THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT APPROACHES AND LEARNER ACHIEVEMENT AT PRIMARY SCHOOLS

By

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Ramotsabi Dorrington Matsepe, student number 209066237, thus declare that the following research project has been submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree: Master of Education, is my own work; it complies with the Central University of Technology's Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules, and regulations; and it has never been submitted to any institution by myself or anyone else in fulfilment or partial fulfilment of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

13 July 2023

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT

DATE

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved late parents Senathe Elizaberth Matsepe and Ntjanyana Abiel “Oom Honkie” Matsepe, who taught me the value of hard work and inspired me to pursue my goals in life and for always believing in me. My family, thank you for your overall support and patience from the beginning of my studies.

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ABSTRACT

South African society holds the education system accountable for all aspects of learner achievement. At the Department of Education in the Free State, the performance of learners was previously measured based on the matric year-end results only. This has however been re-evaluated as primary schools also make a major contribution to the process of developing learner achievement as these schools are the feeders into secondary schools. In this study, the researcher explored the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. The study was grounded in Pavlov's classical conditioning theory and Skinner's operant conditioning theory. It was shaped by the research question: Is there a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools? The study used a quantitative approach with a correlation design. It used a survey and simple random sample to select the 162 teachers who completed a questionnaire.

The findings revealed that the success approach was the most applied classroom management approach whilst the assertive approach was the least applied in primary schools. The results indicated no relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. The three primary school phases did not significantly differ on the application of the assertive approach, business academic approach, behavioural modification approach, group managerial approach and success approach. However, it should be noted that a significant difference existed between the Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase teachers on the application of the group guidance approach. Intermediate Phase teachers applied the group guidance approach more than Senior Phase teachers. As far as the application of the acceptance approach goes, Foundation Phase and Senior Phase teachers differed significantly, with Foundation Phase teachers applying this approach more than the Senior Phase teachers. Likewise, Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase teachers also significantly differed in the application of this approach, with Intermediate Phase teachers applying the acceptance approach more than Senior Phase teachers. Furthermore, the five school quintiles did not significantly differ on the application of the assertive approach, business academic approach, behavioural modification

approach, group guidance approach, acceptance approach, success approach in the classrooms. Nevertheless, teachers in Quintile 1 and Quintile 3 primary schools differed significantly in the application of the group managerial approach with teachers in Quintile 1 schools applying this approach more. Still, teachers in Quintile 2 and Quintile 3 primary schools differed significantly on the application of the group managerial approach with teachers in Quintile 2 schools who apply this approach more.

To minimize learner misbehaviour and manage the classroom effectively, this study recommends that primary school teachers should adopt classroom management techniques such as giving learners immediate feedback, applying rewards in the classroom, knowing the socio-economic backgrounds of their learners and providing lockers in the classrooms.

KEYWORDS: *Acceptance approach, assertive approach, behavioural modification approach, business academic approach, classroom management approaches, group guidance approach, group managerial approach, learner achievement, primary schools, success approach*

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

Achievement of learners is a critical issue in education today, with increased teacher responsibilities for this (Pooja, 2017). One of the main reasons in relation to this argument is that learner achievement has become one of the factors that hinder the success of a learner later in life and reflects on the effectiveness and abilities of a teacher. Al-Azawei and Lundqvist (2015) assert that one of the features that determines high learner achievement is active and high-quality teaching and learning that occurs in a setting that is free from disturbances. This is the reason why classroom management plays a significant part in education.

Emmer and Sabornie (2014) view classroom management as a comprehensive range of skills and approaches that teachers employ during a lesson to keep learners well considered, orderly, focused, attentive, task-oriented, and educationally efficient. Effective classroom management sets a tone in the classroom that captures learners' attention as a need for effective quality teaching and learning (Brown, Bourne and Peterkin, 2019). This assertion is evident since a classroom which is disorganised due to poor classroom management is unlikely to develop extensive learning and learners' achievement might be hindered. Additionally, continual interruptions can impede learners' attention. Learners are constrained while waiting for the teacher to deal with a misbehaving learner. This can result in lower grades and behavioural challenges with other learners as well as with the learner who misbehaves (Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2019).

Additionally, Hulac and Briesch (2017) affirm that an effective and operative management of classroom approaches are crucial to the successful management of the learning and teaching environment. Because of that, (Vakalisa, 2016) contend that choosing the best classroom management method can help teachers to control their classrooms efficiently. Successful implementation of classroom management approaches can increase learners' success and create a productive and cooperative

learning environment. When classroom management strategies are implemented successfully, teachers curtail the behaviours that hinder teaching and learning for both individual learners and groups of learners, while making the most of the behaviours that facilitate or promote learner achievement (Korpershoek et al., 2016). Considering the aforementioned statements, it is imperative to explore the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.2 Background of the Problem

The educational system is subject to scrutiny by South African society for all aspects of learner achievement. Regarding the Free State Department of Education, the performance of learners was previously measured based on the matric year-end results only. This has however been re-evaluated as primary schools also make a major contribution to the process of developing learner achievement as these schools are the feeders of secondary schools. It is unfortunate to observe that the curriculum sections in the education departments have struggled to address the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement. With that said, classroom management approaches also form part of the many fundamental factors that affect learners' academic achievement. The overall success or failure of the educational processes and outcomes can be determined by how the classroom is managed (Uriegas et al., 2014). Furthermore, the teachers' role and how they respond to common classroom challenges have a significant impact on classroom management in the teaching-learning situation (Vairamidou & Stravakou, 2019). Chandra (2015) argues that learners are unique beings, and it is important for classroom management approaches to be structured to fit the uniqueness of the learners. Despite the efforts by education programmes to train teachers in classroom management approaches and improve learner achievement, classroom management approaches still pose a problem in improving learner achievement. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. With the view that poor classroom management affects learner achievement, the study focuses on whether there is constancy between the teachers' classroom management approaches and learners' academic achievement. The results of this study will provide

insights that will enable provincial education departments to make data-driven decisions concerning professional advancement that can improve classroom management skills in terms of approaches for teachers at primary schools. Furthermore, it is imperative to note that quality learner performance requires effective classroom management approaches.

1.3 Significance of the Research

This research study will be conducted to comprehend the relationships between classroom management approaches and learner achievement. This research will also be needed for several reasons since the education of South African children has been affected due to many changes in curriculum, hence the question to be examined is what the relationship between classroom management approaches and learners' achievement at primary schools is. The findings of the research will therefore enlighten the teachers in primary schools on classroom management approaches and their effects that would lead to the improvement of learners' academic achievement. This is because the factors that affect are affecting classroom management approaches will be reviewed, and their effects will be brought to light. This research will show that teachers' classroom management at primary schools can influence learner performance.

Provincial education departments (and the Free State Education Department in particular) will also benefit from the study's findings in that the results will reveal the situation on the ground on matters pertaining to link between classroom management approaches and its effects on learner achievement. Furthermore, the findings will also enlighten school management teams and other stakeholders on matters affecting classroom management approaches and learners' achievement. The findings will assist in improving management approaches in relation to learner performance at primary schools.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

This study's theoretical foundation is based on Skinner's operant conditioning and Pavlov's classical conditioning theories. These are deliberated succinctly in this section. The choice for using the two theories is influenced by the quality that each will give to this study. Learning theories are investigated based on ideas about how learners learn and further combine what is known about advancement, motivation, emotions, and environment to explain how learners obtain, store, and apply knowledge. These are the underlying matters that have prompted the undertaking of this research.

1.4.1 Classical Conditioning

Pavlov's theory of classical conditioning will be employed because it is based on the belief that forming an association between two stimuli results in a learned response. According to Pavlov (1927), classical conditioning is a process of learning that happens when an environmental stimulus is associated with a naturally occurring stimulus. It can be claimed that this theory was the first behaviourist theory to emerge. Pavlov asserts that conditioning is an automatic response (Schunk, 2016). Pavlov also described that the associations made by the pairing of the unconditioned stimulus and neutral stimulus could be general. As a result, it is possible that the desired results may have been achieved by generalisation without the use of children and preventive devices. Further, Schunk (2016) claims that conditioning in humans takes place when a person is conscious of the association between conditioned and unconditioned stimuli. As a result, the present study will consider the developmental functioning of children.

1.4.2 Operant Conditioning

According to the principle underlying operant conditioning, behaviour is taught through punishments and rewards. Through operant conditioning, a person establishes a link between a specific behaviour and an outcome (Skinner, 1938). Skinner is well-known for re-evaluating and furthering the ideas of classical conditioning. Theorists who

adopt classical conditioning (such as Pavlov) claim that humans act out of a reaction to a stimulus (a reflex), Skinner extended this understanding to include the concept of operant conditioning in which humans reply not to a reflex but to reinforcement (Miller, 2016; Skinner, 1938). Skinner contended that the stimulus is not something that necessarily comes first. Rather, it is in operant conditioning, that a person acts positively somewhat haphazardly.

To acquire the desired and required good behaviour from the learners, operant conditioning, which promotes positive reinforcement must be used. Operant conditioning encourages positive support which can be applied in the classroom environment to get the good behaviour you want and require from the learners. Therefore, Skinners' theory of operant conditioning will be used in an instructional environment to assist teachers in controlling their classrooms. In this study, I will consider different classroom management approaches such as assertive method, business academic method, behavioural modification method, group managerial method, group guidance method, acceptance method, and success method, all of which will be used in a specific setting in the management of classrooms by teachers at the primary school level. In this way the effect of classroom management practices on learner achievement in primary schools will also be considered. One of teachers' roles is to provide educational spaces which are conducive to learning and this requires high-quality classroom management practices. Therefore, it is imperative to examine the various classroom management approaches.

1.5 Literature Review

The section provides a brief overview of the literature on the meaning and role of classroom management, classroom management approaches used by teachers, and the effect of classroom management approaches on learner achievement.

1.5.1 The Meaning and Role of Classroom Management

The management of classroom means the ability of the teacher to control, coordinate, and support the teaching environment as well as learners' behaviour within the same

learning context (Garrett, 2014). Brown et al. (2019) emphasise that curriculum and learning are encouraged by how teaching is planned by a teacher and how they inspire and engage learners. As a result, a well-run classroom is a task-oriented, reliable setting in which learners can see what is expected of them, how or when to excel, and where to find information to support them in achieving the goals of the school. Vakalisa (2016) proposes that when learners understand what is needed from them, and they understand the value of thorough planning classroom tasks this results in a smooth flow of lessons.

Roth (2014) upholds that management of a classroom is a necessity for the achievement of disciplinary goals and the safety of the well-being of learners based on teaching and learning. To deal with classroom management, the terms: discipline, order, control motivation, punishment, or establishing a positive attitude, can all be used interchangeably. For classroom management to be effective, teachers must understand the assumptions that classroom management entails. Consequently, Brown et al. (2019) highlight the following assumptions: understanding of learners' personal, social, and learning needs; the establishment of positive teacher-learner and peer relationships in order to meet their psychological needs; the use of teaching and group management approaches; the ability to use a variety of therapy and behavioural strategies that involve learners in evaluating and addressing their own difficult behaviour; and the ability to use a variety of therapy and behavioural strategies that involve learners in evaluating and addressing their own difficult conduct. Mitchell and Bradshaw (2013) claim that classroom management objectives are for learners to achieve social and academic success in a formal setting that addresses tolerance, exemplary conduct and learning. Effective management of classrooms includes the execution of approaches that create a safe, equitable and rule-based learning environment in which learners can produce meritorious results (Ahmad et al., 2017). These approaches are intended to produce a lively learning environment in which learners can learn more easily and obtain better academic performance. Depending on the nature of the problem at hand, all approaches can be implemented in the classroom.

1.5.2 Classroom Management Approaches Used by Teachers

This section briefly outlines classroom management approaches used by the teachers as suggested by Ornstein (1990). Classroom management approaches which teachers can use are the assertive method, the business academic method, the behavioural modification method, the group managerial method, the group guidance method, the acceptance method as well as the success method (Ornstein, 1990). Each of these will be discussed separately in the following sections.

1.5.2.1 The Assertive Method

The assertive method of school management is an obedience-based method of discipline. It entails a high degree of teacher management and teacher supervision in the classroom. It is also called the "take-control" method of teaching, since teachers control their classrooms in a firm but positive manner. Ornstein (1990) and Vakalisa (2016) contend that in this method, teachers must develop guidelines that clearly describe the boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable learner behaviour, to teach the rules and processes and to ask parents and/or administrators to assist them in controlling learners' conduct where support is required.

1.5.2.2 The Business Academic Method

According to the business academic approach, reducing disturbances in the classroom can be achieved by pre-planning activities and using effective teaching techniques. Ornstein (1990) and Vakalisa (2016) point out that teachers who offer learners clear directions on how to complete assignments, start lessons on time, and swiftly provide feedback on their submissions experience fewer interruptions in the classroom than those who plan haphazardly.

1.5.2.3 The Behavioural Modification Method

Behavioural modification method is a way of changing behaviour through using different approaches u to replace undesirable behaviours with required ones (Ornstein, 1990). Teachers who use behaviour modification spend less time on

learners' personal backgrounds or on examining the explanations or causes for a specific problem, instead, teachers seek to increase their engagement in suitable behaviour (Emmer & Sabornie, 2014). Behavioural modification inspires teachers to indicate evidently acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. Rewards will be implemented as a means of reinforcing acceptable learner behaviour in the classroom.

1.5.2.4 The Group Managerial Method

The group managerial method stresses the significance of reacting quickly to undesirable learner behaviour to prevent problems, rather than having to tackle them after they have come up again (Ornstein, 1990, Vakalisa, 2016). If a learner does not behave suitably and the teacher stops the misbehaviour immediately, it remains an isolated occurrence and will most likely not become a matter in the future. Rijal (2015) points out that if it happens that the teacher does not notice the misconduct, ignores or allows it to endure long enough, it might spread to others and end up becoming serious and persistent.

1.5.2.5 The Group Guidance Method

Gartrell (2013) and Ornstein (1990) argue that the group guidance method is closely associated to the group management method. The group guidance method regards the unacceptable behaviour of the individual to be indicative of a faulty group that can be solved by counselling the whole group. The teacher who implements this method allows learners to open themselves to whatever distracts them and listens to them without judging them. The teacher must gain learners' trust sufficiently by listening to their fears and frustrations.

1.5.2.6 The Acceptance Method

This method is based on the theory that for some learners, misbehaviour is a cry for acceptance from people they respect, including their parents and peers. According to Ornstein (1990) and Vakalisa (2016), followers of this method believe that some learners look for a high degree of approval by both peers and teachers as a need in

the hierarchy of basic needs. They may change their behaviour and behave well if teachers give them attention and show interest in them.

1.5.2.7 The Success Method

The success method addresses general psychological and societal conditions rather than appropriate behaviour and the consequences of such behaviour (Ornstein, 1990). The teachers' job is to assist learners to make suitable choices. Teachers in this instance attempt to change whatever undesired behaviour is happening and to improve the environment so that learners can succeed. This means that the teacher must show carefulness and be positive and persistent (Ornstein, 1990; Vakalisa, 2016).

1.5.3 The Effect of Classroom Management Approaches on Learner Achievement

Ahmad et al. (2017) contend that the active execution of classroom management approaches leads to higher academic achievement among the learners. This is long-established by George et al. (2017) who claim that teachers' classroom management approaches are solidly associated with learner achievement, which makes classroom management a critical competency area for all teachers. Teachers who lack classroom management skills and using the incorrect method at the wrong time may have a negative or questionable impact on learner learning.

In classes where effective management approaches are implemented, high achievement scores are greater than those of learners in classes where effective management approaches are not implemented (Brown et al., 2019). Classroom management is needed in every classroom to increase learner achievement.

1.6 Problem Statement

There seems to be a challenge of under-performance in many primary schools in South Africa. In most primary schools, academic performance has worsened in recent

years and this problem is ascribed to misbehaviour by learners. This is supported by media news about poor learner discipline in many primary schools. Many learners show negative and violent behaviours, are not encouraged to learn, and do not consistently stay on-task (Van Wyk, 2015). These kinds of behaviours are disadvantageous to the teaching - learning condition. If primary school management and teachers stressed how to implement classroom management, these issues could be curbed. There is a need to investigate the approaches to classroom management that teachers are currently using to examine the link between these, and learner achievement and this study does this, looking particularly at primary schools in the district of Lejweleputswa.

1.6.1 Research Questions

The following paragraphs outline the main research question and sub-questions that will be investigated in this study.

1.6.1.1 Main Research Question

Is there relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools?

1.6.1.2 Subsidiary Questions

- What is the nature and essence of classroom management?
- Which classroom management approaches are implemented at primary schools?
- How do classroom management approaches influence learner achievement at primary schools?

1.6.2 Research Objectives

This study aimed to achieve the following research objectives:

- Explore if there is a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.
- Establish the nature and essence of classroom management.
- Identify classroom management approaches which are implemented at primary schools.
- Examine how classroom management approaches influence learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3 Hypotheses

In this research, the following hypotheses will be tested:

1.6.3.1 Group 1 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.2 Group 2 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.3 Group 3 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.4 Group 4 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.5 Group 5 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.6 Group 6 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between group guidance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between group guidance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.7 Group 7 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is relationship between acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.6.3.8 Group 8 hypotheses

H_0: There is no relationship between success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is relationship between success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

1.7 Research Design and Methodology

This section briefly explains the research process that was followed. It describes the research design and methodology which include the research approach and techniques applied.

1.7.1 Research Approach and Design

Research approach is a strategy that enables researchers to choose the research design they want to use and communicate that choice to others (Kumar, 2019). It essentially outlines the objectives of the study and methods to be used to obtain, examine, and to report the data. Research design is a choice the researcher makes on the elements the project will need as well as the creation of design elements. Creswell (2014) contends that there are different types of inquiry such as qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methodologies approach that provide precise guidance for procedures in research design. I will therefore be ascertaining the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement. According to Gall et al. (2015), the characteristics of quantitative research are the acceptance of an objective reality, the strategy used to translate reality into quantifiable variables, the strategy used to generate generalizable knowledge by selecting samples that accurately represent a population, and the use of statistical techniques to analyse data. According to Creswell (2012), correlation designs give researchers the chance to forecast results and explain how different variables relate to one another. Researchers employ correlation statistical tests to characterise and quantify the level of association between two or more variables or sets of scores in correlational research designs. In this study, two variables, classroom management approaches and learner achievement are measured as part of a correlation study.

1.7.2 Research Methodology

The following paragraphs briefly outline data collection, analysis, population, and sample for this research.

1.7.2.1 Data Collection

According to McAteer (2015), the type of data needed for any research rests heavily on the actual research question. Researchers obtain information through a test, instrument, or behavioural checklist. A close-ended questionnaire will be employed as a tool for data collection. Gall et al. (2015) state that a questionnaire is a paper and pencil test or scale which usually measures one or two variables. The questionnaire used in this study entails items that measured teacher implementation of classroom approaches. It also had an item on school results which reflect learners' academic achievement. A subsequent semantic deferential scale was used to measure classroom management approaches and strategies which are implemented by the teachers when delivering lessons. There is an example of it below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree

The overall school results that were recorded were for the 2019 academic year. The results measured learner achievement. The 2020 and 2021 results were not being taken into consideration because academic activities were severely disrupted owing to the COVID-19 pandemic. I visited the schools personally and distributed the questionnaire amongst the respondents to collect the desired information. This helped to ensure a high rate of questionnaire return. The questionnaire used contained statements aimed at eliciting information on classroom management approaches, strategies and learner achievement.

1.7.2.2 Data Analysis

The data was entered into an Excel spreadsheet and analysed with the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 25. There are various related stages that are performed while analysing quantitative data. These include choosing a statistical programme, entering the data onto the computer, figuring out how to assign numerical scores to the data, evaluating the types of ratings to employ, and lastly sorting the database for analysis (Creswell, 2015). The most widely used data analysis approaches, according to Uzunboylu and Asiksoy (2014), are descriptive methods; however, several other methods are also frequently employed by different researchers. I analysed the data collected using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse data on classroom management approaches, strategies, and learner achievement. According to Creswell (2015), descriptive analysis of data means the translation of raw data into a context that is simple to grasp. Inferential statistics was used to determine relationships between variables and group differences.

1.7.2.3 Population and Sampling

The total group from whom the researcher wants to infer conclusions is referred to as a population. It can refer to a collection of whatever the researchers desire to study, including things, occasions, groups, nations, species, and animals. Furthermore, a set or group of all the units on which the research's conclusions are based is referred to as a population (Creswell, 2012; Plano Clark & Creswell, 2015). Shukla (2020) defines a population as a combination of all the units that have the variable characteristics being studied and to which the research's conclusions can be applied. A sample only makes up a tiny portion of the research population (Mills & Gay, 2019). This means that the units chosen from the population as a sample must accurately reflect all the traits of the various kinds of population units. Most studies collect data from sample units rather than the full population due to a variety of factors, and their conclusions are then generalised to the entire population. Only if efforts are made to choose the sample while keeping in mind the qualities of an ideal sample will this be possible to perform accurately. According to Shukla (2020), sample is any portion of the

population that includes each of the population's components. A sample is also a small portion of something from which data about the original item are extracted.

