1996) found that effective teachers do not treat all students the same, especially in situations involving behavior problems. In order to accomplish the teaching task, teachers like to call upon students who can give correct and clear answers; thus, those students have more chances to communicate with the teacher.

Teacher-student rapport is very important for students from poverty. When students who have been in poverty (and have successfully made it into the middle class) are asked how they made the journey, the answer nine times out of ten has to do with a relationship with a teacher, counselor, or coach who made a suggestion or took an interest in them as individuals (Payne, 1996). Thus, Payne concluded that the key to achievement for students from poverty is to create rapport with them; this implies that effective teacher-student rapport serves as a strong emotional support for students.
2.4.2 Cultural Aspect

Children come from different cultures with different backgrounds. Their attitude, values and points of view are largely affected by their own culture (Zhan & Le, 2009). A teacher then should know their sense of belonging, which can be of greater value and help to build self-worth for students, especially minority students. If the teacher shows an understanding of the student’s special culture, it will create better understanding between the teacher and student.

Effective teachers bring the language and culture of their minority students into the classroom as a way to enhance learning (Deyhle & Swisher, 1997). They learn about the community (Noordhoff & Kleinfeld, 1993), are aware of cultural differences (Deyhle & Swisher, 1997), and acquaint themselves with culturally appropriate methodologies and resource materials (Farrell-Racette, Goulet, Pelletier, & Shmon, 1996). Teachers who are able to recognize that culture is dynamic and changing are able to incorporate both traditional and contemporary culture in the curriculum (Cleary & Peacock, 1998; Farrell-Racette et al., 1996; Lipka, Mohatt, & the Culuiislet Group, 1998; Pewewardy & Hammer, 1999; Tompkins, 1998). Elders help to transform the lived curriculum for use in the classroom and school (Lipka et al., 1998; Tompkins, 1998). In this sense, students are seen as assets and their cultural background as strengths (Deyhle & Swisher, 1997; Pewewardy & Hammer, 1999). Students experience autonomy and a sense of success, satisfaction and pride when they are encouraged to use their own languages, learn their own histories, and retain their own cultures (Goulet, 2001).
Students who are from an Asian ethnic background tend to feel that they perceive their teachers more positively than students from other cultures (Koul & Fisher, 2004).

Katz (1999) reported that discrimination was the primary reason for Latino students’ disengagement from school. Wayman’s (2002) study showed that although the teacher’s perception of ethnic bias was not rampant (yet still present), this contributed to more dropouts of Mexican American adolescents and males. Some minority adolescents treat academic success as a rejection of their ethnic cultures, and feel stress to “act white” in order to receive favorable treatment from their teacher (Datnow & Cooper, 1997; Fine, 1991; Oakes, Wells, Jones, & Datnow, 1997).

Most of the studies on factors of culture are qualitative researches conducted through survey, interview and observation. The common point of these studies is that cultural differences play an important part in the teacher-student rapport and student learning.

Cultural differences are formed by region, race and age group. In this study, adolescents (middle school students) can be treated as a cultural group. Adolescents have their own way of speaking and things they deem to be important. Thus, teachers need to listen to them. Students have a tendency to be concerned with their teachers’ emotions, and at the same time want to be understood. When teacher and student confirm each other’s feeling a positive rapport is built.
2.4.3 Communication Style

Hammersley (1999) argued that the communication style of the teacher is largely influenced by classroom interaction. The communication that occurs between a teacher and student can be classified as interpersonal in nature (Frymier & Houser, 2000). When teacher and student communicate with each other on the basis of their roles as teacher and student, their communication is at the sociological level (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004). However, when they interact with each other as individuals, their communication is at the psychological level and this kind of communication will show the interpersonal nature (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004).

Previous research has demonstrated that when teachers engage in more interpersonal interaction with students in terms of immediacy (Christophel, 1990; Comstock, Rowell, & Bowers, 1995), affinity-seeking (Frymier, 1994), and self-disclosure (Sorensen, 1989), students reported better learning. Moreover, outside class communication with teachers is reported to have a direct impact on the student’s learning (Frymier, 1994; Fusani, 1994; Jaasma & Koper, 1999).

From the perspective of communication, the behavior of the teacher and the student will affect each other (Petegem, Creemers, Rosseel, & Aelterman, 2006). Petegem et al. (2006) also suggested that the behaviors could determine the quality of rapport and feelings, and help build a good classroom climate.

Aylor (2003) investigated students’ view on the importance of communication skills (Frymier & Houser, 2000) in terms of the teacher-student rapport. Seven of eight communication skills were reported to be important in teacher-student rapport by
students. The seven communication skills are: referential skill, ego supportive skill, regulative skill, persuasive skill, conversational skill, narrative skill, and conflict management skill. Another one of the eight communication skills is the comforting skill. Ilatov et al. (1998) assumes that the communication style pertains to the teacher’s ability to control interactions in the classroom.

Millar and Rogers (1976) had earlier argued that the control dimension of relationships constitute a great portion of the communication occurring between the teacher and student. According to Millar and Rogers (1976), “the control dimension is concerned with who has the right to direct, delimit, and define the actions of the interpersonal system in the presently experienced spatial-temporal situation” (p. 91). Teachers usually have the authority to maintain control in the classroom and possess a higher status than students. The students’ right to speak in the classroom is empowered by the teacher (Frymier, Shulman, & Houser, 1996). Frymier et al. (1996) found that students who were empowered by their teachers reported feeling more motivated to study and performed better in terms of learning indicators.

The communication between students and teachers serves as a connection between them, which can enhance the classroom atmosphere. The more teachers communicate with their students, the more likely they are to acquire information on their students and the greater their ability to help students learn at a higher level to achieve goals at a faster pace.

Doherty and Mayer (2003) emphasized that it was the new communication technologies that developed and maintained positive and productive teacher-student
rapport. Niday and Campbell (2000) applied e-mail to connect middle school students (grade eight) with pre-service teachers. They found that when these teachers “affirmed their viewpoints or challenged them to think differently”, the students felt the teacher “genuinely cared about their perspectives” (pp. 55-61). Niday and Campbell further reported that e-mail could enrich teacher-student rapport and improve student learning.

Communication technology such as e-mail and the Internet can serve as a teaching aid that takes place outside the classroom, and improve the interpersonal teacher-student rapport. Recent research tends to magnify the importance of technology.

### 2.4.4 Attitudes of Teacher and Student

According to the brain-based learning theory, emotions play a significant role in student learning. Brain-based research indicates that “higher-level thinking and learning is more likely to occur in the brain of a student who is emotionally secure than in the brain of a student who is upset, stressed, or insecure” (Erlauer, 2003, p. 14). Sousa (2000) and Erlauer (2003) both recognized that the brain-based learning theory emphasizes the effect of emotions in students’ cognitive learning. Researchers link these emotions to teachers because they control much of what takes place in the classroom. Research suggests that the emotional aspect of the teacher-student rapport is much more important than suggested by the traditional advice on methods and techniques of lecturing (Ramsden, 1992). Hargreaves (2003) suggested that teachers should establish emotional bonds with and among their students and build enduring rapport in which students feel known by the teacher. Teachers can use a number of strategies for building
rapport with students so that students feel emotional security in their classrooms, thereby allowing students to apply themselves to their studies without the distraction of emotional unrest. Erlauer (2003) argued that teachers cannot eliminate pressure in their students, but they can help students deal with stressful situations by listening, providing an emotionally secure environment, and advising students to a counselor when needed.

In China, the head teacher plays several roles: as a teacher of certain subject, as a mentor, as a counselor and so on. However, students usually do not like to talk about their troubles with the head teachers because the head teacher tends to emphasize the students’ scores. The availability of a counselor for middle school students is important in helping to promote a healthy dynamic teacher-student rapport. As teenagers are going through a special and sensitive period, they are experiencing positive and negative emotions from parents, teachers, schoolwork, classmates, the opposite sex and so on.

Teachers who care and respect their students create an environment and a rapport that enhances learning (Geiger, 1996; Payne, 1996). McCroskey (1992) reports that “empathy, understanding, and responsiveness” are the three main factors through which students perceive their teacher as a caring person. Levine and Hoffner (2006) also suggested that the teacher’s attitude, intent and caring behavior for students would inevitably create a caring environment.

Meier (2002) pointed out that a trusting environment builds good teacher-student rapport. Similarly, Willie (2000) asserted that “students cannot learn from teachers in whom they have no trust” (p. 255). For teenagers, they like to learn certain subjects based on teachers they like. Most teachers recognize that a close and positive teacher-
student rapport can have a positive impact on students who are most at-risk for school-related problems (Gable, Hester, Hester, Hendrickson, & Sze, 2005). Many studies have reported that one defining characteristic of quality schooling relates to the teacher-student rapport (Gable et al., 2005). In modern times, many students are from single parent households or divorced families; establishing good teacher-student rapport can then more or less counteract their negative emotions deriving from their family environment, and help build confidence.

Friendship is defined as the relationship between two persons with affection, equality, and mutuality (Rawlins, 1992, 2000); it is not only significant inside the classroom but can also influence both the teacher’s and student’s lives (Chen, 2000). Teachers’ affection means caring about and for students, sharing goodwill, and pursuing a common goal with students (Bateson, 1972; Hutter, 1978; Rawlins, 2000; Teven & McCroskey, 1996). Rawlins (2000) states that, “educational friendship emphasizes positive and edifying communicative stances and relationships of teachers with individual students and toward classes as collectives” (p. 5). With regard to equality, Rawlins argues, “we stand or should stand as equals with students in the quest for knowledge, self-improvement, and edification” (p. 8). It is true that with the fast pace of development in our world, information is updating every minute; therefore, teachers need to leave space to learn and know things as students do.

Levine and Hoffner (2006) posit that unless students feel connected to the school experience and the people they encounter there, learning will be compromised as emotional survival becomes the primary focus during the school day. The students’
liking for a teacher has been shown to directly affect their learning (Frymier, 1994; Fusani, 1994; Jaasma & Koper, 1999). Those students who are yelled at and feel rejected and frightened due to their teacher yelling at them can face stunted intellectual growth (Thomas, 2000). If students get the feeling of success, they will like going to school; when they are thought of as losers then school represents a negative force in their life that they will resist.

It is useful for teachers to establish positive teacher-student rapport as they get to know their students (Blacher & Eisenhower, 2006), and to establish trust and to try to find out what motivates different students at the beginning of the school year (Reider, 2005). This rapport is quite important for children to develop confidence and shape their school success over time (Blacher & Eisenhower, 2006).

The other important factor for establishing positive teacher-student rapport is to maintain long-term relationships, which can improve both students’ performance (George, 1987) and teachers’ job satisfaction (George & Oldaker, 1985). Parents also reported that they preferred the same teacher teaching their children (George, 1987).

In China, the head teacher usually stays along with the students until they graduate. The head teachers are usually not changed, or replaced, in order to maintain a long and stable relationship. This system is not only beneficial to the students, but to the teacher as well in that it allows for teachers to get to know the students as much as possible.

Building a positive teacher-student rapport is crucial. Fleming (2003) suggests that rapport building between teacher and learner is not in the top category for factors
loading onto a statistical explanation of effective teaching (from student evaluation data) but in a wider range of research literature it is an important and acknowledged attribute for enhancing learning and it makes intuitive good sense.

Feelings of rapport are linked to the quality of the teacher-student relationship (Gibson, 2006), and predict academic outcomes of self-efficacy, expectations of success, achievement values, positive affect, task effort and engagement, interest in school, achievement goal orientation, and so on (Anderman & Anderman, 1999; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Wentzel, 1998). Perceiving rapport is “an organized self process that involves a belief about a person’s acceptability in the environment and the trustworthiness of the social world around him” (Gibson, 2006, p. 11).

Children who reported a higher sense of support from their teacher also showed greater emotional and behavioral engagement in school (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Davis (1998) highlights that classroom communication and building rapport with students are two significant attributes that teachers need to utilize.

2.5 Teacher-Student Rapport in China

2.5.1 Traditional Culture Influence

China is a country with a long history and unique culture, which has largely influenced the Chinese people. Confucian philosophy has great influence on Chinese society as a whole, and education in particular (Shen, 2001), as well as greatly impacting the Chinese people’s viewpoint, way of thinking and behaviors (He, 1996). For example, familial piety, respect for elderly, and moderation are still regarded as Chinese virtues.
Thus, when discussing Chinese culture and education, one must mention Confucius and his philosophy (Qian, 2002).

Confucius requested harmony (He, 1996). That means children should always respect their parents; students treat their teachers as authorities; younger people respect their elders; and lower social status people should be loyal to higher social status people. That is the reason teachers are always regarded as a model of knowledge and virtue for the students within Chinese culture (He, 1996). As a popular Chinese saying goes “one day’s teacher, a lifetime master,” which means students should always respect the teacher no matter how long he teaches them. Teachers can be very influential in Chinese students’ lives (Huang & Brown, 2009).

Thus, in China, students revere teachers. Teachers speak and students listen. Teachers in China are generally deemed as having “expert power” over students and regarded as “having the floor” in the classroom (French & Raven, 1959). The teacher is the main speaker and disseminator of information, while the students’ primary task is to listen and obey. The learning method of Chinese students is mainly rote memorization throughout their nine-year compulsory education; despite more and more arguments going against this “spoon-feed” teaching method (Liu & Yang, 2006). It is seen as disrespectful if students question the authority of teachers. The teacher will continually be talking, giving no chance to the students to think, to doubt and to question (Teng, 1999). Many teachers will say that only in this way, by having teachers talk and students listen, can they finish the teaching task.
The teaching culture of China directly influences the teacher-student rapport.

Teacher culture is related to the teacher’s emotions, values, educational thoughts and so on. Zhai (2005) analyzed the correlation between teacher culture and the teacher-student rapport and concluded that the trends of authoritarianism, elitism, and efficiency in teacher culture have negative influences on teacher-student rapport, which leads to the coldness of the teacher-student rapport and the great psychological distance between teacher and student.

### 2.5.2 Teacher-Centered Approach

The Chinese classrooms are run today much the same as they were four decades ago (Toh, Ho, Chew, & Riley, 2003). Students sit in rows, and classroom discussions are led by teachers. After observing a lot of students’ learning styles in East Asia, Rao (2001) and Clenton (1998) argued that classroom teaching is dominated by teacher-centered, textbook-based methods and rote memory in most East Asian countries (Liu & Littlewood, 1997).

Chinese students, in the past, and in many cases today, are grouped into classes without concern for ability, and the grouping may remain relatively stable from lower grades through university level education (Littrell, 2005). Many teachers have switched over from the traditional teaching aids to modern teaching technology as their medium of delivery. However, it has not changed the fact that teaching is still more teacher-centered (C. Li, 2005; Toh et al., 2003).
Given the cultural and social conditions in China, it is not surprising that a “didactic and teacher-centered” method has long been taken for granted. Students are expected to be “humble and self-effacing”, particularly in front of teachers. Students rarely challenge the authority of teachers in case they embarrass or offend their teachers.

2.5.3 Communication Dilemma

The teaching language has encountered a dilemma (Yao & Liu, 2004), that is language in the education context is more hegemony on teachers’ monologue and less dialogic (Xu & Xie, 2004). Language should be more valued as a tool. Nevertheless, the teaching methods in China are teacher-centered and textbook-based; therefore, the purpose of all the questions is to elicit standard answers. The current classroom teaching exhibits a lot of false dialogue (Y. Li, 2005; Liu, 2004; Wu, 2003), and “speech poverty” (Luo, 2006) between teachers and students, which is mainly represented as “aphasia of spirit”, “only reading without speaking”, “never speak at all” or “nothing to say”.

Yao and Liu (2004) point out that the cause of the spoken language dilemma includes education’s straying away from real life, the efficiency-oriented value in education and the flooding of teachers’ authority. All in all, teachers and educators should pay more attention to the experiences of students, return education to real life, and pursue the sense of human life.
2.6 Theoretical Framework of Teacher-Student Rapport

Laid out here is the theoretical framework of the teacher-student rapport according to the literature review. There are three types of models regarding teacher-student rapport: teacher-centered, student-centered, and dialogic relation (“I-Thou” relation).

Among the three models, dialogic relation sits between teacher-centered and student-centered, but more prone to student-centered.

Figure 2.1. Theoretical framework of teacher-student rapport.

The teacher-student rapport is influenced by individual/group difference, culture, communication style and attitude. The teacher-student rapport has four aspects of meanings: teaching relationship, namely the relationship formed in the teaching task, teacher and student obey their vocational role as teacher or student separately;
interpersonal relationship, it is a kind of social relation whereby teacher and student
treat each other as equal individuals in a society; for emotional relationship the teacher
and student build a kind of friendship and provide affection, and care for each other;
teacher is the elder in society while student is the younger fellow, teacher provides
parental love, care, as well as protection to the younger fellow. In this way, the ethical
relation is formed.

2.7 Theoretical Background of Dialogue

The concept “dialogue” has its roots in fields of philosophy, psychology, relational
communication, education and so on (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Both Confucius and
Socrates called for employing dialogical approach to learning and teaching (Van der
Lindendagger, 2004).

In recent years, many researchers employ the conception of “dialogue theory” or
“dialogic theory” in educational researches in different fields of education, such as
philosophy of education (Blenkinsop, 2004; Cayer, 1996; Sammel, 2003; Sidorkin,
1996), teaching and learning (Kubli, 2005; McKnight, 2004; Moje, 1999; Van der
Lindendagger, 2004), and communication/interaction (Baker-Ohler, 2005; Bartlett,
2005; Klockow, 2003; Peled-Elhanan & Blum-Kulka, 2006; Shotter, 2009). Indeed
many philosophers, linguists and educators have dialogic thought in their theories.
Dialogic thought has its impact on education.

For Gadamer (1993) truth is an event that occurs in language, and therefore it
cannot be objectively or methodologically verified. For in being given a language, one
has a world and a form of knowing. Language and human being are both transformative aspects, transforming a pure environment into a world. Gadamer states:

We can now see that this activity of the thing itself, the coming into language of meaning, points to a universal ontological structure, namely, to the basic nature of everything toward which understanding and be directed. Being that can be understood is language. (p. 474)

Buber proclaimed that, “in the beginning is relation”. His assumption in this is that human beings by their very nature are *Homo dialogues*. Buber believed that a person can only live in the full sense of the word within the inter-human sphere: “on the narrow ridge where I and Thou meet; in the realm of between” (Buber, 2002, p. 242). This means one is incapable of realizing oneself without communicating with others (Yaron, 1993). The Buberian “betweenness” should be considered as an existential reality, an ontic event that actually occurs between man and man (Yaron, 1993).

Genuine dialogue is an unusual phenomenon, since the “I” meets the “Thou” merely by glance. Buber assumes that one can meet the other by “making him actually present” —by entering into his “dynamic centre” (Yaron, 1993, p. 135). “Meeting” a fellow human being is not at all synonymous with empathy. Empathy, according to Buber, means transposing oneself into another being; thus losing one’s own concreteness, while dialogue is the extension of the “I”.

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2.7.1 Bakhtinian Dialogue – the Nature of Life

The theory of dialogism was developed by the Russian linguist Mikhail Bakhtin (1895 – 1975). Bakhtin’s (1984) belief is that only in dialogue can words gain meaning and become a full-blown utterance. From the Bakhtinian perspective, language as a discourse becomes the means to interpret, negotiate, and discuss different values that exist among individuals and even within an individual (McKnight, 2004). Language is given life only when individuals apply it into concrete situations and create new meanings with the consideration of the appearance of “I” (Bakhtin, 1984; Holquist, 1990). For Bakhtin (1984), the very nature of life is dialogic. In his own words:

Life by its very nature is dialogic. To live means to participate in dialogue: to ask questions, to heed, to respond, to agree, and so forth. In this dialogue, a person participates wholly and throughout his whole life: with his eyes, lips, hands, soul, spirit, with his whole body and deed. He invests his entire self in discourse and the discourse enters into a dialogic fabric of human life, into the world symposium. (p. 293)

Indeed, between the lines of his theory of language, Bakhtin sees being as co-being, essence as co-essence. Life for him is “everything at the same time”, potentially every form within the same form, on the same level. There is no one truth, the truth being a combination of all human beings to show how life is an immanent chaos (Game, 1998). That means that all people construct the truth; human beings show the truth through their real life. Bakhtin’s dialogism demonstrates how teachers can support their
students effectively by “addressing them as producers of a meaningful picture of the world” (Kubli, 2005).

Teaching is an interaction with the student’s mental activity; teachers need to act as co-workers in the efforts to “assimilate the word into a new conceptual system.” If teachers want to build a dialogic atmosphere within their classroom, they must take the individual reconstructions and responses into consideration, which are regarded as a necessary precondition for understanding by Bakhtin. He suggests that the teacher has to develop a proper initiative to join the students, to “strive to get a reading of his own words”, and he must use words which create “a territory shared by both addresser and addressee, by the speaker and his interlocutor”, and which can serve as “a bridge thrown between himself and another” (Voloshinov, 1986, p. 86). A speaker must realize who and where his listeners are; so must a teacher.

2.7.2 Bohmian Dialogue – Let Meaning Flow Freely

David Bohm (1917-1992) was well known as a distinguished physicist; he also applied his theories to education. He sees “reality” as involving “unbroken wholeness in flowing movement” (Bohm, 1996, p. 172).

This orientation made him gain friendship with Jiddu Krishnamurti in order to explore dialogue theory together. Their explorations ranged from the importance of thought, cleansing the mind after accumulated time, to breaking the ego-centered pattern and revising the wrong changes human beings have made (Bohm, 1993). The
significant outcome of their collaboration was that Bohm continued his interest in the cultivation of dialogue and treated it as an approach to greater wisdom and learning.

Bohm defines the meaning of the word *dialogue* by referring to the Greek word “dialogos”. “Dia” in Greek means “through” and “logos” means “the word” or “the meaning of the word”. Based on this interpretation, his definition of dialogue means “a stream of meaning flowing among and through us and between us” (Bohm, 1996, p. 1). His emphasis of dialogue is the flow of the meaning in or among relationships, rather than the individuals in the group.

Bohm distinguishes dialogue from discussion. The distinction Bohm makes is that “discussion” shares the root meaning with “percussion” and “concussion”, which is to “break things up” (Bohm, 1996). Discussion values analysis, opinions, agreement, disagreement, and conclusions. There is an attitude of gaining points or of making one’s own view prevail. It is also fundamentally different from the other kinds of group processes, such as encounter, personal growth, and therapy; as felt by Hannigan who has been studying Bohmian dialogue for over ten years. Hannigan (1994) clarifies the essential difference as being that dialogue focuses more on the structure of thinking, feeling, and actions that are common to human beings. It is important to see dialogue as an exploration of this collective nature of the structure of thought with the understanding that we have contributed to form such structure and to re-examine our own thought pattern together (Takatsuka, 2001).

One of the most significant characteristics a dialogue group can bring is “assumptions” (Bohm, 1996). Assumptions are coming from commonly shared thought
patterns formed in agreement with certain rules, laws, principles, and so forth, which constitute society as well as culture. These commonly agreed upon ways of thinking are called “shared meaning” by Bohm (1996). Society is built based on a set of this kind of shared meanings that acts like a glue holding society together (ibid.). This shared meaning can be either coherent or incoherent which determines whether or not society offers meaningful life to its members. Bohm suggests that present society is constructed by incoherent shared meaning and needs to be improved by bringing it into coherence.

In dialogue, people get to know each other, and trust among them also grows. People in a group will take up a personal problem and examine it as a culturally shared problem, since the two are often intertwined. We live in a place where we share the same assumptions that operate without our conscious awareness. Dialogue offers us an opportunity to face the fact that these assumptions are operating individually as well as collectively, through the exploration and questioning of inherent, predetermined purposes and goals (Bohm, Factor, & Garrett, 1991). Dialogue, as developed by Bohm, is a form of free talking and thinking among groups of between 20 to 40 people who meet in order to bring out individual and cultural assumptions that may hinder a coherent communication or the development of a pool of common meaning. People in the group are not trying to escape, avoid, deny, or even analyze these phenomena but to observe and explore how collective thought is working and how relationships between humans happen in such a group.

Dialogue thus provides a space where participants can individually and collectively pay special attention to the functioning of thought, to prejudices, ideas,
beliefs and feelings which subtly control human interactions, whether individual or collective.

At the very heart of dialogue and its exploration is the suspension of thought, impulses, judgments, opinions, and assumptions. Such a suspension is a subtle and complex event. Bohm et al. (1991) describe suspension in the following way:

Suspension involves attention, listening and looking and is essential to exploration. Speaking is necessary, of course, for without it there would be little in the dialogue to explore. But the actual process of exploration takes place during listening not only to others but to oneself. Suspension involves exposing your reactions, impulses, feelings and opinions in such a way that they can be seen and felt within your own psyche and also be reflected back by others in the group. It does not mean repressing or suppressing or, even, postponing them. It means, simply, giving them your serious attention so that their structures can be noticed while they are actually taking place. (p. 11)

Suspension requires openly expressing our opinions. This might lead to disagreements, conflicts and frustration, which will need to be explored within the spirit of suspension. In order to sustain such a climate of frustration and anxiety, participants need a genuine and authentic commitment.

The practice of dialogue is facilitated when participants show some spirit of inquiry because such a process is not intended to provide answers or solutions to problems but rather to challenge all our ideas; in other words, dialogue is not a process aimed at solving problems or making decisions.
Another principle that helps us to unfold dialogue is respect. Respect implies making space for each person to talk and be sensitive about how and when to “come in” and “not to come in”. Bohm (1996) stated that, “we must have an empty space where we are not obliged to do anything, nor to come to any conclusions, nor to say anything or not say anything” (p. 11).

Since a dialogue is a communication among equals in nature; any form of hegemony, authority or hierarchy is not consistent with its spirit because these forms will hinder the free play of thought and the expression of real feelings.

In order to understand the purpose of Bohm’s dialogue better, one must remember that it “has no apparent goal and is not being led in any detectable direction . . .” (p. 7). According to Bohm, dialogue is inconsistent with any purpose such as accomplishing a task because when we attempt to accomplish a useful purpose or goal, we will have an assumption as to what is useful, and that assumption will limit us (ibid.). But this does not mean that dialogue does not have a purpose. As Bohm states, “we do, however, have a sort of purpose, which is not explore talking together and thinking together . . . Any further definition of a purpose would include assumptions that could bring irrelevant restrictions” (Bohm & Edwards, 1991, p. 196). He describes the function of dialogue as being “to free the mind from being attached to definite goals, aims, and purpose, with their rigid assumptions, so that one can explore new meanings freely” (Bohm & Kelly, 1990, p. 463).
2.7.3 Gadamer’s Dialogue - Fusing Different Horizons

Why are there misunderstandings among people? How can people understand each other? Hermeneutics is a science which researches how people get to understand each other. Hermeneutic phenomenology is to explore the process of understanding, when we claim we have achieved some understanding of ourselves, or the world around us (Madison, 1991). Gadamer (1993) stated that his interpretation of hermeneutic phenomenology “is not to develop a procedure of understanding, but to clarify the conditions in which understanding takes place” (p. 295).

The central thrust of phenomenological hermeneutics is to move beyond both objectivism and subjectivism (Madison, 1994). To avoid subject/object dualism, Gadamer’s philosophy represents a movement away from the paradigm of (monological) consciousness to that of (dialogical) intersubjectivity, where truth is found neither in the object nor in the subject, but in dialogical interchange in which understanding occurs as an event in language (Madison, 1994).

At the core of Gadamerian philosophy is the belief that the interplay of partners in dialogue has the potential to generate shared meaning through what Gadamer (1993) calls the “fusion of horizons.” This “fusion” occurs because the interpreters of a text, or the listeners of dialogue, belong to and are situated by their culture, social and individual histories, or their “horizon of tradition” as Gadamer described. These pre-understandings enter into any dialogical situation with has served as the foundations for our values, assumptions, and relationships. Truly we are always ontologically grounded in the horizons of our own communities, but eventually what we pursue is a fusion of
horizon, through which our horizon can be enlarged and enriched. Gadamer’s notion of
the fusion of horizons is stated as follows:

Transposing ourselves consists neither in the empathy of one individual for
another nor in subordinating another person to our own standards; rather, it
always involves rising to a higher universality that overcomes not only our
own particularity but also that of the other. The concept of “horizon” suggests
itself because it expresses the superior breadth of vision that the person who
is trying to understand must have. To acquire a horizon means that one learns
to look beyond what is close at hand – not in order to look away from it but
to see it better, within a larger whole and in truer proportion. (p. 305)

He advises that there is always the possibility of creating meaning through non-
adversarial dialogue, but there is never the possibility to arrive at a final, conclusive
meaning (Gadamer, 1993). Therefore, meaning is always temporal, situational,
progressive, and shared through interactions. It implies that meaning is limitless with
possibilities, and open to interpretation and reinterpretation. For Gadamer, meaning is
not stable, but rather it shimmers. He believed that meaning is created through the
interplay of dialogue between author/reader and speaker/listener, and it makes no sense
to speak of meaning of a text apart from our reading of it. The goal of dialogue for him
is to reach an understanding that centers less on asserting one’s point of view and more
on individual transformation.
Enquiry is the foundation of Gadamer’s dialogue philosophy, which requires openness and curiosity. Gadamer believed that there is no fixed meaning. We can create new meaning by interpretation and exploration. Meaning is always influenced by application.

2.7.4 Buber - The Meeting of “I” and “Thou”

Martin Buber (1878-1965) is considered to be the father of the modern concept of dialogue (Kent & Taylor, 2002). Buber (1958) has made a great contribution in relating his dialogic theory to education. He considered the teacher-student relationship as an “I – Thou” relationship, which aims at a holistic understanding of the world and how human relations connect to this world.

For Buber, humankind’s greatest achievement in life is to achieve unity; be it unity within the person, between two human beings, segments of a nation, among nations, between humankind and inanimate world, or between the universe and God. The underlying threads of this unity are spiritual and are achieved by building bridges between the different unities. It is the “I-Thou” dialogue that results in the overarching unity.

The essence of the “I-Thou” concept is the relationship between a subject and an object: there is no subject without object and no object without subject. It is the relationship that makes a subject a subject and an object an object (Buber, 1958). Namely, subject and object co-exist, they are both important in the “I-Thou” relationship.
Buber’s thoughts on education focused on his idea of humanism, the role of the educator, and how the concept of dialogue enhances learning and teaching. The core of Buber’s view on education emphasizes a humanistic notion of dialogue between teacher and student. Buber believes that the educator takes a special role, namely a mediating function, in this respect. Education should lead the way to an understanding of openness and being (Buber, 1958). The educator has to act as the elements of air and light, which give life to plants and animals; and this must be continuous and non intrusive (Buber, 1958). The role of the educator is to awaken the educational forces.

2.7.5 Habermas’s Communicative Theory

The social theorist and philosopher Jürgen Habermas has had a profound influence on education. Habermas breaks out of the “instrumental rationality”, and creates “communicative rationality” embedded by the principles of the “ideal speech situation” which contains the following elements: (1) freedom to enter a discourse, check questionable claims, evaluate explanations, modify given conceptual structures, assess justifications, alter norms, interrogate political will, and employ speech acts; (2) orientation to mutual understanding between participants in discourses, and respect of their rights as equal and autonomous partners; (3) a concern to achieve in discussion of a consensus which is based on the force of the argument alone, rather than the positional power of the participants, in particular that of dominating participants; (4) adherence to the speech-act validity claims of truth, legitimacy, sincerity and comprehensibility (Palmer, Cooper, & Bresler, 2001, p. 220).
Habermas (1979) puts forth that anyone who wants to participate in a process of achieving understanding cannot avoid raising the following validity claims:

1. Uttering something understandable;
2. Giving [the hearer] something to understand;
3. Making himself thereby understandable; and
4. Coming to an understanding with another person.

For Habermas, “the goal of coming to an understanding is to bring about an agreement that terminates in the inter-subjective mutuality of reciprocal understanding, shared knowledge, mutual trust, and accord with one another. Agreement is based on recognition of the corresponding validity claims of comprehensibility, truth, truthfulness, and rightness” (Habermas, 1979, p. 3). By applying Habermas’s communicative rationality to education, it is possible to reduce technicism, control bureaucratization and increase communication and rational ideology critique in educational, curricular and pedagogic practices, for example by: (1) developing student’s empowerment and freedoms; (2) developing student autonomy, voice and cultural power; (3) collaborative learning; (4) developing interactive communication in, and through, education and so on (Palmer et al., 2001, p. 220).

2.8 Theoretical Framework of Dialogic Theory

After reviewing different perspectives on dialogue, we can find some common ground. Firstly, dialogic theory emphasizes negotiation, shared meaning, reciprocity, and development of social cognition. Dialogic theory advocates that participants of different
“horizons” take part in dialogue in order to achieve real understandings. On the basis of epistemology, thinkers above believe that: people’s understandings of the world and text are affected and controlled by what Gadamer refers to as justified or legitimate “prejudices”. Understanding is produced through the interplay of speakers, or text and reader, in concrete situations (Gadamer, 1993). Their pursuit of dialogic theory does not seek to reproduce text nor want to purely capture what someone has said in order to find the meaning, but seeks to explore opportunities for producing new meaning generated in dialogue. Thus, the goal of dialogue is not to eliminate differences but to understand differences, share meaning, and eliminate animosity that is generated by isolation.

Second, enquiry – an important element of dialogue – is an invitation to dialogue, which in turn mandates openness and curiosity. Gadamer believes there is no fixed reality in the meaning of words; rather, the words display new suggestions of meaning with each new exploration, invariably influenced by application. Thus, we need inquiry into fixed “truth” and suspend our own prejudices, which is similar to Bohm’s “suspending assumptions”. The spirit of dialogue is the ability to hold many points of view in suspension, along with a primary interest in creating a common meaning (Bohm & Peat, 1987).

Thirdly, the ethical significance of dialogic theory lies in that it reflects the spiritual form of natural solidarity of connection. Dialogue is founded on mutual respect, response and responsibility. Buber proclaimed that “in the beginning is relation” (p. 69). The notion of dialogue contains a new interpersonal relationship. Both Habermas’s “intersubjective” relationship and Buber’s “I-Thou” relationship argue the “I-It”
relationship. Habermas (1979) stated that “the goal of coming to an understanding is to bring about an agreement that terminates in the inter-subjective mutuality of reciprocal understanding, shared knowledge, mutual trust, and accord with one another” (cited in Diggins, 1995, p. 421). To Buber, human beings are “transfigured into authentic life” only by entering an I-Thou relationship; “I-It” can never be spoken with the whole being.

Fourthly, dialogue has ontological significance. Bakhtin (1984) pointed out: “life by its very nature is dialogic. To live means to participate in dialogue . . . In this dialogue, a person participates wholly and throughout his whole life . . . He invests his entire self in discourse and the discourse enters into a dialogic fabric of human life, into the world symposium” (p. 293). Gadamer (1993) believed it makes no sense to speak of the meaning of a text apart from our reading of it. Thus, dialogue decides the meaning of a text. Buber held that the primary word “I-Thou” can only be spoken with one’s whole being. At the center of dialogue is a meeting between two sovereign persons, who do not intend to impress the other or to make use of him or her. Buber commented that one can live without dialogue, but the person who never met a Thou is not really a human being (Yaron, 1993). All these thoughts imply ontological meanings. Our radical purpose is to find the meanings of things in the world, to obtain new understandings and to get others’ respect and understanding. Since meanings and understandings depend on dialogue, our purpose cannot be realized without dialogue. Thus, life cannot go on without dialogue; the nature of life is dialogue.
Figure 2.2. Theoretical framework of dialogic theories.

According to Dialogic theory, when individuals (I and Thou) meet they do so with the purpose of achieving shared meaning, understanding and their true being in the world. They dialogue in understandable language to inquire and explore new meaning of text and the true meaning of being with the consideration of respect, love, openness and curiosity. In such activity they form the dialogic relationship, enrich their knowledge and extend their horizons.
2.9 Perspectives of Teacher-Student Rapport through Dialogue

2.9.1 Existentialism Perspective

Existentialism’s basic premise is that existence precedes essence and asserts the primacy of human subjectivity (Morris, 1966). The human being first arrives on the world scene and then begins the efforts of self-definition. Van Cleve Morris (1966) argued that education should cultivate an “intensity of awareness” in the learners. Such awareness means that students should recognize that as individuals they are constantly, freely, baselessly, and creatively choosing. Such awareness carries with it the responsibility for determining how one wants to live and for creating one’s own self-definition (Morris, 1966).

Existentialist epistemology assumes that the individual is responsible for constructing his or her own knowledge (Morris, 1966). Although the Existentialist educator may choose to use a variety of educational methods, none of these methods should be permitted to obscure the “I-Thou relationship” that ought to exist between the teacher and student. The dialogue can bring questions to the learners so that they become conscious of the condition of their lives. The existentialist teacher does not know the answers to the questions posed. Indeed, the best kind of question is answerable only in the student’s own construction of meaning. It is the teacher’s task to create the learning situation in which students can express their subjectivity.

Buber is an outstanding representative of Existentialism, who paid great attention to education. His well-known educational thought is the “I-Thou” Teacher-Student Rapport. He believed that teaching is accomplished through relationships: first, the
teacher’s own character and intellectual interest flows into the student, embedding an implicit example; second, when the teacher sees the student trying to do something worthy, he will give energetic support and guidance (Noddings, 1995).

*I-Thou Relation:*

In Martin Buber’s work *I and Thou* (1958), he explicates two relations of human beings to the world; “To man the world is twofold.” *I-Thou* and *I-It* are two combinations of primary words that express two very different modes of existence. The I-Thou relation refers to the realm of dialogical relation, while the I-It relation refers to the realm of subject-object relation. I-It relationship is in the category of monologue, which transforms the world and human being into an object-object relation. Buber defines monologue as a surface experience of external attributes of the others or an insignificant inner experience.

Referring to the *I-Thou* relationship in education, it is dialogic. Buber claimed that the pedagogical realm is entirely dialogical. To have an *I-Thou* relationship in education, teachers must stand simultaneously at both poles of education – their own and their student’s in order to make up for the lack of mutuality in education, because a teacher is capable of apprehending the student’s existence, while a student is unable to comprehend the complexity of the teacher’s personality (Yaron, 1993).

For Buber, educators need to be reminded that each child brings his/her being into a reality that already exists as well as being made. The child, education, or even life between birth and death become meaningful through dialogue (Buber, 1947). Buber
(1958) stated that, “the relation in education is one of pure dialogue” (p. 98). In Buber’s “I-Thou” relation, two key words are very important: confirmation and inclusion.

**Confirmation:**

Confirmation is not the same as agreement; it also does not mean to deny the teachers’ duty of guiding their students to “the right direction”. Indeed, it requires educators to affirm the student’s being “as he has been created to become” (Buber, 1958, p. 93). Here confirmation is synonymous with “acceptance”, but different; it means teachers have to assist students to find their unique personal direction, even against themselves.

**Inclusion:**

The concept of “inclusion” is one of most significant contributions Buber has made in the realm of education. According to Buber, inclusion means the ability to develop a dual sensation among those engaged in dialogue: experiencing oneself and simultaneously perceiving the “other” in its singularity (Yaron, 1993). Inclusion allows a person to get to know his fellow man both physically and spiritually.

Buber pointed out that the educator should influence his pupils through sharing, but not interfere in their lives. In education, the will of power must be transformed into communion. Yaron (1993) highlighted that the “I-Thou” relationship helps the child to transcend the constructive forces of the world. Therefore, teachers ought to communicate with students, as they are equal individuals, as opposed to forcing students to accept the teacher’s opinion at will.
2.9.2 Hermeneutics Perspective

Hermeneutics involves a careful search for meaning without an expectation that exactly one meaning will be found or that it will be anchored in an unassailable foundation (Noddings, 1995). Rorty (1979) describes hermeneutics as an approach that views the “the relations between various discourses as those of strands in a possible conversation, a conversation which presupposes no disciplinary matrix which unites the speakers, but where the hope of agreement is never lost so long as the conversation lasts” (Rorty, 1979, cited by Gross, 2008 p. 207).

Philosophical hermeneutics focuses on the relationship between the pre-disposed understanding of the interpreter and the active character of things that address understanding through the presentations of a speaker, the reading of a text, the experience of a discussion, the conduct of an experiment, and so on. Hogan (2000) highlighted that understanding is viewed as inseparable from interpretation. Hogan further posited that teachers are just as much interpreters and learners as are their students.

Boyles (1994) described the teacher as resembling Hermes. Hermes, the Greek messenger god, was responsible for interpreting what he and the other Greek gods said in order for mortals to understand their missives. A modern Hermes would be in a democratic plurality (Boyles, 1994). This means that members of society are dependent on dialogue and interpretation for understanding. Teachers-as-Hermes are positioned in schools as democratic public spheres where the environment, students, parents and other teachers (along with leaders of districts and schools) become part of the interpretive
reality (Freire, 2005). As Freire noted, teachers typically act as depositors of information. Their roles center on ideas such as “transmitting” and “instilling” (Hutchins, 1997).

As reflections of a larger democracy, interpretive teacher and student interactions focus mental energies on process rather than result. Process means to be supplied with specifics (text, outcomes, goals, etc.) and requires applying “correct interpretations” of those specifics. Teachers-as-Hermes also involve students’ construction of meaning through their experiences (Gallagher, 1992). In this respect, the Teachers-as-Hermes are constructive educators, and their students are constructive learners.

2.9.3 Pragmatic Education Perspective

John Dewey is the leading proponent of pragmatism in education. His ideas have shaped the philosophy of education throughout the 20th century (Gutek, 1997). For Dewey, the aims of education belong to the learner rather than the teacher. The teacher’s role is to guide learners who need advice or assistance; the instruction or learning is ideally indirect rather than direct. Students are allowed to make mistakes and experience the consequences of their mistakes. It is the only way that they can become more self-correcting (Gutek, 1997).

Pragmatists favor active teachers and students; teachers not merely teach knowledge and students do not passively receive (Ozmon & Craver, 2003). In Democracy and Education, Dewey (1966) holds that the teacher’s major role is to establish a proper learning environment to stimulate desired intellectual and emotional
growth among students. Teaching becomes a process of helping students identify problems and study organized knowledge in order to understand how social life developed from the past, what needs to be maintained, and what needs to be changed.

Thus, the teacher’s task ranges from building the learning environment, guiding students’ learning activities, to helping students locate knowledge and integrate it into their own experiences; the students’ task is to undertake inquiry, explore information and knowledge, and develop in understanding and ability to manage their lives and to participate productively in society.

Pragmatists promote an active role for students. Children are motivated to learn naturally, and the teacher should capture and employ their existing motivation. Teachers must understand that children have individual differences; thus, they cannot be educated in the same way.

2.9.4 Humanism Perspective

In the nineteenth century, the idea that “love, care, trust and affective interpersonal relations” which are called for by Pestalozzi and Froebel came into focus, and became the base of “promoting self-regulated growth towards ‘full humanity’ in terms of the botanical model” (Aloni, 1997). In the twentieth century, the children-centered naturalistic, experiential, therapeutic and individualistic form of humanistic education was formed by the theories of A. S. Neill, John Dewey, Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, and Arthur Combs (Aloni, 1997).
Maslow believed that true education could help students explore their own identity and vocation. Rogers (1961) pointed out that true education should enable every individual “to be that self which one truly is”. It involves establishing dialogical interpersonal relations by “a warm acceptance of and prizing of the other person as a separate individual” (Rogers, 1961, p. 38).

According to Rogers (1969), education is aimed at facilitating the whole and full functioning of a person who “is a citizen and leader in a democratic society” (Cornelius-White, 2007). He saw the facilitation of citizens as vital, without which education will “doom us to a deserved and universal destruction” (p. 320), and saw that “the facilitation of learning as the function which may hold constructive, tentative, changing, process answers to some of the deepest perplexities which beset man today” (p. 305). Rogers was broad in his intentions: “Learning becomes life” (p. 314). This goal includes fostering the development of those who “take self-initiated action . . . are capable of intelligent choice and self-direction, . . . are critical learners, . . . have acquired knowledge, . . . adapt flexibly, . . . utilize all pertinent experience freely and creatively, . . . cooperate effectively, . . . [and] work . . . in terms of their own socialized purposes” (Rogers, 1951, pp. 387-388). Rogers (1983) held that certain attitudinal qualities found in the personal relationship between facilitator and learner will yield significant learning.
2.9.5 Postmodernism Perspective

Postmodernism tries to shake the whole structure of modern thought. It challenges cherished thoughts and values, but accepts what might be called “local truth” (Noddings, 1995). Constructivism is a keyword to understand postmodern education and is the main learning theory in postmodern education. The basic assumption is that all knowledge is created or “constructed” by people and that teachers’ teaching and students’ learning do not go for “reality”, instead, they are processing human constructions. Knowledge, ideas and language are created by human beings, not because they are “true”, but rather because they are useful. Hence, from the constructivist viewpoint, the knowledge to be taught in schools is not a matter of objective evidence or arguments, but instead is a matter of power (DeLashmutt & Braund, 2001).

Postmodern education calls for the student’s construction of knowledge.

Postmodern teaching is carried out in a more student-centered environment, which is likely to have minimal structure. It provides opportunities for social interaction, independent investigations, free expression of creativity, and encouragement for different learning styles. Students create and construct knowledge; they are no longer forced to bow to traditional objective “knowledge”. As Everhard explains:

School knowledge disables to the extent that it silences students, usurps their minds or at least demands acquiescence . . . [such knowledge] usually places boundaries between emotion and knowledge; students do not control knowledge, but rather “must write their student roles and scenarios in conformity to the teacher’s master script”. (DeLashmutt & Braund, 1996)
In a nutshell, although the teacher-student rapport through dialogue mentioned above has different terms, such as “I-Thou” teacher-student rapport, “teacher-as-Hermes”, “children-centered”, “facilitator-learner”, and “teacher as first among equals” and so on, they express several common points.

First, the nature of teacher-student rapport is the being of man. Buber’s thoughts on education focus on his idea of humanism. That is to say, education should lead the way to an understanding of openness and inclusion (Buber, 1958). Educators need to be reminded that each child brings his or her being into a reality that already exists as well as being made. It is the teacher’s task to create the learning situation where students can express their subjectivity. It is only the learner who can come face to face with his or her responsibility for self-definition. The creation of the intensity of awareness is equally the learner’s own responsibility as it is the teacher’s. Such awareness involves the sense of being personally involved in the ethical and aesthetic dimensions of existence. Dewey preferred the free, open, and humane milieu of the democratic community in which the experimental processes operated without interference by absolutist or authoritarian structures. True education, as Rogers (1961) describes it, should enable each and every individual “to be that self which one truly is”. The human being is the start of education, that is to say, the teacher-student rapport cannot exist without respecting the persons in it.

Second, the elements of dialogue are the essence of the educational relationship. Buber pointed out that, in education, the will of power must be transformed into communion. He believed that the educational relationship must be purely dialogical and
is always ongoing. Hermeneutics’ “teacher-as-Hermes” means that members of society are dependent on dialogue and interpretation for understanding. From the pragmatist’s view, when individuals (teachers and students) communicate, they take the perspective of the other person in developing their own understanding and behavior. Communication thus develops a commonly shared context; this context, in turn, frames the basis of community (Rosenthal, 1993). In postmodern education, a student-centered classroom in this context is likely to have minimal structure. It usually involves opportunities for social interaction, independent investigations and study, and the expression of creativity, as well as provisions for different learning styles. Dialogue within the pedagogical realm potentially becomes a “mode of being” (Denton, 1974).

Third, students in postmodern education are active learners in the construction of knowledge; teachers are helpers and facilitators who play the role of what Doll described as “first among equals”. Their role is to help students understand how curricular knowledge may serve ideological and political interests in various ways (Ozmon, & Craver, 2003). Rogers (1969) propounded the “facilitator-learner” teacher-student rapport. He believed in “the facilitation of learning as the function which may hold constructive, tentative, changing, process answers to some of the deepest perplexities which beset man today” (p. 105). For Dewey, educational aims belong to the learner rather than the teacher. The teacher’s control of the learning situation is ideally indirect rather than direct. From the hermeneutic view, teachers-as-Hermes means students are involved in the construction of meaning around ideas that generate
from within their experiences; including teacher experiences and interests (Boyles, 1994; Gallagher, 1992).

2.10 Call for Contemporary Way of Teacher-Student Rapport

In order to promote the students’ psychological health and all-round development, many scholars and educators call for establishing new teacher-student rapport (Bao, 2004; Hu, 2005; Zhou, 2002).

Bao (2004) claimed to establish a commensal relationship between teachers and students. He believes that in a commensal relationship, teachers will break authority and become the creators of the educational environment and persons who care for students’ mentality.

Some scholars and educators (Li, 2006; Li & Wang, 2006; Wu, 2003; L. Xu, 2006; X. Yang, 2004) claim to build a new type of teacher-student rapport from the view of post-modernism, which characterizes democracy, equality and communication and promotes full development and harmony (L. Xu, 2006).

From the horizon of cultural zoology, Xiao (1999b) proposes to establish new teacher-student rapport. Similar to the post-modernists, Xiao also believes dialogue and communication are effective approaches for establishing ideal teacher-student rapport.

Wu’s (2004) teacher-student rapport is based on the modern teacher’s authority, which is similar to charismatic authority and rational-legal authority, but different from traditional authority. He states that democratic teacher-student rapport exists in both authority and freedom (Li & Gao, 2005).
In the new teacher-student rapport a teacher is supposed to have a healthy personality, proper behavior and superior educational quality, and show strong emotion toward each student. Besides, a teacher should attach importance to the internal and external (outside classroom) interaction with students, and correctly handle contradictions between the teacher and student.

2.11 Teacher-Student Rapport through Dialogue in China


Li (2005) employed both the qualitative and quantitative method to study teacher-student communication in high school. He found that the satisfaction of teachers to classroom teaching is quite different from that of the students; teachers are more satisfied with classroom teaching. More than half of the teachers believe that student’s participation is highly related with student’s academic achievement. Students who have high academic achievement usually have a better rapport with teachers than students who have low academic achievement.

Xu (Y. Xu, 2006) studied elementary school teachers’ rapport with their students through a questionnaire. The researcher selected students, teachers and parents in 25 elementary schools of Chongqing City to survey. The findings were: 91.6% of students
and 87.7% of parents are satisfied with teachers, 91% of teachers believe that all or most of students trust them, while 42.4% of students are not happy with teachers’ lectures. The results also portrayed that the teacher is not the first person the students wish to call on when they are experiencing trouble or difficulty; 36.5% of teachers will suppress students’ opinions, and teachers care about students’ academic achievements most.

Xin (2006) utilized a combination of survey, observations and interviews in order to study the questioning in class under dialogic theory. The study investigated 50 teachers and 150 students, and chose two teachers to interview. The teachers’ satisfaction on questioning in class is only eight percent. A total of 85% of the teachers thought the aim of questioning was to ensure teaching by checking the student’s learning. The author observed two teachers’ classes, and analyzed the two teachers’ proportion of speech, the time of questioning and the amount and quality of questions. But, the size of sample is too small to allow generalization. In conclusion, she proposed teaching strategies that are not generated from her survey or interview.

Jiang’s (2005) research, *Dialogic Chinese-teaching frame and thought line*, proposed a framework of dialogic Chinese-teaching: setting up problematic scenes, thinking over questions, rational lecture, evaluation and feedback. As the author did not write up the methodology section, we do not know or understand where these opinions come from. Namely, there is no evidence or foundation of these statements.

The phenomenon that there is lack of laid out methodology is quite common. In Baoqing Li’s (2003) Master thesis titled *The Abecedarian Discussion on Dialogic*
Teaching, he believed that dialogic teaching is a new living style of the teacher and student. He highlighted that the teacher-student rapport should be transferred from an “I-It” relationship to an “I-Thou” relationship. His thesis research, however, was carried out without employing any methodology; but rather served as a discussion of the different theories on the topic.

Shiqing Liu (2004) pointed out and analyzed the difficulties in educational communication, and proposed a few strategies to overcome the problem. Also lacking in his analysis was a plan to research first hand these difficulties and how his proposed strategies might help alleviate the problem. Cong (2006) studied the topic of Teacher's Speech: Problem and Ideal Framework; in examining the “ideal framework” Cong referred to theories of sociology, philosophy and culture as opposed to gathering primary data to analyze his hypothesis.

Zhang’s (2005) doctoral dissertation titled as A Study on Dialogue Instruction, analyzed the problems of dialogic characteristics in teaching. He also gave a few examples to illustrate dialogic teaching. Zhang proposed the nature, value and principles of carrying out dialogic teaching. His dissertation relied on the findings of other articles rather than data he collected himself.

The problem also exists in many other researchers’ studies, such as Li’s (X. Li, 2005) study titled A Study of the Education Approaching to Life Dialogue, Wang’s (2003) research regarding Approaching to Dialogic Classroom Teaching, Liao’s (2001) work On the Development of the Relationship Between Students and Teachers in the

Most of the articles are concept papers, as opposed to research papers. Based on hermeneutics and communicative theory, L. Xu (2006) advocated building dialogic relationship and understanding the teacher-student rapport under the perspective of post-modernism. Liu (2003) analyzed teacher-student communication from the perspective of language through observation in elementary school. OuYang (2005) studied the teaching discourse through the perspective of pragmatics while analyzing and distinguishing the speaking right and speaking power in teaching. Mi (2005) discussed the teaching relationship that is based on dialogic teaching. Wang’s (2003) studies were from the perspective of Taoism; he believed that the teacher and student are on opposite poles, the reaction is the subjective condition of dialogue between the teacher and student that contains aspects of equality, respect, trust and love.

The similar statements proposed by these researchers are that the dialogic teacher-student rapport should be equal, maintain a focus on understanding, be bidirectional, interactive, and generated. It is an “I” and “Thou” relation where teachers should be guides, listeners and co-operators of dialogue, and students should be active learners and constructors.

As “dialogue” was brought into the realm of education, some researchers (Liang, 2005; Liu & Li, 2004; Lu, 2004, 2005; Wang, 2006) noticed that there were many non-authentic interactions within current classroom teaching. The dialogue between the teacher and students are lacking affection, initiative from the students, equality, content
and meaning (Liang, 2005; Liu & Li, 2004). The main belief being that classroom dialogue covers up the teacher’s real purpose (Liu & Li, 2004), and becomes an unnecessary departure from the topic/theme (Liu, 2004; Li, 2004). Thus, Luo (2005) argued that the current teaching is a monologue, not dialogue.

Liu and Chen (2003) believed that the problem is educational language, not education per se. However, the authors ignored that language is derived from thinking and ideology. Discussing educational language without considering the ideology of human beings has no meaning, as it is affected by people’s thinking largely.

Li and Wang (2006) argued that individualism was the obstacle blocking the free dialogue between teachers and students. They called for establishing an equal and dialogic relationship on the basis of “inter-subjectivity”.

According to recent studies, examination-orientated education, technology, traditional conceptions and culture of education, and present school/classroom size and the complexity of dialogue are all factors which block equal dialogue between the teacher and student (X. Li, 2004; B. Li, 2005). Ji (2005) discussed and analyzed the disabled dialogue in the perspective of modern mass communication. He believed that the source, the process and the environment of information lead to the disabled dialogue.

Researchers suggest that educators and teachers should return the speaking right to the students (B. Li, 2005; Shi, 2005), build a free and understanding atmosphere of dialogue (B. Li, 2005; Liu, 2003; Liu & Chen, 2003; Shi, 2005), set up appropriate topics that are suitable for students (C. Li, 2005; Liu, 2003), improve teaching methods (B. Li, 2005; Liu, 2003; Shi, 2005), give students positive comments, encourage
students to experience and feel the real world outside of the classroom (C. Li, 2005), and understand the nature of dialogue (Liu, 2003).

These studies discussed and analyzed the teacher-student rapport relating to dialogue and dialogic teaching. They provide many strategies that look useful, but are ambiguous and lack maneuverability for references. These studies further lacked practice or fieldwork. Many researchers provided similar or the same suggestions without citing from others. Few researchers provided detailed executable action-plans to achieve the dialogic teacher-student rapport they advocated.

Researchers emphasized “what should be”, not “what is”. They called for those passionate slogans, while rarely taking a close look at what presently exists. After reviewing so many Chinese journal articles and dissertations, it can be concluded that the current existing research lacks systemic methodology. The questions that then emerged are:

1. As researchers are so keen in comparing traditional relationships with current relationships (Wang, 2003; Zheng & Dai, 2006), to what extent does the teacher-student rapport lean to traditional relationship or dialogic relationship?

2. Many researchers have called for dialogic teaching and a dialogic teacher-student rapport. They discussed, argued and analyzed dialogic teaching and teacher-student rapport, as well as provided principles and strategies to achieve it. To what extent has the current teaching and teacher-student rapport met these principles?

3. Should dialogue be treated as a teaching method or attitude?
In fact, modern dialogic theory, or the philosophy of dialogue has gone beyond the meaning of traditional dialogue, which is a teaching method such as Socrates’ dialogue (which is more an art of inquiry). Given that modern dialogic theory was brought to China from Western countries, can it take root in education with Chinese culture?

2.12 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework for this study is given in Figure 2.3. Through the observation of classroom activity, I will summarize the main characteristics according to dialogic segments. Dialogic pattern is established based on dialogic characteristics. The teacher-student rapport is reflected by dialogic pattern. According to the literature review, teacher-student rapport may be teacher-centered, student-centered or an “I-Thou” relation; it also will show different aspects such as teaching relation, interpersonal relation, emotional relation and ethical relation. I will explore deeper factors that affect the teacher-student rapport, such as individual difference, culture, communication style, attitude and so on. Based on the findings yielded from the fieldwork, strategies will be proposed based on dialogic theory that may help to develop a positive teacher-student rapport framework.
2.13 Summary

In this chapter, teacher-student rapport, especially the current state of teacher-student rapport in China, has been reviewed. Contrary to the practice in Western countries, the teacher-student rapport in China, which is largely influenced by Confucianism, is still teacher-centered.

The different perspectives of dialogic theory were also reviewed as they relate to education; Martin Buber’s “I-Thou” relation dialogic theory stood out and served as the theoretical background of this study.

In the “I-Thou” relationship, teachers need to have dialogic spirit and hold it in mind; then they will initially take action in rapport building with students. How can
teachers possess dialogic spirit? This study will answer this question and provide effective strategies through qualitative research, which will be discussed in the following chapter.
CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design, choice of research site, the selection of participants and the background of the schools, teachers and students involved in this study. In addition, it provides a detailed account of the research schedule for data collection and analysis procedures according to the research questions posited. Finally, it presents the ethical considerations of the study.

First of all, I attempt to investigate the main characteristics of dialogic behavior (research question one) in the classroom according to descriptions of the dialogic segments, and the types of teacher-student rapport which are reflected by classroom dialogue (research question two). This study further seeks to explore factors (research question three) and strategies (research question six) on rapport building between teacher and student through interviewing three participant teachers (research question four and five) and 15 students in the sample class (total 69 students); also casual conversation with other students in the sample class helps to collect opinions on factors they believe might affect teacher-student rapport. The sources of data comprise my observation of classroom activities, and interviews with participants. All the observed classes and interviews are recorded as audio data and part of classes are recorded as video data to help me recall the classroom situation.
3.2 Research Design

This study adopted the basic qualitative study method. According to Merriam (1998), the researcher of a basic qualitative study seeks to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, or the perspectives and worldviews of the people involved. Data are collected through interviews, observations, or document analysis. Findings are a mix of description and analysis, and the analysis usually results in the identification of recurring patterns in the forms of categories, factors, variables, and themes that cut through the data or in the delineation of a process. There is no bounded system of functioning unit that circumscribes the investigation (Merriam, 1998, p. 11). In this study, class observations and interviews with participants were used.