According to Babbie (2017), sampling is the best option when it is impossible or impracticable to generate a list of the components that make up the population. Typically, a specific set of sampling units is linked to a study issue. To guarantee that everyone has an equal opportunity to be selected from the population, the researcher chooses participants (or units, such schools) for the sample (Creswell 2012; Plano Clark & Creswell 2015). This study's population mainly consisted of primary school teachers. From a list of 158 schools in the Lejweleputswa District, twenty primary schools were randomly chosen. Therefore, a probability sampling technique was employed to choose respondents.

1.8 Reliability and Validity of the Research Instrument

The next paragraphs discuss reliability and validity of the questionnaire which was used to collect information in this study.

1.8.1 Reliability

Reliability of a research instrument implies consistency, if one does the survey five times, one should get approximately the same results each time one does it. This serves as a measure for the reliability or accuracy of findings. I assessed the accuracy of the responses on pilot instruments with the help of the supervisor to decide on their reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used to assess internal consistency, thus how the set questions and statements in a questionnaire match with one another (Mills & Gay, 2015). Therefore, I used the Cronbach's alpha coefficient to assess the instrument's reliability.

1.8.2 Validity

Validity refers to the strength of the researcher's observations, assumptions or propositions. Validity is defined as the degree to which a conception is precisely

measured in quantitative research (Heale & Twycross, 2015). It is clear from this definition that it can be defined as the best method available to the reality or falsity of a given assumption, proposition, or conclusion. There are four kinds of validity commonly examined in social research:

The validity of the conclusion asks whether there is a relationship between the programme and the result observed. For instance, in this research, it will be established if there is association between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. With internal validity, if there is no relationship or there is a relationship between variables, not as a result of unnecessary variables, the researcher will know with confidence that the findings have internal validity. Construct validity in this study includes ensuring that all classroom management approaches as constructs are covered by the questionnaire. On the questionnaire, all eight classroom management approaches had e ten items each. This means that classroom management approaches as constructs in the questionnaire had 40 items.

External validity refers to the researcher's ability to generalise the research findings. In this study, I was able to generalise the findings of the population because simple random sampling was employed to select the respondents. In addition, a pilot study was conducted with five male and five female teachers. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire was tested in the pilot study.

1.9 Ethical Considerations

Most ethical considerations fall within one of four clusters, namely protection from harm, informed consent, privacy rights, and fairness with skilled and professional colleagues (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). I wrote a covering letter to inform the respondents of the extent and purpose of the research and to gather informed consent from the respondents. Respondents were advised that their participation in the study was wholly voluntary and that they could withdraw their participation at any time. The letter also assured the respondents of confidentiality to protect their identities and that of the school they worked at. Participants were requested to give their contact details at the

end of the questionnaire so that should they wish to obtain a copy of the study's findings, it could be sent to them. I also submitted a letter to the principals of the schools and the Free State Department of Education to request permission to visit and carry out the research in the primary schools. Ethics are the moral values of professional conduct that are thought to be desirable for good professional practice (Kumar, 2019).

1.10 Delimitations of the Study

This curriculum studies research was carried out at the Lejweleputswa district's primary schools. Other levels of education such as secondary schools were not involved in the research. The study focused primarily on the public education sector.

1.11 Limitations of the Study

Study limitations are weaknesses in a research design that may have an impact on the research's outcomes and conclusions (McMillan, 2012). Numerous limitations were anticipated during this research. Because the study comprised of 20 primary schools around Lejweleputswa District, it cannot be representative of all teachers in the province as it is confined to primary schools in this area. Therefore, the findings of the research are not generalised to all Free State province primary schools because their contextual factors are different from each other.

1.12 Definition of Terms

The definition of terms such as classroom management, classroom management approaches, classroom management strategies and learner achievement will be focused on in the next section. They are important in this study because they are interrelated.

1.12.1 Classroom Management

Rijal (2015) defines classroom management as a teacher's approaches and strategies to maintain a classroom setting conducive to the success of teaching and learning.

Teachers simply need to manage the classroom to set up learners, resources, time, and materials for effective teaching and learning to occur (Jones & Jones, 2012). Furthermore, for the purpose of achieving educational goals, classroom management helps to create and maintain a conducive, productive learning atmosphere (Bailey-Ramos, 2016). Effective classroom management requires the capacity to establish a safe physical, and social environment that supports meaningful learning. As previously said, discipline is a key component of classroom management, and it is a constant concern for teachers, administrators, parents, and learners. Igbinoba and Marvelous (2015) point out that classroom management is more than just maintaining order and control over the learners. From the learners' perspectives, effective classroom management entails a clear set of behaviour expectations and academic presumptions in a positive learning environment. Therefore, it is critical for teachers to understand the basics of classroom management to foster meaningful learning in the classroom.

1.12.2 Classroom Management Approaches

Classroom management approaches are approaches teachers implement to manage and sustain authority in the classroom (Vakalisa, 2016). A teacher-driven approach to classroom management is one in which teachers are the ones who carry out a set of unambiguous rules inside the classroom. According to Confait (2015), the goals of implementing approaches are to increase learners' academic dedication and promote pro-social behaviour. Every time a learner disobeys the rules and regulations set forth by the teacher, there are matching consequences included. The teachers that employ this strategy believe that rewarding every positive action and behaviour that learners do will reduce the frequency of inappropriate behaviours by targeting punishment at the offending behaviours (Halper & Stodder, 2014). In the classroom, disruptive and undesirable misbehaviours are thought to be least likely to occur when learners engage in different learning activities. The teacher's responsibility is to issue directives and rules that learners are expected to follow inside the classroom.

1.12.3 Classroom Management Strategies

For there to be meaningful learning and successful teaching, teachers must arrange learners, resources, time, and materials in the classroom. According to Broome (2013), successful classroom management entails using strategies to create a safe, acceptable, and rule-based environment where learners can develop. Classroom management strategies aim to create a positive learning environment in which learners can freely learn and perform better academically. Classroom management practices exist across virtually all domains of knowledge and grade levels (Back et al., 2016). As a result, classroom management requires teachers to effectively manage the classroom environment to improve the teaching-learning situation.

1.12.4 Learner Achievement

The quantity and quality of educational outcomes are measured by learner achievement. Learners' academic performance is measured by their marks on tests created by their teachers, assessments given at different times of the school year (Al-Azawei & Lundqvist, 2015). Sunday-Piaro (2018) argues that the primary objective of the school is to support learners in their academic success because this is something that has drawn the attention from academics, parents, policymakers, as well as planners globally. The results of an exam are what determines a learner's "scholarly performance." This allows one to compare academic performance to behaviour or assumptions for achieving a specific assertion or explanation of learning strategy in. Tan and Dimmock (2014) also assert that if learning achievement is low, the class environment, including learner behaviour, may need to be improved.

1.13 Chapter Outline

This study consists of five chapters, and these are outlined below:
Chapter 1 provides the background, problem statement, questions, as well as study's aims and objectives. It also outlines the research hypotheses to be tested.
Chapter 2 presents a literature review on classroom management approaches, strategies, and learner achievement.

Chapter 3 focuses on the research design and methodology, data collection techniques, the population and sampling approaches, the research instruments as well as the data analysis procedure.
Chapter 4 presents an analysis of the collected quantitative data.
Chapter 5 presents the findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

1.14 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the research. It explained the study's background and purpose. This chapter also provided a brief literature review, the problem statement, research questions, the study's aim and objectives, and the study's significance. It also presented an overview of theoretical frameworks, methodology and the research design, as well as ethical considerations. The following chapter reviews the literature on classroom management approaches and strategies, and learner achievement.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In modern schools, classroom management is a major issue. Freiberg (2013) states that good teachers do not just teach content; they teach learners about content. Freiberg (2013) contends that teachers should implement effective behaviour control methods, introduce good teaching approaches, and build a good curriculum for teaching learners. In addition to controlling classroom instruction, controlling the actions of learners in the classroom is also the most critical issue a teacher faces because of how it can impact teaching, learning, and most crucially learner achievement.

As a result, the objective of this chapter is to provide a literature review focusing on classroom management approaches and learner achievement. In this study, the literature, which includes both primary and secondary sources, is used and includes four sections. In the first part, the theoretical framework guiding the study is presented. The second part clarifies the nature and the essence of classroom management. The third part of this paper focuses on the research literature regarding different classroom management approaches which are implemented in primary schools. The last section focuses on how classroom management approaches influence learner achievement.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical context places the study in the area or topic in which the investigator works (Conley & French, 2014). It assists the researcher to think about the analysis and helps them to clarify their conclusions about the interconnectedness of the world's relationships. Conley & French (2014) further claim that a theoretical structure often provides the analysis with an orientation, in the sense that it represents the role taken by the researchers in their studies. This suggests that a theoretical structure frames the analysis so it will stay within the limits of the frame while the research is carried out. In this way, a theoretical framework guides the research generated through the developed explanations of certain phenomena and relationships. Thus, a broad

theoretical framework logically leads to a certain conceptual framework (Conley & French, 2014). One of the purposes of a useful theory is to explain such phenomena. It is a story that gives a new viewpoint and extends one's perception of the phenomena. Montuoro and Lewis (2015) suggest that for a hypothesis to be of significance in developing scientific knowledge, certain requirements must be available.

They contend that a theory should have a clear explanation that should be congruent with a current body of knowledge, it should further be a preliminary explanation that can be tested or examined and inspire further study. Montuoro and Lewis (2015) point out that a conceptual framework is an explanatory mechanism that assists an investigator to make sense of the information gathered. Although gathering data is relatively straightforward, it is much more difficult to explain and interpret the data. The theoretical framework for this research is grounded in the theories of Pavlov's classical conditioning and Skinner's operant conditioning.

The decision to use these two theories is motivated by the significance to this study that each give. The orientation of a teacher regarding classroom management is critical since it shapes the teacher's view of classroom management (Rabadi & Ray, 2017). A classroom is a designated area in a school, where learners assemble for lessons and the teacher addresses them. It is a space devoted to learning and teaching. A classroom is significant as it enables learning and teaching. Learners' desire for knowledge and imagination are heightened in a conducive classroom setting (Rabadi & Ray, 2017). The classroom not only protects learners from adverse weather conditions but the provision of items such as a writing board, classroom chairs, and instructional materials all help to facilitate classroom teaching and learning. For the classroom to be useful for learning and teaching, it must be well-organised and maintained. As a result, the idea of classroom management arises. Nevertheless, effective classroom management skills are required for successful teaching and meaningful learning. Classroom management theories are continually changing. There are, nonetheless, significant theories that will still give teachers the required knowledge about how to manage learner behaviour for a productive classroom environment.

2.2.1 B. F. Skinner's Operant Conditioning Theory

In his work, Skinner used the principles of behaviourism and made a significant contribution to people's knowledge of human behaviour. Through his studies with animals, Skinner (1953) discovered that it is possible to achieve desirable behaviour results through rewards and to prevent unwanted behaviour outcomes through punishment.

Although Skinner's (1938) operant conditioning work was not originally intended for addressing classroom management issues, the concepts outlined might be effectively applied to this. Skinner's operant conditioning ideas have had a profound influence on education, particularly classroom management (Omomia & Omomia, 2014). His theory has inspired teaching objectives, programmes of instruction, the mastery of learning, and behaviour analysis, to name a few. The notions of reinforcement and punishment are at the heart of Skinner's operant conditioning. Skinner (1953) states that individuals do not learn by doing something alone, but rather by the consequences of their actions. Skinner (1953) used the term "reinforcement" to describe this. When a learner follows the school rules, according to Skinner's theory, the learner is exhibiting positive behaviour that should be rewarded. However, if a learner breaks the rules, it indicates that the behaviour is undesirable and should be dealt with accordingly. As a result, reinforcement can either be positive or negative.

Skinner (1953) argues that the consequences of an individual's actions determine his or her behaviour. Moreover, behaviourism is not a study of human behaviour, but rather its philosophy. Reinforcements, according to Skinner, can promote desired behaviour while they decrease unwanted behaviour. Reinforcements might be social, graphic, tangible, or activity-based (McLeod, 2018). According to Skinner (1953), all that we know regarding operant conditioning can be used to increase or decrease the likelihood of a behaviour occurring on a specific occasion. Using what individuals know about reinforcement contingencies, even clearer distinctions may be created. The act of increasing or decreasing the likelihood of certain behaviour by either positive or negative reinforcement when a behaviour is shown, results in the subject eventually learning to identify the behaviour with the pleasure or discomfort the reward brings (McLeod, 2018).

Skinner (1953) suggests that a teacher may manage the classroom environment through immediate feedback. Reinforcements can either be positive (special chances, celebrations, sweets) or negative (loss of opportunities, referrals, suspension) to establish an atmosphere in which each learner works successfully. Skinner (1953) contends that issues, even large ones, may be addressed provided individuals, who are conversant with the specifics, also adopt a viable theory of human behaviour. Skinner's behaviour theory claims that consequences may shape a learner's behaviour. Nonetheless, in a classroom, more than one learner might be present at the same time, and learning can occur vicariously.

The reinforcement theory of motivation emphasises each person's mental state, i.e., their emotions and feelings (Omomia & Omomia, 2014). Reinforcement theory focuses on the changes that occur in each learner when they do certain actions or engage in particular behaviour. According to Skinner, the organisation's external environment must be created properly and favourably to inspire the learner. The reinforcement theory of motivation is an effective method for controlling the process of action and behaviour in each learner. This theory does not investigate the underlying causes of learner behaviour. As a result, the reinforcement theory of motivation considers the mental state of each learner and focuses on each particular action (Omomia & Omomia, 2014). Reinforcement theory is used in a range of research areas including animal training, child development, and the motivation of learners. This theory outlines various characteristics that might assist a person in shaping their own behaviour and actions (Sequeira, 2012). In a nutshell, reinforcement theory asserts that inputs may influence behaviour. Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction, and punishment are four methods of reinforcement theory that may all be used in the classroom (McLeod, 2018). The following section discusses these approaches.

2.2.1.1 Basic Behavioural Operations or Approaches

According to Skinner’s (1953) operant conditioning theory, classroom management applications contain one or a combination of four basic operations or approaches namely, positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction, and punishment.

There are two types of punishment namely, negative, and positive punishment. The operant conditioning theory is based on these approaches.

Positive Reinforcement

When the desired behaviour occurs, it is rewarded with positive reinforcement to encourage its continuation. For instance, by congratulating learners on completing work, rewarding learners with extra marks, rewarding learners who did well in tests, and so forth, and the proper usage of incentives could ease certain consistent classroom problems. The term 'positive reinforcement' suggests that it is seen when behaviour is reinforced (i.e., repeated whenever it happens) by unexpectedly applied incentives that follow that behaviour (Lehman, 2012). The successful utilization of inspiring feedback in classroom management has been supported across a variety of learner ages and capacity levels, various scholarly and social expertise areas, and in an assortment of settings. Among the more visible and compelling uses of support in classrooms is the use of unforeseen teacher consideration, or recognition, to build learners' positive scholarly and social conduct.

The reason for this approach is clear; teachers give too much consideration to learners when they are doing well. Practically speaking, achievement is subject to a genuine and consistent motivation of learners. Above all, unexpected positive attention is given when the desired behaviour occurs (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor, 2016). For instance, if learners get a good mark in class, the teacher should reward them. This will also encourage other learners and assist the entire class in this way. As a result, positive reinforcement indicates that if someone responds positively to something or does a positive action, they should be positively rewarded. The teacher may say 'you are a star!' or give a learner a token of appreciation such as a bar of chocolate.

Akinmusire (2012) notes that in a real sense many classroom-based assessments have shown that teachers giving support can bring about improved scholastic performance, compliance, and desired behaviour. Evidence supporting the use of teachers' attention, drove Agbabi et al. (2013) to show that the deliberate use of reward and attention might be the most notable and motivating classroom management system available to teachers. For example, if the teacher praises the learners for

arriving on time, this practice will have a positive impact on all the learners who are in the class as they will witness this behaviour. Despite the experimental base, studies have reliably shown that teachers do not reinforce positive behaviour as frequently as they ought to (Agbabi et al., 2013). The teachers in general show higher frequency of objections than affirmation to learners and, truth be told, may coincidentally strengthen learners' negative behaviour with this attention resulting in troublemaking learners' hostility and an increase of misbehaviour (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor, 2016). Teachers use positive and negative reinforcement and positive and negative punishment to regulate learner behaviour in the classroom.

Negative Reinforcement

Negative reinforcement is a strategy that may be used to assist in the training of certain behaviours. In response to a stimulus, something unkind or unpleasant is taken away with negative reinforcement. With the assumption that the unpleasant thing will be removed, the desired behaviour should rise with time. Bassey (2012) contends that in the behavioural theory of learning, negative reinforcement is a crucial notion. Negative reinforcement is described as the removal, reduction, or avoidance of a stimulus in exchange for behaviour, resulting in a higher frequency of that behaviour in future. Negative reinforcement is applied when learners show unwanted behaviour and are punished to instil desired behaviour that will stick. Punishment concepts should be used with caution because the purpose is to correct the learner's behaviour, not to create emotional pain (Emmer & Evertson, 2013).

When learners engage in unwanted behaviour and are punished, negative reinforcement is used to encourage desirable behaviour. Skinner (1953) also believes that not punishing misbehaviour is a better option than punishing it. Negative reinforcement is perhaps the most miscalculated of interaction, likely because of the mistaken implications associated with the word 'negative'. In fact, the term 'negative reinforcement' refers to a similar impact seen with encouraging feedback when conduct is reinforced or made inevitable. (Bassey, 2012). In contrast to encouraging feedback, nonetheless, in which an improvement is applied unexpectedly following a behaviour, negative reinforcement refers to the process of removing an unpleasant stimulus to increase the desired behaviour. For instance, a teacher may tell learners

that if they complete their classwork on schedule or to an adequate degree of precision, at that point they will be given their standard schoolwork task.

On the off chance that the unexpected removal of this expected aversive (schoolwork) has the impact of expanding learners' profitability and exactness in their classwork, at which point negative reinforcement has happened. The unexpected removal of this expected aversive outcome (schoolwork) has the impact of increasing learners' success and thoroughness in their classwork. This model ought not to propose that all schoolwork is characteristically aversive, or that all learners find discover schoolwork aversive, or that schoolwork ought to be used with any consistency as a consequence or outcome in the classroom (Emmer & Evertson, 2013). Nonetheless, practically teachers have seen that numerous learners would not really like to do schoolwork, and consequently, it might serve the capacity of an aversive in a possible use of negative reinforcement for these learners. While negative reinforcement is a good behavioural activity, its significance to teachers most likely lies as much in impromptu and even unintentional events as in painful executions.

Emmer and Evertson (2013) offer a great outline of the complexities and expected risks in attempting to use negative reinforcement in the classroom, including most clearly the need to have aversive occasions accessible in the classroom environment in any case. Taking note of that normally happening negative reinforcement is plentiful in day-by-day life (e.g., in breaks from work or get away), they rather recommend that one ought to know about the presence of and potential for adverse conditions, nonetheless one ought to try not to deliberately plan these occasions. In the case of practical study, negative reinforcement might work in classrooms when learners behave in problematic or negative ways to escape from unpleasant assignments (Evertson & Neal, 2014). Suppose a learner does not care for taking care of long division numerical questions. When given such a task, the learner may take part in fundamentally problematic conduct like grumbling, crying, and in any case distracting others. Suppose a teacher accidentally removes the aversive improvement (the numerical task) by sending the learner to the foyer or to the corner at the back of the classroom, even briefly, negative reinforcement in the learner’s problematic conduct may well happen. On the off chance that the learner’s use of problematic behaviour is

fruitful in evading what the learner finds undesirable (e.g., math), one can foresee that problematic behaviour will turn out to be inevitable later (Cherry, 2021).

The circumstance additionally raises for teachers the concern about why learners find a specific class or task unpleasant, and changes to curriculum, methods, materials, or motivation methodologies ought to be thought of. Ironically, in this situation a cycle that Eelen (2018) calls the “negative support trap” may likewise have been set up. That is, both learner and teacher have been strengthened by the removal of something they find questionable. It is at this point becomes unsurprising that problematic behaviour will happen again when learners discover a task, especially dull or incredibly testing, and, besides, that the teacher will again remove the instigating learner when troublesome behaviour interferes with a lesson’s activity. In any case, insightful teachers may use brief times of rest from work (challenging assignments) dependent upon a learner's productive conclusion of such work. In any case, in the worlds of work and adult self-control, these are referred to as breaks or vacations. Negative reinforcement is sometimes mistakenly regarded as a kind of punishment. According to Eelen (2018), punishment is the use of unpleasant stimuli to lower the likelihood of a behaviour being repeated, whereas negative reinforcement is the removal of painful stimuli to raise the likelihood of a behaviour being repeated.