Merriam (1998, pp. 5-8) lists five characteristics of the qualitative research paradigm: first of all, qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed and how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world. It is assumed that meaning is embedded in people’s experiences and that this meaning is mediated through the researcher’s own perceptions (Merriam, 1998).

Based on the purpose of this study, it is best elicited from the participant’s (participant teachers and students) perspective which is referred to as an emic perspective, while my perspective is referred as an etic perspective. According to Merriam (1998), an emic perspective is the key concern of a qualitative study as it places emphasis on the participant’s interpretation of a phenomenon rather than on the
researcher’s perspective. Thus this study focuses on participants’ perspectives of teacher-student rapport.

Secondly, the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis, since qualitative study does not employ inanimate instruments such as questionnaires and surveys. The researcher’s self plays an important role in retrieving data from the field. The sensitivity of the “instrument” depends on the researcher’s responsiveness to the participant’s verbal and non-verbal cues and other contextual evidence; the researcher can process data immediately, and can clarify and summarize as the study evolves. In this study, I as a researcher collected and analyzed data, and reported findings by myself.

The third characteristic of qualitative research is that it usually involves fieldwork. That means the research very often involves the researcher going to the people, setting, site and such actions enable the researcher to observe the behavior and be immersed in the setting. However, qualitative research requires as little disruption of the natural setting as possible. For this study, I spent three months in the research setting observing and interviewing participants.

The next characteristic listed by Merriam (1998) is the use of inductive research strategy. According to Merriam, qualitative research builds abstraction, concepts, hypotheses, or theories rather than testing existing theory. Similarly, this research study which adopted the qualitative research paradigm did not test any theory but rather explored the current teacher-student rapport. This study utilized qualitative research
techniques such as conversations, interviews and observation, and the inductive strategy allowed explanation to emerge from the data collected.

The final characteristic of qualitative research is that it requires rich description of the research report. The report includes descriptions of the context, behavior and actual quotes of the participants. These descriptions provide readers with evidence to support the findings of the study.

Table 3.1 provides an overview of the study with emphasis on the research objectives, research questions and techniques for answering the research questions.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the research procedure of this study.
Table 3.1

Overview of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Objectives</th>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Research Technique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To describe main characteristics of dialogic behavior through analyzing dialogic segments.</td>
<td>1. What are the main characteristics of dialogic behavior in the middle school classroom?</td>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To describe the teacher-student rapport represented by classroom dialogic behavior of teachers and students.</td>
<td>2. How is the teacher-student rapport being represented by classroom dialogic behavior?</td>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To explore factors (covert and overt) that affect the teacher-student rapport in the classroom.</td>
<td>3. What are the factors that affect teacher-student rapport in the classroom?</td>
<td>interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To understand the principal’s perception of teacher-student rapport.</td>
<td>4. What is the principal’s perception of teacher-student rapport?</td>
<td>interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To understand the teachers’ perception of teacher-student rapport.</td>
<td>5. What is the teachers’ perception of teacher-student rapport?</td>
<td>interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. To discuss strategies for rapport building between teacher and student.</td>
<td>6. What are the strategies proposed by teachers to enhance teacher-student rapport?</td>
<td>interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Sample of the Study

Research site:

In this research, a classroom environment of a mainstream middle school served as the research site. It is a full-day school, meaning the students attend school from seven in the morning to five in the evening, Monday through Friday.

Before choosing this particular research site, three middle schools in the same level with similar educational quality were initially included as research sites. All of the schools were listed as model schools in the city, which have good facilities and high quality teachers, most of whom are model teachers, and they are supposed to be the pioneers of the New Curriculum Reform; this fact helps me in choosing these schools for the purpose of observing the current state of teacher-student rapport in the middle school classroom.
School A was then selected as the final research site, based on the fact that I observed some form of teacher-student rapport which is highly advocated by the New Curriculum Reform existing in some of the classrooms, as well as the attempt to employ more dialogue in the classroom. The New Curriculum Reform advocated that “teacher interacts with students actively, guide students to explore and learn in practice, respect student’s personality, pay attention to individual differences, meet the different needs of students, create an educational environment which can guide students to participate actively, stimulate the enthusiasm of students, foster student’s attitude and ability of mastering and learning knowledge” (Ministry of Education of China, 2001, p. 4).

Furthermore, compared with the other two model schools, the principal of school A was quite concerned about building positive teacher-student rapport which is an important part of implementing the New Curriculum Reform from theory into practice; school A especially organizes and provides a lot of training for teachers in response to the New Curriculum Reform. Aside from the regular training during school holidays and every Wednesday evening (5:30pm – 7:30 pm), the principal also sends teachers to other model schools in other cities, even overseas.
Detailed here is brief information on the school:

School A, which was founded in 1989, is a middle school affiliated with J University. School A has 96 classes, more than 8000 students and over 300 teachers. The school established an educational net amongst the school, family and community in order to build connection and cooperation of educational power. School A emphasizes social practice; thus, every student will experience life of the countryside, visiting Beijing (the capital of China), visiting Beijing University and Qinghua University to widen their field of vision. One unique characteristic of this school is the multi-level teaching that was started in 1997. Students can choose classrooms according to their own level on subjects of English and Mathematics, and it is adjusted every one or two months. Currently, this school has a good relationship with about 20 famous middle schools in China, and keeps a friendly relationship with several schools and colleges overseas; such as River Valley High School in Singapore, Vancouver College of Canada and so on. The school principal emphasizes teacher training. In recent years the principal has sent teachers overseas to visit other schools for training in order to promote different understanding and knowledge regarding healthy teaching practices.
Participants:

Students:

Given that the research was carried out in a middle school classroom, the participants consisted of the teachers and students from a model class of second grade. The students are aged around 13. The middle school level was chosen because the age of the students places them in the formal operational stage according to Piaget’s developmental theory.

Regarding aspects of language, middle school students’ language continues to develop in subtle but important ways. They add a wide variety of abstract words to their vocabulary and can define them easily and accurately. Formal operations permit middle school students to become masters of irony and sarcasm (Berk, 1998). Their ability to move beyond the literal meaning of words and the grammatical structure of speech becomes more complex. Thus, they already have the ability to dialogue with teachers.

Also, students in the model class (sample class of this research study) were selected through a mathematics exam before they entered this school. Thus they were believed to possess comparatively high level of abstract and logic abilities.

Teachers:

Three teachers of the sample class were chosen. They were the Chinese teacher, history teacher and biology teacher. Before collecting data, I informally but purposely visited the sample school to observe the three teachers who were recommended by the principal of the sample school. There were a lot of dialogue between teacher and students going on in three teachers’ classes, which provided rich information for this research study.
Only in the biology teacher’s class did I capture a lot of deep dialogue. In Chinese and history class, most of the dialogue was shallow dialogue. But this fact on the other side provided me an angle of view of what makes teacher have only shallow dialogue with students, in other words, what might be the problems hindering teachers from implementing deep dialogue with students.

The three participant teachers were purposively chosen also because the principal of the sample school believed they were in different phases of implementing dialogue in their classes.

Thus those attributes of teacher-student rapport represented through classroom dialogue would contribute to the big picture – the status of teacher-student rapport in a middle school classroom.

*Background Information of Teachers*

Listed in Table 3.2 is information on these three teachers. In order to protect the privacy of the teachers, their names have been coded. Thus, in this research Chinese teacher, history teacher and biology teacher were coded as teacher A, teacher B and teacher C.
### Table 3.2

**Teachers' Information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teacher A</td>
<td>Chinese teacher</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher B</td>
<td>History teacher</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher C</td>
<td>Biology teacher</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vice-principal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher A – the Chinese teacher of the sample school, is a model teacher of Changchun City and Jilin Province. She won the special prize in the national teaching competition in 2010.

Teacher B – the history teacher of the sample school, is a model teacher of Changchun City and Jilin Province; she is the first batch of education and teaching expert-steering group of history subject; judge of evaluating excellent classroom teaching in primary and secondary school; member of proposition group of history subject for high school entrance exam; member of compiling teaching materials of PEP “history” (PEP means People Education Press); team leader in proposition group of history subject in 2009 high school entrance exam; she had also participated in compiling examination instruction for the high school entrance exam for many years.

Teacher C, also the vice principal of the sample school, is a special-grade teacher. She is a well-known scholar in the field of biology teaching and the vice chairman of the Biology Teaching Association of Changchun city. She participated in compiling the PEP New Curriculum standard high school experimental textbook. She was hired as the
national New Curriculum standard textbook of biology subject (middle school and high school) training mission specialist, and trains model teachers nationwide. She was hired as a part-time professor and supervisor for master degree students by the Northeast Normal University, and is a visiting professor in Changchun Normal College. She always gives speeches in seminars to college students on career planning and provides teaching skill training for teachers in other provinces. She often leads teachers of this sample school to visit middle schools in the United States of America.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

Dialogue occurs every day between the teacher and the students in a classroom, though many researchers ignore this occurrence. This research focused on the teacher-student rapport in a middle school classroom by observing and describing their dialogic behaviors and exploring significant factors that affect the teacher-student rapport, as well as finding out strategies for building rapport between teachers and students.

There are many means of obtaining data for a basic qualitative study such as observation, interviews, documents, and so on. For the purpose of this research, both the observation and interview technique were utilized.
Observation data

Observation is a source of data in qualitative research. In this study, observations were made when teacher was dialoguing with the student or students. This technique gave me the firsthand encounter with the phenomenon of interest (Merriam, 1998, p. 94). The present study employed the researcher as non-participant observer. My role was remaining in the background as a non-participatory part of the classroom environment. This allowed for the teachers’ and students’ dialogic behavior to be observed in detail, without disturbing the normal classroom activity and routine. While observing, I made notes of any interesting observation in my field notes. I also consistently analyzed the observation for meaning (e.g., what was going on here?) (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992), also tried to avoid any personal bias (e.g., was I seeing what I hoped to observe?) (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). The core content of the observations and recordings were what the teacher said to whom, the tone of speech (diction), and actions going along with the dictation; what the students (mainly ones who were interacting with teacher) said, and actions going along with the dictation, and the situation related to the dialogue.

Besides direct observations, a voice recorder was used at the same time in order to help verify the notes recorded. Video recording was also employed in providing me with the opportunity to review, as many times as needed, the details of what took place during the observation.

I planned a minimal of three months observation, and finished data collection in this time period. During the observation procedure, I coded the transcription of collected data as well. After two months of data collection, as no more new codes emerged from
collected data, and the collected data were already enough to be able to answer research question 1 and research question 2 which are based on the observation of classroom dialogue, I terminated the observation procedure. During the observation period, I transcribed 7 classes of each subject, namely a total 21 classes of classroom observations. Each class lasted 40 minutes, thus this research recorded a total of 840 minutes of audio data from observations. The third month of data collection was utilized to conduct interview with three teachers and 15 students who participated in this study.

*Interview data*

Interview is a common approach of collecting qualitative data (Merriam, 1998), which is any interaction in which two or more people are brought into direct contact in order for at least one party to learn something from the other (Brenner, Brown, & Canter, 1985; Kvale, 1996). I wanted to find out what is “in and on someone else’s mind” (Patton, 2002, p. 278). Thus the purpose of interviewing is to allow the researcher to enter into the participant’s perspective (Patton, 2002, p. 196), namely, through interviewing, the researcher tries to understand how the participant perceives things and sees the world. Merriam (1998) believes interviewing is necessary when the researcher cannot observe behavior, feelings or how people interpret the world around them.

The key to getting good data from interviewing is to ask good questions (Merriam, 1998), and follow-up questions are often asked, as probes depend on answers given by participants. Thus, as the interview is going on, the prepared interview questions (semi-structured questions) were modified or changed to meet the research
needs. Appendix I lists interview question version I – previous version and interview question version II – modified version.

During interviews, the researcher must develop a positive interaction and be respectful with the participants, and should portray neutrality on the matter being discussed (Merriam, 1998). Since the participants have been selected by me, thus I have to ensure that participants were comfortable and forthcoming with what they have to offer. Some ethical issues should also be addressed in conducting interviews. These include obtaining the participants’ informed consent (see Appendix K) and confidentiality of the participants (Kvale, 1996).

In this research study, the main purpose of the interviews was to explore the factors that might affect teacher-student rapport in the classroom, and vice principal’s and teachers’ perceptions on teacher-student rapport. Furthermore, strategies for building teacher-student rapport were provided and proposed by the vice principal and teachers for discussion and reference.

After observation, I interviewed three participant teachers – teacher A, teacher B and teacher C (who was also the vice-principal of sample school); The interview with teacher C took more than two hours (two hours 13 minutes); the interview with teacher B and with teacher A took one hour each. Fifteen (15) students among 69 students in the sample class were purposively chosen for interview; based on previous observation and the understanding on students during the observation period, I assumed these 15 student participants had something to contribute. Appendix I lists out the questions asked in the interviews.
The present study involved teenagers who were under 18 years old and this required me to obtain informed consent (see Appendix K) from their parents rather than the participants themselves. The interviews were carried out after classroom observations, during the third month of the data collection period. Interviews with teachers were carried out in the teacher’s office and empty classroom in order to protect teachers’ confidentiality. Interviews with students were carried out at the playground and the corner of the classroom. All interviews conducted in this study were audio-recorded in order to avoid missing any useful information. In total, 703 minutes of audio data were recorded from the interviews. The audio data were transcribed for later analysis.

Field notes

According to Merriam (1998), field notes could allow the researcher to find desired information easily (p. 105). Field notes usually consist of observations and the researcher’s interpretations. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) call these two types of field notes contents the descriptive part (p. 108) and the reflective part (p. 121). They state that the descriptive part consists of detailed descriptions of the subjects and settings, the actual dialogue of participants, descriptions of events and activities, as well as descriptions of the observer’s behavior, to enable determining how this may have influenced participants’ behaviors. The reflective part of field notes, they add, consists of the observer’s or researcher’s analysis. The researcher records speculations about patterns and how data can be analyzed, thoughts about methods and ethical concerns,
and even ideas about his or her own state of mind at the time. In this study, the field
notes were more for reflective purpose. When I was sitting in the classroom, observing
the classroom dialogue between teacher and student(s), at the same time, I took field
notes about some phenomenon which could not be recorded by voice recorder, and my
thoughts on certain phenomena. Those thoughts, such as class size, class activity and so
on, may help me to reflect on the data I collected, and plan the next step of data
collection, also to come out with questions for interviews. For some examples of field
notes which I wrote during observation, please see Appendix H.
Table 3.3

**Total Amount of Time for Recording Audio Data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audio Data of Observation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
<td><strong>Class time</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>40 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>40 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>40 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total amount of time for recording observation data</strong></td>
<td><strong>840 minutes</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audio Data of Interview</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher C</td>
<td>Biology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher B</td>
<td>History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher A</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>number of student interviewed</strong></td>
<td><strong>time for each student</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>30 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total amount of time for recording interview data</strong></td>
<td><strong>703 minutes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total amount of time for recording audio data</strong></td>
<td><strong>1543 minutes</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I collected data in the sample class for a period three months, utilizing the first week as a period for desensitization when no data was collected for use in this research, because my presence in class could affect the teacher’s and students’ behavior to some extent. Audio data – observations and interviews were collected over a period of three months; I collected in total 1543 minutes of audio data. Part of the observation was captured by video for recalling the real situation of classroom dialogue.

Table 3.4

**Summary of Types of Data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Gathering Techniques</th>
<th>Summary of Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>Dialogic segments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Verbal data of participants related to their perceptions of teacher-student rapport.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process of making sense out of the collected data, which involves systematically consolidating, reducing and interpreting data from observation and interviews. In other words, “it is the process of making meaning” (Merriam, 1998, p. 178). It is a complex process as it involves moving back and forth between concrete bits of data and abstract concepts, between inductive and deductive reasoning, between
description and interpretation (Merriam, 1998). Qualitative research is not a linear process as sometimes data collection and data analysis occur simultaneously.

In this research study, I transcribed the audio data while conducting data collection, then coded the transcripts with the assistance of NVivo 8.

3.5.1 Coding and Recoding

Coding and recoding is a core part of qualitative analysis, and includes the identification of categories and themes and their refinement. Coding is the initial step of data analysis. The researcher reads and rereads transcripts and classified them by looking for units of meaning – words, phrases, sentences, participants’ ways of thinking, behavior patterns, and events that seem to appear regularly and that appear to be important. The goal of qualitative coding is to break apart the data and rearrange it into categories that facilitate comparisons within and between categories and to develop theoretical concepts. In this study, I coded the transcripts and looked for the recurrent patterns. When coding the transcripts, I had to always remember and look through the research questions, to ensure the codes were relevant to answering the research questions, and refined the codes from time to time to meet the research needs.

Corbin and Strauss (2008, p. 195) mentioned two types of coding – axial coding and open coding. Axial coding is crosscutting or relating concepts or categories to each other. Open coding is to break data apart and delineate concepts to stand for blocks of raw data (pp. 195-198). Axial coding and open coding are similar to tree node and free node in NVivo 8 software. Open coding was utilized in the initial step of data analysis.
The second part of the coding process involves placing those units with the same coding together. In this stage, categories were developed. Once coding of a transcript is completed, and all items with a particular code are placed together, a review of the sets of items was carried out to ensure that they were correctly grouped together. Once categories have been established, the categories will be considered in order to determine whether or not some categories may be linked together to create major categories or themes. This process of coding, categorizing, and developing themes will be repeated for each transcript or set of data. In this research, once all the data were collected and coded, the code sets were merged together for a final reviewing of categories and themes.

The final step of coding was to go back and look at the original transcripts and review any data not coded and consider whether these now fit into categories. The categories developed from the coded data should be internally consistent and distinct from one another.

In observation data, 65 codes emerged; later I merged some which represented similar meanings together and finally reduced them into 37 codes, which were categorized into two main themes – monologue and dialogue; and six subthemes, such as dictating, hegemony, understanding, appropriate authority, mechanization and examination oriented. Appendix E shows some samples of codes and categories of observation data.

Twenty-six (26) codes emerged from interview data; later I categorized them into 7 categories, they are: student’s academic achievement; class size; evaluation system;
perception of learning; attitude; early programming and strategies, Appendix F shows some samples of codes and categories of interview data.

The research sample was chosen in China, and all the participants in this study spoke Mandarin; thus all the audio data were transcribed in Chinese. As a native Chinese speaker, it was an advantage for me to code the transcript in Mandarin version. The transcript was only translated into English when a segment was quoted in this study. Appendix G shows samples of translation of excerpts.

In order to respect the privacy of the participants, the teachers’ and students’ names were coded in the following manner:

(1) In transcripts, teacher was coded as “T”; single student was coded as “S”; two and more than two students’ response as chorus was coded as “SS”; different students participating in the same dialogue segment were coded as S1, S2, S3, and so forth.

(2) When the report cited a segment, teachers would be coded as “A”, “B”, or “C”, according to the coded names of teachers used in this study, instead of “T” to separate different teachers.

(3) If the cited segment needed further explanation or interpretation according to paragraph, I would put a paragraph number in front of each paragraph, as P1, P2, P3, and so forth. For example (See Chapter IV Segment 35 reference b2):

\[ P1\text{-}C: \ldots \text{where does life come from? What’s your opinion?} \]

\[ P2\text{-}S1: \text{at beginning people believe creationism, later after study, people understand that all the things are not created by God but by derived from single-celled organism in the ocean. Life started in the} \]
water, such as trilobites. Then life evolved from ocean to land, and then evolved over.

P3-C: what else?

P4-S2: teacher, I want to add something to what S1 had said.

According to Bible, God creates everything on the earth, thus at first beginning, people believe creationism, but later people gradually found that life-from evolved from single-celled organism to multi-celled organism in the ocean and then becomes a whole.

P5-C: what is the theory you mentioned above?

P6-S2: it is marine evolution.

The segment shows it is from Biology class 2, class teacher was teacher C, and students S1 and S2 participated in this dialogue. There are six paragraphs in this segment, and this segment is the 35th segment quoted in this study.

According to the Framework of Data Analysis (Figure 3.5), the final stage is the refinement of theme and sub-themes after review by the supervisor; some changes were made. For example, the codes, categories and themes before refinement, as can be seen in Table 3.5, are scattered and not well organized, which could not well answer the research questions or elaborate the teacher-student rapport effectively.
Table 3.5

*Matrix of Codes, Categories and Themes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>unneeded-answered question</td>
<td></td>
<td>teaching/lecturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>talk to self</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>related to real life (application)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>share experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>fact-checking question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>scaffolding/ facilitating question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>call for attention</td>
<td></td>
<td>asking question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ask more than two questions at one time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>leading the witness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>direct critique, sarcasm</td>
<td></td>
<td>critique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>gentle critique, joke</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>express feeling</td>
<td></td>
<td>express feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>make self-reflection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>an order or discipline</td>
<td></td>
<td>teacher initiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>memory training, rote</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>individual remediation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>change learning approach,</td>
<td></td>
<td>give instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>encourage student to guess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>active learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>team work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>accept students making mistakes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>allow students to express idea in their</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>own words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>let student express ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>assign student to answer question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>mark textbook, taking notes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>give students chance or time to think or</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>recall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>give time for discussion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>give suggestion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>social modeling</td>
<td></td>
<td>motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>social persuasion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>praise for standard answer</td>
<td></td>
<td>praise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>praise for thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>answer student’s question</td>
<td></td>
<td>teacher response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>accept or use student’s idea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>score (evaluation)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>ask question</td>
<td></td>
<td>student initiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>call teacher to get permission</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>answer teacher’s question</td>
<td></td>
<td>student response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>follow instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As this research study is from the perspective of dialogue, thus themes and subthemes were supposed to reflect aspects of dialogue. Thus the refinement is necessary to ensure themes and subthemes could well illustrate teacher-student rapport through classroom dialogue and answer the research questions. For example, the theme of “teacher initiation” was split into the theme of “monologue” and “dialogue”; the other themes, such as “teacher response”, “student initiation” and “student response” were re-organized, as well as categories included. The refined themes are: monologue and dialogue; subthemes are: dictating, hegemony on speech, understanding, appropriate, mechanization and examination oriented (see Figure 4.2). The refined themes and subthemes help to clarify the phenomenon and answer the research question effectively.

3.5.2 Analysis of data with NVivo 8

The software NVivo 8, a qualitative analysis computer software, was utilized to organize, manage, and code the collected data for this research.

Data Preparation:

Data records in NVivo 8 are held in documents that, along with memos and external text, comprise the sources for the study. Documents in this study contained the raw materials such as field notes, observation transcripts, interview transcripts, photos and so on. These documents can be classified as a record of data making with a particular person (such as interviews, or random chats), or is focused on a particular situation (the
observation of classroom activity). The texts will be saved in document format (.doc) for importing into NVivo 8.

The transcriptions of audio data (observation data and interview data) were typed out and saved as Word document. These transcriptions included all parts of the verbal data, namely the dialogue in classroom between teacher and student(s), including all filler words (such as um, hmmm, etc.), repetitions and the like.

Figure 3.2. Sample of documents organized in NVivo 8.

In this study, I mainly used NVivo 8 to organize observation and interview transcripts which were imported from Word document.

Nodes and coding:

Coding was known as node in NVivo 8. The terminology of NVivo 8 refers to nodes as specific locations in the database that reference parts of documents. Thus, the node label becomes the code label. In terms of coding the data, the use of free nodes and tree nodes
were employed, which are similar to what Corbin and Strauss (2008, p. 195) termed open coding and axial coding.

Free nodes are nodes created without any shape to a node system, which is helpful for emergent ideas or unstructured projects. The use of free nodes was employed for the first step of data analysis of observation and interview transcripts. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Free Nodes</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>social modelling</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student's opinion of exam</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the use of multimedia</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class ritual</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mark textbook</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>direct evaluation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rushing on time</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evaluation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>direct critique</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher gives students chance or time to think</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scaffolding question</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control class</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give instruction in terms of learning method</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indirect critique</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class size</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student's attitude to study</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exam</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-answered question</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give instruction</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student's attitude to teacher</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>express feeling</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praise</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3.3. Examples of free nodes.*

Tree nodes offer management and access, helping me to clarify concepts, locate a category rapidly, recognize its place in the whole system and see relations between it and its subcategories. Tree nodes were established based on free nodes, it was for the second step of data analysis. Once the tree nodes were established, then the categories emerged. For example:
Figure 3.4. Examples of tree nodes.
3.6 Reliability and Validity

Throughout the process of data collection and analysis, I ensured that the research findings and interpretations remained accurate. Validating findings means that I need to determine the accuracy or credibility of the findings through strategies such as triangulation, member checking and external audit.

1. Triangulation

Qualitative inquirers triangulate among different data sources to enhance the accuracy of a study. Triangulation is the process of corroborating evidence from different individuals (e.g., a vice principal, a teacher and a student), types of data (e.g., observation data and interview data), or methods of data collection (e.g., observation and interview) in descriptions and themes in qualitative research. In this research, I examined each information source and found evidence to support a theme in order to develop a report that is both accurate and credible. For example: teacher B’s dialogue with students showed a lot of her struggle, such as (See Chapter IV segment six, reference h7):

*B: I have to say this, your minds must open. I always feel like I have no choice and don't know what to do. I particularly hope you can discuss in class. However, there are some students are very quiet, I don't know what to do. I especially hope to give more class time to you, let you think, inquiry and discuss, but we have to take examination, we have no choice. I hope you can think more and inquiry more, even under the current education and examination*
system, when you learn history, don't just memorize mechanically.

After the pre-class quiz, I found out, I believe you yourselves already notice that you forget a lot of stuff. We have to take the exam, thus you must think more in class so that you can remember well.

In interview with her, teacher B revealed to me that the previous semester she asked students to explore, construct and teach the class by themselves, it was student-centered and the teacher was a helper and protector who could help students to prepare the class and add or correct some points. However, the scores of the exam were not very satisfying and she therefore had to change her teaching method back to a more traditional approach; despite the fact that she admitted preferring the student-centered approach to teaching. She pointed out that now she changed to exam-orientated approach again which she does not like but has to. She is still exploring, unlike teacher C whose subject is not an exam subject, she needs to balance the exam and her educational thoughts, to use her words, “many times I wish to let students to obtain the knowledge actively, and however, it apparently could not work out with exam. I didn’t find the solution yet.”

Thus, both observation data and interview data showed teacher B’s struggles.

Participant’s opinion or perception of certain topic could provide accurate and credible evidence for this study as well. For example, in interviews with students, they mentioned that “sometimes teacher’s action was not consistent with her words”. Teacher C also mentioned and agreed with this opinion in the interview.
2. Member checking

I asked participants (teacher A and teacher B, vice principal-teacher C and students) in this research to check the accuracy of the account. This check involved taking the findings back to the participants and asking them (in writing or in an interview) about the accuracy of the report. In this research, I asked participants about many aspects of the observations, such as whether the description was complete and realistic, if the themes were accurate to include, and if the interpretations were fair and representative. I sent the participants the interview transcripts and part of the report which involved them for checking. They sent the transcripts back to me with comments, corrections and add-on ideas.

3. External audit.

I also obtained the services of an editor outside the study to review different aspects of the research. I asked an editor outside the project to conduct a thorough review of the study and report back in writing the strengths and weaknesses of the project (See Appendix J).

Besides this editor, I asked a lecturer to comment on the finding, she is an associate professor and teaches basic qualitative research and advanced qualitative research in the Faculty of Education; I audited her course of advanced qualitative research. She read through my thesis, and gave comments and suggestions on themes and sub-themes I was working with by that time. For example, she suggested that I refined some of the categories, such as change the category of “unneeded-answered question” to “self-answered question”; put categories of “self-answered question”, “talk
to self”, “discipline” and so on to theme of “monologue”, and put categories of “facilitating question”, “share experience”, and so on to theme of “dialogue”.

Despite the strengths of qualitative analysis, the big problem for qualitative analysis it that there are often “few agreed-on canons for qualitative data analysis, in the sense of shared ground rules for drawing conclusions and verifying their sturdiness” (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 16, cited in Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) notes that there are no absolute rules for determining significance, no shortcut of coping with other researchers’ analytical processes, no straightforward tests that can be applied for reliability and validity. However, he points out that researchers can do their very best with their full intellect to fairly represent the data and communicate what the data reveals given the purpose of the study. When dealing with the data, the researcher must answer four riddles (Albery, pp. 538-539, cited in Patton, 2002, p. 598):

Riddle Number One:      Who Am I?       Observer
Riddle Number Two:      Who Am I?       Interviewer
Riddle Number Three:     Who Am I?      Participant in field settings
Riddle Number Four:      Who Am I?      Interpreter

When I was conducting this research study, I was the observer, the interviewer, the non-participant in the field and interpreter of findings. The clearer I know what my role is, the more capable I am in achieving the research objectives without personal bias.

Figure 3.5 represents the framework for data analysis for this study.
Figure 3.5. Framework of data analysis (adapted from Saat, 2003).
3.7 Ethical Considerations

Listed here are the ethical considerations that had to be taken into account for this research.

1. The following informed consent forms were understood by and agreed to by participants and other parties involved:

   (1) Head of Department (see Appendix A)

   (2) Supervisors of Research Study (see Appendix B)

   (3) Principal of School (see Appendix C)

   (4) Teacher of Class (see Appendix K)

   (5) Participants and their Guardians (see Appendix K)

      (Guardians must sign because participants are under 18.)

2. Respecting the rights of participants:

   In this research, the teachers and students who participated have certain rights. Before their participation in the research, I informed the teachers and students about the purpose and aims of the study, the use of the results, and the likely social consequences the study will have on their lives. They also had the right to refuse to participate in this research and to withdraw at any time. As the research was carried out in a classroom, if any teacher or student refused to participate in this study, I promised not to use any data from him or her in the final analysis. The anonymity of all participants was guaranteed throughout the research process.
3. Honoring research sites:

It is important to respect the site where the research takes place. In this research, I made use of a middle school classroom as the research site. Before entering the school and classroom, I respected the educational site by gaining permission (see Appendix C); when entering the site, I promised to disturb the school and classroom as little as possible, and held the view that the researcher is a “guest” at the site.