Extinction

On the off chance that a behaviour has come to be maintained by reinforcement, regardless of whether positive or negative, it may be anticipated that the end of that reinforcement will bring about a decrease in the event of the conduct. The term ‘extinction’ refers to the phenomenon of a behaviour reducing in rate or probability when the support that has been keeping it up is removed (Malone, 2014). Regularly referred to as arranging to ignore messages with psychological direction in behaviour management, extinction can be a good management device for teachers. Clearly, extinction is generally valuable in classroom settings in reducing negative practices that have, in one way or another come to be kept up by reinforcers.

Examples of this are somewhat irritating practices, for example, working out or offering immaterial remarks during the lesson. It is very likely, for instance, that the learner

offering off-task remarks (e.g., "When do we have lunch?" " Is there a dance on Friday?") Will be encouraged if a teacher gives attention in any form. Indeed, even an apparently unbiased reaction such as "Do not stress over lunch"; "We are examining History at the present time" or "I will ignore that" will be sufficiently reinforcing for the use of annihilation, or arranged disregarding (i.e., conscious nonresponse).

Extinction is quite often applied as a component of a bigger programme of reinforcement. In the former model, the teacher would be sure to react emphatically to learners making proper, task-related remarks during guidance, while overlooking off-task remarks. It would be particularly critical to apply differential reinforcement with particular learners, and immediately identify learners prone to trivial comments the moment the relevant person makes a significant contribution to the exercise. While extinction offers teachers an immediate and compelling classroom management tool, there are some cautions that should be considered. For instance, it is for the most part indefensible to overlook practices that are possibly hazardous to a youngster or others. A more normal issue with extinction in classroom settings is conduct that is strengthened by peer attention. If problematic learners stand out enough to be noticed by their peers with their shenanigans almost certainly, peer attention reinforces the behaviour. In this situation, a teacher's choice to overlook such rowdiness is probably not going to have a lot of impact on future events (Aldossari, 2013).

A behaviour might be stopped by a teacher's overlooking it when the conduct had been kept up by the teacher's attention (Nasey, 2012). What is required rather is an unchosen methodology to keep the behaviour from happening in any situation, coupled maybe with endeavours to urge different learners not to giggle at or take notice of the problematic learner's offences. Aldossari (2013) has illustrated extra challenges related to using extinction. Using extinction should be prepared for this brief and completely unanticipated increment of responses and should set out to maintain extinction during this increase.

A compelling and thorough classroom management plan most likely should incorporate some degree of discipline to manage learner behaviour (Lewis et al., 2015). Notwithstanding the reinforcement instruments discussed earlier that improve behaviour, teachers have available to them social strategies that can be utilized to

lessen the event of negative behaviour by managing it simply. These strategies include incorporating response cost discipline and discipline using aversion therapy. While both have the impact of lessening conduct, response cost discipline includes a basic removal of some amount of reinforcement previously applied. Interestingly, discipline using aversion therapy necessitates a teacher to apply reinforcement which assists the learner to stop a bad habit. It ought to be evident that response cost discipline is the favoured method for discipline; though aversion therapy may be minimally applied in classroom management (Lewis et al., 2015).

Punishment

Punishment happens when individuals bring some harm to people who did something wrong. For instance, teachers punish learners who misbehave in the teaching-learning situation. Sullivan et al. (2014) define punishment as events deliberately orchestrated by others to reinforce their own behaviour. When people criticise, ridicule, accuse, or physically assault others to stop them from doing something they do not want, they resort to punishment (Skinner, 1953). Similarly, punishment is intended to remove awkward, harmful, or otherwise undesirable behaviour from a repertoire on the assumption that a person who has been punished is less likely to repeat the same behaviour. For example, if learners transgress school rules, punishment can be applied to them. Often, people confuse punishment with negative reinforcement. In addition, punishment entails imposing a negative consequence when an undesirable behaviour occurs. When a desired behaviour occurs, a negative consequence is removed through positive reinforcement, whereas punishment, on the other hand, is the opposite of reinforcement in that it seeks to decrease or remove a reaction rather than strengthen it (Vakalisa, 2016). It is an aversive experience that has the effect of reducing the behaviour that occurs as a result.

Punishment, like reinforcement, can function by immediately giving an unpleasant stimulus following a response, such as a shock, or by eliminating a potentially rewarding stimulus, such as withholding a learner's privilege of, for example, going to a lunch break, to punish bad behaviour.

Negative Punishment

B. F. Skinner's operant conditioning theory emphasises negative punishment. The purpose of punishment in behavioural psychology is to reduce undesirable behaviour. Negative punishment entails taking away something good or desired to reduce the occurrence of a particular behaviour (Vakalisa, 2016). One of the simplest ways to adopt this principle is to remember that positive behaviour adds to what we have, while negative behaviour decreases what we have. As a result, "punishment by removal" is a common term used to describe negative punishment. Sullivan et al. (2014) contend that negative punishment entails removing a pleasant stimulus, other than the one that maintains the behaviour, to reduce the frequency of the behaviour. For instance, in a group-work discussion, one learner may start talking about matters unrelated to the discussion and distract other learners from completing the task. In these circumstances, the teacher will politely ask the learner to stop misbehaving. If the learner continues to be disruptive, the teacher will tell the learner to leave the group and go and sit alone in the ‘naughty corner’. The person attempting to punish should consider some point in negative punishment. For instance, when a learner yells at another learner in class, the teacher may deduct the learner’s "good behaviour" tokens, which are used to earn monthly prizes for good behaviour.

Positive punishment

Positive punishment is a modification of Skinner's operant conditioning theory. Its major goal is to lower the possibility of an unwanted behaviour occurring again in the future by delivering an aversive input after the action has occurred. In psychology, what is called "punishment" in everyday life, is known as "positive punishment." In parenting, the aversive response is regarded as a (negative) consequence. Skinner (1953) emphasises the importance of evaluating any potential negative consequences. Spanking, which is defined as hitting a youngster across the buttocks with an open hand, is one of the most well-known examples of positive punishment. In a nationwide poll, it was found that 72 per cent of Americans believed it was “OK to spank a child.”

The concept of punishment is central to the theory of operant conditioning. The primary goal of a punishment is to reduce the likelihood of certain undesirable behaviours occurring again. Positive punishment is a type of punishment that focuses on reducing the frequency of any undesirable behaviour in an individual. When an individual engages in undesirable behaviour, the concept operates by imposing a negative consequence on them (Long et al., 2014). When someone suffers a negative consequence for their actions, they are less likely to repeat the same action in future. For example, if a learner receives a phone call in the classroom, answers it, and begins conversing in front of the entire class, interrupting the lesson, the teacher then chastises the offending learner in front of everyone. After that, the teacher gives the offending learner twice as much homework as the other learners. The learner is discouraged from repeating the offence because of the consequence of or punishment for receiving a phone call in class.

If positive punishment is not rapid and consistent, the likelihood of any given conduct being stopped fails. Because the penalties are withdrawn, punished behaviours frequently re-emerge, which is the concept's primary flaw. Another argument for the necessity for constant or quick positive punishment is because the penalty does not provide any information about more suitable actions (Long et al., 2014). For instance, an ice cream cone could be rewarded to a child for remaining calm and obedient. The child's behaviour is encouraged by adding something enjoyable to it (an ice cream cone). It is hoped that the child will realize that they are receiving an ice cream cone as a reward for their good behaviour during the shopping trip and that this would inspire them to behave better on the following outing. Punishment has the advantage of teaching children that their behaviour is unacceptable and that they should avoid it in the future. A punishment or negative consequence is administered to the child, for her to learn that her actions have consequences (Long et al., 2014). As a result, the child has a good motive to behave better moving forward, and she must eventually be given the chance to do so. The following section discusses classical conditioning theory as the second theory in which this research is grounded.

2.2.2 Ivan Pavlov's Classical Conditioning Theory

In the 1920s, Pavlov developed the classical conditioning theory because of his research with dog digestion. In his study, Pavlov (1927) discovered that even when a bowl was empty, his dogs began salivating at the sight of it. The dogs were salivating, according to Pavlov (1927), because they were associating the presence of their dishes with the advent of their supper. In other words, the dogs had learnt to associate their food bowls with their meals by association. Pavlov was intrigued by the concept and began to experiment with different types of associational learning. Pavlov eventually succeeded in getting his dogs to salivate simply by ringing a bell. Classic conditioning was named after this type of associational learning. This theory has a cycle of discovering that happens through associations of naturally occurring stimuli (George et al., 2017).

Behaviourism works with the basic rules that learning is said to occur when there is a relationship with the environment and that the environment affects the practices. It is fundamental with traditional moulding that before a reflex happens normally, there is a requirement for the utilization of a sign which is impartial (Goldman, 2012). Pavlov (1927) conducted his experiment using dogs in this situation, the reflex happening was the salivation of a dog as a normal reaction to the presence of food while the neutral stimulus which was applied, was the ringing of a bell. The relationship of food (the environment) with the tone (regular improvement) caused the dog to salivate even in situation where there was no food, nonetheless the bell was ringing. To understand Pavlov's work, one needs to get acquainted with the key standards of the classical conditioning procedure. The following paragraphs outline phases of classical conditioning.

2.2.2.1 The Phases of Classical Conditioning

The classical conditioning theory is primarily concerned with the interaction of two stimuli that result in a learning process. The theory is divided into three stages namely, pre-conditioning, conditioning, and post-conditioning.

Pre-conditioning

Pre-conditioning is the principal period of traditional moulding that needs the presence of an upgrade that happens normally that will unexpectedly incite a reaction. An illustration of such an incentive is the presence of the food which in numerous creatures particularly canines, causes salivation which is a reaction. At this part, the unconditioned stimulus (food) causes an unconditioned reaction (salivation). The unconditioned stimulus is a motivation that works under no circumstances other than to initiate a reaction. (Egeberg et al., 2016). For example, the teacher gives sweets to the learners who give correct answers in the classroom. Whenever the teacher takes out sweets, learners raise up their hands even before the teacher asks them questions. An unbiased improvement, which is seen as causing no reaction, exists at this point, yet it causes no impact, except if it is matched with the unconditioned upgrade.

Conditioning

Conditioning is the second section of the interaction of traditional moulding where the underlying improvement which got no reaction from the outset (impartial upgrade) is repeatedly related with the unconditioned stimulus which therefore causes the relationship between the unconditioned reaction and the neutral stimulus. The neutral stimulus at this point changes to be a conditioned stimulus. It is conditioned because after pairing it alone with an unconditioned stimulus, it stimulates a conditioned response (Cherry, 2021). For example, the teacher gives sweets to the learners who give correct answers in the classroom. Whenever the teacher takes out sweets, learners raise up their hands even before the teacher asks them questions.

Post-conditioning

At this stage, an adapted reaction will, in general, get a reaction (moulded) even without the presence of the unconditioned boost which at the previous stages was assumed to be a part of causing a reaction. The unconditioned boost is segregated from the adapted improvement after continued matching which has made a connection between the moulded upgrade and the adapted reaction (Egeberg & McConney,

2018). The adapted reaction is a reaction brought about by the previous nonpartisan improvement. For example, learners continue to give answers even when the teacher does not give them sweets. Learners are conditioned that whenever the teacher asks them questions based on the lesson's content, they should answer the questions.

2.2.2.2 The Principles of Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is related with various standards which the social analysts have contemplated and portrayed. These standards are related to the production of a reaction while some are related to the blurring of a reaction. Examining these standards assists in understanding the entire cycle of traditional moulding. The main guideline is procurement which is synonymous with acquiring good conduct in the learners. This is the principal stage in the learning interaction where the neutral stimulus is started and afterward encouraged progressively. This occurs if the moulded boost happens repeatedly without the unconditioned improvement. Third is the unconstrained recuperation rule which expresses that a reaction which was learned can reoccur after it has been eliminated. Unconstrained recuperation likewise happens after the time of rest. For instance, when we take the instance of the dog prepared to salivate when it hears the bell then after stopping the reinforcement working out, the reaction vanishes (Cherry, 2021). For example, if he performs poorly in front of others, a learner may become anxious. He has struggled with a variety of math assignments and assessments in the past. When a math teacher tells a learner to take out a sheet of paper for an exam, his palms will sweat, and he will feel ill.

The rest period which addresses the time frame without the use of moulding at that point follows. During this period is the bell is rung, and the dog salivates (a reaction learned) at that point, it is named unconstrained recuperation. On the off chance that there is no blending of the unconditioned upgrade and the adapted improvement after the unconstrained recuperation, at that point extinction would follow (Cherry, 2021). For example, Sarah performed in two primary school plays, and both times she missed her lines on stage. She was both anxious and humiliated because of this. She is now nervous when she is asked to join in a play. Another guideline is the boost speculation

where the moulded reaction may cause other comparable reactions like the adapted reactions. In this guideline, it is taken that individuals will, in general, partner things and make a speculation, dependent on the likenesses communicated.

For example, dogs may salivate when they hear different sounds like that of the bell if it has been adapted to sounds. On the opposite, is the rule of enhancement separation which is characterized as the capacity of a learner to recognize different upgrades not related with the unconditioned improvement from the adapted upgrade? For instance, Mr Joseph struggled in primary school, getting into a lot of difficulties, and performing poorly. He eventually stopped coming to school because he felt so uneasy there. Even the sight of the school building makes him, as a parent feel uneasy today as he returns for a parent meeting. These examples show how children, and even parents, can develop strong attitudes about learning and other school-related issues because of classical conditioning. Positive and negative emotional states in learners and adults get linked to stimuli such as books, tests, teachers, and the classroom (Miller, 2016).

2.2.2.3 Examples of Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is both appropriate to the genuine circumstances and to most of the exploratory exercises. Some down-to-earth models are the traditional moulding of taste abhorrence and reaction to fear. For instance, if the learner is always being told that he or she is a failure and will never pass, that will give such a learner a fear of that subject of a teacher who always tells him or her that failure is their portion. Teachers' usage of turning off the lights or raising their hands to calm down their learners is an example of classical conditioning that is frequently seen in schools. When teachers initially utilize these motions, they must use words like "Quiet down now" or "Shush" to complement the physical action. Teachers, on the other hand, can simply turn out the lights or raise their hands to silence their learners over time. Because the learners have learned to correlate the physical gestures of turning off the lights or the teacher raising his or her hand with becoming silent. The learners respond to the conditioned stimulus of shutting off the lights or the teacher's raised hand with the conditioned response of becoming quiet, according to Pavlovian theory.

Fear Response

Watson (1924) completed an experiment utilizing a boy to show a reaction to fear. This is a traditional moulding test which proved fruitful. The underlying status of the child was that he was not bashful and did not fear a thing, yet after the presence of a rodent was related with boisterous and frightening sounds; the child began to cry whenever he saw the rodent (Entwistle & Ramsden, 2015). The child went further to sum up the improvement by getting terrified of white hairy substances. Alluding to the periods of the old-style condition, the white rodent before the moulding cycle was a nonpartisan improvement (Gareis & Grant, 2014). The unconditioned improvement was the alarming sound which caused the unconditioned reaction of dread. Matching the rodent severally with the unconditioned improvement made the rodent to be an adapted boost which caused the moulded reaction of dread in the child. Watson's study of behaviourism can be a decent representation of the improvement of fear through the cycle of old-style moulding.

When comparing themselves to others, some learners may feel so overburdened by the competition with others to achieve adequate grades they think; they will never be able to match these learners. As a result, such levels of fear may lead to inappropriate classroom behaviour, incomplete or late assignments, frequent absences, or dropping out of school.

Taste Aversions

A classical conditioning technique where the taste is conditioned is called taste aversion. This phenomenon was discovered after Bennett and Smilanich, (2012) who noted that rats exposed to nausea-inducing radiation, tended to avoid the flavoured water after the radiation and water were introduced repeatedly together. The unconditioned stimulus in this case is radiation, and the unconditioned response is nausea. By associating radiation with water, water becomes a conditioned stimulus that, after many pairings, induces nausea (a conditioned response). This study found that aversions can be acquired by conditioning and can also be learned when the conditioned stimulus is introduced first, followed by the unconditioned stimulus. Taste aversion is crucial for animals' survival, as it permits them to avoid poisonous

substances (Barman & Bhattacharyya, 2015). For example, Sarah gets the flu after eating bad food from the school feeding scheme, and then, long after the incident, she avoids the feeding scheme food she ate prior to becoming ill. Another example would be going to campus and passing by an ice cream truck. After hearing the truck's music (neutral stimulus) for a few days, one finally decides to pick up an ice cream. One's mouth responds in an unconditioned manner when one takes a bite. Cherry (2021) refers to this first step of learning as acquisition. As a person links the unconditioned stimulus with the neutral stimulus, the conditioned response gets stronger and stronger.

Days later, the learner discovers that even before he bites into the ice cream bar, his mouth begins to moisten. One day, when he hears the truck's music while walking down the street, his mouth starts to moisten. However, when he arrives at the truck, he is surprised to discover that they are out of ice cream. The following few days, when he passes by the truck and hears the music, but since he is running late for class, he decides not to stop to get an ice cream bar. By the end of the week, the learner no longer salivates when hearing the music because he is starting to salivate less. This demonstrates extinction. The conditioned response becomes lessened when only the conditioned stimuli is provided without the unconditioned stimulus.

Other Classroom Examples of Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning can be used in conjunction with operant conditioning to make learning even more real for learners. Reinforcements would be used in the pairing of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Children can also be conditioned in a classroom, as Pavlov did with his dogs. For an example, it can be difficult for learners to finish their last class before lunchtime, especially if they are growing. Upon noticing lunchtime is not far off, their stomachs begin to rumble. Perhaps learners have music class before lunch every day. As the class progresses, learners might feel their stomachs rumbling, like the salivation of the dogs in Pavlov's experiment. Eventually, the children may associate music class with hunger.

Mistreatment, which includes public humiliation, can result in learner's burnout and poor mental health (Markman et al., 2019). A humiliating experience with a teacher

might still haunt you today. An example would be a math teacher embarrassing a student. The dislike of the subject may last into adulthood for that student. Forms of technology can also reflect classic conditioning. One example is when the learner obtains the right answer or the wrong answer in a computer game.

Classical conditioning can also hinder learning. In certain circumstances, a learner may dislike an entire subject matter in general, due to a bad experience in a certain class or with a certain teacher. This learning theory can be used by a teacher to improve classroom instruction and behaviour management. Similarly, a school staff member must be careful not to negatively condition children, as this could have long-term consequences. Application of these theories in the classroom requires teachers to possess good classroom management skills. The nature and essence of classroom management are discussed in the next section.

2.3 The Nature and Essence of Classroom Management

Managing classrooms to enhance teaching and learning is crucial. Popescu (2014) asserts that classroom management is about strategies or methods that teachers use to manage the class and impose authority while balancing this with warm productive learning environments. Classroom management calls on teachers to effectively manage the classroom environment for the purpose of creating and enhancing the teaching and learning situation.

2.3.1 What is Classroom Management?

Classroom management is all that a teacher does to arrange learners, resources, time, and materials for learning to happen (Jones & Jones, 2012). Additionally, classroom management contributes to the development and maintenance of the classroom environment to achieve educational objectives (Bailey-Ramos, 2016). The ability to create a healthy social and physical atmosphere conducive to meaningful learning is critical for effective classroom management. Another crucial element of classroom management is discipline, which, as previously mentioned, is a perennial source of concern for teachers, administrators, parents, and learners. Discipline should not be

regarded solely as a means of punishment. Punishment is concerned with the consequences of misbehaviour, while discipline is concerned with both the prevention and the consequences of destructive behaviour in the classroom.

According to Bailey-Ramos (2016), classroom management entails reducing troublesome learner behaviours such as fighting and causing a commotion. Nonetheless, Igbinoba and Marvelous (2015) point out that the concept of classroom management encompasses more than just learner control and order. Jones and Jones (2012) contend that classroom management incorporates all the things that teachers do in the classroom to cultivate learners' academic and engagement in classroom exercises to create a productive learning atmosphere. Classroom management includes arranging, encouraging, and observing activities that are conducive to meaningful engagement with a diversity of learners (Igbinoba & Marvelous, 2015)

As pointed out by Bassey (2012), a broader perspective on classroom management demonstrates increased commitment, a decline in wrong and difficult practices, development of learner responsibility regarding scholarly tasks, and enhanced learner scholastic performance.

Kosir and Tement (2014), state that classroom management differs from a disciplinary plan in that it encompasses not only the teachers' principles and values, but also how they interact with several other essential features of the class structure. Furthermore, they suggest that there are basically three approaches to classroom management namely, the actual environment of the classroom, the measure of teacher arrangement and the manner in which the classroom activities are introduced and which impact classroom management. Classroom management is largely defined as a result of order, control, and results. These three have become much more modest parts of the term ‘classroom management’. According to Igbinoba and Marvelous (2015), classroom management comprises how the teacher operates, how the class works, how the teacher and learners collaborate, and how teaching and learning occur.