As this research was done in a middle school, permission had been obtained from the principal of the sample school, the head teacher, participant teachers and students of the sample class, as well as participant students’ parents, as the student participants were aged below 18 (see Appendix K Informed Consent Form).

4. Reporting research fully and honestly:

It is important to ensure that respect is maintained for the audiences who read and use the information contained in the research. To the best of my knowledge, the data analyzed and presented here were reported honestly without changing or altering the findings to satisfy certain predictions or interest groups.
3.8 Summary

This research adopted the basic qualitative study. As a qualitative research, in this research I obtained my data through observation and interview. All verbal data were conducted with the aid of a voice recorder to help ensure the accuracy of the observations. All observation data and interview data were coded through the statistical analysis software NVivo 8. The results of the data analysis are presented in the following chapter.
CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This research study contains qualitative data of classroom observation and interview. In this chapter, I will report the findings of this study, draw a storyline based on themes and categories which emerged from collected data, and answer research questions accordingly.

Figure 4.1 demonstrates the storyline of findings of this study. The analyses revealed that teacher-student rapport is reflected by classroom dialogue through characteristics of dialogic behavior between teacher and students; two types of manifested teacher-student rapport are bonded rapport and teacher-centered rapport; some factors in the classroom such as class size, student’s academic achievement, examination and teacher’s and student’ attitude affected teacher-student rapport and classroom dialogue as well; currently teachers faced a variety of problems and difficulties in terms of building positive rapport with students; however, they provided some strategies which they felt were helpful in the classroom. The findings presented are mostly supported by excerpts from transcripts of classroom dialogue and interviews.
4.2 Characteristics of Classroom Dialogue

4.2.1 Pattern of interaction

As mentioned in Chapter III, there are 3 teachers of three different subjects and the same group of students (total of 69 students in the sample class). The transcripts are about each teacher with the same group of students during class time in the classroom.

Two situations occurred when teacher dialogues with student. One situation is that teacher talks to one student; thus, the pattern of interaction is one teacher-to-one student. The other situation is teacher talks to a group of students, usually the whole class; if teacher talks to the whole class, then the pattern of interaction would be one teacher-to-whole class.

Figure 4.1. Storyline of findings.
Here are some examples:

Teacher talked to one student.

Segment one (reference b3):

\[ P1-C: \ldots \text{here is the question, as procreation is biological} \]
\[ \text{reproduction, now, how to define reproduction? S1.} \]
\[ P2-S1: \text{I think of chemistry, the chemical change is one thing} \]
\[ \text{produces a new thing, thus, reproduction is the original organism} \]
\[ \text{produces a new organism.} \]

In the first situation where teacher talks to one student who was pointed by
the teacher, teacher may randomly assign a student to answer the question, or
teacher could choose a student among those who raise up hands and are willing to
answer the question. In either situation, teacher is definitely one part of who
participates in the dialogue. The other part may be one student or the whole class.

Teacher talked to a group of students or the whole class.

Segment two (reference b3)

\[ P1-C: \text{how do we define this process?} \]
\[ P2-SS: \text{fertilization.} \]
\[ P3-C: \text{alright, now we understand this is the process of fertilization.} \]
\[ \text{Then we found that the fertilization process of plants is not only} \]
\[ \text{sperm-egg binding, which does the other sperm combine with?} \]
\[ P4-SS: \text{polar nucleus.} \]
P5-C: correct, combined with polar nucleus. How many polar nucleus are there?

P6-SS: two.

In this situation, teacher asked a question, the whole class gave response together. The questions are closed questions, means those questions are for purpose of recalling learned knowledge, reinforcing memory, calling students’ attention and so on. By chorus, students feel they play a part in the teaching-learning process.

There were very few cases of dialogue which happened between students during my observation; that is because these three teachers seldom provided group discussion in their classes. The pattern of interaction reflects the large class size, it further reflects that the classroom teaching is lacking in collaborative learning (Palmer, Cooper, & Bresler, 2001, p. 220).

4.2.2 Form of Dialogic Behavior: Monologue vs. Dialogue

Two themes emerged from the categories; they are monologue and dialogue which demonstrate the forms of classroom dialogic behavior.

Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monologue:</td>
<td>A long utterance presented by teacher in this case (especially happens when teacher prevents students from participating in the classroom dialogue), however, when teacher performs monologue, she expected students to listen as audience and silent communicators as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue:</td>
<td>The reciprocal discourses that happen during classroom teaching between the teacher and student.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Monologue and dialogue are two themes of this study. Under the umbrella of monologue, there are two subthemes: dictating and hegemony on speech; four subthemes (understanding, appropriate authority, mechanization and examination) represent the theme of dialogue, as shown in Figure 4.2. Under the subtheme of understanding, there are three aspects: dancing with students, encourage dialogue and ability oriented, which represent the characteristics as type of dialogue, speech right and purpose of dialogue accordingly.

*Figure 4.2. Forms of dialogue.*
4.2.3 Speech Right: Hegemony on Speech vs. Encourage Dialogue

When talking about who has the floor in the classroom, two sub-themes could provide the answer to the question. Table 4.2 gives the differences between hegemony on speech and encouragement of dialogue.

Table 4.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hegemony on Speech</td>
<td>teacher maintains a dominant position of speaking in classroom, controls the process of dialogue, suppresses student’s need of speaking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage dialogue</td>
<td>teacher encourages student’s initiative behavior of dialogue through valuing student’s thinking, setting up social model and giving social persuasion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3. Speech right.
In terms of speech right, teacher has the very right to speak in the classroom as she has multi roles to play in the classroom. First of all, in the role of a teacher, she needs to teach, to elaborate knowledge based on the topic of subject. During this time, two opposite trends emerged from classroom dialogic behavior: teacher’s hegemony on speech and teacher encourages students to dialogue. In a speech hegemony situation, the classroom dialogue is dominated by the teacher and consequently student’s desire of speaking is suppressed. As opposed to teacher’s hegemony on speech, teacher encourages students to participate in classroom dialogue through praise, social modeling, social persuasion and recognition.

_Hegemony on Speech: Teacher Dominates_

Teacher who owns the character of hegemony on speech is the one who dominates during the teaching-learning process through asking self-answered question, talking to self and expressing her own feeling in the classroom.

_Asking self-answered question_

Segment three (reference b2)

_C: so it was that such a statement, saying that there will always be something, some mystery in life sciences, which has never been figured out, as we all know, what is it? It is the origin of life. Is it a little pessimism? How come science is so incompetent? . . . the earth is 4.6 billion years old, how many years is it since there was a life on the earth? About 3.6 billion years. How long is it during the process of gestating life? Around 1 billion years . . .
Segment four (reference c2)

A: . . . actually the meaning should be . . . (elaboration), should it be like this? Then all the information is summarized. Alright, next question.

During teacher’s lecturing, such questions do not need to be answered, as teacher spoke out the answer immediately without giving the student some time to think or discuss. In such situations, teacher plays the two parts of dialogue – the part who proposed a question, and the other part who gave response, namely both the questioner and the answerer.

In the classroom paradigm, teacher is responsible for teaching, and entertaining and engaging students as well. By proposing the “self-answered question”, teacher may get student’s attention. However, after a while, the effect will fade away, as students will quickly realize the answer will come out shortly or some time immediately after teacher proposes such questions. In other words, the stimulus can never stimulate students to think.

Talk to Self

Another characteristic of teacher dominating is “talking to self”, which is similar to asking “self-answered question”. In this scenario, teacher does not propose a question such as “what is it”, “how long is it” and so on; instead, teacher asked a rhetorical question – “isn’t it?”
Segment five (reference c6)

A: how to summarize? Actually it is the character plus the event plus the result, thus the meaning of this paragraph is summed up, isn’t it? Namely someone did something, and what happened then, isn’t it? Alright.

By repeating use such a rhetorical question, teacher A gave a statement. In other words, teacher delivers knowledge by telling rather than asking.

Express Feeling

In the classroom paradigm, teacher can talk without getting permission from students, while students need to get permission from teacher. The collected data did not show evidence that students express feelings in the classroom. The following segment shows teacher B expressing her frustration on students; however she did not clarify from the student’s point of view.

Segment six (reference h7):

B: I have to say this, your minds must open. I always feel like I have no choice and don't know what to do. I particularly hope you can discuss in class. However, some students are very quiet, I don't know what to do. I especially hope to give more class time to you, let you think, inquire and discuss, but we have to take examination, we have no choice. I hope you can think more and inquire more, even under the current education and examination system, when you learn history, don't just memorize
mechanically. After the pre-class quiz, I found out, I believe you yourselves already notice that you forget a lot of stuff. We have to take the exam, thus you must think more in class so that you can remember well.

Teacher B’s needs do not appear to be satisfied by the students’ performance. Unlike biology, history is one of the subjects of the high school entrance exam. The students prepare for this entrance exam through rote memorization as opposed to hands on, kinesthetic, learning. Teacher B expressed her feeling in terms of her frustration over the current situation, but students as learners did not get a chance to express their feelings on this topic.

Hegemony on Speech: Suppressed Desire

As I observed in the classroom, students do have a strong desire to express and share their opinions and ideas; in other words they have needs of expression and communication. They even call on the teacher to get attention and permission. However, they do not have enough time and opportunity to express themselves, and sometimes their initiation was ignored by teachers.

Segment seven (reference c1)

A: . . . alright, let’s look at next question.

S: teacher, wait a moment, I have a question!

A: (ignore), I will ask a student to answer.
I was sitting next to this student. When teacher A moved on to the next question, he was still thinking about the last question. The confusion over the question made him stuck, and distracted him from the current activity.

In another reference (c4), student Z raised up hands and even called the teacher’s attention three times, all of which were ignored. Upon the fourth time to call on the teacher’s attention he was finally given permission to talk.

*Encourage Dialogue: Praise for Thinking*

Teacher C gave praise after several students asked questions.

Segment eight (reference b3)

*C: I found today, the questions our students proposed are more and more excellent! This question could be a hypothesis of proposal to be researched on.*

Teacher’s praise could reflect teacher’s attitude toward learning, namely which kind of learning behavior is valued and honored in the classroom. Segment eight shows teacher C valued and honored the student’s question and good thinking. The praise for such learning behavior gave students positive reinforcement and encouraged them to think more and deeper.

*Encourage Dialogue: Social Modeling*

Under social modeling, to encourage dialogue, teacher motivates students by setting up an example in the class who she believes is worth learning from. According to
Bandura (1994), a social model is a person who has equal ability to another. Teacher sets up such model in class to deliver information that “if he can do it, you can do it”, which makes students believe “if he can do it, I can do it too”. Thus other students could obtain knowledge and learn skills by observing the given model.

For example, after a student asked a question, teacher responded:

Segment nine (reference b4)

C: Very good! I hope other students will learn from him, to be a good observer and questioner.

Apparently this student’s initiation of dialogue through asking question is encouraged.

Encourage Dialogue: Social Persuasion

Social persuasion is another term from Bandura’s (1994) Social Learning Theory. In this context, it means teacher persuades students that they have the capabilities to master the given activities or skills. Students who are persuaded are likely to mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they hold self-doubts when problems arise. Social persuasion leads students to try hard to succeed, helps students develop the sense of self-efficacy, for example, after a student talked, teacher C gave him such comment:

Segment 10 (reference b3)

C: you are so smart! If I give you the opportunity to observe the environment around you, to observe the world, give you chances to ask
questions, I believe your consciousness and ability of innovation totally can compete with students of your age of other countries.

Encourage Dialogue: Recognition

Teacher recognizes and validates students through expressing her feeling and building a reciprocal relationship.

Segment 11 (Reference b3)

C: I am so glad to see your learning style change!

It is more than praise or encouragement. Teacher C employs the sentence to deliver such meanings: “I know that change is not easy and takes time, I can see your effort in it and your progress, I am happy to see the achievement you obtained got you so far, and you are on the right track, keep going!” It is a good example of Buber’s concept of “inclusion”, which means “experiencing oneself and simultaneously perceiving the other in its singularity” (Yaron, 1993). By this sentence, teacher C declares both herself and her students’ presence and being in the classroom, she can see students and perceive their feelings as well.

In another example, here teacher C expressed her feeling after a student asked a question.

Segment 12 (Reference b4)

C: I am very happy! Currently I am writing an article on what kind of class is the best class, in my opinion the answer is that the class in which students ask questions on their own initiative. It means not I as a teacher
teach you something, but you as an active learner propose questions. I feel very happy, you give me a confidence and encouragement!

It is important in the teaching-learning process that the teacher does not “give” all the time, but she also takes from the students and allows herself to be empowered by them. In this example, teacher C set up a model behavior – ask questions initiatively, which she wanted to reinforce; furthermore, she provides a causality which is “when you ask questions initiatively, I am happy and feel confident.” Here I need to notice that teacher C did not throw a favor and say “when you ask questions initiatively, you start critique thinking and you learn better and more”, which implies that learning is your business, you are the person who gets the benefit, I am doing you a favor and helping you out of here, I get no benefit from it. Thus, many teachers take it for granted and do not show any personal emotion, because they might think that students will get benefit from initiative inquiry, thus they “should” do it. It turns out to be a mechanical working relationship between teacher and student.

This segment gives information to students that the teacher is a human being, who has emotional needs from her students. The reciprocity will in turn increase students’ sense of self-worth and self-efficacy.

According to Bohm (1996), the practice of dialogue is to facilitate students when they show the spirit of inquiry, because the process of dialogue is not intended to provide answers but to challenge thinking. The findings in terms of speaking right reflect teacher’s different phenomenology as hegemony on speech and encouraging
dialogue. It also reflects teacher showing equality to students in some degree. Since a
dialogue is a communication among equals in nature, any form of hegemony, authority
or hierarchy is not consistent with its spirit because these forms will hinder the free play
of thought and the expression of real feelings.

4.2.4 Type of Dialogue: Mechanization vs. Dancing with Students

Two types of dialogue emerged from classroom dialogue: mechanization and
dancing with students.

Table 4.3

Definition of Terms Related to Type of Dialogue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mechanization:</td>
<td>the process of classroom dialogue is mechanical, which is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>represented by teacher having shallow dialogue with student,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>emphasizing efficiency, establishing I-It relationship with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>students and giving direct critique.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing with students:</td>
<td>during the process of classroom dialogue, teacher sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leads, and sometimes follows to make the process work well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>through meaningful dialogue and connection.</td>
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</table>
Figure 4.4. Type of dialogue.

Mechanization: Shallow Dialogue

Fact-Checking Question

Teacher asked fact-checking question to check student’s mastery of learned knowledge, it is a closed question and usually starts with “what, where, when”, sometimes it is a “yes-or-no question”.

Segment 13 (reference h1)

B: first question, which meeting prepared for the establishment of new China? S1.

S1: Beiping Political Consultative Conference.

B: Political Consultative Conference, location?

S1: Beiping.

B: time?

S1: 1949.
Yes-or-No Question

Segment 14 (reference h2)

B: . . . if it is still feudal land system, farmers are tied to the land, then can they provide labor for the development of national industry?

SS: no.

B: secondly, if farmers still follow the self-sufficient peasant economy, can they hand in the food to government?

SS: no.

B: . . . (Lecturing) . . . do they have enough raw materials?

SS: no.

B: no either. Therefore, this system hindered China’s economic development . . .

Teacher asked “yes-or-no question” during lecturing, for purpose of getting attention from students; in other words, teacher needs to check from time to time if students are paying attention to her lecturing. On the other hand, teacher gets satisfaction through students’ response.

Mechanization: Efficiency

Rushing on Time

One notable character of teacher B’s dialogue with students in the classroom is rushing on time. As I sat, observed and listened in her class, it gave me a sense of tension and pressure. For example:
Segment 15 (reference h4):

B: don’t waste time, our stress is relatively high due to that class time is greatly diminished from 45 minutes to 40 minutes, and now teacher needs to extend a lot of content because we need to link the current content with part of world history.

Segment 16 (reference h5):

S: teacher, I remember there is another thing regarding state-private enterprise, some books say that one industry cannot govern the peer industry.

B: okay, please sit down. You were talking about industry-wide state-private enterprise. Let’s talk about it later; now we do not need to know so much, put it down first, today we have a lot of tasks, next question . . .

In segment 16, when the student asked a question which was not too related to the task of that day, teacher B did respond by giving the student a clue to solve the problem, but she did not make it a question to discuss publicly; to use her words, “now we do not need to know so much, put it down first, today we have a lot of tasks”, which implies that this question is not important because it is not related to the exam, hence “we do not need to know so much.” First of all students should know questions which are related to the exam very well. Later teacher B gave him a
reason that “we have a lot of tasks”. It is a good reason, which does not hurt the student’s feelings or make the student embarrassed to feel that the teacher might not be interested in the student’s question. Furthermore, we can see that the teacher needs to complete a large number of teaching tasks within a limited time in order to prepare students to cope with the examination. Therefore, we can see that in the history class, teacher B is rushed to complete all the assigned tasks on time. However, she reduced student’s enthusiasm of asking questions, in other words, she gave students negative reinforcement.

Mechanization: I-It Relation

As the opposite of I-Thou relation, I-It relation is a subjective relationship in which It is experienced and utilized by the I. In other words, when teacher has an I-It relationship with students, students are used as part of the teaching process rather than active learners.

Segment 17 (reference c5):

A: well, regarding contemporary literature, I said very clearly last Friday, I asked you guys to paste the reading materials in a notebook, bound together. Now let us look at the first article . . . listen carefully to my request. I ask students to read this article by paragraph, you must read loudly, calibrate the pronunciation, if there is any pronunciation that you are not sure please point it out. Okay, don't waste other’s time, start from first paragraph. S1.
When the teacher A asked a row of students to read the article, she said “next one” instead of calling out the student’s name. She was once the head teacher of this sample class for about one year, and was the Chinese teacher of this class since Grade 1. Thus she referred students as ‘next one’ not because she did not know the student’s name. In this segment, teacher A was instructing a procedure to flow smoothly, students are parts of the procedure, served for her purpose and need of teaching. It appears that teacher is dominating in class.

Mechanization: Direct Critique

In the classroom, teacher does not only play the role of teacher in terms of teaching, she is also a protector and vindicator to maintain order in the class. Teacher’s statements intend to change a non-acceptable behavior to an acceptable pattern, clarify classroom discipline and emphasize the teacher’s authority. In a mechanical process, teacher’s critique on student tends to be very straightforward and direct.
Segment 18 (reference c1)

(A student is presenting reading report, but there is some noise in the classroom.)

A: Those who suit their actions to the time are wise, those students who do not suit their actions to the time, I tell you, if there is no excuse after I remind you, I will put you outside the classroom immediately.

Segment 19 (reference c5)

Teacher A asks the pronunciation of a word, when student could not answer it, she said, “stand, if you don't know then you stand!”

These two segments are taken from teacher A’s class; her criticizing on students tended to be very direct. The first example (segment 18) shows how teacher maintains the order of class through direct critique; in the second example (segment 19) somehow she demonstrates her attitude toward learning. A punishment – stand – was given after a student failed to answer, which gave the student a negative reinforcement and made students fear or be unwilling to participate in classroom dialogue because of such unpleasant experience.

Dancing with Student: Meaningful Dialogue

Teacher intends to have meaningful dialogue with students, for purpose of scaffolding and facilitating them to construct knowledge.
Segment 20 (reference b2)

C: how do you understand the spores in the water? How come there are spores in the water?

S1: maybe the water is nature water.

C: em, very good! I’m very glad that S1 already mastered the way of thinking. Where is the water which I put in the tank from? Go on!

S1: it is from tap.

C: correct, it is tap water.

S1: tap water comes from water plant, the water plant I guess it is the reservoir.

In this segment, teacher C continued to ask questions based on the above context, then gave students the opportunity to think deeper. Teacher C did not simply give the answer directly, she showed the students a way of thinking, as she encouraged, “I’m very glad that S1 already mastered the way of thinking”. In other words, she encouraged the students to think by themselves.

Dancing with Student: Meaningful Connection

Related to Real Life

Teacher C related the topic or problem which was being discussed to student’s real life to make meaningful connection.
Segment 21 (reference b3)

C: now for insects you are unfamiliar, then we take ourselves as samples.

Let’s backtrack, how human beings reproduce and develop? Think about this, my age and your age, are we in developmental stage?

Students gave response.

Teacher C asked students to relate the unknown to their own experience and real life, then deduced or made hypothesis. By doing so, she made the learning material close to students, and enhanced their enthusiasm and willingness to participate in class dialogue.

Share Experience

Similar to “related to real life”, teacher sometimes shared her own experience on certain topics.

Segment 22 (reference b4)

Teacher C shared her experience. Once, a student gave her a silkworm as a gift. The silkworm was covered by silk which looked like cotton. She put it into a box, and then covered the box. After about one week when she opened the box, a moth came out. She tried to feed the moth, but it did not work. Soon after, the moth died.

After telling the experience, she said: “through this experience, I learnt silkworm can grow into a moth. When I tried to feed the moth with water and rice, it didn’t eat. I was wondering if it was not the right food. Then I referred to
books, and found out that, during the period of silkworm growing into moth, it doesn’t eat anything. That’s the reason why the silkworm is full of nutrition.”

By sharing her own experience, teacher C delivered such information. First, we learn from experience and real life. Secondly, she herself is a biology teacher, however she does not know everything, she also needs to refer to books, and it is how she gets information to solve her confusion.

Teacher C also liked to ask students to share their experience; through sharing, she connected with students, linked the shared experience to the class topic which they were learning, encouraged students to observe and think about the biological phenomenon in their life, which they might otherwise ignore.

Segment 23 (reference b4)

S: teacher, I have a question, I went to my grandmother’s house on weekends, I saw bamboo and something looks like seeds grow on it. My grandmother asked me what that was, I did not know. Grandma said it happened before, but the seed-like thing didn’t grow out anything, she thought it was seed and wouldn’t let me touch. I feel like bamboo doesn’t have seeds, but grandma said it was. Teacher, what is it?

C: which part of bamboo does it grow on?

S: it grows from bamboo joint.

C: it is axil.

S: yes.
C: it’s like our armpits, we call it axil of leaf. I am very happy! Currently I am writing an article on what kind of class is the best class, in my opinion the answer is that the class in which students ask questions on their own initiative. It means not I as a teacher teach you something, but you as an active learner propose questions. I feel very happy, you give me a confidence and encouragement! Then S put forward, his grandma saw something growing from the bamboo joint and then assumed that all plants produce seeds, so she kept them to grow, in fact, nothing grew out of it. Facts speak louder than eloquence. The fact implies it is not seed. Now we infer according to theory, bamboo is not reproduced by seeds, so which type of reproduction is it?

SS: asexual reproduction.

C: asexual reproduction. This thing which grows out from joint is also vegetative organ. Very good! I hope other students will learn from him, to be a good observer and questioner.

The findings on types of dialogue which are demonstrated by mechanization and dancing with students reflect teacher’s respect for students. Respect implies teacher making space for students to talk and being sensitive about how and when to “come in” and “not to come in”, as I described in “dancing with students”, namely teacher knows when to lead and when to follow. Bohm (1996) stated that, “we must have an empty space where we are not obliged to do anything, nor to come to any conclusions, nor to say anything or not say anything” (p. 11). In the type of mechanization, teacher makes
little or no space for students to speak or express, as the dialogue is structured and folded. But education should lead the way to an understanding of openness and being (Buber, 1958). The educator has to act as the elements of air and light, which give life to plants and animals; and this must be continuous and non-intrusive (Buber, 1958). The role of the educator is to awaken the educational forces, not to contain or press them.
4.2.5 Purpose of Dialogue: Examination Oriented VS. Ability Oriented

Classroom dialogue presents two different purposes: examination oriented and ability oriented.

Table 4.4

*Definition of Terms Related to Purpose of Dialogue*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Examination oriented:</em></td>
<td>For purpose of examination, teacher focuses on student’s score, pursue on standard answer, change learning approach for sake of exam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ability oriented:</em></td>
<td>For purpose of ability, teacher intends to foster student’s learning ability and skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.5 shows the subtheme of examination oriented. It contains these categories: change learning approach, pursue standard answer, score and “exam” talk; while the subtheme of ability oriented is represented by active learning, teacher encouraging student to guess, letting student express ideas, encouraging teamwork, organizing group discussion, and accepting student making mistakes.
Figure 4.5 Purpose of dialogue.

**Purpose of Dialogue: Examination Oriented**

**Changing learning approach**

Teacher B changed her learning approach from student-centered to teacher-centered.

Segment 24 (reference h4)

*B: this semester it’s a pity we couldn’t be like last semester, which the lessons were taught by students, yourselves, or let students express. Our stress is relatively high due to that class time is greatly diminished from 45 minutes to 40 minutes, and now teacher needs to extend a lot of content because we need to link the current content with part of world history.*

Teacher B changed the learning approach because of the tight teaching schedule, and eventually for the purpose of examination. Therefore, teacher sacrifices student’s need of active learning to satisfy the need of examination.
Pursue Standard Answer

(1) Channel student’s thought

Teacher A phrased the questions in order to channel student’s thought, trying to “facilitate” student to get the answer which is in the teacher’s mind. She channels student’s thought through asking multiple questions and leading the witness.

Asking Multiple Questions

Multiple questions are “either one question that is actually a double question or a series of single questions that does not allow the respondent to answer one by one” (Merriam, 1998, p. 78). The style of questioning happened a lot in Chinese teacher’s lecturing. Here are the examples:

Segment 25 (reference c7):

P1-A: . . . okay, now tell us what narration interposed is? How do you determine it is narration interposed? What are the characteristics of narration interposed?

P2-S1: narration interposed means mentioning another event.

P3-A: narration interposed means mentioning another event. You think that is narration interposed? Which part of this article do you think is narration interposed? In other words, which paragraphs or which events are narration interposed? . . . Other students also think about this question.

P4-After 3 seconds
P5-S1: the third paragraph.

P6-A: well, you stand and read this article thoroughly. I will ask another student to continue to answer this question. How do you understand narration interposed?

This segment shows the questioning style of teacher A. In paragraph one, she asked three questions together, “what is narration interposed? How to determine? And what characteristics it has?”; however, according to paragraph two, students only gave response to the first question – “what is narration interposed?” Later in paragraph six, after a student gave the wrong answer, teacher A did not ask facilitating questions to help this student to think through what the correct answer may be; instead, she gave a punishment – stand. Thus, in her class, she delivers such information that incorrect answers mean punishment. It appears that teacher A too urged for answer from students.

Segment 26 (reference c2):

P1-A: . . . then how do you summarize the information in this section?

P2-S1: (quoted the words in the reading material)... these words apparently described the depression and ruined scene of the society, thus, I think the social status is consistent with the behavior of the police officers.

P3-A: em, what’s the main idea of this paragraph?

P4-S1: the current society declines and streets are deserted.
P5-A: society declines, streets are deserted. Alright, which aspect is it? In other words, from which aspect is it described?

P6-S2: human environment.

P7-A: the society is declining and deserted ... from which aspect is it described in term of “declining and deserted”? What is this paragraph talking about? Some student said it was talking about environment, which kind of environment?

P8-S1: social environment.

P9-A: social environment. Is it correct or not? Alright . . .

Based on the reading materials, teacher A asks questions attached behind the materials, students answered questions, and meanwhile teacher gave instruction on how to work those questions out. Looking at paragraph seven, there are three questions in this paragraph: 1) from which aspect is it described in terms of “declining and deserted”? 2) What is this paragraph talking about? 3) Which kind of environment? The questions become more and more specific. Question one and two sound like open questions, because students can give more than one answer. However, it seemed that teacher A wanted only one answer; she therefore narrowed the question to make it more concrete and specific. This one answer requirement limits students’ thinking and free expression.

In paragraph five she asked the question twice in different ways, but the student just could not get it; in other words, frequently repeating the questions without giving students enough time to think about them enhances the chance of confusion in students.
(2) Leading the witness

Teacher A tried very hard to put her thought into the student’s mind; however, this did not work out well.

Segment 27 (reference c4)

A: . . . alright, S1, you please.

S1: teacher I think the main idea of this article should be, correcting a mistake is not a short-term work, it should be corrected in a certain period persistently, only by this way, one can get rid of it.

A: where this comes from?

S1: because there is a lot of work to do after growing the seed.

A: the author did not talk about grow corn, he was asking how to eradicate grass.

S1: the method is to grow corn.

A: the method is to grown corn, but it is caused by this question (the question is asking how to eradicate grass).

S1: teacher what exactly you are asking for?

A: I want to ask what do you get from this reading material.

S1: from this article, I just get that how to get rid of bad habit.

A: how?

S1: correct bad habit or weak point need to work on it day by day, there is no short cut.
A: where this “day by day” comes from? Does growing corn mean ‘day by day’?

S1: you cannot just leave the seed there and do nothing.

... At the end, this student still could not read teacher’s mind and get what the teacher wanted.

Praise for Standard Answer

Segment 28 (reference c7)

A: St is very good! Her pronunciation is accurate, and reading is very smooth as well, also her sound volume level is appropriate.

Segment 29 (reference c7):

A: sit down, the answer is completely correct, and your thought is very clear in the process of finding the answer.

Segment 28 and segment 29 are two examples from teacher A’s class. Teacher’s praise aims at the accuracy of student’s answer and the performance of the procedure of answering.
Open-Ended Question Ended By Standard Answer

Segment 30 (reference h2):

P1-B: what's your understanding on “hindering rural economic and social development”? How come the feudal land system hindered the development of New China? S1.

P2-S1: because peasants do not have land and the food they produced needs to hand in to landlord, therefore, they have nothing to hand in to the government.

P3-B: em, peasants cannot pay tax to the government, then the state cannot possess economic base, therefore cannot develop further. Sit down. S2.

P4-S2: (read the material in textbook, then say), if the peasants rent the land, pay tax and rent fees, keep the rest of the food for themselves, then there is no development at all on this point. And maybe they cannot be self-sufficient, not mention to let a part of productivity to implement the development of industrialization. Thus, it restricts China’s development.

P5-B: did you pay attention to what S2 said? He proposed two points which are very important, first, if it is still feudal land system, farmers are tied to the land, then can they provide labor for the development of national industry?

P6-SS: no.
P7-B: secondly, if farmers still follow the self-sufficient peasant economy, can they hand in the food to government?

P8-SS: no.

P9-B: . . . (Lecturing) . . . do they have enough raw materials?

P10-SS: no.

P11-B: no either. Therefore, this system hindered China’s economic development . . .

In segment 30, teacher B asked an open-ended question, “How come the feudal land system hindered the development of New China?”, she asked two students to answer the question. It seems that she wanted to know the student’s understanding on this topic; after S1 gave the response, teacher B modified the student’s answer, and rephrased in her own words; she did not ask any facilitating or scaffolding question to encourage S1 to think deeper, but gave chance to another student. After S2 responded, the discussion did not go further, as S2 already gave the correct answer. He used the textbook’s words to answer the question, and later explained in his own words.

I need to note here, history is one of the exam subjects, and it is an open-book exam; students take textbooks to the exam, and only standard answers are accepted and given scores according to the textbook. That is the reason when S2 quoted the words from the textbook, the discussion was brought to closure.
The NCR advocates that teachers should create a democratic, relaxing, harmonious and joyful learning atmosphere, to make sure each student has the opportunity to question, express, communicate or present. However, in reality, it is the teacher who has the stage and is the leading actor; students are all playing the supporting roles.

*Score (Evaluation)*

Teacher evaluated students in the classroom through scores or other standards. Sometimes the evaluation is very direct, such as “wrong”, “zero”, “very good, full marks” and so on. Teacher B liked to evaluate by giving marks. Teacher A evaluated students according to the standards which she listed. For example, when evaluating student’s reading report, she mentioned several times the requirement and standards, in her words – “three levels”, namely when students presented their reading reports, they had to talk in three levels. First level, what the book is talking about; second level, what you get from reading the book; third level, how do you feel according to what you get (reference c1, c2, c3, c6 and c7).

*“Exam” Talk*

All these three teachers mentioned the topic of exam in their classes. The way they were talking about exam somehow could reflect their attitude toward examination and learning.
Segment 31 (reference b3)

*C: . . . writing a proposal is kind of open-book exam, let me tell you this, actually when I went to America, I found out in America, there seldom is close-book exam. Then what is the purpose for open-book exam? It dealt with student’s ability and skills.*

This segment suggests that teacher C accepted the way of evaluation in America, and valued the cultivation of ability and skill, which also reflects that this way of evaluation is not valued in Chinese circumstance of education and its evaluation system.

Segment 32 (reference h1)

*B: sometimes exam is very dogmatic, to what extent? For example, once monthly exam, there was a question, asking the purpose of Korean War. If you answer as “bao jia wei guo” (meaning protect and defend homeland, in Chinese, there are four characters to represent this meaning), you will lose one mark, the correct answer should be eight characters, namely, “kang mei yuan chao bao jia wei guo” (meaning against US, support Korea, protect and defend homeland).*

Teacher B’s words vividly described how dogmatic the current exam is! For the exam requires students to answer the question in a certain way using a fixed number of characters.
Not only teachers, but also students care about exam and skills of getting points in the exam. For example:

Segment 33 (Reference c1):

*S: teacher, say again the standard answer.*

*A: (the standard answer is) discussing the construction of space elevator, or discussing to build the space elevator. Some students said there was no subject in this sentence, it is okay, no problem.*

Segment 34 (reference c7):

*A: . . . okay, you answer the question.*

*S: teacher, how much does this question score?*

*A: don’t ask how much it counts, just answer the question as much as you can. (Teacher response)*

*Student gave response.*

Through my studying the data, I realized that it is not only the teacher that cares about the “standard” answer, but the students as well. This can be detrimental to young individuals as the examination oriented education makes them become doctrinal. As teacher A mentioned in segment 33, “Some students said there was no subject in this sentence, it is okay, no problem.” Students want to get an omnipotent formula to solve all the problems, but not all problems fit one formula. In segment 36 before answering the question this student even asked, “Teacher, how much does this question score?” Students dive into skills pertaining to the exam instead of reading comprehension. The
current examination system trains them to be like this, which is a major barrier to successful implementation of the NCR.

*Purpose of Dialogue: Ability Oriented*

In order to cultivate student’s ability, teacher C always encouraged students to ask questions, dare to guess, and allow students to express ideas in their own words. Students can express ideas freely in her class and she accepted students making mistake. Here is an example:

Segment 35 (reference b2)

*P1-C:* . . . where does life come from? What’s your opinion?

*P2-S1:* at beginning people believe creationism, later after study, people understand that all the things are not created by God but by derived from single-celled organism in the ocean. Life started in the water, such as trilobites. Then life evolved from ocean to land, and then evolved over.

*P3-C:* what else?

*P4-S2:* teacher, I want to add something to what S1 had said. According to Bible, God creates everything on the earth, thus at first beginning, people believe creationism, but later people gradually found that life-form evolved from single-celled organism to multi-celled organism in the ocean and then becomes a whole.

*P5-C:* what is the theory you mentioned above?
P6-S2: it is marine evolution.

P7-C: em, who else know about where is the first life from?

P8-S3: teacher, the Bible says that God creates human and so on, like what Sz said just now that at beginning people believe God creates human. But then, until now, when we talk about life is from ocean, in the end is the origin of life from the original marine or from an impact where by a star flied over in the universe with the earth?

P9-C: related with the alien.

P10-S3: yes, the debate is the star impacted the land first or dropped into the ocean, where the origin life may come from, this is the reason why it has not been proved in the end where the origin of life is from.

P11-C: now here we got God creationism, life grew from nothing from the water of ocean, life from universe, anyone else has opinion about this topic, from what you heard or you guess?

This segment shows teacher asks student’s opinion on “the origin of life”, students respond. During this procedure, the students’ responses are much longer than the teacher’s question, and throughout this process the teacher respected the students by not interrupting them or jumping into the student’s answer to make comments. When the students finished their part of the dialogue the teacher did provide comments – not on the student’s answers, but rather their attitude and way of learning. For example, she
once responded, “I’m very pleased that no matter which theory you believe, the more important is we learn a way of analyzing and solving problem, namely, how we deal with the matter of science.” Her teaching behavior is consistent with the NCR’s concept that “teachers in teaching process should handle the proper relationship between imparting knowledge and developing abilities” (Ministry of Education of China, 2001, p. 3). In teacher C’s class, the ability of thinking and questioning is highly encouraged. Later in this class (reference b2) she guided students to analyze each theory about “the origin of life”.

Encourage Students to Guess & Accept Student Making Mistakes

Segment 36 (reference b3)

C: For crops, it’s not your fault for not knowing about them, as we do not have such experience with them.

Segment 37 (reference b7)

C: today we learnt that if we want to know if it is heredity or aberrance, we should look at traits, then what controls traits?

Speculate bravely, not afraid to say, what is it? ... No matter your speculation is correct or wrong, you speculate, you will explore something.

Segment 38 (reference b7)

C: speak out bravely.
S: how about the answer is wrong?

C: not afraid of incorrect answer.

The above segments show teacher C trusted students to speculate, to guess, to explore. It appears that she believed students had the capability to construct knowledge. Teacher C is trying to build an atmosphere in which students dare to speak out and express their ideas. From segment 38 we can see that students did not dare to express, probably they are not allowed to express ideas previously or in the other teacher’s class.

Understanding Student’s Developmental Status

Segment 39 (reference b1)

C: now you are at Grade two, your thinking is developing from concrete thinking to abstract thinking, it’s an important stage, if you can leap over this stage, you will adapt to future study in high school, if not, you remain at the concrete level of thinking of which elementary students should be...today I would like to let you try to use abstract thinking, in fact, the process is to establish a logical relationship. Just now some students mentioned “logic”, but before “logic”, you should have a framework, then think or figure out the link between or among the relation.
Teacher C is very much aware of students’ developmental status – the transition of thinking. Her dialogue with students showed that she facilitated students within the zone of proximal development.

In the education context, the purpose of dialogue was revealed as examination oriented and ability oriented in this study. The classroom dialogue reflects that some teachers care about examination more than student’s ability, they even reflected this thought to students which made students believe that the aim of education is for exam. However, the New Curriculum Reform calls for the other way which is more ability oriented. For this purpose, teacher should build the learning environment, guide student’s learning activity, help students locate knowledge and integrate it into their own experience; it is the student’s task to inquire, explore information, develop in understanding and ability to manage their lives and to participate productively. Besides that, the findings also revealed that for ability oriented purpose, teacher accepted students’ mistakes, which accords with the concept of pragmatic education perspective that students are allowed to make mistakes and experience the consequences of their mistakes, as it is believed that it is the only way students can become more self-correcting (Gutek, 1997).
4.2.6 Speaker’s (Teacher) Authority: Dictating vs. Appropriate Authority

From the perspective of speaker’s (teacher) authority, the analyses revealed two types of authority: dictating and appropriate authority (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dictating:</td>
<td>a dictating teacher listens very little to the student and tends to dictate what the student should do all the time. Teacher frequently uses external measures of control, such as discipline, giving orders and instructions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate authority:</td>
<td>teacher who possesses appropriate authority gives students freedom within limits, sets up appropriate boundaries, she accepts student’s inquiry, and dares to admit own mistakes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Diagram of Speaker’s Authority](image)

*Figure 4.6. Speaker’s authority.*
From Figure 4.6, we can see that in the classroom, teacher maintains her authority figure in two different ways. Dictating teacher holds her authority position through giving orders or instruction on aspects of discipline, rote learning, and emphasizing extremely uniform behavior, such as the way of marking the textbook. While teacher who has appropriate authority would like to accept student’s inquiry, set up appropriate boundary, dare to admit own mistake and make self-reflection, give gentle critique to change student’s unexpected behavior.

*Dictating: Discipline*

Segment 40 (reference c7)

*A: take your note books out, you can only put materials related to Chinese subject, put other stuff away . . . later I will go to check, if I find other stuff, I will clean for you!*

Teacher A gave a lot of instructions in term of discipline to her class, she also very much emphasized the procedure of answering questions.

Segment 41 (reference c5)

*P1-A: well, regarding contemporary literature, I said very clearly last Friday, I asked you guys to paste the reading materials in a notebook, bound together. Now let us look at the first article . . . listen carefully to my request. I ask students to read this article by paragraph, you must read loudly, calibrate the pronunciation, if*
there is any pronunciation that you are not sure please point it out.

Okay, don’t waste other’s time, start from first paragraph. S1.

P2-S1 read the paragraph.

P3-A: alright, next one.

P4-S2 read the paragraph.

P5-A: this word you pronounced correctly. Hán jìn, okay.

P6-S2 continued to read the paragraph.

P7-A: okay, sit down, next one.

P8-S3 read the paragraph.

P9-A: how to pronounce this word? Hold your paper when you read!

P10-S4 corrected the pronunciation of that word and continued to read the paragraph.

This segment shows teacher A’s dictating teaching style. Before reading, teacher A clarified the requirements that should be followed. During the student’s reading the teacher sometimes jumped in and calibrated the pronunciation, as well as changed student’s non-acceptable behavior; such as “Hold your paper when you read!” When the teacher asked a row of students to read the article, she said “next one” instead of calling out the student’s name. This segment also portrays that teacher A wishes the class procedure to flow smoothly, without incorrect answers, to use her words, “don’t waste other’s time”. During this process, students are parts of the procedure, served for her
purpose and need of teaching. If all the students gave correct answers then what is the meaning of analyzing the article in class?

*Dictating: Memory Training/Rote*

One learning method that is emphasized and advocated in teacher B’s class is rote learning.

Segment 42 (reference h3):

*B: read quickly! Memorize what you need to! Put into your mind!*

Segment 43 (reference h3)

*B: you have only three seconds, close your textbook, force yourself to memorize.*

*Dictating: Marking Textbook/ Taking Notes*

Teacher B has special requirement for marking the textbook and drawing down key points.

Segment 44 (reference h3):

*B: open the textbook, page two, second paragraph, draw down. The second page of textbook, paragraph two . . . (teacher read the material which is needed to be drawn down) . . . draw it down, square frame the term “the central government committee”. . .*
Segment 45 (reference h4):

B: turn to page 20, due to time limitation, let's mark the key points.

Time – September 1954, location – Beijing, next to the name of meeting – you write down the shortened form as “the first session of NPC”, you can use the shortened form – “the first session of NPC” in exam. The last paragraph of page 20, write fast! . . . Mark it out on page 20, put the time together when you answer the exam paper.

Segment 44 and 45 show how teacher B instructs students to mark key points in the textbook, even including which page to mark, what to mark, with which kind of symbols. Actually, teacher B mentioned several times in class about marking key points in the textbook neatly, correctly, and uniformly. For example, “one day when we have time I have to check all your textbooks to make sure you all mark the key point correctly, we have to prepare for high school entrance exam” (reference h5); “write answers down where I ask you to, so that when we review in grade three you can easily find answer as others” (reference h7). At the time of marking textbook, teacher B became very dictating. Teaching tasks and motivation of learning are all driven by the examination.
Appropriate Authority: Accept Student’s Inquiry & Admit Own Mistakes

Segment 46 (reference b5)

C: today I will praise S1 (student’s name is coded), about sexual propagation, last time I said that animals are all sexual propagation, some students inquired me, but didn’t provide evidence. Now how to deny my statement? After that day’s class, S1 did research, collected some information and passed them to me. Actually some animals could be agamogenesis, there are very few cases. S1, can you please explain to us?

Teacher C accepted student’s inquiry and admitted her mistake honestly. She brought the topic to the classroom, and clarified her mistake publicly. By doing this, she did not weaken her authority; on the contrary, she enhanced her charming personality. Besides, she impressed the information that “teacher is not necessary better than her students, nor students inferior to their teacher” (cited from Shishuo, means On Teacher, Yu Han, 802 AD). She set student S1 as an example, showed other students an approach of how to solve problems by themselves – through researching.
Appropriate Authority: Make Self-Reflection

Segment 47 (reference b3)

C: . . . he can write such a good essay because he found a problem.

We cannot foster such person, because we did not give students

opportunity to ask questions.

Segment 48 (reference h5)

B: . . . I moved too fast, let’s open the textbook, and revisit this

part . . . I really didn’t elaborate this part thoroughly.

Segment 49 (Reference b2)

Once in the classroom teacher C said to students,

“The last words of famous scientist – Xuesen Qian, inquired China’s education. That is ‘why we cannot foster talented people in China?’

nowadays in the world, the most important indicator or standard of evaluating talented people is Nobel Prize. There are Chinese among Nobel Prize winners, but they rarely received basic education in China.

That means our basic education has a big problem. I don’t blame your kids, it’s not your fault, and it’s the problem of our way of education, because we do not allow students to ask questions, therefore, our students do not know what to do when asked to do research.”
By making self-reflection, teacher admitted in front of students that there was something she should have done but she did not. Some teachers might believe self-disclosure would not benefit for establishing authority, while on the contrary, students like a teacher whose words are consistent with her action. Being honest also can show a teacher’s personality.

Appropriate Authority: Set up Boundary

Any healthy relationship needs setting up a clear and appropriate boundary, so does teacher-student rapport. There is a proverb in China, “nothing can be accomplished without norms or standards”. Teacher B set up her boundary by telling students the rules before activity.

Segment 50 (reference h1)

B: no one can speak out the answer without permission or tell others the answer, if you violate the rules, first, you deprive others’ opportunity of thinking, and secondly, you will be punished.

No rules, no play. The rules established by teacher B reflects her democratic spirit. Students cannot answer the questions without the teacher’s permission, which is fair to the student whose turn it is. In other words, the student whose turn it is has the right to answer the question. Teacher B hopes her students can respect each other’s rights and independent thinking.
Teacher C gives freedom of expressing ideas to students, encourages students to learn actively, to guess, and accepts students’ mistakes. But she also has her limits and boundaries.

Here is the case; when talking about chromosomal abnormality, teacher C showed some pictures by multi-media and asked students to read the words attached. Some students felt funny and laughed.

Segment 51 (reference b5):

C: I would like to say the students who laughed just now, maybe were thinking something else in your mind. In fact, we learn gender difference, it is normal physiological knowledge, if someone laughs, I feel he is thinking of something else.

Segment 52 (reference b5):

C: . . . I feel this trend (ethos) should not appear in our class. First, the condemnation is lack of respect for others, we live together, and respecting others is the basic line. Mislabeling is disrespectful. I didn't think it happened in our class, it didn't happen in Class one just now.

When students’ unexpected behavior came out, teacher C cut it off immediately; she did not point out the student’s name, but expressed her opinion and attitude toward it. In teacher C’s words, “respecting others is the basic line”.

She let students know, she likes students to express and share ideas, but she has boundaries and limits in terms of student’s behavior and attitude. It is very
important to let students know teacher’s boundary; it is also beneficial for establishing appropriate teachers’ authority.

Appropriate Authority: Gentle Critique

In the classroom, teacher does not only play the role of teacher in terms of teaching, she is also a protector and vindicator to maintain order in the class. Teacher uses gentle critique or jokes to change a non-acceptable behavior of student to an acceptable pattern, which is a more acceptable way for the student.

Segment 53 (reference h7)

B: I believe civilized people will not express their opinions until others finish.

Segment 54 (reference c1)

C: today you are over-excited, need to calm down. Let’s calm down by figuring out three questions which were proposed by students last time. The first one was proposed by S1 . . . (S1 said he forgot his question, teacher continued to say) his mind is occupied by robot (S1 participated after school activity of designing robot), never mind, next question.

Gentle critique demonstrates teacher’s inclusion to students, and teacher C achieved the goal of letting students calm down in a relaxing atmosphere.

In the education context, teacher does have certain authority among students, as she is a more experienced and capable person, who can apprehend the student’s
existence, while a student is unable to comprehend the complexity of the teacher’s personality (Yaron, 1993). Thus teacher has to develop a proper initiative to join the students (Voloshinov, 1986, p. 86) as the “first among equals” (Doll, 2000). Teacher could possess an appropriate authority as long as she influences her students through sharing without interfering in their lives (Buber, 1958); she admits her own mistakes honestly. As Hogan (2000) posits, teachers are just as much learners as their students.

4.3 Types of Teacher-Student Rapport

Two types of teacher-student rapport emerged from the description of characteristics of classroom dialogue; they are bonded teacher-student rapport and teacher-centered teacher-student rapport.

4.3.1 Bonded Teacher-Student Rapport

In a bonded teacher-student rapport, teacher listens to the students’ opinions and encourages them to express ideas; she has meaningful dialogue with students, and knows when to lead and when to follow, in order to cultivate the student’s abilities; she establishes appropriate authority, and gives students freedom within limits.
As described in Table 4.6, bonded teacher-student rapport is represented by the stated themes and following categories/codes. The bonded rapport is dialogic, it resembles the ‘I-Thou’ relation which Buber proposed, and is also advocated by the NCR. A bonded teacher listens to students patiently, and encourages students to construct knowledge by themselves; she also encourages students to express their own ideas bravely, dare to guess and dare to make mistakes as well. The analyses reveal that teacher C has bonded and dialogic rapport with students.

In the educational context, there are two essential elements of the “I-Thou” relationship according to Buber (1958), which are confirmation and inclusion.
**Confirmation**

Confirmation requires teachers to affirm the student’s being as “he has been created to become” (Buber, 1958, p. 93), and assist students to find their unique personal direction. Teacher C affirms students’ being as they have been created to become as she is very aware of students’ developmental status; accordingly she gave understanding emotionally and cognitively. She understands student’s need of speaking, thus she encourages dialogue, which can be seen from the category/code such as: praise for thinking, social modeling, social persuasion and recognition; she engages the classroom dialogue through having meaningful dialogue with students whereby teacher C asked facilitating questions to let students think deeper and more.

**Inclusion**

In the classroom, inclusion means teacher has the ability to develop a dual sensation among those engaged in dialogue. I can see this feature in teacher C’s class. For instance, “I am so glad to see your learning style change!” (Reference b3) It is a good example of Buber’s concept of “inclusion”, which means “experiencing oneself and simultaneously perceiving the other in its singularity” (Yaron, 1993). By this sentence, teacher C declares both herself and her students’ presence and being in the classroom. She can see students and perceive their feelings as well.

Buber also pointed out that the teacher should influence her students through sharing, but not interfere in their lives. In other words, the teacher ought to dialogue with students as equal individuals, not to force students to accept the teacher’s
opinion at will. In the real class, students are relatively passive and tend to listen to
teacher’s orders and directions. Thus, the teacher has a responsibility to build a good
atmosphere for equal sharing. In teacher C’s class, she “dances” with students
through “meaningful connection”, which is sharing experiences and relating the
knowledge to the real world.

She has a dual sensation of herself and her students, thus she encourages
students to guess and accepts their mistakes; she made self-reflection in class to
reveal to students about her concerns and confusion, which also reflects that teacher
C treats students as equal individuals, therefore, she accepts student’s queries and
admits her own mistakes publicly and honestly (see Table 4.6).

The classroom dialogue between teacher C and the students revealed a lot
about teacher C’s education philosophy in terms of teacher-student rapport. Teacher
C’s rapport with students is bonded and dialogic (I-Thou relation), which is highly
advocated by the NCR.

4.3.2 Teacher-Centered Teacher-Student Rapport

In teacher-centered teacher-student rapport, teacher is in the dominant position, she
controls the classroom dialogue, often ignores student’s needs of speaking;
teaching-learning is mechanical and for purpose of examination; in this kind of
teacher-student rapport, teacher tends to be very dictating.
Teacher-centered teacher-student rapport is represented by the themes and categories/codes in Table 4.7. Teacher is the leader while student is the follower; in other words, student is a passive learner instead of exploring and constructing knowledge by himself or herself. Teacher pays much more attention on the teaching process than student’s learning process (which can be seen from the category/code such as: teacher dominate, suppressed desire, shallow dialogue, efficiency and so on); frequently giving instructions make students more dependent on teacher rather than independent thinking (such as: discipline, memory training and marking textbook).

In this study, the teacher-centered teacher-student rapport is represented by teacher A and teacher B. However, teacher B revealed that she does not want to
totally follow the traditional paradigm which is teacher-centered and examination oriented. She wants to have her own style which is more student-centered. Teacher B is a very authentic person, her struggle can be seen from classroom dialogue (which can be seen from categories of “change learning approach” and teacher dominate). Teacher B appeared to try hard to implement dialogue into teaching. She asks many questions in class (category of “shallow dialogue”), but most of them are checking simple facts (who, when, where question). That may be related to the nature of the history subject. She understands students and makes the quiz as a game, and gave students who failed to answer the question another chance. She also expressed her feelings to express her concern regarding students.

Teacher A is a dictating teacher. She expected students to follow her step, if not she would get angry (categories of direct critique and discipline). She tried hard to establish authority to make students listen to her, which caused her boundary to tighten, as she gives too much instruction and interferes in students’ active learning. She emphasized examination skill training (category of pursue standard answer and “exam” talk), which makes the teacher-student rapport become a mechanical working relationship.
4.4 The Factors Affecting Teacher-Student Rapport in the Classroom

The analyses revealed that overt factors, such as student’s academic achievement, class size, examination; and covert factors, such as teacher’s and student’s attitude toward each other, and toward learning and so on, affect teacher-student rapport in the classroom.

4.4.1 Students’ academic achievement affects teacher-student rapport

In this study, the sample school is implementing a different-level teaching approach, which means students are divided into two groups according to their academic achievements, and go to different classes on subjects of English and mathematics. Thus, in this research study, I referred to the approach of different-level teaching, and found that teachers tend to ask high achievement students to participate in class dialogue, especially in biology class and Chinese class. The difference is that, in biology class, the teacher usually asked students who wanted (raise up hands) to participate; in Chinese class, the teacher usually pointed to certain students to answer questions.

Besides, in interview with students, many of them who are in the middle level grade revealed that they feel very nervous, because they go back and forth to different classes according to their exam scores. They are happy to be in the high achievement class (usually top half of students), but next time if they do not achieve high marks, they come back to the low achievement class; thus, they suffer more pressure than students who are always in the high achievement class or low achievement class. The
competition is cruel. It is a challenge to their survival ability. And the visible hierarchy makes students believe that teachers show favoritism, as they said:

“Most teachers like high academic achievement students, actually very few teachers like low academic achievement students . . . Chinese teacher likes students who are good at Chinese, and English teacher likes students who are good at English.”

Students desire equal and harmonious teacher-student rapport without hierarchy, as proposed by the NCR, yet apparently this is missing. Although the NCR had already forbidden the practice of publishing students’ examination scores or ranking students according to the examination scores, it apparently still happens in this sample school, and I believe it happens in other schools also.

4.4.2 Class Size

Another overt factor which largely affects the teaching approach, communication and therefore affects teacher-student rapport, is class size. Both teachers and students mentioned the problem of over large class size. In the sample school, all the class sizes exceed 50 students. Some class sizes reached 80 or more students. The classroom is about 54 m² (9m × 6m), thus in this sample class, every student (including the teacher) has about 0.77 m² which contains a desk, a chair and a person. The teacher has more space, such as the platform, desk and the paths between rows. In the classroom, I noticed some students who were overweight had difficulty standing up.
The interviewed students preferred smaller class size, which means that there are about 30 to 50 students in one classroom. They gave the following reasons:

Firstly, it is easier for teachers to manage the class;

Secondly, all students will have the opportunity to communicate, to talk and express ideas;

Thirdly, the teacher will take care of every student’s need in the classroom.

Some students mentioned that students had different needs such as some liked to be paid attention to while others did not. A smaller class size could help teachers to get to know students’ individual differences better and deeper; the more teachers get to know students, the better they know how to teach students accordingly.

Teachers’ opinion on class size is more realistic. First, all the three teachers admitted class size affected teaching activity and teacher-student rapport; they believed the ideal class size is 20 to 40 students in one class. When talking about the examination-oriented education approach, they stated that the current class size did not affect teaching activity much; however it definitely affected teacher-student rapport.

The three teachers all believed that if there were fewer students, they would pay attention to every student. Furthermore, teacher C believed, from the international perspective of training persons with ability, teaching and teacher-student rapport are restricted by class size. Because teacher’s energy is limited, if in a small class, the teacher will know clearly the character of every student, and pay attention to the student’s special psychological needs and sudden change on time. Sometimes, teachers
could arrange the schedule and decide which students should be given a chance in this class.

Another problem of a large class size is that it makes teachers feel it is difficult to control and manage the class; therefore, it affects teachers’ patience in the classroom. That is the reason teachers sometimes ignore the student’s desire to initiate talk, or would not answer all the questions posed by students.

A document titled “Further Regulating School’s Behavior During Period of Compulsory Education” in 2010 clearly listed that “the class size should be strictly controlled, and shall not exceed 45 students in the elementary school classroom, shall not exceed 50 students in the middle school classroom” (Department of Education of Jilin Province, 2010).

The big population of this sample school and the limited resource of education caused the over large classes. Teacher C told me that there might be classes of some schools having 30 to 40 students in a class, but the quality of teaching would be not good as in the model school. This sample school was developed because of a “school-choose” mechanism, which was carried out in 1995. The school-choose mechanism allows for high-quality resources to be centralized to model schools; therefore, the difference between model schools and common schools grows larger and larger. Parents tend to send their children to model schools. The common schools sometimes could not recruit enough students. That is why there are many large schools with large class sizes.

The over large class size reflects the characteristics of mechanization and examination oriented of teacher-centered teacher-student rapport.
4.4.3 Evaluation System: Examination and Scores

From Teachers’ View

Teacher C explained to me that the current examination-oriented education is a short term, flat and fast approach; it is a factory of mechanization. The evaluation system highly emphasizes scores of the high school entrance exam and university entrance exam; in other words, the score is the only standard. All the students should be the same standard as a qualified product of a factory. Thus they have no strong points, because the current education system requires students to make up the weak points and not develop strong points.

From the view of a vice principal, teacher C highlighted that this sample school developed due to the implementation of the self-choose-school system; therefore, good reputation on scores and rate of entering high school attract parents to send their children to this school, even though they need to pay extra fees. Financial adequacy enables the school to perfect facilities and recruit good quality teachers.

Most of the teachers in the sample school are model teachers in the city, province, or in the whole nation. Achieving such awards as a model teacher is based on the scores of students taught. For example, teacher C mentioned that she got the senior title because the scores of the students in her common school exceeded the scores of students in the model school. This statement further underscores the fact that the scores are what motivate the teachers, besides presenting an element of pressure. Furthermore, the current evaluation system emphasizes teaching, not learning. In other words, in China, when evaluating a class, people pay attention to the teacher and his or her
teaching. While, in general, people pay attention to the students and their learning in foreign countries. For example, once a Singaporean teacher came to observe class teaching of this sample school and gave such comment: “I feel teachers are like actors in China”. Some teachers are even like stand-up comedians or storytellers; they need external focus and complete attention from students. Naturally students like actor teachers, because students sit in the classroom like audiences who cannot participate in class teaching and cannot talk without permission; they cannot maintain a long span of attention without feeling bored, hence they need something interesting to attract them. Thus, the comedian teachers are deemed to be successful and loved by students.

Teacher C said the current evaluation system restricts teaching style and affects teacher-student rapport. To be honest, teacher C can attempt to apply the concepts of the NCR in terms of building positive teacher-student rapport with students in her class and get good feedback and results because her subject is not an exam subject, which is a big factor in teacher-student rapport, because in this study, the other two teachers – teacher A and teacher B – suffered the pressure from exam as their teaching subjects are exam subjects.