Research done by Kosir and Tement (2014) shows that the time the teacher needs to take note of good or bad conduct brought about by weak classroom management abilities brings about a slower pace of scholarly commitment in the classroom. From

the learners' viewpoint, successful classroom management includes clear communication of behaviour and educational norms in a productive learning environment. It is crucial to note that teachers who view classroom management as a collaborative effort to create and maintain healthy learning environments will be more successful in the long run than teachers who emphasise their roles as authority figures or taskmasters (Jones & Jones, 2012). Therefore, teachers should be familiar with what classroom management is all about.

2.3.1.1 The Purpose of Classroom Management

When it comes to classroom management, discipline is always the first thing that comes to mind, but the critical aspect of teaching goes far beyond that. An organised classroom follows a set of rules that are followed. The principal motivation behind classroom management is for learners to develop behaviour, social and scholastic achievement in an organised environment that considers resilience, excellent conduct and learning. Viable execution of classroom management procedures creates a protected, reasonable, and rule-based learning environment for youngsters to thrive in. Prompting and helping learners to comprehend the methodology and assumptions for the teacher and classroom through uplifting feedback, limited requirements, and order, imparts autonomy and upgrades learner development (Freiberg et al., 2013).

Regarding the rule-based conduct, Imms and Byers (2017) specify that an arrangement of rules and outcomes characterises and develops resilience of the learners. Teachers, through elevated requirements for individual and group behaviour, create a protected learning environment that learners feel good entering into and participating in. Regarding improving learner achievement, McDonald (2013) contends that learner scholastic achievement is a goal of classroom management. Subsequently, teachers ought to facilitate learner achievement through maintaining exclusive standards by making learners aware of the kind of behaviour and work that is acceptable inside the classroom and school. This happens through, positive peer pressure, adherence to rules and displaying acceptable behaviour. Imms and Byers (2017) further affirm that another motivation behind classroom management is to make the teaching interesting. This is on the grounds that in confused classrooms, without

schedules and assumptions, it is hard for the teachers to take care of their responsibilities. The explanation is that learners would not realize what to do, so they get off task or cause disturbances. At the point when the teacher is continually diverting learners or dealing with behaviour problems, teaching time is lost, and the creation of successful teaching and learning is made difficult. McDonald (2013) also states that classroom management is designed to enable increasing efficient use of lesson time in the classroom. Similarly, when the learners realise what to do, the lesson time becomes productive as teacher's direct learners to use class time efficiently.

Imms and Byers (2017) highlight the need for the creation of consistency for the learners. Additionally, a teacher with solid classroom management abilities is consistent with their learners. For example, if the children realize that they should go into the classroom and begin working on a mathematical problem which appears on the board, the teacher does not need to spend time instructing or controlling the children or attempting to keep them involved, while everybody shows up. According to McDonald (2013), the goal of classroom management is to reduce classroom disruptions and encourage meaningful learning. When classroom management is poor, it gives the learner's brief periods to act mischievously. Since the expectations have been clearly stated, the learners understand what they need to do in the classroom while the lesson is in progress. Learners specifically are easier to control when a teacher has solid classroom management abilities. This suggests that effective teaching and learning may not happen if teachers have poor classroom management skills. Therefore, effective classroom management is vital for the promotion of meaningful learning which leads to learner achievement.

2.3.1.2 The Significance of Classroom Management

Teachers' ability to plan classroom activities and cope with their learners' behaviour is critical to achieving effective educational outcomes. Although good behaviour does not ensure successful guidance, it builds up the natural setting that makes great guidance possible in the classroom. Reciprocally, profoundly viable guidance reduces, but does not eliminate behavioural problems in some learners (Nzoka & Orodho, 2014). Novice teachers regularly express worries about lacking adequate skills to deal with the serious uncooperative behaviour of learners (Pool & Everston, 2013).

Teachers who have problems with learners' conduct, managing the classroom, and discipline are often ineffective in the classroom and have high levels of stress and burnout (Nzoka & Orodho, 2014). Disruptive classroom learner behaviour is a significant reason that many teachers leave the profession (Pool & Everston, 2013).

McDonald (2013) contends that current teaching practices are more learner-centred where in due course the learners benefit from the teaching and learning assessment. This is accomplished by the teacher establishing a positive learning environment for the learners. Learners learn best when they are satisfied with their environmental factors particularly through the structure of solid learner-teacher relationship. Learners and teachers can be considered as a group where collaboration and participation assume a fundamental part in accomplishing group objectives. This collaboration can be achieved with the teacher's good management abilities in the classroom. The teacher will require help from their learners to communicate a lesson effectively. Subsequently, learners' participation in avoiding any wrongdoing during lesson activities, enables teachers to achieve the lessons' objectives. Notwithstanding helping the teacher in doing their work properly, learners' participation created through classroom management, can also shape learners into valuable citizens. This should be possible by raising the idea of power sharing. The learners will be given obligations for their own behaviour and deciding on their own choices, not simply following requests. This will likewise benefit the teachers as they will feel less constrained by the constant need to observe the learners. In fact, they can have the chance to truly cooperate with their learners.

2.3.2 The Level of Effectiveness of Classroom Management

Teacher quality is the main school variable that impacts the achievement of learners (Waweru & Orodho, 2013). It is recognised that, teachers, notwithstanding having a careful understanding of the teaching curriculum, ought also to be mentally proficient individuals who are eloquent and learned and who can think, communicate and plan efficiently (Waweru & Orodho, 2013). Some aspects of teacher quality can be assessed using pointers like academic assessment, classroom management capabilities, and involvement with school activities. Bullough and Richardson (2015) focused on the preparation part of a becoming a teacher while Waweru and Orodho

(2013) looked at how the teacher uses the knowledge and skills obtained during qualification to oversee classroom successfully. The degree of viability of classroom management can be extraordinarily influenced by the teachers' method of guidelines such as the firm approaches that require a teacher to assert more power and authority over learners, as well as variety of methods that lead to mutual trust in the classroom.

Nasey (2012) contends that the most difficult issue of school and classroom association is adapting instruction to the requirements of learners with various levels of prior knowledge and diverse learning rates. For instance, some learners may not understand an exercise because they have not gained earlier information on the material being taught. Along these lines, teachers need to focus on quality, appropriateness, inspiration, and time hoping to have a significant effect on their learners' achievement. For instance, Nasey (2012) clarifies the failure of individualized guidance projects of the 2011's by noting that they frequently lost directions, inspiration, and effort due to the lack of guidance. This study seemed to have been conducted with a population of small and manageable class sizes, a situation different from primary schools in South Africa where class sizes can make it difficult to take care of individual learner's needs.

The establishment of an environment and attitude to the learners that considers task organisation, consistency of results, and consistency of approaches, stimulates the adequacy of a teacher's classroom management (Popescu, 2014). Wisethrinthong et al. (2012) note that this issue will continually move away from a one-size-fits-all way of dealing with training to an individualized way of dealing with training. Teachers end up being confronted with the obligation of providing consistency in an environment that expects them to teach individuals with various needs and problems in many different ways. Popescu (2014) states that teachers need to dedicate their time to setting a few exercises a day that will presumably give them sufficient opportunity to get ready for the class. Nonetheless, the situation is different in primary schools where teachers must handle many lessons and many classes with a high number of learners. Popescu (2014) has found that specific practices of teachers, like utilizing assessment targets to set up learning goals, powerful classroom management methods, and differentiated pacing of control dependent on both the substance, and the qualities of the learners

are linked to achievement. Estimating the complexity of classroom controls is troublesome as Wisethrinthong et al. (2012) have noted.

Additionally, Wisethrinthong et al. (2012) emphasise that standards of good management centre on boosting the proficiency of the teaching process. It is better to have a recommended schedule that makes learners mindful of what to do when beginning a class. For example, composing the learning objective on the chalkboard draws in the learner straight away leaving no time to waste. Wisethrinthong et al. (2012) believe that this practice permits the learners to quickly work while the teacher deals with authoritative obligations. Similarly, lesson plans are activity-based which reliably try not to lose significant time on repetitiveness. This finding stresses the effectiveness that emerges from the level of expert methodology displayed by the teacher during the teaching and learning, nonetheless there are other preventing factors influencing classroom management in schools.

Popescu (2014) attests that classroom management goes beyond control in the classroom. Instead, it includes arranging exercises, creating a protected learning environment, showing learners, and reacting to learners' behaviour problems. When teachers work to improve their classroom management methodologies, they increase the learning encounters for learners, permit them to make better progress, and reduce the chance of discipline problems. The implementation of classroom rules is a crucial component of classroom management. Firstly, teachers ought to create classroom rules so that problems can be prevented before they occur (Popescu, 2014). Using these principles can help to set high standards for learners to create a better environment for learning. Secondly, the teachers must ensure that learners have a reasonable comprehension of the requirements. Finally, guidelines for the classroom ought to be set up right on time, nonetheless, they can be altered consistently (Bear, 2015). The study, nonetheless, does not specify where learners and parents have a say in coming up with the class rules but only to sign them. This might be a situation different from primary schools.

Another significant factor in classroom management is the disposition of the teacher. Teaching with energy and inspiration can create a positive learning experience (Bear, 2015). Ultimately, this will transfer to the learners. Teachers should show regard to all

learners, which should be possible by learning learners' names and listening to the learners. Bear (2015) contends that the careful organisation of the room and design of the work areas can significantly affect learner motivation. Teachers can additionally create a positive learning experience by putting together a lovely and engaging classroom. Classroom management entails more than just discipline. Problems in the classroom can be nipped before they start with some arranging. Teachers can shape the environment of the classroom; eventually shaping learner's motivation and attitudes (Popescu, 2014). However, the motivation of learners by creating conducive classroom environment and spacious seating arrangements, may not be the case with the classroom sizes at some primary schools.

As a result of a substantial drop in overall learner respect and behaviour, a programme called "Character Counts" was presented in West Georgia. The programme was created by the Josephson Institute of Ethics and was intended to advance great character in schools which transformed classroom management. The study was based on a model for shaping character. Nonetheless, broad-based instruction can only be appropriate in a situation where all the required instructional materials are available. Bear (2015) contends that "real teachers" combine elements of a traditional teacher-centred model with methods that emphasise constructivist models, in which learners are guided to discover the task's value for themselves. This is consistent with other research on instructional approaches linked to learner achievement.

According to management and organisational behaviour, classes are designed as a new paradigm (socio-technical) that expands the "classroom-as-organization (CAO)" model, sees groups of learners take different administrative roles and teaching responsibilities helped by a detailed manual. There learners manage, teach, and evaluate their peers. This was discovered to be a successful classroom management procedure. As learners become more interested in making the classroom a better learning environment, peer motivation to obey the rules is anticipated (Bear, 2015). Devlin-Scherer and Sardone (2013) reveal that record keeping is one of the items learners identified as a practice that motivates them to read.

Bear (2015) points outs that anecdotal classroom organisation through data management reduces inappropriate behaviours and increases learner motivation, in

that, the time teachers spend correcting misbehaviour is reduced, leaving more time available for academic instruction and meaningful learning. Concerning the achievement of objective direction, learners were discovered to be generally positioned to develop new abilities, to note the inherent benefit of picking up, building up their agreement, and improving the execution (Devlin-Scherer & Sardone, 2013). A teacher's positive classroom environment is fundamental for the achievement of the class.

Since the late 2016s, the emphasis has moved toward inquiry-based instructional models, in which the teacher's most significant job lies in planning exercises or learning encounters that relate to managing learners so that they move to understanding through study and organisation (Bear, 2015). The teacher's effort to control the circumstance and pacing of work in classrooms is significant for learners' learning (Popescu, 2014). Nevertheless, there are several classroom management approaches which teachers can adopt to minimise disruptive learner behaviour and maximize effective teaching, meaningful learning, and learner achievement.

2.4 Classroom Management Approaches

Broome (2013) affirms that effective classroom management implies executing approaches that create a protected, reasonable, and rule-based learning environment for learners to thrive in. Classroom management approaches are aimed at creating a favourable learning atmosphere in which learners can easily learn and do better academically. Confait (2015) specifies that the motivation behind actualizing classroom management approaches is to improve good conduct and increase learner's scholarly commitment. Back et al. (2016) assert that successful classroom management practices operate across virtually all domains of knowledge and grade levels. Classroom management approaches, which teachers can execute while teaching, are discussed in the following paragraphs. They are the assertive, business academic, behavioural modification, the group managerial, the group guidance, acceptance, and success approaches.

2.4.1 Assertive Approach

Teachers who use an assertive approach to managing classrooms are expected to set standards for behaviour and have penalties for breaking them, as well as to clearly convey these rules and consequences (Ornstein, 1990). Learners are not permitted to forget who is in command of the classroom since it is managed in such a way that learners will always respect their teachers' authority. Learners gradually discover that their teacher expects them to act in a specific manner. Teachers hold learners accountable for behaviour. Learners who violate the restrictions get a warning before facing a series of severe consequences (Canter & Canter, 1976). The teacher's purpose is to respond quickly and properly to a learner's misconduct, moderate misbehaviour is met with modest consequences, but if misbehaviour is ignored or not addressed early on, it will become uncontrollable, and a growing number of learners will become disruptive. The assertive method is based on the disciplinary model developed by Lee and Marlene Canter, whereby teachers demand that their learners behave responsibly (Aliakbari & Bozorgmanesh, 2015). The teacher takes charge of the classroom immediately, establishes the rules, and interacts with the learners in a calm but firm manner.

Clear standards, active responses to misbehaviour, and persistent follow-through are expected of teachers, as well as kindness and support for all learners. These strategies imply that learners expect this insistence on responsible behaviour, that parents desire it, and that the educational process will come to a halt if it is not implemented. The method also assumes that strict classroom management liberates learners and provides them with psychological security as well as a productive learning atmosphere. It also implies that strong teachers can deal with disciplinary issues by themselves, therefore educational failures are caused by a lack of classroom discipline.

The current acceptance is owed, in part, to learner protests in 1970s and public demand for higher standards among learners in 1980s. The last point concerns the teacher's reaction to firm discipline. A non-assertive approach is assumed to be typical of teachers who have given in to children or believe it is improper to set demands and constraints on learners. Non-assertive teachers have little power over their learners,

and they often accept what they do silently or react with sarcasm, hostility, or idle threats. According to the assertive model, teachers should establish firm management by defining the expectations for proper behaviour, identifying existing and potential discipline issues, and deciding how to address each one according to the learners and the situation (Vakalisa, 2016). Mastering this is dependent on the ability to follow through and put these repercussions into action. Mental rehearsal (having a good notion of what to do before something happens) and practice are the greatest ways to achieve the goal (learning from mistakes).

The assertive approach to classroom management is an obedience-based approach to discipline. It requires a lot of teacher monitoring. This also necessitates intense teacher supervision in the classroom. It is also called the "take-control" approach to teaching, since teachers maintain control of their classrooms in a firm, but positive way. Vakalisa (2016) contends that teachers need to develop rules and guidelines in this approach that clearly define the boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable learner behaviour, teach the rules and procedures, and ask parents and/or administrators to help them manage learners' conduct where support is needed.

An assertive approach to classroom management requires teachers to set behaviour standards and penalties for breaking them, as well as effectively to convey these rules and consequences (Vakalisa, 2016). Learners who violate regulations receive one warning before facing consequences. The goal is for the teacher to react to a learner's inappropriate behaviour quickly and efficiently. Decisive control is a way to deal with classroom management. It includes a significant degree of teacher control in the class. The approach maintains that teachers should build up principles and attitudes that unmistakably characterize the constraints of adequate and unsuitable learner conduct, showing these standards and directions, and requesting help from guardians and additionally principals when backing is required in taking care of the conduct of learners (Vakalisa, 2016).

Part of this approach is building up a reasonable classroom discipline plan that comprises of rules which learners should follow consistently, positive acknowledgements that learners will get for keeping the standards, and consequences when learners decide not to observe the principles (Vakalisa, 2016). These

consequences increase when a learner disrupts the classroom or breaks the rules. Nonetheless, learners for the most part, have a sense of security since the teacher guides the way and learners need direction. Additionally, learners will respect the teacher. Also, the teacher is guaranteed that the goals of teaching and learning will be achieved. Another classroom management approach that teachers can adopt is the business academic approach.

2.4.2 The Business Academic Approach

The business academic approach, developed by Ornstein (1990), stresses learners' organization and control as they work on academic assignments. Task orientation puts emphasis on the academic work itself and creates a set of clear procedures that learners and teachers can perform. Back et al. (2016) classify organizing and controlling learner work into three key categories, namely:

- Assignment instructions
- Form, neatness, and due date expectations
- Procedures for missing students (p. 379).

This implies that teachers must clearly communicate learners' work assignments, the elements of their work, the criteria they must meet, and the methods they should use. The business academic approach is ideal to use when the teachers have a definite idea on the kind of classroom conditions, learners' conduct and instructional exercises that should happen. This style includes a serious level of "time on task" for learner's performance (Meador, 2019). The teacher coordinates learners' tasks, screens assignments, provides input and considers learners responsible for giving prizes and punishment.

It is not by accident that a classroom becomes well-run with minimal disruptions, where learners behave appropriately and are really interested in learning (Ornstein, 1990). Teachers that have a clear understanding of the type of classroom environment (layout, resources), learner behaviour (rules, procedures), and instructional activities (assignments, tasks) they want to create, can create them. Ornstein (1990) developed

a business-academic strategy that emphasizes learner planning and control while engaging in academic activity.

Meador (2019) categorises the creation and transmission of work assignments, standards, and processes, as well the monitoring and feedback, into three categories. The first is, that assignments and task requirements are well-communicated. Teachers must establish and properly explain work assignments to learners both orally and in writing (Meador, 2019). Assignments on the chalkboard should be copied into learners' notebooks. Form, neatness, and deadlines are all held to a high standard. Learners should be given broad rules for all tasks before they begin, such as the type of paper to use and the writing equipment to use (pencil, pen, typewriter), page numbering systems, heading format, due dates, and so on (Vakalisa, 2016). Learners will no longer need to be reminded of what is expected of them on a regular basis.

Vakalisa (2016) maintains that procedures for learners who are unable to attend class and makeup work for absent learners should follow a set of rules. These must include scheduling a brief discussion with learners in the classroom and outside the classroom, designating aides accessible at specific moments during the day (typically during seatwork activities) to assist learners with picking up and turning in makeup work Moreover, Vakalisa (2016) argues that teachers who adopt the business academic approach, perform the following duties to curb learner disciplinary problems in the classroom:

- Keeping track of the work of learners. Teachers can notice learners who are experiencing difficulty and urge them to keep working by monitoring their work.
- Checking group assignments. Before assisting individual learners with their work, the teacher must ensure learners begin working so that they can complete the assignment; otherwise, some learners will not begin working and others may begin wrongly.
- Monitoring individual work. Work can be monitored in a variety of methods, including circling the class, providing feedback, learners submitting the work on time at the same predetermined moment.

- Monitoring the completion of work. Submission processes must be created and followed. When all learners turn in work at the same time, having the work collected is the ideal practice.
- Maintaining track of learners' work is critical as is factoring it into their grades.
- Providing feedback to learners. It is critical to provide frequent, fast, and precise feedback to improve performance. Learner's activities should always be double checked as soon as possible.
- Helping if a learner requires it. The teacher should provide help while also requiring the learner to complete the work. Parental communication may also be required if the learner has persistent issues of completing work. The teacher should not wait until the end of the grading period to address any problems that exist.
- Recognizing good work is a crucial part of delivering feedback. This can be accomplished through displaying the work, praising the work verbally or in written comments.

An effective manager incorporates management methods which have been associated with increased learner achievement. Learners should spend a lot of time doing their work in the business-academic approach. The assumption is that when learners are focused on their assignments, discipline issues are less likely to occur. The work of the learners is organised, kept on target, progressed is checked feedback provided, and held accountable.

The business academic approach sees preparing lesson plans in advance and using effective teaching strategies as ways to reduce disturbances in the classroom. According to Vakalisa (2016), teachers who begin classes on time, offer learners immediate feedback on their submitted work, and provide assignments with clear directions on how to accomplish them, encounter fewer interruptions in the classroom than those who plan poorly. Nonetheless, while learners are engaged in a classroom activity, some of them may still misbehave. Hence, the teacher may seek to reprimand these learners by adopting the behavioural modification approach.

2.4.3 The Behavioural Modification Approach

Modification of behaviour is based on classic work of BF Skinner (1938). It entails a variety of approaches and methodologies, based on simple reinforcement training to difficult reinforcement training (Ornstein, 1990). Behaviourists believe that the environment shapes behaviour and give little attention to the causes of problems. The aim of the behavioural modification approach is to improve the chance of appropriate behaviour through a rewards system while reducing the likelihood of bad behaviour through punishments (Vakalisa, 2016).

According to Gage et al. (2018), the classroom, resources, and equipment for teaching and learning should be ready at the beginning of the year. Effective classroom managers have better organized their spaces and dealt with existing limits more effectively. Teachers ensure that learners understand and follow rules and procedures; they spend extra time explaining and reminding learners of regulations at the beginning of the year (Ward, 2015). Rules and processes are taught and reinforced in a systematic manner (e.g., line up, turning in work, etc.). Most of these teachers teach their learners to respond to certain cues or signals, such as a bell or a teacher's call for attention. The teachers clearly define the consequences for not adhering to the rules and procedures, and these are consistently implemented.

The first several days are spent preparing learners to work together as a cohesive group. These teachers maintain a whole-group emphasis once they have established themselves. Potential problem-solving strategies are developed ahead of time. Teachers who use these strategies can deal with misbehaviour quicker than teachers who are less effective (Ward, 2015). Learners' behaviour is closely observed; teachers maintain eye contact with their learners; and learner academic performance is also closely monitored. Inappropriate or disruptive behaviour is dealt with quickly and consistently before it becomes worse or spreads. Teachers plan instructional activities for all learners in the class at appropriate levels. There is a high level of learner success and content that is related to the interests of the learners (Vakalisa, 2016). Procedures have been developed to ensure that learners are held accountable for their work and behaviour. Teachers give clear instructions, which keep learners

focused and help them learn more quickly while also reducing discipline issues. Because the directions are explicit, there is less confusion.

New teachers' top concern is efficiently managing the classroom, yet too frequently, properly managing the classroom is associated with just dealing with misbehaviour. To consider successful classroom management as a series of tactics for disciplining learners is to misunderstand the foundation upon which it is built (Ward, 2015). Effective classroom managers are defined by their ability to prevent problems from arising in the first place, rather than by their ability to solve problems once they arise. Good management starts on the first day of school with well-organized, methodical strategies for completing duties and activities (Korpershoek et al., 2016). Furthermore, good managers make clear their expectations for learner work and behaviour, rules and procedures, routines for checking and monitoring learner academic work, procedures for grading and providing feedback to learners, incentives and deterrents, methods for grouping learners, and a variety of other seemingly minor but significant procedures (Korpershoek et al., 2016). By providing learners with opportunities to succeed, proactive planning assists to avoid behaviour problems. Additionally, immediate reinforcers help to enhance behaviour. Praise or awards are examples of positive reinforcers. Negative reinforces reduce or eliminate unacceptable learner behaviour which the teacher dislikes (Ward, 2015). Furthermore, systematic reinforcement strengthens behaviour (positive or negative). If reinforcement is not given, the behaviour will worsen.

The best results come from constant reinforcement, or encouraging behaviour each time it happens, especially in new learning or conditioning circumstances. Therefore, after a positive behaviour has been learned, it is better to retain it through intermittent reinforcement, which is when behaviour is reinforced occasionally. Finally, the rules are set and enforced (Korpershoek et al., 2016). Rule-following learners are complimented and rewarded in several ways. Learners that violate the rules are either ignored, reminded of correct behaviour, or penalized. Various types of the behavioural modification technique have different responses to role breaking.

Each teacher's capacity as a reinforcing agent for each learner is undervalued. This value is first assigned by the learner based on previous experiences, and it changes

because of the actions of the teacher. The ability of each teacher to act as a reinforcing agent for each learner is undervalued. The learner assigns this value based on previous experiences, and it changes because of the teacher's actions. To make the classroom management process easier, the teacher may need to seek the help of others (Vakalisa, 2016). There are several systems or variations of behavioural modification that can be used in the classroom. They basically use various rules, rewards, and punishments to impose boundaries and consequences on bad behaviour. Modelling is a well-known system that is used in a variety of social learning situations.

Teachers who want to use modelling in the classroom should recognize that the first five examples of modelling are difficult to modify, while the last three are institutional and role characteristics that are easier to manipulate to improve their effectiveness as a model. Stough and Montague (2015) affirm that building good discipline through modelling includes the following:

- Learners understand exactly what is expected of them. They observe and hear anticipated behaviour in addition to being told about it.
- Learners concentrate on what is being portrayed or conveyed to them. The degree of attention is related to the teacher's attributes as well as the learners' characteristics.
- Learners who practice appropriate behaviour are given the opportunity to do so.
- Feedback is given to learners on a regular basis, and it is specific and timely.
- Inappropriate behaviour is inhibited and addressed, while appropriate behaviour is reinforced.
- Learners may use what they have learned in the classroom (role acting, modelling exercises) and in other real-world settings.

A behavioural modification approach refers to a means of changing behaviour through various approaches used to replace undesirable behaviours with desirable ones. Teachers who utilize a behaviour modification method spend minimal time on learners' personal backgrounds or investigating the explanations or causes for a specific problem, instead, teachers seek to increase learner engagement in appropriate

behaviour (Stough & Montague, 2015). Behaviour modification helps teachers to clearly define acceptable and undesirable behaviour. According to Vakalisa (2016), this method also encourages teachers to commend good behaviour with words like "well done" or "great" or nonverbal cues like a grin and nod. Such rewards should be used as a means of reinforcing acceptable learner behaviour in the classroom.

Vakalisa (2016) claims that behaviorists pay little attention to the causes of problems since they think that environment shapes behaviour. Teachers that employ this method of behavior modification spend little time learning about the backgrounds of their learners or looking into the root reasons of a particular issue. They aim to increase the probability of appropriate behavior through a reward system while decreasing the probability of inappropriate behavior through sanctions. The following are the guiding concepts of the behaviour modification:

- Behavior is influenced by outcomes, not by the factors that contributed to a person's problems in the past or by their social environment.
- Immediate reinforcements enhance behavior. Positive reinforces include praise and rewards. In negative reinforcement, the teacher may withdraw a learner's privilege like going on a school trip.

Positive or negative reinforcement is used to strengthen behaviour. Social change style includes the use of an assortment of procedures and methods going from straightforward awards. Teachers using this technique rarely focus on a learner's specific history or determine the motivation behind a question (McCaslin et al., 2015). Sometimes, when a learner misbehaves, the teacher may decide to tackle the misdemeanour by addressing the whole class. This is called the group managerial approach to classroom management.

2.4.4 The Group Managerial Approach

Ornstein (1990) developed the group management approach to discipline and emphasized the significance of reacting quickly to group situations. Learner behaviour that may be inappropriate or unpleasant should be addressed before a problem arises,

rather than dealing with it later. Ornstein (1990) explains that the teacher should outline what the consequences will be if a learner is misbehaving, and action should be taken immediately. The misbehaving learner becomes isolated and does not become a concern. When behaviour is unnoticed, overlooked, or permissible for an extended period, it can quickly spread through the group, becoming a chronic problem in the classroom.

Vakalisa (2016) has divided classroom activities into categories of learner behaviour and teacher management behaviour for the objectives of classroom management. The three major aspects of teacher behaviour are, desisting tactics, movement management, and group focus. The time that learners engage in academic assignments is referred to as work participation. Learners who are actively engaged in activities have fewer discipline issues than others. There is less likelihood of boredom and discipline issues if the teacher keeps the learners engaged in work. Deviancy can range from little misbehaviours to grave misconduct. Little misbehaviour implies that the learner is not intentionally irritating another learner or teacher but is slightly off task. Whispering, making facial expressions, taunting, reading a comic, and sharing notes are examples of mild misbehaviour (Roth, 2014). The goal is to prevent minor misbehaviour from becoming significant misbehaviours by addressing minor misbehaviour as soon as it occurs.

Teachers use desisting methods to put an end to misbehaviour. They rely on two abilities which are the capacity to react to discipline and classroom management (Vakalisa, 2016). This is referred to as "with-it-ness". Target (respond to the appropriate learner) and quickly. It also entails informing learners that one is aware of what is going on, or, as Vakalisa (2016) puts it, regarding "with-it-ness".” The teacher shows overlapping behaviour which refers to the ability to address multiple issues at once. The teacher can attend to multiple learners at once, such as a learner who is reciting while another learner interrupts with a question or comment.

Smooth or jerky movement can be described. A smooth flow of activities is one that is even and quiet. It entails long periods of continuous work and quick, fluid transitions that occur automatically and without disruption (Vakalisa, 2016). The teacher makes no needless announcements or interruptions while learners are working, completes

one activity before moving on to the next, and does not suddenly cease or begin another activity. Jerkiness is characterized by a disorganized pattern of behaviour. This will happen if the teacher performs too many tasks at once or fails to explain to learners how to finish one activity and move on to the next. During transitions, the teacher may have to shout, chaos may arise as learners ask questions about what to do, and disengaged learners may cause a disturbance.

Movement management also entails movement or keeping activities moving at a reasonable pace. When a teacher participates in over dwelling or fragmentation, momentum is slowed or impeded. Over dwelling may take the form of lecturing, preaching, nagging, overemphasizing, or giving too many directions (Roth, 2014).

The term "group attention" refers to the ability of a learner to remain concentrated on a group activity or work. It can be accomplished through a process known as alerting, (Rijal, 2015). Creating suspense, giving fresh material, randomly picking reciters, and randomly selecting reciters are all examples of alerting actions. The group managerial approach emphasizes the significance of reacting quickly to undesirable learner behaviour to avoid problems before they come up again (Vakalisa, 2016). To avert problems, rather than dealing with them once they occur, Rijal (2015) emphasizes the necessity of responding swiftly to group learner behaviour that may be desirable or inappropriate. When a learner misbehaves, but the teacher steps in right away, the misbehaviour is contained and does not become a problem. The misbehaviour can swiftly spread among the group and become more serious if it is overlooked, ignored, or allowed to persist over an extended period.

According to Vakalisa (2016), the key to successful classroom management is learner engagement in lessons and activities. Group managerial approach functions admirably if the teacher reacts quickly to aggregate learners' conduct that may be improper or unfortunate to forestall issues instead of managing them after they have arisen (Vakalisa, 2016). If a learner acts up, and the teacher stops the misconduct quickly, it stays a separate incidence and does not form into an issue.

2.4.5 The Group Guidance Approach

In a group context, the group guiding strategy is centred on manipulating (for want of a better phrase) the learners' surface behaviour (Ornstein, 1990). Much of the group guiding technique is based on the work of Garrett (2014) with delinquent and disruptive youth. Garrett (2014) believes that disciplinary issues are caused by three factors namely, individual case history, group conditions, and mixture of individual and group causes.

- ***Individual case history.*** The issue stems from one child's psychological disorder; the child's disruptive behaviour in class is part of a wider emotional condition. Because they come from the unique case history, the surface problems are repeated. When doing life orientation sections in class, a young boy who does not fit the sexual stereotypes is frequently referred to as a "gay" by some classmates; this is evident when other students begin to ignore him, and he suffers from this isolation. As a result, he looks for any way possible to avoid the classroom.

- ***Group conditions***. The issue reflects the group's poor conditions. It is a much easier to solve than a case history. This is reflected in the example of when a teacher does not want to go to class because she believes her students are dumb, for example “I am so tired of telling them to learn how to pronounce English words, because they are stupid, none of them will pass this year.”

- ***Mixture of individual and group causes.*** The issue revolves on one person, yet it is triggered by something in the group. Both elements must be considered when developing a remedy. For example, grade 6 repeaters gang up against newcomers, letting them know that they run the class and no one else has access to beating up and mocking others but them.

According to Gartrell (2013), 10% of all incidents of school discipline involve simple individual disturbances, 30% involve group problems or insufficiencies, and 60% appear to involve both individual and group components. This means that group remediation, or "group psychological engineering," as Gartrell (2013) defines it, is

required in 90% of all discipline cases. Gartrell (2013) states that teachers must consider how much the difficulty reflects the group, the teachers' own behaviour, and the learners' behaviour. The teacher must first determine the group's needs and interests before influencing the group's outward behaviour to maintain discipline. Mitchell and Bradshaw (2013) state that group elements entail the following.

- ***Dissatisfaction with classroom work*.** Assignments are not well-planned or described. Learners believe that assignments are unfair since they have not been prepared for them. The focus of learning experiences is on verbalization, with motor skills and manipulative activities being neglected. Work is poorly scheduled, sequenced, or disorganized.
- ***Poor interpersonal relations.*** Friendships or conflicts inside cliques or subgroups; poorly filled group roles (such as teacher assistant or tutor-tutored); and friction between learners and teachers are all factors in issues.
- ***Disturbances in group climate*.** The climate is characterised by unjust punishment, biasness and excessive competitiveness leading to aggressive or defeatist attitudes and exclusivity.
- ***Poor group organization.*** The group is characterized by either excessive authoritarian coercion or insufficient monitoring and security. Both too high and too low standards are set for group behaviour. Either the group is too disorganized, or it is highly structured (has too many rules). The group's organizational structure does not take its members' ages, developmental stages, social backgrounds, needs, or abilities into account.
- ***Sudden changes and group emotions.*** The group's members are anxious (for example, just before the exam period). Unusual excitement, dread, or despair have been brought on by recent occurrences. Learning is boring (there is lack of interest or emotion).

Roth (2014) posits that boredom is a major cause of behavioural issues, leading to learners' retreat, irritation, and impatience, as well as hostile rejection of the entire group. Another crucial factor is group organization. Discipline issues are unavoidable if the organizational makeup is off (for example, with respect to learner demands, talents, or age). Dealing with a hostile or violent group is probably the most challenging

managerial task. The teacher is gradually and openly defied by such a classroom group, which disrupts educational activities. Some of the symptoms of this condition include constant talking, disinterest when given instructional tasks, frequent disruptions that interfere with teaching, general nonconformity to classroom rules or school procedures, overt challenges and refusals to obey, and group solidarity in resisting the teacher's efforts.

Long after the cause of the behaviour is gone, a class group with these symptoms will likely remain aggressive and resistant. When learners engage in concert to oppose and fight teacher efforts, teachers can respond in an attempt to equal their efforts (Vakalisa, 2016). In such situations, teachers frequently make the mistake of blaming the ringleaders or the entire group for the problem instead of looking at their own behaviour. In other cases, the issue stems from the learners' perceptions of authority and has nothing to do with the teacher. In this situation, the teacher must be able to convert the learners' hatred into trust and confidence (Vakalisa, 2016). Having a positive working connection with learners on an individual and group basis, according to teachers, entails reacting with sensitivity to their needs and feelings, as well as attempting to understand them. Group management and group guidance are closely related concepts. This is based on the belief that the person's inappropriate behaviour is a sign that the group is not working properly, and that this problem can be fixed by group counselling (Emmer & Evertson, 2013). This method of teaching allows learners to be open to whatever troubles them, and the teacher who employs it, is willing to listen without passing judgment. Learners should be able to confide in their teacher about their worries and concerns.

It is based on influencing or changing learners' external behaviours, both as individuals and as a group. One of the main contributors to behavioural issues is boredom, which makes learners retreat, become frustrated and irritable, or aggressively reject the group. Teachers must know their groups, their needs, and their interests to maintain good discipline. Emmer and Evertson (2013) state that the following are important group elements to consider:

- Classroom dissatisfaction.
- Poor relationships
- Group environment disturbance.
- Ineffective teamwork
- Emotional upheavals and sudden changes.

If teachers do not appropriately diagnose management issues, particularly group management issues, the problems will remain and worsen. When a problem arises, holding group talks with learners can be beneficial in terms of exploring differences and identifying conflict sources. Nonetheless, while working with groups, the teacher requires excellent interpersonal skills (Brown et al., 2019). A safer and more conservative technique is for the teachers to analyse how their own behaviour affects the group, how individual learners' case histories cause problems, and how group elements are reflected in the situation. When disciplining disruptive learners, the teacher must consider the principles of humanity and respect, i.e., the need to act in the manner which prevents and alleviates the humiliation of the learners in front of their peers.

2.4.6 The Acceptance Approach

The acceptance approach to discipline is based on humanism, and it argues that individuals have a strong desire for respect (Ornstein, 1990). Acceptance is something that learners, like everyone else, strive for. They are more concerned with belonging and being liked by those who are important to them than with learning. They will also rather behave than misbehave. The acceptance strategy is also founded on a democratic educational model, which allows learners to engage in decision-making and when making decisions, the teacher offers leadership by defining rules and penalties. Vakalisa (2016) maintains that peer and teacher acceptability is a requirement for acceptable behaviour and academic progress in school. Some learners engage in a variety of behaviours to get status and recognition. If they do not receive praise through socially acceptable means, they will pursue erroneous goals, which will lead to antisocial behaviour. According to Ornstein (1990), there are four antisocial behaviours connected to the need to be accepted, namely attention seeking

(misbehaving to attract attention), power seeking (engaging others in protracted arguments to make them feel inadequate), revenge (bullying others, especially the weak) and withdrawal from interaction (refusing to participate in class activities). These four forms of antisocial behaviour can be briefly explained as follows:

- ***Attention getting.*** When learners do not get the attention they want, they frequently act out in an attention-seeking manner. They thrive on attention of other learners or the teacher (Ahmad et al., 2017). They may act as if they are the class clown, request special favours, request help with homework on a regular basis, or refuse to do their homework unless someone is watching.

- ***Power seeking*****.** Learners may also express their desire for acceptance by disobeying adults to obtain what they believe to be power. Arguing, disputing, teasing, temper tantrums, and low-level violent behaviour are examples of their disobedience (Ahmad et al., 2017). Learners gain power if they can get the teacher to quarrel or fight with them, because they have succeeded in engaging the teacher in a power struggle.
- ***Revenge seeking*****.** Learners who fail in gaining authority may desire revenge. Their mistaken purpose is to cause harm to others in attempt to amend for being hurt or rejected (Ahmad et al., 2017). Learners seeking revenge are concerned about being penalized. Others find them to be cruel, unfriendly, or violent. They do not always respond to simple logic. Being reprimanded provides them with new motivation to act. They believe they are more justified the more problems they generate for themselves.
- ***Withdrawal****.* If a learner feels helpless and rejected, withdrawing from the social situation may be the purpose of their behaviour rather than confrontation. They protect their sense of self by avoiding circumstances that put their abilities to the test (Ahmad et al., 2017). Their withdrawal is a manifestation of their feelings of inadequacy. They will become isolated if they are not helped.

The acceptance strategy is based on the idea that for certain learners, misbehaviour is frequently a cry for acceptance from role models. Vakalisa (2016) argues that followers of this theory believe that certain learners have a high degree of a need for

approval by teachers and their peers in their hierarchy for basic needs so that they may shift to pursuing undesirable goals that require an inappropriate behaviour if they do not obtain peer recognition and teacher recognition. Teachers use this approach by giving attention to misbehaving learners and showing interest in them. The acceptance approach assumes that when learners are accepted by their teachers and peers, their behaviour and achievement improve. The humanistic psychology approach asserts that everyone has a fundamental need for acceptance. Consequently, teachers should demonstrate to all learners that they care for their well-being and academic success.

2.4.7 The Success Approach

Like the acceptance approach, the success approach is based on humanistic psychology and a democratic education model (Ornstein, 1990). Nonetheless, rather than addressing improper behaviour and its consequences, it focuses on general psychological and societal issues. Schunk (2016) further states that the success approach to discipline is simple but effective. It is possible to change one's behaviour. Good decisions lead to good behaviour, whereas bad choices lead to negative behaviour. A teacher's responsibility is to assist learners in making excellent decisions.

Learners make decisions based on whether the outcomes of their choices are desired or not. The first step for learners to have high self-worth and achievement is to have a healthy relationship with those who care about them such as peers and teachers. For some learners, a school may be the only place where they meet individuals who genuinely care about them (Rijal, 2015). Nonetheless, some learners are hesitant to build meaningful relationships with adults such as teachers. As a result, teachers must demonstrate that they care and are optimistic, as well as be persistent in their efforts to help learners. Because the emphasis is on helping, which is exactly what the teaching profession is about, many teachers find the approach attractive. Schunk (2016) makes the following suggestions regarding the implementation of the success approach in the classroom:

- ***Stress learners` responsibility for their own behaviour continually*.** Because excellent choices lead to good behaviour, they must be held accountable for their choices and behaviours.
- ***Establish rules*.** Rules must be developed, but they must be done so by the teacher and the learners early in the term. The leader should help the organization achieve its goals and maintain its morale. Rules can be evaluated and altered, but they must be followed if they are in place.
- ***Accept no excuses***. Teachers should not accept explanations for improper behaviour if the learners cannot distinguish between right and wrong. This is particularly true if the learner has committed to abide by a set of rules.
- ***Utilize value judgements*.** When learners engage in unacceptable behaviour, the teacher should encourage them to evaluate their actions. This will strengthen the learners' ability to make decisions, reinforcing their responsibility.
- ***Suggest suitable alternatives*.** The teacher should provide alternatives to unacceptable behaviour. Learners should make a decision that strengthens their sense of responsibility.
- ***Enforce reasonable consequences*.** Whatever behaviour the learners choose; they must be subjected to reasonable consequences. Inappropriate behaviour should not be addressed with erratic, emotional, sarcastic, or physical punishment. Learners should be able to enjoy the benefits of good behaviour. The teacher should never manipulate events or make excuses to avoid imposing acceptable consequences if an inappropriate behaviour is exhibited.
- ***Be persistent*.** The teacher must ensure that learners are committed to desired behaviour on a regular basis. The teacher must always assist learners in making decisions and have them make value judgments regarding poor decisions.
- ***Continually review*.** Separate from academic activities, classroom discussions should address these topics and issues. This is the moment for learners and teachers to brainstorm possible solutions to issues. Learners should never be allowed to criticize or blame others, or to shout or threaten others. If attention

is focused on real issues, a bonding or caring attitude between teacher and learners may develop.