The class dialogue shows a lot of teacher B’s struggle in facing the examination. On one hand, she wishes students to think more and ask questions initially; on the other hand she has to mention from time to time that “we have to take the exam”. She also mentioned that for the sake of scoring in the exam, she changed the student-centered approach to the teacher-centered approach.
When I interviewed her, she revealed to me that the previous semester she asked students to explore, construct and teach the class by themselves, it was student-centered where teacher listened to students, students treated teacher as a person on their side; the teacher was a helper and protector who could help students to prepare the class and add or correct some points. However, the exam scores were not as satisfying as she expected (full mark is 60, when teacher B said the scores of exam were not very satisfying, she explained that not enough students got full marks, the scores of the rest were between 55 and 59) and she therefore had to revert her more traditional teaching method; despite the fact that she admitted preferring the student-centered approach to teaching, she stated that teacher-student rapport was definitely changed as the teaching approach changed. The extreme stress on scores makes students became the ones who are high marks achievers with low abilities and skills. It definitely distances teachers from students, as teacher cares more about scores than students’ development.

Teacher B pointed out that for sure she liked the teacher-student rapport when the class is student-centered; now she changed to the exam-orientated approach again which she does not like but has to implement. She mentioned, in her recent two classes, in order to finish the teaching task, she spent time instructing students to mark the textbook. She said, “if some students didn’t mark the textbook, I have to remind them, tell them to mark, even asked them after class ‘what were you doing in class?’, then I have to check their textbooks one by one. That has really truly become examination-orientated education.” She is still exploring, unlike teacher C whose subject is not an exam subject, she needs to balance the exam and her educational thoughts, to use her
words, “many times I wish to let students to obtain the knowledge actively, however, it apparently could not work out with exam. I didn’t find the solution yet.”

Teacher A chose to accept the reality of exam. To use her words, “I no more deprecate anything.” As a dictating teacher, she is more suitable for examination-oriented education. She revealed to me that, “I start to care about exam skill. No matter you like the exam skill or not, no matter if the exam skill is of benefit for students’ development, it will be a passport for students to go to high school and college.”

In the current evaluation system examination largely influences teacher’s teaching approach and teacher-student rapport. Under this evaluation system, teachers try to get their needs met – confirmed by the school, recognized by parents and students, therefore a lot of time students’ needs are sacrificed. Sometimes teachers also sacrifice their education ideals. To use teacher C’s words, “when putting into practical level of teachers, no matter how wonderful the concept is, it is ideality. Teachers have to face the reality. Actually I have confusion too. On one hand I consider student’s follow-up development, such as their development in high school, college, even in the workplace; on the other hand, I have to face and guarantee students will not screw up in the high school entrance exam.”
From the Students’ View

All students mentioned that they suffered from the pressure of the exam, also pressure from parents and teachers.

“I am nervous about my English marks, because I didn’t do well in last few exams, and my father would be angry with me because he paid a lot of tuition fee for it.”

“I already treat going to school as a habit, like eating and sleeping (laugh) . . . I want to learn what I want, study is my own interest, and I feel learning is not only for money, because learning does not necessary bring money . . . however, I am a little utilitarian, my parents bought a new condo recently and spent a lot of money, my mother hopes my score of high school entrance exam can reach the line by which she will not need to pay too much money for my school fees, and she can decorate the new condo in order to move in sooner . . . ”

“Exam makes me nervous, and so does the list ranked according to students’ marks, sometimes I can’t persuade myself . . . ”

“Sometimes I feel nervous before exam, but more pressure is from me. My parents didn’t give me too much pressure, but intangibly I set up pressure for myself, I worry that if I don’t do well in exam I will disappoint my parents, or feel ashamed among peers.”
“The purpose of study is for a good life, but for now, the purpose is to take exam . . . student’s pressure comes from different aspects, for example, I’m always the top one student in exam, if once or several times I don’t come first, I feel very ashamed and couldn’t persuade myself . . . then parents will ask ‘what’s your problem?’, teacher will talk to you and ask ‘why you didn’t do well this time’, classmates also ask the same thing . . .”

When students suffered a lot of exam pressure, the teacher-student rapport will be pressed and twisted. Both teacher and student will not be comfortable to be in a stressful relationship because the pressure will affect them.

4.4.4 The attitudes of teachers and students

Several aspects of attitude on the part of the teachers and students in the classroom are revealed: students’ favoritism on teacher; students’ needs from teacher; teacher’s attitude toward students and teacher-student rapport; and teacher’s and student’s attitude toward study.

Students’ favoritism on teacher: I like teacher who is . . . I don’t like teacher who is . . .

According to interviews held with the students, the following honored and dishonored characteristics of teachers were revealed regarding students’ feelings toward teachers they like:

“As close as friends, superficial friendship doesn’t count!”
“Honest is most important, teachers must get along with students honestly . . .

I like teacher who can convince students by example.”

“I like teacher who can explain the problem clearly, well-organized and orderly, not rigid . . . I don't like teacher who is only concerned about her favorite students, talks nonsense or yells at students . . . I like XXX teacher, because he has correct attitude of being a human, and he doesn’t feel to be superior to rule on the students . . .”

“I like teacher who has good temper, patient, very sunny, kind of like to encourage students . . . I like friendly teacher-student relationship, no hierarchy, everyone is equal, but it hasn’t realized until now (laugh) . . .”

“Male teacher should be like a brother, female teacher firstly shouldn’t be like a termagant, no violence, should be good to students, but she is not mother style . . . relationship needs to be harmonious, she is the person we can talk to . . . teacher shouldn’t watch as like a police, she can have requirement, but not too strict, should give us some space, if head teacher, beautiful is the best . . . if I were a teacher I would like to find out the ins and outs of my class to learn the truth, and employ the most appropriate way to manage, build rapport with students, became the same front comrades . . .”
“I like XXX teacher because of two things, first, he is knowledgeable . . . secondly because of his personality charm, he is very optimistic for life, which is our extremely desirable state . . . ”

“The humor of teacher can attract us firmly . . . I don’t like teacher who is verbose, teacher should teach neck and crop, cannot grumble all the time . . . ”

“Teacher’s emotion should be very gentle, yet gentle there should be full of passion which can drive our enthusiasm of learning . . . ”

“I think teacher should possess affinity, not too strict. Good teacher is strict to student in class, but be friend with students after class . . . ”

“I like teacher who is kind, doesn’t assign too much homework . . . kind means she doesn’t grizzle at will . . . don’t criticize student in front of class, or there will be a great negative impact on student’s self-esteem . . . ”

“I like XXX’s class, it’s relaxing, harmonious, I don’t feel tired, and I like to listen, feel happy . . . ”

“I think if teacher says she loves students, she should prove by actions, not just always say ‘I love these children’.”
Nearly all the students like teachers who are friendly, kind, patient, knowledgeable, genuine, optimistic, possess affinity, sense of humor, full of passion, have charming personality, can understand them and are consistent in words and action.

They also emphasized that the teacher is not a mother, or police, but a friend who can discuss with them. In China, most of parents are dictating parents. They listen very little to the child and tend to dictate what the child is to do at all times. These parents often use external measures of control, such as criticism, beatings, yelling and belittling. The negative is always set upon; the positive is not commented upon enough. The child has very little opportunity to make personal decisions and learns never to question his or her parents. These parents truly believe that they are doing what is best for the child. Chinese teacher’s style is very much like Chinese parents’ parenting style. Chinese teachers tend to be very dictating and controlling, give students very few opportunities to explore and discover. That is the reason students long for teachers having different style from parents.
Students need understanding from teacher

From students’ comments, it appears that students did not get as much experience of having non-dictating teachers as they wanted. Students felt teachers did not understand them; they said “students seldom tell their confusion to teachers, because generally speaking, student’s confusion cannot be understood by teachers, thus, in this aspect, teacher cannot solve doubts . . . I think teacher as an adult will have a one-sided idea when they look at us with a commanding point of view.” Students do not feel comfortable telling teachers about their problems or issues; they think teachers either do not understand them or tend to misunderstand them, which creates distance between teacher and student.

When talking about current teacher-student rapport, students said:

“Our teacher’s education makes us more and more naive, but we already exceed the level of development as she thought, even we don’t care what teacher says, but we still pretend to be very obedient . . . because teacher and student cannot be real friends, they come from different classes, teacher largely influences student’s psychological development and interest during school years, students definitely have such thought to teacher, like fear or pleasing, but I think there are only a few cases that teacher and students communicate very well and achieve a higher level of teacher-student relationship, but generally speaking, teacher can only take care of a few students, in current situation with so big class size and so many students, teacher is unlikely treat every student particularly attentive.”
Students need understanding from teachers. From the previous segment, it appears that students are not satisfied with the current teacher-student rapport; however, most of them chose to comply or at least pretend to comply when they learnt the situation could not be changed.

Despite the fact that such genuine rapport between the teacher and students is missing, the students still behave obediently, as the fake and pretending rapport prevalently exists. Generally speaking, students tend to respect teachers; it is related to Chinese culture, as we always say “he who teaches me for one day is my father for life”. They also believed that teachers are criticizing them because they care about them, and they rather prefer that as opposed to the teacher ignoring them or leaving the classroom.

Students need validation from teacher

“I like XXX teacher, because she likes me, and appreciate me . . . I like teacher who really loves us, can express her true feelings and emotions, if she is angry with us she will criticize us, then we will know she really cares about us, I don’t like some teachers who get angry and leave the class.”

Students tend to like teachers who appreciate them, in other words, validate them, or give them enough validation. They also told which kind of teacher they did not like; they dislike teachers who talk nonsense, are verbose, too strict, or criticize students in front of the class. Students believed it would be better if the teacher solved the problem with students privately, as confronting students negatively in front of their peers may cause them to suffer psychological trauma.
Teacher’s Attitudes Toward Students and Teacher-Student Rapport

The three teachers did not mention their preference for certain students. But all of them mention a word – respect. They believe that the teacher should respect students and love them. Middle school students are in the period of adolescent development, they long for attention and to be understood by others. Teachers should respect students’ personalities. However, according to the interviews with students, it seems students do not always feel that way as teachers said. The three teachers’ opinions on teacher-student rapport are as follows:

“Deal anything with students, teacher cannot overreact; she has to help student work out the problem in a normal range, lead student to go back on right track.”

“Truly respect students, first of all, remember students’ names.”

“Be real close to students, get to know them.”

“Actually all the teachers have thoughts that teacher should respect student, but when come to the practical level, teachers always think that student is a child, while teacher is an adult, thus in this way, we fail to truly respect student, first of all, we even didn’t give the speaking right to students . . . I think equality should be embodied as students have something they knew well, I have something I knew well, we need to share...when students ask something I don’t know, I admit frankly . . . ”
“When teacher respects student’s needs, there will be good teacher-student rapport.”

“Teacher-student rapport equals to the quality of teaching.”

“Teaching is my happiest moment; I like to be together with students.”

“Teacher’s work is different from other jobs, it needs to communicate with students emotionally. Because teacher’s work aims to cultivate people, not just deliver knowledge mechanically.”

“. . . Let student accept you by heart, then from acceptance to liking you, and love your subject...more important is to let students recognize you and therefore recognize your subject, because students in middle school age, they are sensible, but not so rational, thus for sensible students, if you force them to do something, they will revolt, the things they revolt will not be recognized by heart . . . provide students a fair environment of competition.”

“Go into students’ world, can make appropriate jokes, and show the impression of weakness properly. Let students know that teachers also need to be taken care of, let students know appreciation, so that they can treat parents and others in same way. Educating people is a very hard and also very happy thing, especially
when you see children become better and better day by day, I believe teaching
them to behave is more important than imparting knowledge. Because students
of this generation are more selfish, they get too much attention since childhood.”

From the teachers’ perspectives several points can be detected.

First, all the teachers believe respect is the premise of positive teacher-student
rapport. The teacher should respect students and their personalities.

Second, teachers as adults should build rapport with students initially, get into
the students’ world to understand them and what they need from teachers, and at the
same time show their own personality and charm to obtain student’s recognition.

Third, positive teacher-student rapport benefits the subject and teacher’s
teaching. Only when students recognize the teacher will they recognize the subject the
teacher teaches. Some students told me that sometimes they did not like the teacher, and
therefore did not like to study the subject.

Last but not least, teacher’s authority needs to be weakened.

From the attitudes of the teachers and students we can see that students hope to
have a genuine, friendship rapport with teachers. The premise is that the teacher can
understand them. The teachers’ concern is based on the subjects they teach; they hope
students can love and learn the subject better through liking them.

Generally speaking, most of the teachers believe they know students well;
however, actually they only know part of them, for example, when the teacher talked
about “the students of this generation are too selfish . . . ”, by saying this she killed the motivation of the whole generation. She is too opinionated to make such a conclusion.

Teacher A believed she knew why students lack concentration in class. She said:

“First, nowadays, students are influenced by external environment, such as entertainment . . . secondly, I think they don't obtain real joy from learning, in other words, they don’t develop confidence . . . so many students, we really cannot help all the students develop confidence and obtain joy . . . sometimes I think they need a relevant person to help or guide.”

Teacher A pointed out the problem – low confidence of students, but she did not know the reason. Similar to Chinese parenting style, dictating teachers tend to produce low-confidence students. Students’ lack of concentration is also because of the educating style, the single and invariable teaching approach makes students feel bored. However, teacher A mentioned a notable point that “I think they need a relevant person to help or guide”, which is very true.

When students enter the adolescent years, they can be very rebellious. Adolescent students have their own characters; if teachers lack knowledge of adolescent psychology, sometimes they will abuse or traumatize them. As students said, “Don’t criticize student in front of class, or there will be a great negative impact on student’s self-esteem”. Another thing is that it is good to educate students regarding the hard work and dedication of teachers and parents, but over talking about this and forcing students to be thankful can be considered a form of emotional abuse. Students preferred teachers to prove their love and care by actions, not just by talking. In other words, action is
more important than words. Teachers should improve their inner quality, personality, and charm.

Teacher A posed a question, “as a subject teacher, how to motivate students’ enthusiasm to participate in the subject?” In her opinion, students failed to finish their homework from her subject and disliked to participate in her class activity because she is a subject teacher, not the head teacher. From the perspective of teacher A who is a subject teacher, there is the belief that students must complete the work from the head teacher first; however, according to the students, they prefer the subject teacher over the head teacher because, “she (the head teacher) is like a mother, we don’t want a mother, we want a friend.” I can infer that Chinese style mothers tend to be very dictating who listen very little to the child. Thus, the child has very little opportunity to make personal decisions. Children learn never to question their mothers. As a result the child usually has low self-esteem, but the mothers truly believe that they are doing what is the best for the child (Baranovich, 2008). During adolescent years, as the children explore very little, thus their identity status tends to be foreclosed, namely living a life as parents plan; or identity diffusion, which means the child is stuck and does not know what to do or where to go.

*Students’ Attitudes Toward Study – Why Do I Study?*

Students’ attitudes to study are different. Nearly all the students believe that, at present, studying is for the purpose of the exam; in other words, to achieve high marks in the
exam. Thus, their study focuses on actual effect and substantial results. Some students admitted that they were a little utilitarian. For example, one student said:

“Now teacher’s lecture has nothing to do with exam. To be honest, my score of Chinese was excellent when I was in elementary school, I won second prize in a composition contest before, but according to standard of composition of high school entrance exam, the techniques I used before are irrelevant now.”

A few students pointed out that, if we look at the whole picture, for future development, study is for the purpose of application and improving the quality of oneself.

“The purpose of study is to achieve good marks, then go to good high school, later find a good job, in short, it is for a bright future . . . I like pleasing atmosphere in class, which can make me laugh, I think there is more fun after school than in school . . . of course, my pressure is more or less from academic achievement.”

“Frankly speaking, I think there are two purposes of study, first, study is for examination, at least in current situation . . . if talking the further development, I think study is for the purpose of application, you need to apply what you have leant to real life . . . and improve the quality of students, because the people’s quality links to the country’s competitive level . . . ”
“The purpose of study is to establish a sound personality, ability of thinking and rational mind . . . learning per se is a pleasing thing, while school learning is not pleasing . . . I hope the curriculum is more conductive to future development.”

When students believe the purpose of study is to achieve high marks in examinations, teacher-student rapport becomes a kind of working relation. Teacher produces students as examination machines to work on practice sheet, quiz sheet and exam sheet mechanically, aiming at getting high marks in the exam, which has nothing to do with all-rounded development of students. However some students realized that learning is not only about exams.

Interview with students revealed that students believed that study per se is a pleasing thing; the reason they do not like school is because they feel school restricts their freedom; on the other hand, they like to go to school mainly because they can meet friends and classmates. In other words, if they have company in school they will not feel lonely or bored like at home.

“If one is interested in study, he will find fun, if one is not, then he will find pain . . . the current society doesn’t pay attention to one’s specific interest, but requires mastering all the subjects . . . I think we can focus on our interested subject, but still don’t give up the subject which we are not so interested in . . . ”
“I don’t like school; here we are like caged bird.”

“I’m happy to go to school, because I can see my friends and classmates . . .”

Some students are confused about the purpose of study; they do not know why they study, even though they already believe and treat study as a habit.

“To be honest, I don’t know why we study, the elders say we study for our own good and to have a bright future, but I think people cannot always think of the future, we live now; thus I think I study because now I can do nothing except learning, I should study, not for future but for now . . .”

Maslow believed that true education could help students explore their own identity and vocation. Rogers (1961) pointed out that true education should enable every individual “to be that self which one truly is”. However, the findings reveal that the current education system does not run that way.

Marcia (1966) defines adolescence as a period to attain “identity status” through “Crisis and Commitment”. It means that adolescent students will experience a period of conscious decision making through exploration and discovery to find out their own orientation of lifestyle, occupation, belief and so on. During the period of exploration, they will largely be influenced by teachers, parents and peers. Even though students would like to explore and discover, teachers and parents do not provide the opportunity. Once teacher C said, “these children are the most unfortunate generation, they maybe have abundant material, but they are imprisoned.” The NCR advocates that schools and teachers should try their best to build an open and dynamic class which makes the
teaching activities go into nature and society; explore various teaching forms which enable a close connection with natural and social reality. The sample school does very well on this point; the school organizes students to participate in social practice regularly, such as experiencing rural country life, visiting historical places and so on; the principal invited famous writers, professors, and Olympic athletes to give speeches for students in order to provide a chance for students to get to know society, and other lifestyles. However, most of the time, the students still sit in the classroom, listen to instruction, learn passively, and do exercises through drill and rote. If teachers want to change students’ learning style and view of study, first of all, teacher’s teaching style needs to be changed. When students are confused about the purpose of study, teacher is obligated to help students to figure it out in a correct and positive way, or students will not develop the sense of trust in their teacher. Unfortunately, many students are misled by their teachers and parents and believe the purpose of study is for examination.

Teacher’s Attitude Toward Study

All the three teachers agree with the saying – “building open and active class, enabling students to obtain knowledge”. When facing the reality of exams, they feel confused and struggled as the score is a big pressure for teachers. However, the score is the most important standard for evaluating both teacher and student.

“I was very painful last semester, my score of last semester (was not very good) . . . because last semester I asked students to handle the class, to teach and talk by themselves, then finally the implementation of key points of
knowledge was certainly not as good as other teachers who led students to memorize and practice repeatedly.” (Teacher B)

Teacher C, who is also the vice principal of the sample school pointed out, “learning is everyone’s need for growth . . . however, our educating style makes students feel like learning is something they do for parents or teachers, because teachers and parents emphasize ‘study hard’ every day . . . ”

Actually, the New Curriculum Reform (NCR) tried to change student’s concept on learning from “being asked to study” to “I want to study”. The journey is long, if the NCR wants to change the student’s concept it should change the concept of teachers and parents first. The New Curriculum Reform has already been implemented for about 10 years; in the observation, I can see some changes that were called for by the NCR. However, a lot of the time, I feel the class teaching is similar to the time before the NCR implementation. Change as a concept is a slow and long journey; it needs all the involved parts to cooperate. Concept decides action. But no matter how the New Curriculum Reform goes, teacher and students always need to work in a positive teacher-student rapport.
4.5 Current Problems and Vice Principal’s Expectations

Current Problems

Besides the factors discussed in the previous section, such as over large class size and the evaluation system, in interviews with teachers, they point out other problems that teachers face, especially teacher C, who has another role as a vice principal of the sample school. Based on her role as a vice principal and her experiences, teacher C believes her understanding on theory of NCR in terms of teacher-student rapport is deeper and better than normal teachers, thus she contributed more knowledge from her point of view.

Concepts not consistent with actions

First, teachers’ concepts are not consistent with their actions. For example, teachers all have the idea that they should respect students. However, when putting this into action, teachers provide few chances for students to express ideas or explore by themselves. From this point, teacher C believed that teacher-student rapport is affected by teaching style. She stated that the main difference between Chinese education and Western education is that our education is slogan, while in the West education is based on application. As she went to America to visit middle schools, she accepts the way of teaching in America, admired the way teacher builds rapport with students, but she honestly admits that she finds difficulty in applying the American ways of education into Chinese class. One reason is she does not feel comfortable implementing application based learning approach because she, including other teachers, has never
been taught in that way; the other reason is, students do not know what to do, they are used to following the teacher’s instruction. It is related to early programming, as they were taught to be passive learners since childhood.

Once in the classroom teacher C said to students, “the last words of famous scientist – Xuesen Qian, inquired China’s education. That is “why we cannot foster talented people in China?” nowadays in the world, the most important indicator or standard of evaluating talented people is Nobel Prize. There are Chinese among Nobel Prize winners, but they rarely received basic education in China. That means our basic education has a big problem. I don’t blame your kids, it’s not your fault, and it’s the problem of our way of education, because we do not allow students to ask questions, therefore, our students do not know what to do when asked to do research.”

Chinese traditional culture and dictating adults

In China, from home education to school education, the adults pay too much attention to children’s learning. Influenced by traditional culture, such as “a good scholar can become an official”, parents pay a lot of attention to children’s academic achievement. The only-one-child policy presents the added dilemma of making parents believe that they cannot fail their one and only hope. They live a vicarious life through their children, and ruin their children’s lives, depriving children of the right to explore and discover. The problem is trans-generational, as those parents were brought up in a similar way. The parenting styles then are either dictating or permissive, to be specific, the parenting style is dictating on children’s mind, and permissive on children’s material living. With
the development of society and economy, parents would like to spend a lot on children’s education and material living, in hope that their children can achieve high marks in the high school entrance exam, which puts added pressure on the children.

Teacher C believed that learning per se is one’s need of development, like eating. But Chinese parents are always afraid that children do not eat well, do not study well. For example, when her daughter was young and did not like to eat, she would chase her and beg her to eat. She believed that all responsible biological parents would do the same thing. After she visited American education, she realized that Chinese parents were making a big mistake. She said:

“Eating is human being’s most basic need, if a child does not eat properly or enough, he will get a consequence of getting hungry soon, he needs to realize and correct his behavior. However, we never give him a chance to do that. We provide food before the child gets hungry, we give instructions, orders, even answers before child explores by himself.”

Thus, children do not feel they themselves like to study, but study for adults, namely parents and teachers. Therefore, children (students) are emotionally passive learners.

Speaking Right

Teacher C said “when talking about teacher-student rapport, we all have the idea that we should respect students, however, when putting into action, teacher always feel that I am an adult and student is a child. Thus, actually we didn’t make ‘respect’ into action.
First of all, we don’t give speaking right to students.” She mentioned that, affected by traditional culture that teachers have absolute authority, most of teachers are authoritarian. For example, when teacher asks questions, teacher tends to say “answer this question for me!”, or “do . . . for me”, thus no matter how we emphasize the equal teacher-student relation, by saying “. . . for me” it already shows the different status of teacher and student.

Multiple Pressures

As a model teacher, teacher B has pressure from the principal and other teachers, as they have placed high expectation on her. The principal tends to put her into the model class where the students’ backgrounds are more complex, there may be many children whose parents are also teachers of the sample school. This pressure for her is to adapt, to satisfy the expectations of the principal and other teachers.

Vice Principal’s Expectations

Teacher C, the vice principal believes that even though the current problems could not be solved by only schools and teachers, teachers still need to do what they can do, namely think further for students, in other words, for students’ “sustainable development”. She states, from the perspective of fostering international talents, we need creative education, and the first thing of creative education is to foster creative consciousness. Encouraging students to ask questions initially in class is the premise of
fostering creativity. Thus she believes a class is successful when students could ask good questions.

She has three expectations of teachers. First, teachers should change their educational concept, class is a space where students can cooperate, explore and discover independently, teacher’s role is to guide students to master ways of learning, the ultimate goal of class teaching is to educate future creative talents of our country; secondly, build positive teacher-student rapport, respect, encourage students to enquire. Thirdly, teachers must possess extensive professional knowledge, master superb teaching art, pursue professional development to become a teacher researcher.
4.6 Strategies

I explored strategies of building teacher-student rapport by interviewing the three participant teachers. Teachers shared with me the strategies they felt helpful for building good teacher-student rapport; they also provided some ideas which are not achieved yet but for reference and discussion.

Respect students

1. Not criticize student in front of class

Teacher C seldom criticizes students in class. When I asked her opinion on criticizing student in front of others, she cited the American Regulations for Primary and Middle School Students and said “teacher can criticize students in front of other students if two and more than two students violate the discipline, if only one student violates the discipline, teacher must not criticize him in front of others.” She continued, “No matter I was a head teacher previously or having class now, I deal with the problem with student in private... actually I feel that criticizing a student publicly doesn't work, and what’s more, other students revolt against it.”

Teacher believes that a better way to deal with the student’s problem or mistake is to deal with it privately. If students distract in class, teacher can remind them, but not criticize students in front of class.

Respect is mutual between or among people; in this case, it is mutual between teacher and student. However, the olive branch must be offered by the stronger and
more powerful one, namely teacher in this case. Only then can it represent the essence of respect, for respect does not mean surrender.

2. Heartfelt being with students, going into students’ world

Principal Lee believed that the first thing of teacher-student rapport that should be presented is teacher’s heartfelt being with students, for example, getting to know students’ characters (personalities), names, background of family, communicating momentarily and so on.

3. Respect student’s need (such as asking questions, sharing experience) when they raise up hands.

Teacher C believed that respect is the first and basic element for building positive teacher-student rapport. However, she pointed out that sometimes teacher is busy with finishing the teaching task and ignores student’s initiation of asking question or sharing experience. Thus, students’ needs do not get met. She believes that if the teacher respects the student’s needs, there will be good teacher-student rapport. She advocates that teachers should respect student’s nature of asking questions, and give the student the right of speaking.

In teacher C’s class, Principal Lee always encourages students to ask questions. She said, “I always expect students to ask questions, I encourage them, they really ask many good questions. Those questions precisely covered my teaching content, which should be mastered by students. And the questions which students can really and truly study must be the question they proposed by themselves.”
She gave an example:

“I think sometimes student’s questions, maybe take some time, but just because of their questions, when we continue to study, we can quickly catch up the progress. For example, last class students asked many questions, thus there was no time to talk about ‘the structure of bird egg’, but later a student asked ‘how does an egg grow into a chick?’ to solve this problem, precisely we have to talk ‘the structure of egg’ first, then we can catch up the class progress next time by answering this question.”

She does appear to live up to the notions that the NCR proposed. She satisfied students’ needs of learning, created an educational environment that can guide students to participate in the teaching-learning process actively, and stimulated their enthusiasm.

*Love student through heart*

Teachers mentioned several characteristics that teachers have to possess for building rapport with students, such as be honest, genuine, and pure-hearted; have eye contact with students; possess affinity and be close to students.

When talking about being honest, Principal Lee suggested that if there is something students ask which teacher cannot answer, teacher should then admit honestly.
Understand students

1. Not over react when dealing with student’s problem

According to her experience, teacher C believes that when dealing with the student’s problem, teacher cannot overreact; she has to help the student work out the problem in a normal range, lead student to go back on the right track. As adolescent students tend to be rebellious, if teacher is very dictating, the problem might worsen.

2. Understand students’ developmental status and characteristics of this age

Teacher mentioned in interview that teacher needs to prepare for students as well as preparing for the lesson. Namely, teacher needs to know student’s developmental status, thus she can teach students accordingly.

3. Understand that learning is students’ need of self-development

Teacher C pointed out that learning is student’s need of self-development, in other words, it is their own business; teachers and parents are helpers or facilitators who guide students on the journey. However, parents and teachers pay too much attention on student’s learning, which confuses students.

Help student obtain joy from learning, establish confidence

Teacher A mentioned that she built rapport with students through helping them obtain joy from learning and establish confidence. She would pay attention to certain students purposely, but present student’s product to others in a subtle way, without anybody knowing that she actually did it on purpose. But she also admitted that with such large class size, she cannot help all the students establish confidence.
Equality

Principal Lee states that the real equality is demonstrated through sharing; the students share something they know, and teacher shares something she knows, then they share the knowledge or experience together.

Self-cultivation

1. Improve one’s inner quality.

Teachers all believe that improving one’s inner quality is very important. If teacher wants to improve teacher-student rapport, then teacher’s self-possession matters a lot. Teacher has to maintain purity and innocence. Teacher C suggested that teachers may read books in the field of philosophy of education.

2. Actions consistent with words, be authentic self

Teacher can get along with students only when her actions are consistent with her words, because that accords with children’s nature. Teacher has to be authentic, because children can see through teacher’s tricks. Teacher C reminded that teacher should be an upright, decent person; she cannot be utilitarian or greedy for money, and she should treat every student equally. She said, student’s sight is very sharp when looking at the world of adults and evaluating teachers. For example, she said if a student got extra attention from teacher because teacher had a good relationship with his parents, then such teacher-student rapport was not good nor healthy.
**Evaluation within school and class and evaluation system reform**

When analyzing student’s score, teacher C (Principal Lee) requires teacher to compare the score of his or her own class with results of the previous semester, not comparing with other classes. She also proposed evaluation system reform; actually she did it since 1999. In the subject she teaches, she adds practical score to the final exam marks, accordingly students are encouraged to explore and discover independently.