Schunk (2016) contends that teachers must be helpful and meet with learners who are exhibiting issues, as well as get learners engaged in setting guidelines, keeping promises in line with the guidelines, and implementing them. Learner misconduct is frequently linked to academic difficulties. Frustrated by their incapacity to function in class, the failing learner frequently displays their discomfort by acting out. Nonetheless, too often, the learner is unsure how to address the issue, the teacher is overburdened with other responsibilities, and the school lacks the tools to assist the learner and teacher.

School reform, as described by Rijal (2015) is linked to motivating teachers and learners to work more. People, particularly learners, will not be more productive unless the tasks they are assigned are psychologically rewarding. Teachers need to change school, not by lengthening the school day or year or increasing the amount of homework, but by making it more enjoyable for children and more linked with their interests, so that they feel empowered, fulfilled, and crucial in the classroom. Discipline and achievement problems can be solved by making learners feel that someone is listening to them, thinking about them, caring about them, and considering them important.

The teachers' job is to help learners make the right choices. It is the teachers' responsibility to assist students in making sound decisions. Teachers work hard to change any negative behaviour that exists and to improve conditions so that students can succeed. This means that the teacher must show care and be positive and persistent (Vakalisa, 2016). Nisar et al. (2019) contend that while teachers should not overlook learners' poor conduct, they should modify any problematic classroom dynamics and make improvements to foster learners' achievements. Teachers use this approach in elementary and junior high schools more than in high schools. Nisar et al. (2019) propose the following advice to teachers:

- Establish ground rules.
- Do not make any excuses.

• Make use of value judgment.
• Make suggestions for suitable alternatives.
• Enforce reasonable repercussions.
• Do not give up.

According to Nisar et al. (2019) teachers must be encouraging and meet with learners who are starting to demonstrate difficulties. They should also engage learners in the creation of rules, their adherence to the rules, and the enforcement of the rules. Teachers who adopt these approaches teach effectively with minimal learner misbehaviour. Effective teaching fosters meaningful learning which leads to exceptional learner achievement. Although teachers must implement these classroom management approaches for effective teaching and learning, they should also adopt classroom management strategies which curb disruptions of lessons.

2.5 Classroom Management Strategies

Classroom management strategies improve classroom behaviour and build relationships which foster a positive classroom environment that contributes to learner achievement. This section discusses eight classroom management strategies which teachers should adopt to develop a productive learning environment. These strategies are, showing enthusiasm, creating first-step compliance, preparation, mastering lesson transitions, collaboration, practicing follow-through, and starting a tech-off policy.

2.5.1 Show Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is described as a strong attachment to someone or something. For example, a child's joy at commencing his or her first pottery class is an illustration of excitement. A passionate teacher frequently stimulates the classroom with enthusiasm, delight, and anticipation; engages learners in participation; and encourages them to explore. Thus, teacher excitement sparks learner's interest and kick-starts their motivation to study. The teacher that is enthusiastic in the classroom should arrive early for class so that he or she can interact with his or her learners.

Teachers should greet their learners politely and open a discussion with them. They should also arrive well-prepared, with backup plans and additional magic markers or chalk in their pocket.

The most crucial quality a teacher can have, is enthusiasm. Bringing a positive attitude into the classroom enhances learner engagement, involvement, and even learning. Still, excitement doesn't automatically mean excitement (Korpershoek et al., 2016). Nonetheless, the individual proudly and confidently displays the traits he possesses in the classroom, the same concept applies. Using energy and poise to present lessons is a sure method to get learners' attention.

Enthusiasm works because the teacher becomes the center of the learners' shared universe while in front of the class. Teacher excitement does not always influence learner conduct. Nonetheless, it is crucial for cognitive and emotional engagement (Korpershoek et al., 2016). Some learners may behave inappropriately in class because of regulations. Nonetheless, simply because they are obeying the rules does not imply that they are learning. Instead (Korpershoek et al., 2016) relate improved learner learning to a concept known as ‘emotional contagion’ which is the spread of an emotion that someone expresses. Although enthusiasm may not cause disruptive students to behave nicely, it does keep their attention. In a nutshell, students catch the teacher's energy, which increases their attention, involvement, and stimulation. As a result, learner passion facilitates learning. Enthusiasm will not change the behaviour of disruptive students, but it will keep them engaged.

2.5.2 Create First-step Compliance

First-step compliance permits the teachers to set the tone for their class period while drawing learners' attention to learning right away. This idea is great for getting learners engaged in class right away, and it is surprisingly simple for how effective it is. All the teachers must do is to assign a simple task to the learners at the beginning of class. That task can be nearly anything, but it must be delivered in the form of instructions (Nasey, 2012). The following are among the most common (and easiest) first-step compliance tasks, everyone is looking at the teacher, look at the computer screen and focus the gaze on the board.

These simple instructions inform the learners that class has begun. They also begin each class period with a quick accomplishment. It may not seem significant, but it has significant consequences (Nasey, 2012). The trick is to keep things as simple as possible and to concentrate on getting things done. Start with the strong verbs glance and point, followed by focus. Looking somewhere is frequently the finest lesson because most learners pay attention to something while they look at it (Nasey, 2012). With first-step compliance, the teacher gets every class off to a fruitful start.

2.5.3 Prepare Yourself

As any teacher will confirm, teaching begins long before the teacher enters the classroom. It all begins with preparation. The value of solid, old-fashioned preparation work cannot be overstated, even in the age of the internet. Preparing for the classes ensures that everything runs smoothly (Popescu, 2014). The teacher can anticipate disturbances, plan for contingencies, and identify areas where a learner can improve.

The teacher has fewer surprises in the classroom if the teacher spends more time preparing. The learners will be more focused and engaged because of this. The learners become eager to learn when the teachers are prepared to teach. Enthusiasm is influenced by preparation as well (Popescu, 2014). After all, it is simpler to stay energized when the teacher knows what one will do next.

2.5.4 Master Transitions

Depending on the school's scheduling strategy, most class periods last between 45 and 90 minutes. That means the teacher will probably have to change direction once or twice during each class. In every lesson, the change in gears is critical. It is more likely that the teacher will lose learner participation during a transition than at any other time (Popescu, 2014). Fortunately, moving from one topic to the next is relatively simple. In fact, the teacher can make the move in just five easy steps namely, call attention to the teacher, say in a moment, provide instructions, say the word “start” and recognize.

It is vital to draw attention to the teachers so that all the learners' eyes are on them. This step like the first, employs a short, easy-to-follow instruction to grab attention. In addition, the term “in a moment” is significant. This points out to learners that the instructions will be brief and that they will soon change gears. A transition's core is its directions (Imms & Byers, 2017). This is where the teacher will utter as few words as possible about what is about to happen. It is preferable for the teacher to say it briefly. The word “go” has a lot of power. It is short, actionable, and everyone understands it. When the teacher says it, learners understand that they will be moving on to the next task. Finally, teachers should pay attention to how well the learners follow through. They should take note of where they fail and succeed so the teacher can adjust the strategy for the next time (Imms & Byers, 2017).

2.5.5 Foster Collaboration

This teaching method's peer-to-peer nature permits learners to form bonds with one another. It also promotes the development of relationships, which results in a more favorable learning atmosphere in the classroom. Collaboration in the classroom provides teachers with a fresh teaching method with no effort on their part. After teachers have established expectations, goals, and deadlines, teachers may let learners go (Imms & Byers, 2017). The only thing the teacher must do is to ensure that the groups stay on track. Collaboration does not have to take place face-to-face. Companies like Google now offer collaborative tools that learners may utilize at the same time, thanks to major advancements in internet applications. It is important to promote teamwork in the classroom.

2.5.6 Practice Follow-through

It is important that teachers be respected by the learners. That means learners must adhere to the teacher’s instructions. Learners need to believe that if the teacher says they will do something, the teacher will do it. This results in happy learners and fosters positive traits such as honesty, trust, and commitment. The more the learners see the teacher follow through on their promises, the more likely they are to do so themselves. This passively organizes the class in a positive, productive manner (Imms & Byers, 2017). Learners perceive the classroom as a place where promises are maintained

and potential is realized, which keeps them motivated. This is a straightforward concept. Nonetheless, it is how the teacher keeps learners involved in the class by leading by example.

2.5.7 Remember to Play

Learners become frustrated when they must do all of their work and have little time to play. In fact, primary school learners in the South African environment are stressed (Zook, 2021) Short-term stress has a significant influence on the brain's learning ability. Long-term stress is considerably worse, affecting even minor features such as cellular communication (Gage et al., 2018). When learners say they are stressed, they are expressing their inability to learn. That means it is up to the teacher to ease the tension. Even though the teaching only lasts five or ten-minutes, it might give a pleasant break from direct stress in a learner's life. Telling comments and promoting laughing, stimulating creativity, praising learner achievements, stimulating involvement, and remaining upbeat are all ways that the teacher can alleviate stress in the classroom. Laughter is the most effective method on the list. If the teacher can make learners laugh even once a day, it means they have temporarily forgotten about their stress (Gage et al., 2018). The outcomes may have an impact on how many learners learn.

2.5.8 Start a Tech-off Policy

There can be no questioning that today's learners behave differently from the previous generations. When it comes to distracting learners, smartphones, tablets, and even watches are all to blame. Teachers need a tech-off policy if they want to keep the learners on track as much as possible. Ahmad et al. (2017) suggest that teachers can achieve this in a couple of ways. To begin with, have all learners take their phones out of their pockets and turn them off, then place them face upward on the desk. This permits the teacher to see who has followed the rules. Learners should keep their cell phones in a specified region of their workstation, such as the top right corners of their desks (Ahmad et al., 2017). When devices are turned off, the teacher may rest assured that learners will not be distracted.

Second, if the teacher employs technology in the classroom, late work can be penalized. If a learner does not complete their tasks on the computer before the conclusion of this session, they must do it in the next class on paper (Ahmad et al., 2017). While this may not appear to be a big threat, for the digital native generation, it is a potent incentive. Many learners, especially those from privileged environments, have spent nearly all their lives surrounded by screens. People often feel as if something is missing when the screens are gone.

Finally, the teacher can impose more concrete repercussions, such as a grade reduction if the tech-off policy is not adhered to. If teachers use one of these policies, they can expect varied degrees of success (Ahmad et al., 2017). A method can always be tweaked by the teacher to make it more classroom specific. Trial and error may be required, but each day will be a positive step forward. Teachers must organize the classroom in the right way to curb learner misbehaviour. When there are minimal classroom management problems, there will be an efficient learning process. Therefore, the adoption of classroom management approaches and strategies can lead to meaningful learning and better learner academic achievement.

2.6 Learner Achievement

Tan and Dimmock (2014) describe executive testing as a type of psychological test in which subjects are asked to complete a number of different options, from saying something to something. The executive test is a test that illuminates the ability to manage things rather than images (Marzano et al., 2013). According to instructive exploration, scholastic execution of a learner can be viewed as the perceptible and quantifiable conduct of a learner in a specific circumstance. For example, a learner's academic performance in a subject encompasses detectable and quantifiable behavior of the learner at any point in the classroom. In examination's learners' scholarly execution composes consists of their scores at a specific time. In this way, one can compare academic performance to the behaviours or assumptions noted to accomplish a particular assertion or interpretation of the pedagogical goal under investigation. Scholastic execution of learners comprises scores acquired from a teacher-made test, initial term assessment, and mid-semester test (Al-Azawei &

Lundqvist, 2015). According to Sunday-Piaro (2018), the major goal of the school is to support learners' academic success.

2.6.1 Level of Learners' Achievement

When putting together an effective plan, methods, and ideas from a variety of theories and models must be considered, and all must be checked for enhancing learning achievement (Pooja, 2017). Moreover, Tan and Dimmock (2014) maintain that if learning achievement is poor, there might be something in the class such as learner behaviour which can be addressed to increase the level of achievement of the learners. Parish (2013) has discovered that inadequate preparation contributes to teachers' failure to organize instructional strategies and expectations for learner achievement. Teachers' classroom management is clearly associated with learners' outcomes. Korpershoek et al. (2016) also found that effective classroom management increases learners' achievement and decreases problems with behavioural issues. It has been generally accepted that professional learning communities are an effective method for improving teacher efficacy and student achievement (Watson, 2014).

The research base for young adolescents consistently shows that an increased implementation of both academic and caring systems based on student learning is associated with greater achievement gains (Parish, 2013). In addition, quality teaching in the classroom with comprehensive approaches centres on learning and is backed by the school's capacity for improvement. These are the requirements and frameworks associated with learner achievement. According to research by Tan and Dimmock (2014) teachers' lack of interpersonal skills, as well as their lack of creativity and innovation in managing curriculum change, can contribute to learners' inability to express themselves freely, as well as a lack of literacy skills in schools, affecting learning achievement. Tan and Dimmock (2014) further reveal that learners are more likely to complete their goals when they set them for themselves. Shook (2012) suggests that teaching learners how to set attainable and achievable goals could help them learn more effectively.

Parish, (2013) argues that certain learners struggle to understand lessons simply because they lack advanced knowledge of the subject matter. Tan and Dimmock

(2014), on the other hand, state that the level of learners' achievement is determined by teachers' abilities to provide continuity in a classroom setting that necessitates attention to various needs and problems. Teachers who behave professionally have their learners achieve in class activities. This is supported by Shook (2012) who postulates that, classroom related problems should be professionally handled otherwise they will cause more problems instead of lifting the level of learners' achievement. These researchers have exhausted the contribution of the teacher and pre-determined knowledge of learners only, leaving out the contribution of learners themselves that might make them improve on their levels of achievement. The level of learner's achievement can be higher in a class where there is efficiency in the teaching-learning process (Parish, 2013). Similarly, class routines make learners aware of what to do in the class. Also teaching with enthusiasm and motivation can improve on the level of learning experiences (Tan & Dimmock, 2014).

Research conducted by Shook (2012) found that teaching learners to be respectful, trustworthy, responsible, and compassionate promotes good character in the classroom, which increases learner's achievement. While Parish (2013) notes that teachers should get to know the profile of their learners, which will enable them to vary the presentation of content to meet the needs of the learners. This translates into an improvement in the level of learner's achievement. Teaching of respect and other social values may not be appropriate in the classroom since it takes off the time allocated for content to be delivered in the class. It should rather be done outside the classroom through guidance and counselling units.

Teaching should be geared towards learning. Additionally, learners should be led to understand the meaning of the task by themselves and this will be linked to learners' achievement. Nonetheless, research by Tan and Dimmock (2014) reveals that learners who are assigned roles and responsibility, helped by a detailed manual where they can manage, teach, and evaluate their own peers, achieve more in the classroom. This relieves the class from teacher domination. Learners can be encouraged to plan for better classroom environment and rules regarding the class if they are to achieve. This gives learners the ability to make choices about the rules that should govern how their classroom functions. When a learner achieves good grades, they become more engaged. To improve learners' motivation and, as a result, their participation, teachers

must have instructional effectiveness, high expectations, and positive reinforcement. Tan and Dimmock (2014) assert that the link between learners' perceptions of class and their motivation, achievement, and behaviour has been highlighted by researchers. Excitement, curiosity in learning, and a sense of belonging are all factors linked to emotional commitment. Parish (2013) asserts that the relationship between learners' perceptions of class and their motivation, achievement, and behaviour have been highlighted by researchers. If a teacher is inefficient, learners under their instruction may make inadequate academic progress, regardless of how hard they try (Shook, 2012).

Shook (2012) has found that the individual classroom teacher effectiveness is the single most crucial factor influencing learners' academic development. After all, if teaching means assisting others in learning, then knowing what is to be learned is a prerequisite. Parish (2013) notes that the variety of teaching tasks, such as choosing worthwhile learning activities, providing useful explanations, asking productive questions, and assessing learners' learning, are all dependent on the teacher's interpretation of what learners are supposed to learn. Tan and Dimmock (2014) state that as teachers gain more intellectual expertise and become more fluid in relating the knowledge to lesson delivery, their learners' subject competence can improve as well.

Since teaching is complex in nature, so are the challenges that teachers face in today's knowledge-based, diverse culture and classroom management is a vital task that is seen as a launching-point for teachers' continuing professional development rather than an end (Parish, 2013). Nonetheless, the ability to communicate ideas clearly and convincingly, build effective learning environments, cultivate fruitful teacher-learner relationships, be imaginative and enthusiastic, and work effectively with colleagues and parents are harder to quantify but also crucial to the quality of learners' learning.

2.7 Summary

This chapter discussed both local and international literature on classroom management approaches and learner achievement. Furthermore, it included both primary and secondary sources. The chapter was divided into four sections. In the first part, it dealt with the theoretical framework guiding the study. The second part clarified the nature and the essence of classroom management. The third part comprised a literature review of the different classroom management approaches which could be implemented in schools. The last section focused on how classroom management approaches influenced learner achievement. Research design and methodology are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research process that was followed. The study's design and methodology are outlined, including the research approach and techniques applied. Additionally, the chapter outlines the procedure for gathering data, the population, sample, and data analysis techniques, such as descriptive and inferential statistics. Lastly, the chapter highlights ethical considerations that were considered during data collection.

3.2 Research Approach

Research approaches refer to a set of research planning including everything from general assumptions to specific data collection, methodology and analysis. Numerous decisions must be made during the design process, and they do not have to be made in accordance with the researcher's understanding or in the order in which they will be presented (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The qualitative and quantitative approaches are two well-established and well-recognised research methodologies. The research approach used in this study was the quantitative approach. A research procedure should include a set of questions, collection of data in the respondents' environment, generating topics from the data and interpreting the meaning of the data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Quantitative research is research that focuses on numbers and the quantification of concepts or relationships between concepts (Bergin, 2018). The purpose of quantitative research is often to uncover findings that may be applied to more than one case or context.

3.2.1 Epistemology

Gall et al. (2015) explain that the philosophy of epistemology focuses on understanding the essence of knowledge and how it is acquired and validated. Positivist methodology is heavily dependent on experimentation. Positivist research `frequently yields numerical data. According to positivist epistemology, quantification

is used to represent and analyse aspects of social reality, which are reliable. In line with positivist epistemology, quantification represents and analyses aspects of social reality. To answer research questions and formulate theories, positivist researchers use quantitative data collected through true experiments or methods of less rigour, standardised tests, and small- or large-scale surveys with closed-ended questions. The numerical data collected from these methods is analysed descriptively or inferentially. According to the positivist viewpoint, a research study is considered high quality if it possesses both internal and external validity, is objective and is dependable. If several researchers conduct the study in different locations and conditions and come up with the same results, the study is considered valid. According to Gall et al. (2015), positivists believe that the world of experience is an objective universe governed by natural laws and regularities and that positivist epistemologists conduct most of the quantitative research. Additionally, according to Bakkabulindi (2015), it is the science of truth and the factual accuracy of knowledge claims.

In addition, Gall et al. (2015) emphasises the importance of epistemological assumptions in the discovery of social behaviour knowledge. Based on their epistemological assumptions, researchers make decisions about what method(s) to use for their research. As a result, if knowledge is seen as hard, objective, and tangible on the one hand, the researcher must play the role of the observer while adhering to natural science methods such as testing, measuring, and so on. If, on the other hand, knowledge is regarded as personal, subjective, and one-of-a-kind, then the researcher is forced to reject natural science methods and become more involved with their subjects.

Gall et al. (2015) further mention that positivism is the belief in the existence of a ‘real world' that can be studied using scientific methods like those used in the physical sciences. Researchers who follow a positivist epistemology conduct most of the quantitative research. As a result, subjectivity is viewed as a barrier to knowledge, in positivist epistemology. The concept of epistemology is based on three main elements: the knower, the known, and the knowing process. Positivism assumes the possibility of a sharp distinction between the knower and the known and focuses on research methods for enforcing the distinction. ‘The world out there’ in this research is the

relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement in primary schools.

According to the positivist paradigm, facts should be separated from opinions (Charmaz, 2014). A positivist avoids involving their own opinions and feelings in the study to prevent influencing the outcomes. Interpretivism refers to a methodological approach which acknowledges that different people understand reality differently. The method used in this study aims to investigate how respondents perceive classroom management approaches in their schools' contexts and how these affect learner performances. I can use this information to gain insight into how respondents view certain phenomena. Furthermore, the positivist paradigm ensures my objectivity and independence. Positivists maintain a neutral viewpoint, which strengthens the research designs and analyses (Charmaz, 2014). The section that follows will explain the research paradigm that was used in the study.

3.3 Research Design and Methodology

The study used a quantitative paradigm with a correlation design. The characteristics, attitudes, opinions, and feelings, as well as the experiences of teachers, students, and study directors, were investigated using a correlation design. In addition, I explain and justify the decisions I made that influenced the 'how' of the research procedure. The study was conducted using the following research questions.

- Is there a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools?
- What is the nature and essence of classroom management?
- Which classroom management approaches are implemented at primary schools?
- How do classroom management approaches influence learner achievement at primary schools?

The research design used helped me to address questions about validity, objectivity, accuracy, and cost-effectiveness (Kumar, 2019). The research design states goal as

well as the strategies for gathering evidence, analysing evidence, and reporting the findings.

A research design is a decision made by the researcher on the aspects that the research project will require, as well as the development of design components. This is further confirmed by Plano Clark and Creswell (2015) who state that research design refers to a set of logical procedures employed by researchers to gather, analyse, and present data. All the various procedures are interconnected logically to address a certain type of research purpose. Therefore, through this design, I will be able to determine the relationship between classroom management approaches and learners' performance at primary schools.

3.3.1 Quantitative Research Design

Plano Clark and Creswell (2015) mention that to provide answers to research questions and test hypotheses about variables, quantitative research designs are logical processes for gathering, analysing, and reporting data. Qualitative and quantitative are terms that are sometimes used to describe research approaches or methodologies (often thought of as almost polar opposites in their philosophies) (McAteer, 2013). Researchers select a quantitative research design based on their research objectives, such as testing the effect of an intervention on an outcome variable or describing trends for certain variables in a population. Gall et al. (2015) believe that quantitative research is defined by its belief in an objective reality, its approach to converting reality into measurable variables, its approach to creating generalizable knowledge by using samples that accurately reflect a population, and its use of statistical methods to analyse data. This study uses a survey as its quantitative research design method.

3.3.2 Correlation Research Design

A correlational study is a non-experimental design using correlational statistics to measure and describe the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2012). Correlational studies are typically conducted by researchers interested in the statistical

relationships between variables rather than experiments. According to Creswell (2012), the statistical relationship is not causal. The other reason correlations are used instead of experiments is that researchers strongly believe that the statistical relationship of interest is causal, but they are unable to manipulate the dependent variable because it is impossible, impractical, or unethical to do so. In a correlational research design, the researcher does not control or manipulate any variables (Bhandari, 2020). Essentially, a correlation reflects how strongly related two (or more) variables are. According to Creswell (2015), survey researchers collect quantitative data through questionnaires. Questionnaires were distributed as part of this research to various primary schools for gathering information, which was then statistically analysed to describe trends in the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement in primary schools. Therefore, this research has employed correlational research design.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

Plano Clark and Creswell (2015) mention that after identifying the types of data, the researcher should provide details on the procedures used to collect the data. This view on gathering data highlights the importance of construction, making of meaning, and interpretation in qualitative research (Gall et al., 2015). These details include the format of the questionnaire. It is then necessary to classify and locate the sources that would have information about the research topic (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The data from the sample group can be interpreted, and attitudes and opinions can be expressed numerically (Dumaz et al., 2020). Therefore, the data collection instrument employed in this study is presented next.

3.4.1 Data Collection Instruments

A research tool is used to measure, observe, or record quantitative data (Creswell, 2014). The researcher uses an instrument to collect data. Instruments for data collection are essential to the research process because they provide the analytical information foundation for the search for responses to a specific research question. The choice of an appropriate research instrument to collect data that will allow analysis

to lead to the formulation of convincing and credible answers to research questions/objectives posed cannot be made arbitrarily. As a result, when selecting the research instrument(s) to use, researchers must be guided by their competencies and capabilities. Many studies collect data through questionnaires, interviews, and observation. The issue is that the research enterprise's epistemological and ontological foundations, which should inform the conceptualisation, construction, validation, and application of the instruments, are frequently overlooked.

To improve the quality of the research, data should be collected using the appropriate instrument(s). According to the evidence in the quantitative literature (Hamilton & Finley, 2019), quantitative researchers have a wide range of data collection instruments to choose from, depending on the purpose of their study and their ability to use them effectively. All these tools are measurement tools because they have a numerical format that represents a quantification of the dimension of measurement. Because of their well-known properties, rigorous measurement tools, such as indices and scales, can be used with confidence in research. If the data is recorded in a categorical or numerical format, it will be classified as quantitative data. In this research, data was gathered using a questionnaire with the dependent variables measured using a continuous scale.

3.4.1.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are a set of written questions used in scientific studies to collect standardised information about people's opinions, preferences, experiences, intentions, and behaviour. Traditionally, they have been contrasted with surveys in that they do not collect large amounts of data for further analysis, but the terms are now used interchangeably (and many research studies also use them together). Questionnaire design involves a multi-stage process requiring attention to a variety of factors at the same time to collect the data you need. In general, well-designed questionnaires are highly structured to collect the same types of information based on the responses of a large group of people in a consistent manner and to allow quantitative data analysis. Kumar (2019) further asserts questionnaires consist of a set of questions respondents must answer. As a result, respondents read the

questions, understand the expectations, and then write down their responses. Appropriate time to conduct the study is essential because the excellence of data gathered in the field is determined by the quality of the questionnaire (Babbie, 2017).

According to Babbie (2017), a questionnaire is a form that contains items and questions that are intended to elicit data that can be analysed statistically. Questionnaires are commonly used in surveys, but they can also be used for scientific research, field work, and many other types of surveys. Maree and Pietersen (2020) mention that questionnaires are most often administered in groups. The researcher waits for many people to respond before collecting them. Self-reporting questionnaires are tools in which the respondent answers a set of questions to give statistically useful or personal information to the researcher (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). As a result, questionnaires are designed to collect information from large, diverse, and widely scattered groups of people. According to Kumar (2014), a questionnaire consists of questions and the responses provided by the respondents. The format of a questionnaire must be designed in a way to be easy to read and pleasing to the eye, with an easy-to-follow question sequence. The questionnaire used in this study was basic, concise, anonymous, and organised, using close-ended questions.

In this study, the only source of information was a questionnaire (Appendix A). The questions in the instruments address each study objective in its own section. Each study objective is addressed in separate sections by the questions in the instrument. The questionnaire comprises four sections, from A to D, with clear instructions per section. I used a semantic differential scale of seven points to measure the respondents' responses to each questionnaire item. The semantic differential scale used in the questionnaire is shown below.

Table 3.1: Semantic Differential Scale of Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree

The frequency of responses for each of the question categories was revealed by the above responses, as well as the categorical ranking of responses. As mentioned further below, the questionnaire's design ensured that there is no right or wrong answer in the information gathered.

Construction of the Questionnaire

Kumar (2019) suggests that a beginner researcher takes the following approach when developing a research instrument:

- Step one; clearly describe and make a separate list of the objectives, research questions, or hypotheses to be tested.
- Step two; Write down all the related questions that you intend to answer with the research for every objective, research question, or hypotheses.
- Step three; List the information needed to answer each question you identified in step two.
- Step four; formulate the question(s) you will be asking respondents to obtain the necessary data.

According to Creswell (2015), questionnaires should begin with demographic and personal questions that are easy to answer, and as the participant completes those questions, they become more committed to filling out each one. Kumar (2019) contends that the purpose of the questionnaire is to have a conversation between two people, even though they are physically separated and have never personally spoken. It is how the researcher and the subject communicate.

The researcher constructed the questionnaire (Appendix A) as follows:

- Section A was designed to obtain the personal data of the respondents such as their gender, age, position at the school, the total number of years in their current position, the school's quintile, and the school's overall percentage pass rate in 2020 and the highest phase of teaching.

- Section B of the questionnaire was designed to obtain data on the theoretical framework of operant conditioning and classical conditioning.
- Section C aimed to obtain data on the seven classroom management approaches employed at primary schools.
- Section D of the questionnaire aimed to obtain data on classroom management strategies.

Administration of the Questionnaire

I submitted a research proposal to the Faculty Research and Innovation Committee (FRIC) for approval. The FRIC unconditionally approved the research proposal (Appendix B). To carry out the research, I was given an ethical clearance letter (Appendix C). A request was made to the Head of the Department of the Free State Department of Education for permission to conduct a study in selected primary schools. The Free State Department of Education granted permission for the study to be conducted in selected primary schools (Appendix D). The following procedure was employed when administering the questionnaire:

- A covering letter with researcher's details was sent to selected school principal to request approval to carry out the research at his or her school (Appendix E).
- The questionnaire was distributed for ten days to all sampled schools, each on a different day. The questionnaire was circulated to each of the sampled schools on a different day for ten days.
- The questionnaire was to be distributed to teachers by the school principals and the delegated person.
- Clear instruction was given to the principal and delegated person on how to complete the questionnaire.
- The respondents were given a week to answer the survey.
- The questionnaires were delivered to 20 selected primary schools of which two did not return the questionnaires.

Two hundred questionnaires were handed out and filled out by teachers in the Foundation, Intermediate, and Senior phases, and 162 questionnaires were returned

(18 schools out of 20 schools). This represented a 90% return. The questionnaire comprised of: Section A (Personal data), Section B (theoretical framework, Section C (Classroom management approaches) and Section D (Classroom management Strategies). Teachers were requested to submit information about their gender, age, teaching experience, current position, phase they are teaching, and the average number of learners they teach. Section A included 8 items, Section B 11 items, Section C 45 items and Section D 24 items. The following Cronbach's alpha coefficients to determine internal consistency:

- 0.90- reliability is high
- 0.80- reliability is moderate
- 0.70- reliability is low

The questionnaire Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .95, indicating that it had excellent internal consistency or reliability.

3.5 Population and Sample

The next section discusses the research population and sample.

3.5.1 Population

According to Creswell (2012), a population is a group of people who have common traits. A research question is usually associated with a particular set of sampling units. A population is a group that includes all the sampling units that are relevant to the research question (Maree, 2020). A population is a collection of people or organisations with similar characteristics (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2015). Johnson and Christensen (2012) show that locating a target population is a two-step process that begins with the creation of a larger target population of individuals of interest, followed by the selection of a sample from this larger target population at random.

According to Gall et al. (2015), a target population is defined as the whole collection of people, organisations, events, and objects, for example that have characteristics that relate to the research topic. Johnson and Christensen (2012) assert that an accessible population is a group of research participants who are available to the

researcher for study involvement. The population for this study was primary school teachers. Twenty primary schools were chosen from a list of Lejweleputswa primary schools. Then the teachers were given the questionnaire.

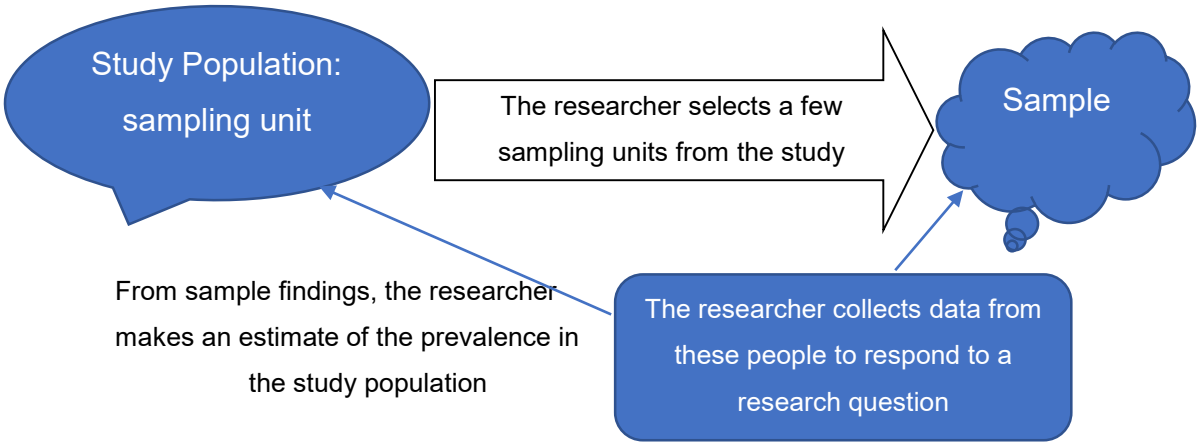
3.5.2 Sample

A target population (or sample frame) in a quantitative approach is a set of individuals who have certain defining characteristics that the research may identify and examine (Creswell, 2014). Researchers use either probability or non-probability sampling procedures to determine the sample size (Creswell, 2014). The probability sampling technique with a simple random sample was used in this study. Sampling also refers to the process of selecting study participants (Kumar, 2019). However, through the process of sampling, the researcher tries to estimate what the situation is likely to be in the overall study population. A sample is the actual set of participants in a study who are included in the research and are intended to represent the target population (Gall et al., 2015). Maree (2020) further states that samples are small subgroups of people made up of a prearranged number of randomly selected sampling units taken from the general population - the sample.

Plano Clark and Creswell (2015) state that a sample is a subgroup of a bigger number of people that participate in a study generate data for the study. In quantitative research, the best samples are those in which the researcher chooses individuals and organisations who represent the entire group of people or organisations of interest (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2015). A representative sample is thus formed when the researcher chooses individuals for the sample who are members of the community. There are several expert arguments over the number of participants required. According to Creswell (2012), the correlation approach requires at least 30 participants to establish a relationship. In this study, the researcher randomly selected teachers from 20 schools from the selected population. Participants were chosen because they were open to sharing their diverse perspectives on classroom management. A sample, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2013), is a subset of a population. The probability sampling technique entails selecting participants who are representative of a group, knowledgeable and well-informed about the subject and represent a variety of viewpoints on the subject (Maree & Pietersen, 2020). Fraenkel et al. (2012) agree

that the minimum acceptable number of participants for correlation research is .30. Based on the two experts' views above, I selected teachers at random from the population for this study. The following diagram shows the relationship between population and a sample.

Figure 3.1: Population and Sample (Kumar, 2019, p. 291).



The following section outlines the sampling procedure which was adopted in this research.

3.5.2.1 Sampling Procedure

According to Plano Clark and Creswell (2015), it is important to analyse how the researcher picked the respondents in quantitative research because this can indicate if the study's sample is representative or not. Researchers use various ways, known as sampling strategies, to choose the samples for the research. Probability and non-probability sampling are the two types of sampling techniques (Kumar, 2019). In this study, random or probability sampling was employed to ensure population validity.

Probability sampling

According to Kumar (2019), a design cannot be referred to as random or probability sampling until each member of the research population has an equal and independent chance of being chosen for the sample. The equality concept suggests that the

possibility of selecting each component in the sample is the same; such that, the selection of a component is not influenced by other factors including personal preference. Thus, the probability for selecting all components is the same in the research population, and the selection of one component in the sampling is not dependent on the selection of another element. Everyone has an equal chance of being chosen when researchers use probability sampling as a technique to choose people (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2015). Creswell (2015) argues that the researcher uses probability sampling to select individuals from a population who are representative of that population. A simple random sample is the most used sample selection method. The procedure of selecting a sufficient sample size from a population while giving each element a fair chance of being chosen randomly is known as simple random sampling (Kumar, 2019). To conduct simple random sampling, I wrote the names of all 158 primary schools on pieces of paper. All 158 pieces of paper were placed in a bowl. I shuffled d the pieces and selected one piece at a time until I had picked 20 names of schools which became part of the sample. I conducted a pilot study with the questionnaire before distributing it in its final form to ensure its reliability and validity. The pilot study for this research is outlined below.

3.6. Pilot Study

A questionnaire should be tested in a pilot study to identify any potential flaws and then revised prior to carrying out the main study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013, McMillan & Schumacher, 2012). A pilot study is required because this helps determine whether the questionnaire is valid with a small number of target population respondents. Thus, a pilot study was carried out to determine the questionnaire's quality, appropriateness, and clarity. An initial pilot test was carried out with teachers from one primary school. A questionnaire with questions about background information and classroom management was given to participants. They were also requested to provide clarification on the statements themselves. The numbering of statements was also corrected. Participants' responses and comments were used to revise the final form of the scale. As a result, the ambiguities and unfamiliar terms were removed, and the face validity was examined. The section that follows discusses the research's reliability and validity.

3.6.1 Reliability of the Questionnaire

Reliability and validity are essential aspects of any research procedure. Instrument reliability is defined by its repeatability and consistency (McMillan & Schumacher, 2012, Maree & Pietersen, 2020). According to Kumar (2019), reliability is a measure of the accuracy of a research instrument, stability, and repeatability: the higher the reliability, the higher the accuracy. Therefore, reliability refers to how accurate or precise the research instrument's measurements are. The higher the reliability, the lower the instrument's degree of 'error'. Kumar (2019) defines reliability as a research tool that consistently produces similar results when used in similar circumstances. The consistency or repeatability of a measure or instrument (such as a questionnaire) is referred to as reliability (Maree & Pietersen, 2020). The questionnaire's reliability was tested during the pilot study. Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire's internal consistency or reliability was .95, indicating high questionnaire reliability (cf. 3.4.1.1). Factor analysis was carried out only to identify items that would load below .5 value. Questionnaire items loaded .7 or more, hence all items were retained in the final questionnaire. The respondents in the pilot test provided written comments directly on the survey.

3.6.2 Validity of the Questionnaire

Validity is the fundamental concern of all researchers that collect educational data. It is the most important feature of a dependent variable that has been measured. Accordingly, the amount to which an empirical measure properly represents the notion it is designed to assess is referred to as validity, resulting in scores that are accurate representations of the variables being assessed. The appropriateness of each research step process is referred to as validity (Kumar, 2019). However, the term "validity" may be used to describe any component of the research project. The validity, on the other hand, is more closely linked to measurement procedures. Furthermore, a questionnaire's validity refers to how well it measures the variables it was designed for (McMillan & Schumacher, 2012, Maree & Pietersen, 2020).

The process of collecting and analysing evidence to support such inferences is known as validation. The degree to which evidence supports any inferences researchers

make based on data collected using a specific instrument is referred to as validity. Maree and Pietersen (2020) agree that an instrument or measure is valid if it measures what it claims to measure. The validity of an effect or test is demonstrated or measured by demonstrating what the researcher believes or claims it will. To begin, I derived the questionnaire items from the literature review to ensure content validity. Furthermore, the questionnaire proved its validity throughout the pilot test, as indicated above (cf.3.6.). The following paragraph explains the techniques used when analysing data. Before collecting data using questionnaires, I verified the questionnaire's validity and reliability. One of the strengths of research is validity, which is focused on assessing if the findings are correct (Creswell, 2012).

3.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis is used to make sense of the information collected. After data collection, the quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.7.1 Analysis of Questionnaire Data

The quantitative data analysis process includes determining how to assign numerical scores to the data, evaluating the types of scores that can be used, selecting a statistical programme, entering the data, and cleaning up the database for analysis (Creswell, 2015). According to Plano Clark and Creswell (2015), statistics are used by researchers to analyse quantitative data and present the results in tables, figures, and explanations that provide information about their research questions and hypotheses. The descriptive data were presented in tables.

3.7.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Researchers may describe the findings of the collected data in descriptive statistics (Aldous, 2016). A description of the data is required to establish the normality of the distribution; a data description is required since the nature of the methods to be applied to the inferential data analysis is influenced by the data characteristics. Descriptive analyses are used when the study's goal is to improve the reader's knowledge,

comprehension, and application of the research. Descriptive statistics provides a simple summary of various samples, data sets, and other variables, as well as their measures (Aldous, 2016, McMillan & Schumacher, 2012). Descriptive statistics, according to Creswell (2015), is the calculation of numerical values. Descriptive statistics are statistical tools that assist researchers in summarising the overall tendencies in the data, assessing how varied the scores are in the data, and providing information about the current score regarding the entire information (Plano Clark & Creswell 2015). Descriptive analysis is primarily concerned with the distribution of a single variable. This analysis displays the benchmark data and assesses the state or condition at any given time. Descriptive techniques are used to report on a sample or population's distributions (or spread) over several variables.

The central tendency measurements of mean, median, and mode are employed to display the overall trend of the data. In this study, the mean (*M*), median (*MD*), and standard deviation (*SD*) were used to analyse the data (cf. 4.2.1.2). The inferential statistics that were employed to test the hypotheses are discussed in the section that follows.

3.7.1.2 Inferential Statistics

According to Maree and Pietersen (2020), inferential statistics are based on probability theory. For example, describing, identifying, evaluating, checking, designing, reviewing, demonstrating, and measuring, and so on. It falls within the scope of inferential statistical analysis (Hussain, 2012). Creswell (2012) mentions that in the hypotheses testing branch of inferential statistics, researchers use their sample data to test certain population hypotheses. A type of statistical study called inferential statistics uses data from a sample to draw inferences about a larger, unknown population. The purpose of the evaluation is to see if the differences between groups or the relationship between variables differ significantly from what is expected for the entire population. All hypotheses were examined using the Pearson correlation coefficient (cf. 4.2.2). To compare group differences, an independent-samples t-test was used (cf. 4.2.2).

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The moral principles of professional conduct that are viewed as desirable for good professional work are known as ethics (Kumar, 2019). Ethics has become a serious issue for higher education researchers. The researcher's ethical obligation is to respect human dignity, which includes maintaining the participants' confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy. It guarantees that the researcher stays focused on the research objectives. There were no respondents who were physically or emotionally harmed during this study's data collection. Ethical considerations ensure that the researcher stays on track with the studies. During this research, the principles of informed consent and voluntary participation were upheld. Unless otherwise agreed upon in advance, information obtained about a research participant during an investigation is confidential. All participants and schools and all information provided will remain confidential.

Clarity was provided on what the study entailed and how it would benefit all the stakeholders in education. Hammersley (2015) states that ethics encompasses all the values that should guide researchers' work. Respondents also completed the questionnaire only after the study's purpose was explained in the covering letter that accompanied the questionnaire. In conducting this research, I was bound by ethical principles. If required, this research's findings will be provided to the participants. Application for ethical approval was done, stating the research topic and the sample schools that would take part in the study. The participants were not compelled to take part in the study, nor were they intimidated in the research. There was no pressure on them to put their names on the questionnaire as respondents. The questionnaire itself was straightforward and to the point. During the study, respondents were free to withdraw at any point. Finally, I attempted to respect all respondents' rights, needs, values, and desires. The following section highlights the limitations of this research.

3.9 Delimitation and Limitations of the Research

The research is in curriculum studies because it explores the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.

Study limitations are weaknesses in a research design that may have an impact on the research's outcomes and conclusions. McMillan (2012) asserts that identifying any constraints to the conclusions is a crucial component of research. A critical feature is whether random sampling was used or whether the constraints apply only to the sample rather than the entire population. Furthermore, researchers owe it to the academic community to disclose all a study's limitations in an open and honest manner. It is also an ethical aspect of scientific inquiry to disclose study limitations. It ensures that both the research and the researchers are transparent, as well as that the methods are transferable and reproducible.

Limitations are also presented to aid the proper interpretation and validity of the findings. This study has population validity because respondents were chosen using simple random sampling. All primary schools were given an equal opportunity to be involved in the sample and take part in the research. Threats may, however, be there for internal validity**.** Bergin (2018) contends that internal validity is an important component in evaluating the overall rigour of many studies because studies that do not minimise or control the likelihood for confounding explanations cannot draw reliable conclusions about the causes of specific phenomena or the directions of relationships between different variables. Furthermore, internal validity is connected to response truthfulness (Gall et al., 2015, McMillan & Schumacher, 2012). This is a major limitation of this research. I cannot say with certainty that all respondents were truthful in their responses to the questionnaire items. Internal validity was also jeopardised by the non-return of 18 questionnaires from two schools. Data from these questionnaires would have enhanced the study's findings.

3.9.1 Limitations Related to Participant Characteristics

The study's population was limited to primary school teachers in only one geographic area (Lejweleputswa District), a unique context with unique socio-economic challenges. This means that the results of this research cannot be applied to other geographical areas other than the Lejweleputswa district. This was also due to the COVID-19 restrictions placed by the national state of disaster.

3.9.2 Limitations Related to Contextual Characteristics

According to McMillan (2012), contextual characteristics are the specific locations and surroundings in which the study is conducted. In this study, the research represents data generated in urban areas and can therefore not be generalised to other primary schools located in rural areas. The other limitation was that primary schools within the Lejweleputswa district have different quintiles, and their socio-economic status differs in terms of resources. This meant that the results could not be generalised because each school had its own contextual factors.

3.9.3 Limitations Related to Methodology

In this study, two variables were compared, and the researcher used causal conclusions with caution which limited the conclusions I could have drawn. The study's findings cannot be generalised because the research focuses only on Lejweleputswa district's primary school teachers.

3.9.4 Limitations Related to Data Collection

The questionnaires contained closed questions and did not allow participants to express their opinions. Because respondents could only respond to what was asked, the use of closed-ended questions posed a disadvantage. Furthermore, participants could misinterpret questions based on their inability to express their views. The study did not yield an in-depth understanding of the studied phenomenon.

3.10 Summary

This chapter described how the research was conducted, including the techniques used to choose respondents, the method used to gather data, and the method used to analyse the texts. The following steps were followed, research methodology, approaches and design, data collection instrument, participants, data collection procedure and data analysis. A questionnaire was chosen as the data-gathering tool. The chapter that follows presents and analyses the collected data.

Chapter 4: Data Presentation and Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis and findings of the quantitative data collected during the study, focusing on the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. The results of the questionnaires used to collect data for this study are described. The chapter begins with a description of the participants' demographic information. Tables and graphs are used to present the analysis of the data. The study respondents comprised teachers from primary schools. This chapter ends with a summary of findings.

4.2 Presentation and Analysis of Quantitative Data

Quantitative data analysis entails the examination of descriptive statistics using measures of central tendency such as the mean and median, as well as a measure of dispersion known as the standard deviation. The descriptive statistics will be examined first, followed by the inferential statistics.

4.2.1 Presentation and Analysis of Descriptive Statistics

Basic information on the respondents to this survey is presented in this section. The respondents' demographic data, including gender, age, the number of years of teaching experience, current position, and phase level of teaching, the average number of learners, school quintile and overall pass percentage for 2020 including Participant biographical information is summarised in preparation for hypotheses testing. The figures and tables that follow provide biographical and classroom management approaches data for the sampled schools.

4.2.1.1 Biographical Details of the Respondents

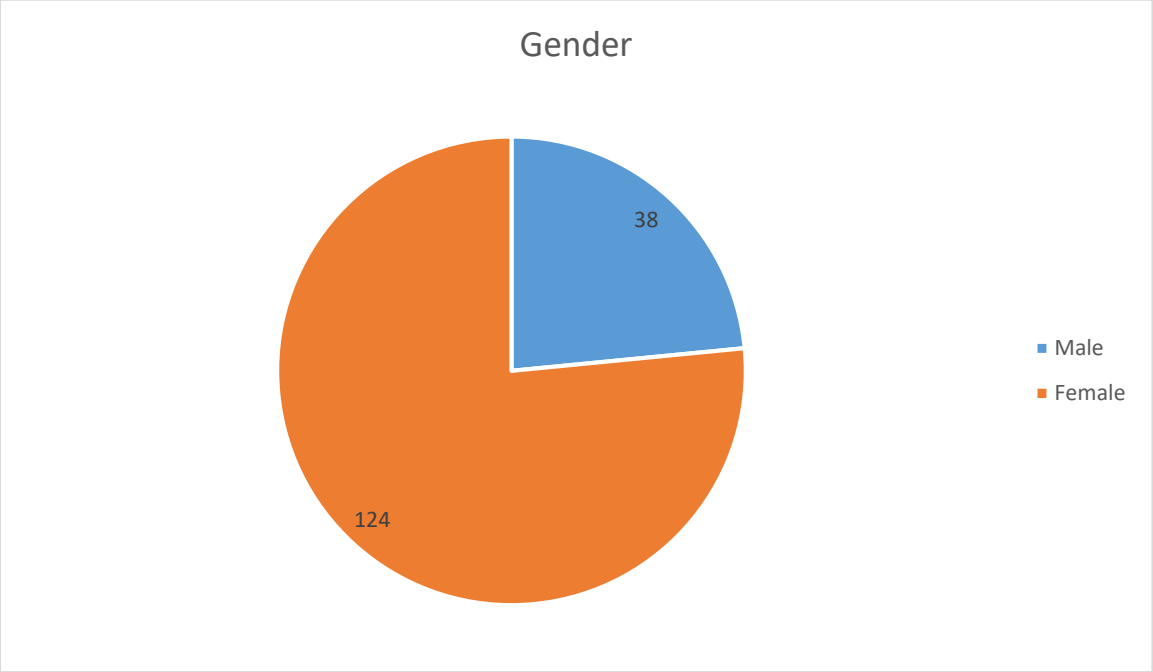


Figure 4.1: Gender

Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of respondents by gender. It illustrates that out of 162 participants who responded to the questionnaire 124 were females and 38 were males. This indicates that 76, 5% of the respondents were females and 33, 5% were males. Female respondents have the highest representation because, in many primary schools, there are more female teachers than male teachers.The age range of the respondents is covered in this section. In this study, respondents' ages were divided into three categories.

Table 4.1: Age of the Respondents

		A2. Age
N	Valid	162
	Missing	0
Mean		41.2531
Median		39.5000
Std. Deviation		12.54572
Minimum		22.00
Maximum		68.00

Analysis of Table 4.1 reveals that the oldest respondent is 68 years old and the youngest is 22. The 68-year-old teacher is occupying a school governing body (SGB) post. The respondents were 43 years old on average. The ages of the respondents were divided into three categories as shown in Figure 4.2 below.

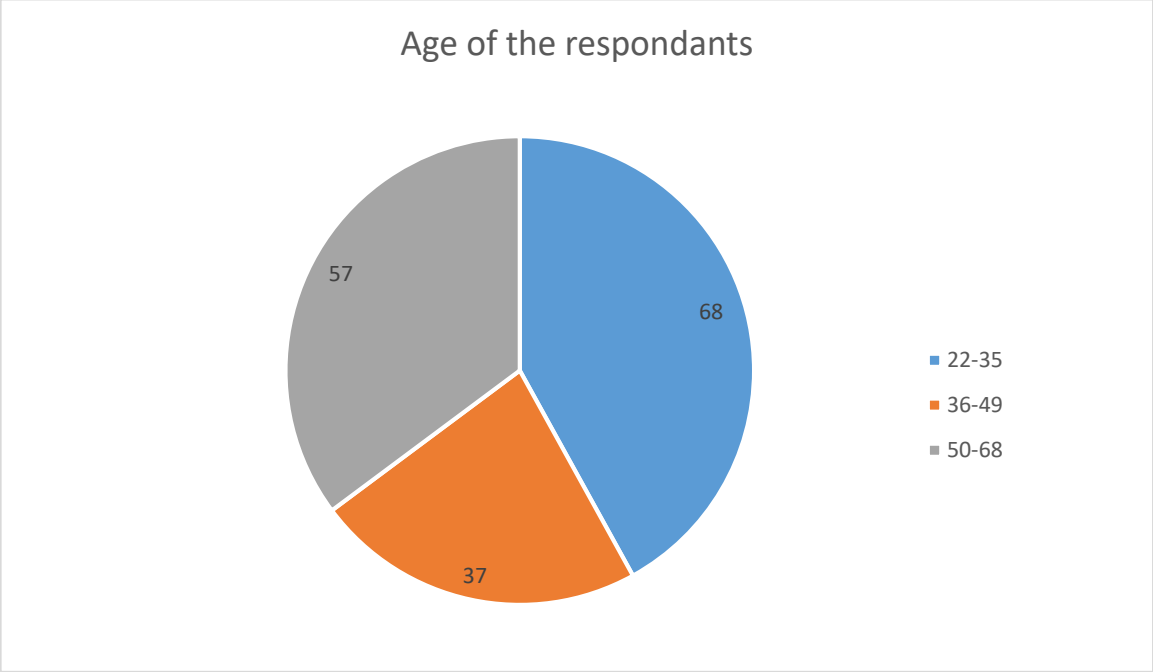


Figure 4.2: Age Categories of the Respondents

Figure 4.2 reveals the breakdown of respondents by age. It shows that respondents between the ages of 36 and 49 made up the smallest percentage of respondents (22.8%) and those between the ages of 22 and 35 made up the highest percentage (42%). o There were 57 respondents, aged between 50 and 68 representing 35.2%. The following figure shows the positions the respondents occupied when they completed the questionnaire.

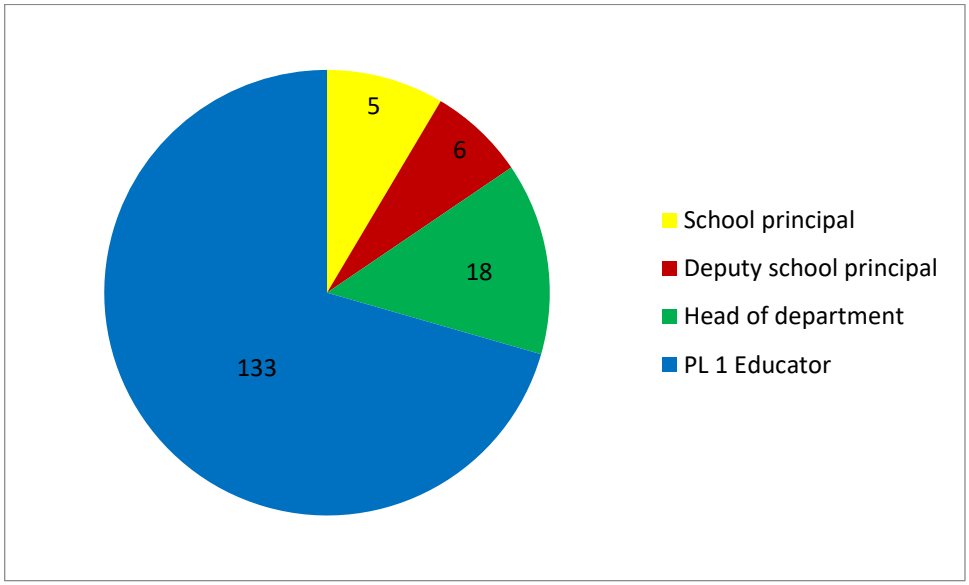


Figure 4.3: Respondents' Positions

In Figure 4.3 the respondents were categorised into four categories namely principal, deputy school principal, head of departments and teacher. The figure indicates that 133 of the respondents were post level one teachers, 18 were heads of department, 6 deputy principals and 5 were school principals. It also indicates that most respondents were post-level 1 teachers with a percentage of 82.1%. The following table indicates the total number of years the respondents have in their current positions.

Table 4.2: Number of Years in Current Position

		A4. Number of years in current position
N	Valid	162
	Missing	0
Mean		14.3333
Median		10.5000
Std. Deviation		11.71716
Minimum		0.00
Maximum		41.00

The years of experience of the respondents who took part in this study are discussed in this section. The table demonstrates that respondents have worked in schools for a range of periods of time.

Analysis of Table 4.2 indicates that the number of years' respondents have spent in their current positions ranged from 0 to 41 years. Overall, 52 participants (32%) had teaching experience of less than five years, 60 (37%) had experience of teaching for between 6 to 20 years, and 50 (30%) had experience teaching for more than twenty years. The years were divided into three categories as shown in Figure 4.4 below.

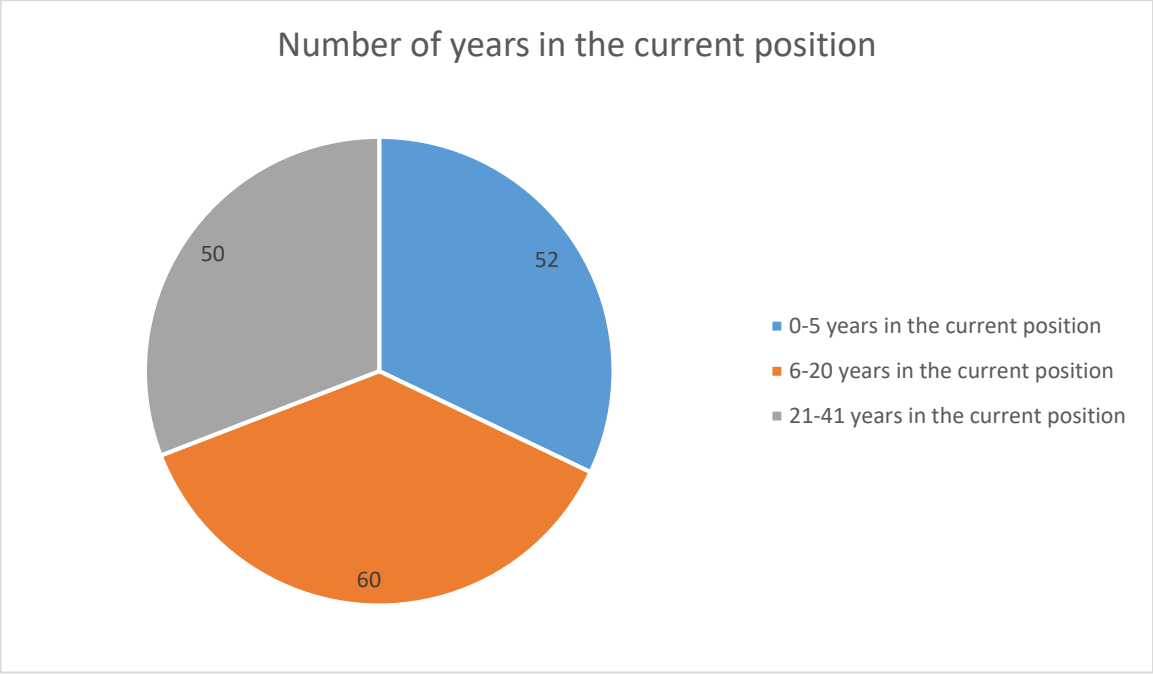


Figure 4.4: Number of Years in Current Position

Figure 4.4 explains what respondents to this study had to say about their experience. It reveals that 52 of the respondents were in the current positions for 0 to 5 years, 60 respondents were in their positions for 6 to 20 years and 50 of them were in the current positions for 21 to 41 years. This information shows that 50 of the respondents were experienced teachers. The following figure shows the categories of the schools from which the respondents came.

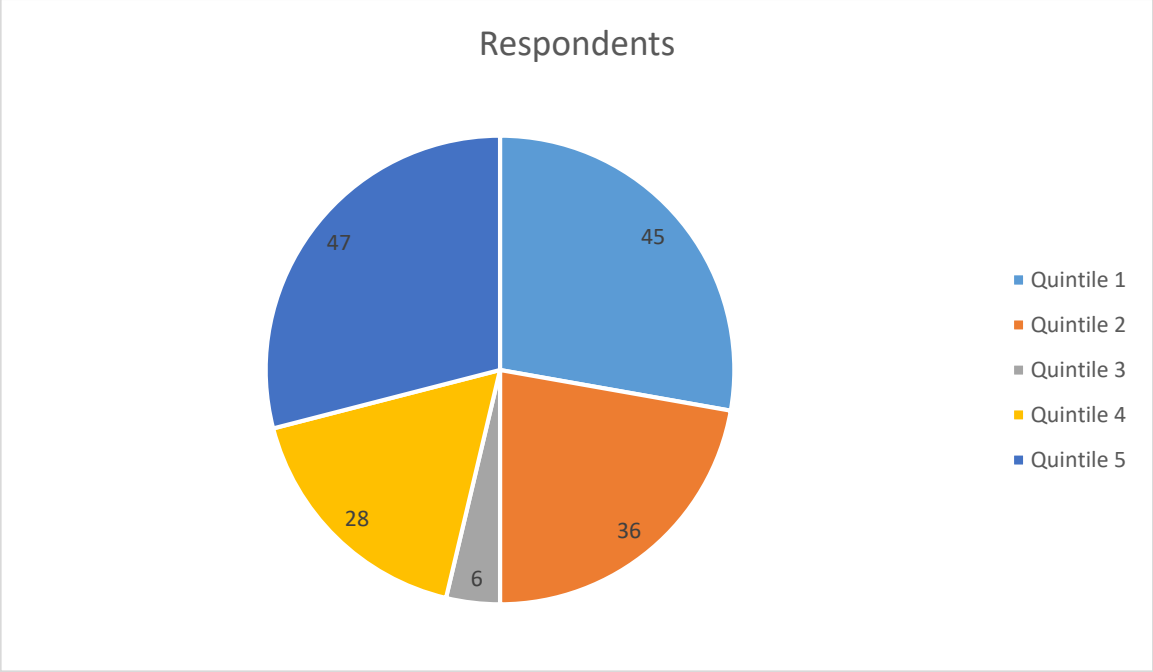


Figure 4.5: School's Quintiles

Figure 4.5 describes the quintiles of the schools where the respondents teach. It shows that most of the respondents (47) were in Quintile 5 schools, followed by 45 in Quintile 1 schools, 36 respondents taught in Quintile 2 schools, 28 respondents in Quintile 4 and only 6 respondents were in Quintile 3 schools.

The following table shows the overall percentage pass rate in 2020.

Table 4.3: Overall Results for Schools in 2020

		A8. Overall results for schools in 2020
N	Valid	162
	Missing	0
Mean		85.7654
Median		89.0000
Std. Deviation		11.48239
Minimum		59.00
Maximum		100.00

Table 4.3 Indicates that the lowest overall percentage pass rate of learners in 2020 for the sampled primary schools was 59% and the highest pass rate was 100%. The

average pass rate is 86%. The overall pass rate was divided between two groups, as indicated in Figure 4.6 below.