**Establish appropriate authority**

Teacher A believes that teacher-student rapport does not necessarily need absolute authority, but in order to build good teacher-student rapport the teacher has to “temper justice with mercy”. However, she thinks it is a challenge making students like you and at the same time be afraid of you.

Some ideas proposed by teachers:

*The teacher-student rapport is good when the class is student-centered*

Teacher B believes that there is good teacher-student rapport when the class is student-centered. She explained that one semester, she allowed students to explore, construct and teach by themselves. It was student-centered and the teacher was a helper and protector who could help students to prepare the class and add or correct some points. However, the exam scores were not very satisfying and she therefore had to revert to the traditional teaching method. To use her words, “many times I wish to let students to obtain the knowledge actively, however, it apparently could not work out with exam. I
“didn’t find the solution yet.” She is still exploring. It might be a way to build teacher-student rapport, and make student learn better as well, if class size and examination are no more a concern.

Having professional people in the field of psychology to give instructions
Teacher C believes that education psychology is the methodology of teaching and education, however they lack instructors and teachers in this area. Thus having professional people to give instruction or adding educational psychology course into teacher’s training might be a strategy to help teacher understand student’s developmental status and process of learning, therefore improving teacher-student rapport.

Reduce class size
As teachers all mentioned, over large class size affects teacher-student rapport. Thus if class size is reduced, it might help teacher build better rapport with students. However, due to the large population of China and limited teacher resources, it might take a long time to realize a smaller class size.
4.7 Comparison between the Three Teachers’ Extent of “I-Thou” Relation

The previous section has discussed reasons for the lack of dialogue in the class. Now I will make a comparison among the three teachers because I want to explore why teacher C can achieve “I –Thou” relation whereas the other two teachers cannot.

As I mentioned above, teacher C has bonded and dialogic rapport with students; teacher B tried hard to implement dialogue into her class in order to build a more student-centered learning environment; however her rapport with students is still more teacher-centered. Teacher A is a typical dictating teacher who has teacher-centered teacher-student rapport and is comfortable living with it.

The analyses revealed that the influence factors such as evaluation system (examination) and teacher’s attitude toward learning seem to be the main reasons. It may be argued that building rapport was easier because teacher C’s subject was not an exam subject. However, when collecting data in this sample school, I also observed other non-exam subjects such as art and music. While in those classes, I did not see deep dialogue (such as asking facilitating questions and making meaningful connection), what’s more, students may do assignments or exercises of other subjects, but participate little in class teaching. Thus, besides the evaluation system, there is something more accounting for the difference among the three teachers. Teachers’ attitude toward learning is one point, but what makes teachers’ attitude toward learning different? I started to dig each teacher’s story behind dialogue and concluded that dialogue was related to teacher’s self-awareness.
Heightened awareness of living

Self-awareness is being conscious of what you are good at while acknowledging what you still have yet to learn. This includes admitting when you do not have the answer and owning up to mistakes (Musselwhite, 2007). To discover new truths about ourselves is to expand our self-awareness. Buber believed that we should be open to the adventure in heightened awareness of living. In his own words, Buber said:

“I do not accept any absolute formulas for living. No preconceived code can see ahead to everything that can happen in a man’s life. As we live, we grow and our beliefs change. They must change. So I think we should live with this constant discovery. We should be open to this adventure in heightened awareness of living. We should stake our whole existence on our willingness to explore and experience.” (Hodes, 1972)

I call this self-awareness dialogic spirit, as it is possible only “if the relation between man and creation is understood to be a dialogical relationship” (Buber quoted by Avnôn, 1998). Buber defined two kinds of relationship: I-It relation and I-Thou relation. In I-It relation, people experience most things as objects (It), thus, in such experience we do not add anything significant or different to our experience, and finally we still experience the other as an “It”. It is only part of our awareness of the world, because the I-It relation involves distancing and emphasizing the uniqueness of the “I”. In order to reach a new level of awareness, we have to approach the other as Thou, as a relational being.
I meet an It or a Thou

To teacher A, her rapport with students appears as if she and students in it are treating each other as objects. But to teacher C in the relationship, she is aware of the student as a Thou – a being apart from the “I” (her), yet also a part of the “I” (her). A true relationship with the Thou is a dynamic, growing, creative, changing awareness (Buber, 1958). Buber saw the education of children as a more asymmetrical relationship characterized by a lack of mutuality and an emphasis on the teacher’s authority; but he believed this situation can be transcended through one-side inclusion by the teacher. I believe the ability of implementing “inclusion” is an evidence to show one achieves the heightened awareness, Buber described “inclusion” this way: inclusion is the extension of oneself, its elements are relation, an event experienced in common, the fact that “this one person, without forfeiting anything of the felt reality of his activity, at the same time lives through the common event from the standpoint of the other” (Buber, 1947).

When talking about students copying answers from other’s homework, teacher A and teacher C gave different opinions.

Teacher A believes there are several reasons for students failing to finish homework and then copying other’s homework. First of all, she believes that students tend to fail to finish homework assigned by the subject teacher more frequently than that assigned by the head teacher. In her own words, “compared with subject teacher, students probably try to finish homework assigned by head teacher first, as they ‘have to’, they ‘must’ finish it, for they are afraid of the head teacher. Secondly, Chinese subject homework needs students to spend a lot of time to think, besides, students need...
to be interested in it… I cannot make every student follow the direction which I planned, currently less than one third of students could complete as I expected, I do not know how to solve the problem, sometimes I am mad and yell at them, they will be better for a while and then remain as previously . . . ”.

Teacher A meets students as objects (It). There is little or no relation between teacher A (I) and students (It); she believes failing to finish homework is the student’s problem. Even though she mentioned that students might treat teachers differently, this does not have any significance, nor does it make a difference to her experience, because she believes it is the student’s problem as they do not always follow her plan or schedule. She is the one who feels confused and finally gets mad at “It” (students).

Teacher C points out, “copying answer of homework is Chinese style mistake.” She believes that there are two reasons for students failing to finish homework or copying the answer of other’s homework: the external reason is the heavy amount of homework, if it is the reason, teacher should reflect and reduce the amount of homework; the internal reason is student’s attitude toward learning, namely student does not treat study as his/her own business. She shared her student’s experience after visiting American education; this student was confused when she was trying to help an American student who seemed stuck on one math problem. It turned out the American student refused her (Chinese student) help and told her, “this is my homework, I am capable to finish by my own.” By telling this example, teacher C concluded, “she (American student) did not accept Chinese student’s help, and believed that study is her own business.” In other words, she (American student) did not abuse herself or accept
being abused by others. Baranovich (2008) defined “abuse” as this: abuse is when people do something for someone which he/she can do by him/herself. Unfortunately, many people do not realize it. Teacher C continued, “I feel in our education, from home education to school education, students are being paid too much attention, consequently, students become passive learners, and believe they study for someone else, instead of willing to learn for themselves. Besides that, if the amount of homework is heavy, students tend to copy the other’s answer and complete the homework FOR teacher.”

Teacher C meets her student in the “Thou”, I-Thou relation involving a sense of being part of a whole (Buber, 1958), thus, she can see the issue through the phenomenon, because “Thou” is not an object which can be experienced, but something of which we become aware (Buber, 1958).

_Searching the soul_

For Buber (1947), dialogue involves all kinds of relation: to self, to others and to all forms of created beings. He defines three kinds of dialogue, they are genuine dialogue, technical dialogue and monologue. But only the genuine dialogue can create I-Thou relationship as it is the meeting of souls. Technical dialogue is driven by the need of understanding something, but it still stays at the stage of experiencing the other as an “It”, as it does not engage the soul. Monologue is a distorted form of dialogue, which happens a lot in the classroom as observed; words are spoken, but there is little or no connection between teacher and student.
Teacher C has I-Thou relation with students, which does not necessarily mean her soul meets that of students, as the education of adolescents is on a more asymmetrical relationship. She was helping students to realize their best potentialities in their lives. Before she can do that, she has to find her own soul first.

At her soulful level, teacher C dreams to be a lecturer, a scholar who teaches in university. Being a secondary school teacher does not block her from pursuing her dream; on the contrary, the quality of scholar in her heart motivated her to continue learning and doing research, and helped her achieve excellent performance in school. Then she relocated her dream as a scholar teacher. She believes, "combine the dream of being a scholar teacher and my work as a teacher, it is enterprise." She distinguishes the enterprise from work, and explained, "Work is for surviving, enterprise is a lifelong pursuit; work has holiday, enterprise requires full involvement, physically, emotionally and spiritually." As a scholar teacher or educationalist teacher, she believes she needs to combine education theory with education practice. On her way of chasing her dream, she treasures every opportunity for learning; because of this, she was recognized and got a chance of participating in the compilation of the national textbook. After that, she was invited by normal university and college as a guest lecturer and supervisor of master candidates. Gradually, she is closer and closer to her dream. She suggests that, "one wants to improve his inner quality, needs to read books on philosophy, think about the meaning of life, what people are living for."

Teacher B, as I mentioned earlier, struggled between teacher-centered and student-centered approaches. Her awareness level is not as high as that of teacher C, but
in her interview, I can see her being aware of the problem, and trying to figure out, that is the reason for her confusion and struggle. Because she cares, her soul cares. She is looking for what her soul wants.

She revealed to me, before she came to this model school, she worked in another model school in a smaller city. She said, “the high achievement and awards I got when working in that school, is a kind of pressure for me. I feel I was stagnant and could not move forward anymore, as the awards came to me easily.” She was confused at that time, as she wanted to improve, her soul wants more than that. When she got the offer from this sample school, she decided to join it. Teacher B told me honestly that she faced a lot of pressure in this new working environment. She said, “our school’s slogan is ‘pursuit for excellence’, I need to guarantee top level students perform at their best, talking about teacher’s conscience, I never give up on any of my students, thus, I need to take care of the lower level students, this is the pressure from exam; when I overcome this pressure, principal tends to put me in a more important position, consequently, people around me increase their expectation on me, then the pressure is changed to how to satisfy so many people; on the other side, I want to maintain my own style, which is to motivate students to explore and construct knowledge. I need to be comfortable with myself . . .”.

From teacher B’s interview, I see a high functioning achiever and a pleaser. Her awareness makes her a high achiever, she is aware that she wants to improve herself, she is also aware that drill and rote is not the best way for teaching or learning. On the other hand, as a pleaser, she tries to satisfy everyone, and struggles to leave a little part
for herself. But she does not want to be a pleaser, which is not her authentic self. At the end of the interview, she told me, “When facing the complex working environment and some difficult colleagues, I learnt to talk in an assertive way, which I seldom did before, I think I become selfish, or say I become more self-protective, it is a pressure, but I have to adapt.” This reminds me of some of teacher B’s dialogue with students in the classroom, when she cut down student’s questions or sharing in order to finish her teaching (see category: rushing on time), and gave quiz to students. In Buber’s term, it is technical dialogue, which does not engage the soul; in this case, teacher B has not found out what her soul wants yet.

Teacher A does not bother to search her soul. When talking about student’s confusion during adolescence years, she shared her opinion with connecting her own experience, and said, “During adolescence years, students tend to be wandering around and easily distracted by some images or activities, such as computer, and games. Unlike my time, we had fewer things to distract us. Nowadays, students face a more complex world and too much information, thus they are more easily attracted by this. Besides that, study seems boring to them. After a lot of activities are forbidden, students have choices, but they cannot choose freely. And adolescents are very rebellious . . . if you (students) do not have a strong will, especially you do not know what you pursue for, then you obviously distract, thus, I think the reason why students cannot focus on study, is because they are affected by external factors, and they themselves are lacking in self-control. Secondly, a lot of students still can focus on study even without self-control, I
believe they get joy from learning, in other words, not gaining joy from learning is another reason which caused students’ departure from original direction.”

When teacher A talked about this problem, she was still treating students as objects (It). Even though she herself had experienced adolescence years, she never questioned herself, such as, why students are wandering around during this age? Why do teachers and parents forbid most of the activities? Why cannot we give students free choice? What makes teacher think students do not have self-control? Why do students always feel learning is boring? Why they do not gain joy from learning? In other words, teacher A is not aware, she does not question how she herself grew up. Related to her classroom dialogue with students, she does not like students to question either.

Buber believed that “the real teacher teaches most successfully when he is not consciously trying to teach at all, but when he acts spontaneously out of his own life. Then he can gain the pupil’s confidence; he can convince the adolescent that there is human truth, that existence has a meaning. And when the pupil’s confidence has been won, his resistance against being educated gives way to a singular happening: he accepts the educator as a person. He feels he may trust this man, that this man is taking part in his life, accepting him before desiring to influence him. And so he learns to ask . . .” (Hodes, 1972, pp.136-137).
Figure 4.7 shows the different level of awareness among teacher A, teacher B and teacher C. The analyses reveal that teacher C who has “I-Thou” relationship with students has higher level of awareness; in order to have “I-Thou” relation and eventually reach high level of awareness; she found out what her soul wants, and kept following her soul and chasing her dream. Teacher B is still on the way of searching her soul, however, she is being aware and willing to make changes. Teacher A meets student as an “It”, she does not question either herself or the reality as she is not aware or chose not to be aware. She tends to understand students the same way that she grew up, and teach students the same way which she was taught.
Figure 4.8 shows teacher C’s journey of achieving I-Thou relationship with students through searching her own soul; one can only be at one’s best at one’s soulful level. The soul helps teacher C reach a heightened awareness of living, as a secondary school teacher. In the classroom, she has genuine dialogue with her adolescent students through inclusion, and helps students to be aware as well, to realize their best potentialities in their lives. By doing this, she gains trust from them. Students accept her as a person and educator, and ask her questions.

Figure 4.7 (Teacher’s awareness through dialogue) and Figure 4.8 (Teacher C’s journey) are two models which came out from the findings to show the different states of three teachers in terms of the forms of dialogue they achieved, and the unique experience that teacher C has been through; furthermore, these demonstrate a way of achieving genuine dialogue, that is when one has a heightened awareness of living and possesses the consciousness of inclusion. However, these figures are preliminary models which need to be tested and refined in future studies.
4.8 Summary

In this chapter, research questions were answered through the description and analysis of data. The classroom dialogue revealed two types of teacher-student rapport: bonded teacher-student rapport and teacher-centered rapport. Three teachers’ dialogic behavior with students were compared, two preliminary models of achieving genuine dialogue were established as well.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This present chapter is organized into the following sections: the first section consists of a brief summary of the research. The second section includes discussion of the research findings. The third section provides the conclusions of the research findings. The fourth section includes the limitations of the study. The fifth section consists of implications concerning the results of this research, and concludes with the suggestions for future studies.

5.2 Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the teacher-student rapport through the analysis of the dialogic behavior of teachers and students in a middle school classroom, in China, in order to describe the patterned process of classroom dialogue between teacher and students that characterizes the teacher-student rapport. Furthermore, it was the intent of this study to understand the vice principal and teachers’ perception of teacher-student rapport. Strategies were provided and proposed by teachers about how they built rapport with students, and the feasible actions they could do to enhance rapport. The findings of this study will be the basis for the discussion of implication for middle school teachers, administrators, and for future study. The goal of this study was to understand which kind of teacher-student rapport is existing in the classroom; in
other words, what type of life teachers and students are experiencing in the classroom, for the purpose of revealing state of being and lifestyles of teacher and student in the classroom, the subsequent effects on education and teaching, and vice principal and teachers’ understanding of teacher-student rapport.

This study employed a basic qualitative study design. A total of 69 middle school students of Grade Two, 3 teachers (including a vice principal) who taught the sample class participated in this study. Qualitative data in the form of observations of classroom dialogue, and interviews were collected. Qualitative software NVivo 8 was employed for organizing and coding the collected data.

5.3 Discussion on Findings

The data analyses in the present study have yielded various findings that have been presented in chapter IV. The conclusions drawn from this study provide points of consideration for the sample school and teachers to improve teacher-student rapport, implement concepts of the NCR in the teaching-learning process and pursue teachers’ professional development as well. The findings are now organized and discussed under the sub-sections as follows.

5.3.1 Classroom Dialogue Reflects Teacher-Student Rapport

One of the main concerns of this study was to investigate the current status of teacher-student rapport through analyzing classroom dialogue. The present study shows that teacher-student rapport was reflected by classroom dialogue through the categories
teacher and student employed and according to functions involved. This finding is supported by and also supports Buber’s (1958) dialogue theory which is known as I – Thou relation. Buber claimed that the pedagogical realm is entirely dialogical. The child, education, or even life between birth and death became meaningful through dialogue (Buber, 1947). In his own words, Buber (1958) stated that, “the relation in education is one of pure dialogue” (p. 98). This study shows classroom dialogue reflects the status of teacher-student rapport.

This finding also supports the previous study which is that the dialogic behavior of teacher and student affects each other, and those dialogic behaviors would determine the quality of rapport and feelings, and help build a good classroom climate (Petegem, et al., 2006).

More importantly, the finding provides further evidence on the usefulness of bringing dialogue and dialogic theory into the realm of education, for example, B. Li (2003), Liu (2003), Wang (2003), Jiang (2005), Li (2005), Mi (2005), OuYang (2005), Zhang (2005), L. Xu (2006). Thus, the empirical findings of this present study suggest that analysis of classroom dialogic behavior is a breakthrough point in investigating teacher-student rapport and the teaching and learning process.

5.3.2 Teacher-student rapport is more teacher-centered and dictating

Teachers tended to dominate in the classroom, whereas students’ learning was relatively passive. The model of teacher-student rapport is more teacher-centered. This finding supports previous researches by reading researchers such as Clenton (1998), Rao (2001),
and Toh et al. (2003). Additionally, it corroborates the findings from empirical studies, such as Halpern (1994), Liu and Littlewood (1997), McDonald (2002), B. Li (2005), Zittleman and Sadker (2006), that investigated teacher-student relationship, and found that classrooms today were still teacher-centered where students sit quietly, passively receiving knowledge being taught by teacher in front of the class; teachers in the teacher-centered classroom were driven to meet standards and often sacrifice the students’ needs; They also had a fixed schedule of the class to be followed by all the students; the learning approach was focused on rote learning, reasoning and memorization.

The present study shows teacher talk is much more than student talk. In this study, each class has 69 students and one teacher. Thus, from the perspective of speaking right, the teacher has the absolute right of speaking. This findings support Xu and Xie (2004), Yao and Liu (2004), that the language in the education context is more hegemony on teacher’s monologue and less dialogic.

In the present study, the dictating and teacher-centered teacher-student rapport style was largely represented by teacher A and teacher B. Teacher A maintained the traditional style of teacher-centered, she believed that substantial effects – scores of students should be emphasized, as she had to face the reality; teacher B tried to implement the dialogic or student-centered model but she was largely restricted by class size and the current student evaluation system (examination).
5.3.3 Bonded Teacher-Student Rapport

Teacher C whose rapport with student is dialogic relation or “I-Thou” relation according to Buber’s (1958) theory always encouraged students’ initiation inquiry and encouraged them to construct their own knowledge based on their experiences and knowledge (Collay & Gagnon, 2004). Thus, student’s initiation talk appeared most in her class. Critique seldom appeared in her class as she rarely criticized students in front of class. In teacher C’s class, I can see the two essential elements of “I-Thou” relationship according to Buber (1958), which are confirmation and inclusion.

5.3.4 Factors Affect Teacher-Student Rapport

Analyses of the classroom dialogue and interviews have yielded findings that lead to factors which affect teacher-student rapport in the classroom. Those influencing factors are students’ academic achievement, class size, evaluation system, the attitudes of teacher and student toward each other and toward learning. The stressful factors of examination and dictating adults were also frequently mentioned by teacher and students in interviews.

Teachers tend to ask high achievement students to answer questions; it implies that teachers have preference on students regarding academic achievement. Interview with students also proved this point. This finding could support Brophy (1996), that in order to accomplish the teaching task, teachers like to call upon students who can give correct and clear answer, thus those students have more chances to dialogue with teacher. This finding also supports C. Li (2005) that most teachers believe students’
participation is highly related with their academic achievement, and students who have high academic achievement usually have a better rapport with teachers.

Class size affects teacher-student rapport largely. Teacher’s teaching activity and interaction with students is restricted by class size; in order to maintain order in the class, teachers have to talk more, control students’ talk, and give direction and orders from time to time. This finding was not found in previous researches; however, as an influencing factor, over large class size was mentioned frequently during interviews.

Examination was another influencing factor that was not found in previous studies, but spoken often during classroom dialogue and interviews. It is a pressure source for both teacher and student, and is believed to have affected teacher-student rapport.

Attitude and perception definitely influenced teacher’s and student’s action largely. Students tended to have unconditional obedience to teacher; however, as many said during the interviews, deep inside, they were longing for bonded teacher-student rapport, and needed understanding and validation from their teacher. Teachers desired good teacher-student rapport as well. They believed teacher should respect students in the first place, and understand them through getting into their world. Such points correspond with those found by Hargreaves (2003) that emotional bonds with and among students and building enduring rapport make students feel known by the teacher. McCroskey (1992) also finds that empathy, understanding, and responsiveness are three main factors through which students perceive their teacher as a caring person.
5.3.5 Current Problems

Based on the interviews with teachers, their perceptions of teacher-student rapport were understood deeper. In terms of building good teacher-student rapport, current problems teachers are facing include:

First, the current evaluation system restricted teacher’s implementation, as current school education still emphasizes students’ scores. This problem is found in previous studies of researchers such as Yang (2006) and Li (2004). In this present study, teachers suffer pressure from various quarters, such as the principal, colleagues, parents of students, and themselves and so on to have their students obtain high exam scores. Therefore, the focus, from the teacher’s point of view, is on ensuring their students obtain high scores as opposed to initiating the concepts defined within the NCR.

Second, teacher’s understanding of students regarding their developmental status is limited or sometimes misunderstood. For the most part, these teachers lack training, or basic knowledge, of developmental psychology which prohibits them from properly understanding the students’ needs. This finding can support Xu’s (L. Xu, 2006) statement that teachers need to communicate and understand their students.

Third, teacher training focuses on specialty knowledge; teachers pay more attention to the teaching process rather than the learning process. This single focus is rooted in the desire to ensure that the students earn high marks on the exam.

Lastly, teachers have difficulty in implementing the teacher-student rapport proposed by the NCR because they do not know how to carry it out at the practical level. This is perhaps one of the major barriers against developing student-teacher rapport.
5.3.6 Strategies

In this study, the three teachers provided several strategies for building teacher-student rapport they believed worked well in their class. They also provided some ideas which are not achieved yet but for reference and discussion.

These strategies are as follows:

*Respect students*

Many researchers (Bao, 2004; Li, 1998a, 1998b; Liu, 2004; Shi, 2005) believe that respect is an important strategy and essence in building good teacher-student rapport.

The unique findings in the present study are:

1. **Not criticize student in front of class**

   Teacher believes that a better way to deal with student’s problem or mistake is to deal with it privately. If students distract in class, teacher can remind them, but not criticize students in front of class.

2. **Remember student’s name**

   Principal Lee states that, from the perspective of teacher-student rapport, one can show respect and love for the student by remembering the student’s name.

3. **Respect student’s need (such as asking questions, sharing experience) when they raise up hands.**

   Teacher C pointed out that sometimes teacher is busy with finishing the teaching task and thus ignores student’s initiation of asking question or sharing experience; the student’s needs remain unmet. She believes that when teacher respects student’s need,
there will be a good teacher-student rapport. She advocates that teachers should respect student’s nature of asking questions, and give students right of speaking; by doing this, teacher shows respect to students (Bohm, 1996). Habermas (1979) also stated that in educational practices, teacher should develop students’ empowerment and freedoms, develop student’s autonomy, voice and cultural power, develop their interactive communication and so on.

*Love student through heart*

“Love, care trust and affective interpersonal relations” are a call from the humanism perspective (Aloni, 1997). Teachers mentioned several characteristics that teachers have to possess for building rapport with student, such as be honest, genuine (Liu, 2004), and pure-hearted (Zhou, 2002), have eye-contact with students, and possess affinity and be close to students.

When talking about being honest, teacher C suggested that if there is something student asks which teacher cannot answer, teacher should admit it honestly.

*Understand students*

1. Not over react when dealing with student’s problem

According to her experience, teacher C believes that when dealing with the student’s problem, teacher cannot overreact; she has to help the student work out the problem in a normal range, and lead student to the right track. As adolescent students tend to be rebellious, if teacher is very dictating, the problem might worsen.
2. Understand students’ developmental status and characteristics of this age

Teachers mentioned in interviews that they need to prepare for students as well as preparing for the lesson. Namely, teachers need to know students’ developmental status in order to teach students accordingly.

3. Understand that learning is students’ need of self-development

Teacher C pointed out that learning is the student’s need of self-development, as Rogers (1969) stated that, “Learning becomes life” (p. 314); in other words, it is their own needs of development. Education is aimed at facilitating the whole and full functioning of a person, fostering the development of those who “take self-initiated action . . . are capable of intelligent choice and self-direction . . . are critical learners . . . have acquired knowledge . . . adapt flexibly . . . utilize all pertinent experience freely and creatively . . . cooperate effectively . . . [and] work . . . in terms of their own socialized purposes” (Rogers, 1951, pp. 387-388). Thus, teachers and parents are helpers or facilitators who guide students through the journey. However, parents and teachers pay too much attention on student’s learning, which confuses students.
Help student obtain joy from learning, establish confidence

Teacher A mentioned that she built rapport with students through helping them obtain joy from learning and establish confidence. She would pay attention to certain students purposely, present student’s product to others in a subtle way, without anybody knowing that she actually did it on purpose. But she also admitted that with such large class size, she cannot help all the students establish confidence.

Equality

This strategy was found in works of researchers such as Shi (2005), Xu and Xie (2004), Zhang (2005), Zheng and Dai (2006). Teacher C states that real equality is demonstrated through sharing (Buber, 1958), student shares something he knows, and teacher shares something she knows, then they share the knowledge or experience together. Actually the whole dialogic theory is based on the spirit of equality. As Buber (1958) explained, in “I-Thou” relationship, subject and object co-exist, they are both important in this relation. Both teacher and student should be respected as equal and autonomous partners (Palmer et al., 2001).

Self-cultivation

1. Improve one’s inner quality.

Teachers all believe that improving one’s inner quality is very important.

Teacher wants to improve teacher-student rapport, teacher’s self-possession matters a lot.
Teacher has to remain pure and innocent. Teacher C suggested that teachers may read books in the field of philosophy of education.

2. Actions consistent with words, be authentic self

Teachers can get along with students only when their actions are consistent with their words, because that accords with children’s nature. Teacher has to be authentic, because children can see through teacher’s tricks. Teacher C reminded that teachers should be upright, decent persons; they cannot be utilitarian or greedy for money, and they should treat each student equally. She said, the student’s sight is very sharp when looking at the world of adults and evaluating teachers. She gave an example, if a student got extra attention from teacher because teacher had a good relationship with his parents, then such teacher-student rapport was neither good nor healthy.

*Evaluation within school and class, and evaluation system reform*

When analyzing student’s score, teacher C requires teachers to compare the score of their own class with the class of the previous semester, not comparing with other classes. She also proposed evaluation system reform, actually she did it since 1999. In the subject she teaches, she adds the practical score to the final exam score; accordingly students are encouraged to explore and discover independently.

*Establish appropriate authority*

Teacher A believes that teacher-student rapport does not necessarily need absolute authority, but in order to build good teacher-student rapport the teacher has to “temper
justice with mercy”. However, she thinks it is a challenge making students like you and at the same time be afraid of you. This finding could support researchers such as Liu (2004), Xu and Xie (2004), Shi (2005), Zhang (2005), Li and Wang (2006), Xu (2006), Zheng and Dai (2006).

Some ideas proposed by teachers:

*The teacher-student rapport is good when the class is student-centered*

Teacher B believes that there is good teacher-student rapport when the class is student-centered. She explained that, one semester, she allowed students to explore, construct and teach by themselves. It was student-centered and the teacher was a helper and protector who could help students to prepare the class and add or correct some points. However, the exam scores were not very satisfying and she therefore had to change her teaching method back to a more traditional one. To use her words, “*many times I wish to let students to obtain the knowledge actively, however, it apparently could not work out with exam. I didn’t find the solution yet.*” She is still exploring. It might be a way to build teacher-student rapport, and make students learn better as well, if class size and examination are no longer major concerns.

*Having professional people in the field of psychology to give instruction*

Teacher C believes that education psychology is the methodology of teaching and education; however, they lack instructors and teachers in this area. Thus having professional people to give instruction or adding more educational psychology courses
into teacher’s training might be a strategy to help teacher understand student’s developmental status and process of learning, therefore improving teacher-student rapport. A similar finding was found in Liu’s (2004) study. He believes that teachers should be trained through the course of educational psychology. He also mentioned that teacher should master counseling technique, which I do not agree with, because in that case, it will make a teacher be in a dual relationship with student, namely teacher-student relationship and counselor-client relationship, which is inappropriate and also unethical.

Reduce class size

As teachers all mentioned over large class size affects teacher-student rapport, if the class size were reduced, it might help teacher build better rapport with students. However, due to the large population of China and limited teacher resources, it might take a long time to realize smaller class size.

5.4 Conclusion of Findings

Previous studies have shown that under the context of New Curriculum Reform teacher-student rapport is distant and teacher-centered. Although a few studies have provided strategies on the theoretical level, to the best of my knowledge, teacher-student rapport from the perspective of dialogue in the practical level has not been studied. Therefore, the subject of this study was “teacher-student rapport in a middle school in China: a dialogic perspective”. The following conclusions are drawn from this study:
First, the study indicates that classroom dialogue reflected teacher-student rapport through the categories they employed and according to functions involved. Teachers are dominant in the classroom, whereas students’ learning was relatively passive.

Second, the study indicates that the model of teacher-student rapport is more teacher-centered and dictating.

Third, the study indicates that the bonded teacher-student rapport would encourage students’ initiation inquiry and encouraged them to construct knowledge based on experiences.

Fourth, the study indicates that teacher-student rapport is affected by students’ academic achievement, class size, teacher’s and student’s attitude to each other and learning, as well as their perception of teacher-student rapport.

Fifth, the study indicates that some problems teachers are facing restrict teachers from building good teacher-student rapport, such as: evaluation system; teacher’s understanding of students regarding their developmental status is limited or sometimes misunderstood; moreover, currently teacher’s training focuses on specialty knowledge, and teaching process rather than the learning process; besides, teachers have difficulty in implementing the teacher-student rapport proposed by the NCR because they do not know how to carry it out at the practical level.

Sixth, Teachers provided strategies and ideas to build teacher-student rapport, they were also aware that the proposed teacher-student rapport is a long journey to achieve.
Based on the interviews and the observation in this study, teachers’ awareness state of dialogue were evaluated, aiming to find out the way of achieving genuine dialogue as proposed; the preliminary models were established as well.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

Because of the nature of qualitative research study, the generalization is limited; however it is possible “if one thinks of what can be learned from an in-depth analysis of a particular situation or incident and how that knowledge can be transferred to another situation” (Merriam, 2002). Referring to this study, the strategies provided can be generalized if other middle school teachers wish to implement dialogue with students in their class within the context of the New Curriculum Reform. In this case, actually, readers themselves determine the extent to which findings from this study can be applied to their situation (Merriam, 2002).

During data collection, I was trying to build good rapport with participants without revealing my own opinion on this topic; however, my identity as a researcher, my familiarization with participants and participants’ wariness would affect participants’ response, and therefore affect the findings.

Three participant teachers taught three different subjects: Chinese, history and biology. The different nature of each subject might affect the teacher approaches that teacher employed in class and the way teacher dialogued with students, therefore affecting the research findings. However, the sample class which I chose was in the second semester of second grade, the three teachers’ teaching of the three subjects were
based on the comprehension of the content of textbook or reading materials. And this research study focuses on the rapport building through the process of classroom dialogue, not the subjects per se.

In this research study, teacher C’s subject – biology was not an examination subject, while teacher A’s subject of Chinese and teacher B’s subject of history were examination subjects. This difference might largely affect teacher’s teaching approach, and their attitude toward teaching and learning, therefore affecting the teacher-student rapport they were trying to build.

The examination and scores were extremely emphasized in China, as well as in this sample school, which largely affected the teacher’s stand on building teacher-student rapport. Thus, this study limited the concern within the affective domain.

There was only one class of students chosen as participants for this study, one reason is that this sample class was the model class of second grade of this school (there are two model classes in second grade), the large class size (69 students) required more time for me get to know the students in the sample class and the classroom dynamics; another reason is that the research site was assigned by the gatekeeper – the principal of this school, thus I did not have the chance to experience the classroom dynamics in other classes. According to Buber’s dialogic theory (1985), in education teachers must stand simultaneously at both poles of education – their own and their student’s, in order to make up for the lack of mutuality in education, because a teacher is capable of apprehending the student’s existence, while a student is unable to comprehend the complexity of the teacher’s personality (Yaron, 1993). In this study, teachers played a
major part in building rapport with students, thus, during observation of classroom
dialogue, I focused more on how teachers took initiative to build rapport with students
and how they dealt with students’ initiation.

This research study focused on teacher-student rapport in the classroom.

However, I learnt that parents might have influence on students’ perception of teacher-
student rapport. Due to the lack of time and energy, I only interviewed 3 teachers and
part of students in the sample class.

5.6 Implications of the Study

This study was conducted with regard to one specific middle school and its concern for
implementation of dialogue and building good teacher-student rapport as the New
Curriculum Reform proposed (Li & Wang, 2006; Liu, 2004; Mi, 2005; Shi, 2005; Xu,
2006; Zhang, 2005; Zheng & Dai, 2006). The focus was on teacher-student rapport
through analyzing classroom dialogue, and vice principal and teachers’ perceptions of
teacher-student rapport that are believed to affect their action in the classroom. Some
implications may be drawn from the findings of this study. The following implications
could be considered significant.

Implication for middle school teachers:

If teachers are to educate the diverse population of students who arrive at school each
day they must get to know these students in order to be able to address their needs as
learners. The findings of this study imply that through understanding students and their
needs well, the teacher-student rapport will improve. A good teacher-student rapport could drive student’s enthusiasm for learning and satisfy teacher’s needs of working and socialization. By understanding students, and getting to know their needs of development, teachers can better carry out appropriate approaches to teaching.

*Implication for middle school administrators:*

Improving teacher-student rapport is a goal to pursue and teachers and educators should constantly work toward improving teacher-student rapport so that students’ learning is improved. The findings show that a significant factor is the current evaluation system which blocks teachers’ implementation of good teacher-student rapport. This study suggests the administrators consider ways to continue the New Curriculum Reform and ways of adjusting the current evaluation system for teachers and students. The findings imply that NCR implementation over the past 10 years has not proceeded very well.

*Implication for future study:*

The findings from this study may be used as bases for creating awareness among teachers who may intend to use dialogue to enhance their rapport with students. It is suggested that this study be replicated on a wider scale observing more subjects (English, mathematics, physics, chemistry, moral studies and so on), examining principals’ and teachers’ perception of teacher-student rapport in model schools, non-model schools, rural, urban and suburban schools. This study only looked at one
classroom in one school, and observed three subjects. The research could be more comprehensive if it contained more subjects in a variety of locations.

With regard to improving teacher-student rapport in middle schools of China, this study employed qualitative methods; the principal, teachers and students were interviewed. Perhaps more interview data could be retrieved from parents of students, the department of teacher training, the department of basic education and so on.

This study focused on improving teacher-student rapport through analyzing classroom dialogue and interviews to elicit teachers’ and students’ perception of teacher-student rapport; perhaps non-dialogic behavior and teacher-student interaction outside of the classroom could provide a new perspective.
References


Farrell-Racette, S., Goulet, L., Pelletier, J., & Shmon, K. (1996). *Aboriginal cultures and perspectives: Making a difference in the classroom*. Diversity in the Classroom Series, Number Five: Saskatchewan Professional Development Unit, Saskatoon; Saskatchewan Instructional Development and Research Unit, Regina.


University of Malaysia  
Faculty of Education  
Head of Department of Education Psychology and Counseling

RE: Appointment of by Dr. Diana-Lea Baranovich as Supervisor to Wang Xiaoyi (Matric No. PHA 080002) PhD of Educational Psychology.  
Dissertation

Research Paper Title:

With reference to matter above, Dr. Diana-Lea Baranovich, Senior Lecturer at University of Malaya’s Department of Education Psychology and Counseling, has been appointed as the PhD Degree Dissertation supervisor to the above mentioned student. I, Dr. Shahrir Jamaluddin, am of the professional and ethical opinion that Dr. Diana-Lea Baranovich is the most qualified faculty member to supervise this research project. This approval has been given in a letter by University Malaya dated 01/Sep/2010 (Reference No: UM. P/PP (IT) 644/2)

Thank you  
Regards

Name:  
Signature:  
Date:
Appendix B

Research Supervisor
University of Malaysia
Faculty of Education
Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling

Sir,

Supervision for Wang Xiaoyi, PhD Degree Dissertation of Educational Psychology entitled:

With reference to the above matter, I Dr. Diana-Lea Baranovich, hereby confirms that I am the Senior Lecturer appointed as PhD Degree Dissertation supervisor for Wang Xiaoyi (Metric No. PHA08002). The title of project paper is as stated above.

I will be responsible for overseeing the quality of this research and monitoring the information collected from your organization for purposes of this research. If any unforeseen circumstances in which Wang Xiaoyi will not be able to finish conducting the sessions for the research, I will take over as supervisor and do whatever is needful and required.

Thank you for your cooperation and willingness to be a part of this research.

Regards,

Name :

Signature :

Date :
Affiliated Middle School of Jilin University  
Changchun, China

RE: Permission to allow Wang Xiaoyi to conduct research for her PhD Degree Dissertation titled:

With reference to the above matter, I __________ Principal of this school, which is located in Changchun, China have met and discussed with Wang Xiaoyi (Matric No. PHA 080002) regarding her PhD Dissertation topic as titled above and her purposed research methodology.

I have no objections with this research that is going to be conducted. I also give the researcher permission to use the premises and associated equipment of the school in order to conduct and carry out her research.

Thank you

Regards

Name :

Signature :

Date :
## Appendix D

**Sample of Coding Data with Assistance of NVivo 8**

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00:24:50 同学在下面讨论，老师在各组之间走动。回答学生问题，（讨论了3分钟左右）

01:00 28 同学在下面讨论，老师在各组之间走动。回答学生问题。
## Sample of Observation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Category/Themes And Definition</th>
<th>Excerpts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **self-answered question** | teacher dominate (hegemony on speech-monologue)  
**Definition:** Hegemony on Speech  
Teacher maintains a dominant position of speaking in classroom controls the process of dialogue, suppresses student’s need of speaking. | C: so it was that such a statement, saying that there will always be something, some mystery in life sciences, which has never been figured out, as we all know, what is it? It is the origin of life. Is it a little pessimism? How come science is so incompetent? ......the earth is 4.6 billion years old, how many years is it since there was a life on the earth? About 3.6 billion years. How long is it during the process of gestating life? Around 1 billion years......(reference b2) |
| **talk to self**           |                                                                                               | A: how to summarize? Actually it is the character plus the event plus the result, thus the meaning of this paragraph is summed up, isn’t it? Namely someone did something, and what happened then, isn’t it? Alright. (reference c6)                                                                 |
| **multiple questions**     | pursue standard answer (examination oriented-monologue)  
**definition:** examination oriented  
For purpose of examination, teacher focuses on student’s score, pursue on standard answer, change learning approach for sake of exam. | A: the society is declining and deserted … from which aspect is it described in term of “declining and deserted”? What is this paragraph talking about? Some student said it was talking about environment, which kind of environment?  
S1: social environment.  
A: social environment. Is it correct or not? Alright…(reference c2) |
| **‘exam’ talk**            | mechanization (dialogue)  
**definition:** mechanization  
The process of classroom dialogue is mechanical, which is represented by teacher having shallow dialogue with student, emphasizing on efficiency, establishing I-It relationship with students and giving direct critique. | B: sometimes exam is very dogmatic, to what extent? For example, once monthly exam, there was a question, asking the purpose of Korean War. If you answer as ‘bao jia wei guo’ (meaning protect and defend homeland, in Chinese, there are four characters to represent this meaning), you will lose one mark, the correct answer should be eight characters, namely, ‘kang mei yuan chao bao jia wei guo’ (meaning against US, support Korea, protect and defend homeland). (reference h1) |
| **direct critique**        | encourage dialogue (dialogue)  
**definition:** encourage dialogue  
Teacher encourages student’s initiative behavior of dialogue through valuing student’s thinking, setting up social model and giving social persuasion. | Teacher A asks the pronunciation of a word, when student could not answer it, she said, “stand, if you don’t know then you stand!” (reference c5)                                                                 |
| **fact-checking question** | mechanization (dialogue)  
**definition:** mechanization  
The process of classroom dialogue is mechanical, which is represented by teacher having shallow dialogue with student, emphasizing on efficiency, establishing I-It relationship with students and giving direct critique. | B: first question, which meeting prepared for the establishment of new China? S1.  
S1: Beiping Political Consultative Conference.  
B: Political Consultative Conference, location?  
S1: Beiping.  
B: time?  
S1: 1949. (reference h1) |
| **rushing on time**        | encourage dialogue (dialogue)  
**definition:** encourage dialogue  
Teacher encourages student’s initiative behavior of dialogue through valuing student’s thinking, setting up social model and giving social persuasion. | B: don’t waste time, our stress is relatively high due to that class time is greatly diminished from 45 minutes to 40 minutes, and now teacher needs to extend a lot of content because we need to link the current content with part of world history. (reference h4) |
| **praise for thinking**    | meaningful dialogue (dancing with student-dialogue)  
**definition:** meaningful dialogue (dancing with student-dialogue)  
During the process of classroom dialogue, teacher sometimes encourages student’s initiative behavior of dialogue through valuing student’s thinking, setting up social model and giving social persuasion. | C: I found today, the questions our students proposed are more and more excellent! This question could be a hypothesis of proposal to be researched on. (reference b3) |
| **facilitating question**  | meaningful dialogue (dancing with student-dialogue)  
**definition:** meaningful dialogue (dancing with student-dialogue)  
During the process of classroom dialogue, teacher sometimes encourages student’s initiative behavior of dialogue through valuing student’s thinking, setting up social model and giving social persuasion. | C: how do you understand the spores in the water? How come there are spores in the water?  
S1: maybe the water is nature water.  
C: em, very good! I’m very glad that S1 already mastered the way of thinking. Where is the water |
leads, and sometimes follows to make the process work well through meaningful dialogue and connection.

which I put in the tank from? Go on!
S1: it is from tap.
C: correct, it is tap water.
S1: tap water comes from water plant, the water plant I guess it is the reservoir. (reference b2)

C: now for insects you are unfamiliar, then we take ourselves as samples. Let's backtrack, how human beings reproduce and develop? Think about this, my age and your age, are we in developmental stage?
Students gave response. (reference b3)

Teacher C shared her experience. Once, a student gave her a silkworm as a gift. The silkworm was covered by silk which looked like cotton. She put it into a box, and then covered the box. After about one week when she opened the box, a moth came out. She tried to feed the moth, but it didn’t work. Soon after, the moth died. After telling the experience, she said: “through this experience, I learnt silkworm can grow into a moth. When I tried to feed the moth with water and rice, it didn’t eat. I was wondering if it was not the right food. Then I referred to books, and found out that, during the period of silkworm growing into moth, it doesn’t eat anything. That’s the reason why the silkworm is full of nutrition.” (reference b4)

S: teacher, I have a question, I went to my grandmother’s house on weekends, I saw bamboo and something looks like seeds grow on it. My grandmother asked me what that was, I did not know. Grandma said it happened before, but the seed-like thing didn’t grow out anything, she thought it was seed and wouldn’t let me touch. I feel like bamboo doesn’t have seeds, but grandma said it was. Teacher, what is it?
C: which part of bamboo does it grow on?
S: it grows from bamboo joint.
C: it is axil.
S: yes.
C: it’s like our armpits, we call it axil of leaf. I am very happy! Currently I am writing an article on what kind of class is the best class, in my opinion the answer is that the class in which students ask questions on their own initiative. It means not I as a teacher teach you something, but you as an active learner propose questions. I feel very happy, you give me a confidence and encouragement! Then S put forward, his grandma saw something grew from the bamboo joint and then assumed that all plants produce seeds, so she kept them to grow, in fact, nothing grew out of it. Facts speak louder than eloquence. The fact implies it is not seed. Now we infer according to theory, bamboo is not reproduced by seeds, so which type of reproduction is it?
SS: asexual reproduction.
C: asexual reproduction. This thing which grows out from joint is also vegetative organ. Very good! I hope other students will learn from him, to be a good observer and questioner. (reference b4)

C: speak out bravely.
S: how about the answer is wrong?
C: not afraid of incorrect answer. (reference b7)

C: today we learnt that if we want to know if it is heredity or aberrance, we should look at traits, then what controls traits? Speculate bravely, not afraid to say, what is it? … No matter your speculation is correct or wrong, you speculate, you will explore something. (reference b7)
## Sample of Interview Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Category/Themes And Definition</th>
<th>Excerpts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ academic achievement</td>
<td>Students’ academic achievement Definition: the scores student achieve in exams.</td>
<td>“Most teachers like high academic achievement students, actually very few teachers like low academic achievement students……Chinese teacher likes students who are good at Chinese, and English teacher likes students who are good at English.” (students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class size</td>
<td>class size Definition: class size The capacity of the classroom. In the sample school, the classroom is about 54 m² (9m × 6m).</td>
<td>The interviewed students preferred smaller class size, which means that there are about 30 to 50 students in one classroom. They gave the following reasons: “Firstly, it is easier for teachers to manage the class; Secondly, all students will have the opportunity to communicate, to talk and express ideas; Thirdly, the teacher will take care of every student’s need in the classroom. Some students mentioned that students had different needs such as some liked to be paid attention to while others did not. A smaller class size could help teachers to get to know students’ individual differences better and deeper; the more teachers get to know students, the better they know how to teach students accordingly”. (students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>examination oriented</td>
<td>perception of learning Definition: participants’ perception of learning in terms of the purpose and results of learning.</td>
<td>“If some students didn’t mark the textbook, I have to remind them, tell them to mark, even asked them after class ‘what were you doing in class?’ then I have to check their textbooks one by one. That has really truly become examination-orientated education.” (teacher B) “I start to care about exam skill. No matter you like the exam skill or not, no matter if the exam skill is of benefit for students’ development, it will be a passport for students to go to high school and college.” (teacher A) “The purpose of study is to achieve good marks, then go to good high school, later find a good job, in short, it is for a bright future…I like pleasing atmosphere in class, which can make me laugh, I think there is more fun after school than in school…of course, my pressure is more or less from academic achievement.” (student)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confusion</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Many times I wish to let students to obtain the knowledge actively, however, it apparently could not work out with exam. I didn’t find the solution yet.” (teacher B) When putting into practical level of teachers, no matter how wonderful the concept is, it is ideality. Teachers have to face the reality. Actually I have confusion too. On one hand I consider student’s follow-up development, such as their development in high school, college, even in workplace; on the other hand, I have to face and guarantee students will not screw up in the high school entrance exam.” (teacher C) “To be honest, I don’t know why we study, the elders say we study for our own good and to have a bright future, but I think people cannot always think of the future, we live now, thus I think I study because now I can do nothing except learning, I should study, not for future but for now…” (students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pressure from exam</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Exam makes me nervous, and so does the list ranked according to students’ marks, sometimes I can’t persuade myself…” “Sometimes I feel nervous before exam, but more pressure is from me. My parents didn’t give my too much pressure, but intangibly I set up pressure for myself, I worry that if I don’t do well in exam I will disappoint my parents, or feel ashamed among peers.” (student) “I was very painful last semester, my score of last semester (was not very good)…because last semester I asked students to handle the class, to teach and talk by themselves, then finally the implementation of key points of knowledge was certainly...” (students)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| honored characteristics of teachers | student’s attitude towards teacher<br>Definition: how student feels about teacher. | “Honest is most important, teachers must get along with students honestly…I like teacher who can convince students by example.”
“Like teacher who can explain the problem clearly, well-organized and orderly, not rigid. I like XXX teacher, because he has correct attitude of being a human, and he doesn’t feel to be superior to rule on the students…”
“I like teacher who has good temper, patient, very sunny, kind of like to encourage students…I like friendly teacher-student relationship, no hierarchy, everyone is equal, but it hasn’t realized until now (laugh)…”
“Male teacher should be like a brother, female teacher firstly shouldn’t be like a termagant, no violence, should be good to students, relationship needs to be harmonious, she is the person we can talk to…she can have requirement, but not too strict, should give us some space, if head teacher, beautiful is the best…if I were a teacher I would like to find out the ins and outs of my class to learn the truth, and employ the most appropriate way to manage, build rapport with students, became the same front comrades…” (students)
“I don’t like teacher who is only concerned about her favorite students, talks nonsense or yells at students…but she is not mother style…teacher shouldn’t watch as like a police.
“I think if teacher says she loves students, she should prove by actions, not just always say ‘I love these children’.‖" (students)
| dishonored characteristics of teachers | student’s needs from teacher | “students seldom tell their confusion to teachers, because generally speaking, student’s confusion cannot be understood by teachers, thus, in this aspect, teacher cannot solve doubts…I think teacher as an adult will have a one-sided idea when they look at us with a commanding point of view.”
“I like XXX teacher, because she likes me, and appreciate me…I like teacher who really loves us, can express her true feelings and emotions, if she is angry with us she will criticize us, then we will know she really cares about us, I don’t like some teachers who gets angry and leave the class.”
| belief on building teacher-student rapport | teacher’s attitude towards students and teacher-student rapport<br>Definition: how teacher feels about student and their perception of rapport between them. | “When teacher respects student’s needs, there will be good teacher-student rapport.”
“Teacher-student rapport equals to the quality of teaching.”
“first, nowadays, students are influenced by external environment, such as entertainment…secondly, I think they don't obtain real joy from learning, in other words, they don’t develop confidence…” (teacher A)
| concept not consist with action | early programming<br>Definition: how people were raised since childhood, including parenting and teaching style. | “…It’s the problem of our way of education, because we do not allow students to ask questions, therefore, our students do not know what to do when asked to do research.” (teacher C)
| dictating adult | speaking right<br>Definition: traditional Chinese culture which the younger obeys elder, child obeys parents and student obeys teacher unconditionally. | “Eating is human being’s most basic need, if a child does not eat properly or enough, he will get a consequence of getting hungry soon, he needs to realize and correct his behavior. However, we never give him a chance to do that. We provide food before the child gets hungry, we give instructions, orders, even answers before child explores by himself.” (teacher C) | “When talking about teacher-student rapport, we all have the idea that we should respect students, however, when putting into action, teacher always feel that I am an adult and student is a child. Thus, actually we didn’t make ‘respect’ into action. First of all, we don’t give speaking right to students.
Appendix G

Sample of Translation of Excerpts

C: ...where does life come from? What's your opinion?
S1: at beginning people believe creationism, later after study, people understand that all the things are not created by God but by derived from single-celled organism in the ocean. Life started in the water, such as trilobites. Then life evolved from ocean to land, and then evolved over.
C: what else?
S2: teacher, I want to add something to what Sw had said. According to Bible, God creates everything on the earth, thus at first beginning, people believe creationism, but later people gradually found that life-from evolved from single-celled organism to multi-celled organism in the ocean and then becomes a whole.
C: what is the theory you mentioned above?
S2: it is marine evolution.
C: em, who else know about where is the first life from?
S3: teacher, the Bible says that God creates human and so on, like what S2 said just now that at beginning people believe God creates human. But then, until now, when we talk about life is from ocean, in the end is the origin of life from the original marine or from an impact where by a star flided over in the universe with the earth?
C: related with the alien?
S3: yes, the debate is the star impacted the land first or dropped into the ocean, where the origin life may come from, this is the reason why it has not been proved in the end where the origin of life is from.
C: now here we got God creationism, life grew from nothing from the water of ocean, life from universe, anyone else has opinion about this topic, from what you heard or you guess?
Appendix H

Sample of Field notes

Date: 01, March 2010 (Monday) – first day of observation (week of desensitization)

Today is the first day I go to the sample school for formal data collection. Everything is new and interesting, even though I have experienced the period before. I got 69 classmates. My neighbor is a boy. From morning to evening, I experienced everything just as a teenager – a middle school student. As the first day of a new semester, teachers usually gave very long speech to motive students, gave hope and expressed expectation on students.

Today we have a routine ritual of raising national flag. Every student wore uniforms – blue color, sport cloth.

There are 8 classes a day. From 7:00am to 5:00 pm, from Monday to Friday.

Note: everything, every speech all about high school entrance exam.

Date: 22, March 2010 (Monday)

Teacher stresses discipline all the time about student’s hair style, cloth, behavior and so on.

Actually in such big class, there are very few opportunities for students to discuss, and teacher rarely employs this approach. Time is valuable. Teachers all rush to finish teaching task in order to leave more time for review and drill.
For learning class, students just study in the classroom and they must keep quiet. Discussion is not allowed as learning classes are for learning alone individually, such as doing homework.

The whole day, there are 10 classes (8 normal classes plus 2 learning classes). Each class lasts 40 minutes, break is 10 minutes between two classes.

Date: 26, March 2010

A girl who sat next to me was reading a magazine, teacher didn’t notice. In the last two rows, some students don’t concentrate on class, a boy is reading cartoon book, and his neighbor is correcting a test paper. In the last two class, the boy either read a cartoon book or played with his hand phone, but wasn’t being caught by teacher (or just ignored by teacher?). Two students are chatting, but teacher doesn’t notice.
Appendix I

Interview questions – version I

Interview Questions for Teachers and Principal

1. How would you describe effective teacher-student rapport with middle school students?

2. How might a teacher go about building this rapport with middle school students?

3. How would you describe the rapport you have with your middle school students?

4. Is there anything you believe you should do to improve your rapport with students?

5. What is the usual class size you teach?

6. How do you feel this class size effects your ability to build rapport with your students?

7. What is your classroom management strategy?

8. In what ways do you believe this strategy enhances teacher-student rapport?

9. Do you believe that the seating arrangement in the classroom can effect teacher-student rapport? If so, in what ways?
Interview Questions for Students

1. Which kind of teacher-student relationship do you like?

2. Which kind of head teacher do you like? How would you get along with your students if you are a head teacher?

3. Who is your favorite teacher? What makes you like him or her?

4. Would you like to talk something in terms of teacher’s behavior in the classroom? For example, which kind of behavior do you like, and which kind of behavior you do not like? (Explain)

5. How does teacher’s emotion affect you? What do you think will affect teacher’s emotion in the classroom?

6. If you are a teacher, how would you react when you find your students do not pay attention in the class or fail to finish homework?

7. What is your opinion on the amount of homework? What will cause you to fail to finish homework?

8. How long does the everyday homework take to complete?

9. Since this school is a first class middle school, why do a lot of students still go for tuition after class?

10. Do you think all the students have enough time to communicate with teacher?

11. Who is the teacher you like to communicate with?

12. What is your opinion when students ask irrelevant questions in class? How does the teacher react?

13. What do you think in terms of the meaning or goals of study?
14. Which kind of classroom atmosphere do you like? Do you have the sense of belonging or like to go to school every day?

15. What makes you feel nervous or tense? Where is your pressure from?

16. Would you like a bigger size class or a smaller size class? How about decreasing the current class size to half of it? (In your opinion, what is the appropriate class size?)

17. What are your thoughts or opinions on the current “examination system”?
Interview questions – version II

Interview Questions for Teachers

1. How do you feel about your rapport with students?
2. What aspects do you think might affect your rapport with students?
3. What do you think the positive teacher-student rapport would be like?
4. Any ideas about what might you go to build rapport with students?
5. Is there anything making you feel difficult to apply the teacher-student rapport which you intend to?

Interview Questions for Students

1. How do you feel about your current rapport with your teacher(s)?
2. What do you think a good teacher-student rapport would be like?
3. What about the teacher who you like to be around with?
4. What aspects do you think might affect teacher-student rapport?
Appendix J

Sample of External Audit’s Comment

Here is Lit review. I have made further corrections in blue. Please check the parts in green. I noticed some references do not have “year of publication”. If you compare the original and this edited copy and do not notice any difference please check for “spacing change” (you need one space after full stop in page numbers, not p.19 but p. 19, for example. If you are referring to page ranges, for example 18-23 you use pp. 18-23 NOT p. 18-23).

If you want to do quick translations of text please go to

www.stars21.com/translator

Please SMS is you receive this.

Regards from: Alina (mizranee)

012-6513961
Appendix K

Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form for Students

Authentic Inquiry:

Researcher: Wang Xiaoyi    Faculty Sponsor: Faculty of Education (UM)
You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of the study is to find out significant factors and effective strategies on rapport building between teacher and student in a middle school classroom.

INFORMATION
1. I will be interviewing all the students of chosen class during the process of this study. Likewise, I will be observing the entire class for 3 months during the academic year in the chosen classroom. I will be recording and analyzing classroom discourse which happens in the classroom.

2. I expect that student interviews will last approximately half an hour each.

RISKS
Because I am a researcher at the site where I am conducting research, I am especially sensitive to the need for confidentiality. I will not discuss the research with anyone else at the site without the written permission of the participants. Any participant is free to leave the study at any time. Interviews will be audio taped, but tapes will be destroyed at the conclusion of the day.

BENEFITS
I believe that there will be several benefits to students participating in the study. Students will be given opportunity to share their opinion to make the research meaningful, therefore contributing to the existing knowledge base in the field of education.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The information in the study records will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study unless you specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link you to the study.
COMPENSATION
For participating in this study, you will receive a gift as appreciation from the researcher. If you withdraw from the study at any time, you will still receive the gift. You also have opportunity to share the results of the study.

CONTACT
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Wang Xiaoyi, by wangxiaoyi456@hotmail.com or 017-6929008.

PARTICIPATION
Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT
I have read and understood the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Subject’s signature: Date: 
Parent/Guardian’s signature: Date: 
Investigator’s signature: Date: 


Informed Consent Form for Teachers

Authentic Inquiry:

Researcher: Wang Xiaoyi Faculty Sponsor: Faculty of Education (UM)
You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of the study is to find out significant factors and effective strategies on rapport building of teacher-student rapport in secondary school.

INFORMATION
1. I will be interviewing participating teachers during the process of this study. Likewise, I will be observing the entire class a minimum of 3 months during the academic year in the chosen classroom. I will be recording and analyzing classroom discourse which happens in classroom. Likewise, I will check with teachers throughout the study to check my evolving interpretations.
2. Each interview will last approximately one hour. I expect that another hour of time will be devoted to member checks throughout the study.

RISKS
Because I am a researcher at the site where I am conducting research, I am especially sensitive to the need for confidentiality. I will not discuss the research with anyone else at the site without the written permission of the participants. Likewise, I will make it clear to participants at what time I am acting in the role of “researcher” and acting in the role of “colleague.” Any participant is free to leave the study at any time. Interviews will be audio taped, but tapes will be destroyed at the conclusion of the day.

BENEFITS
I believe that there will be several benefits to teachers participating in the study. Teachers will be given opportunity to express and share their opinions to make the research meaningful, therefore contributing to the existing knowledge base in the field of education.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The information in the study records will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be stored securely and will be make available only to persons conducting the study unless you specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link you to the study.

COMPENSATION
For participating in this study, you will receive a gift as appreciation from the researcher. If you withdraw from the study at any time, you will still receive the gift. You also have opportunity to share the results of the study.
CONTACT
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Wang Xiaoyi, by wangxiaoyi456@hotmail.com or 017-6929008.

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CONSENT
I have read and understood the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Participant’s signature: Date:

Investigator’s signature: Date: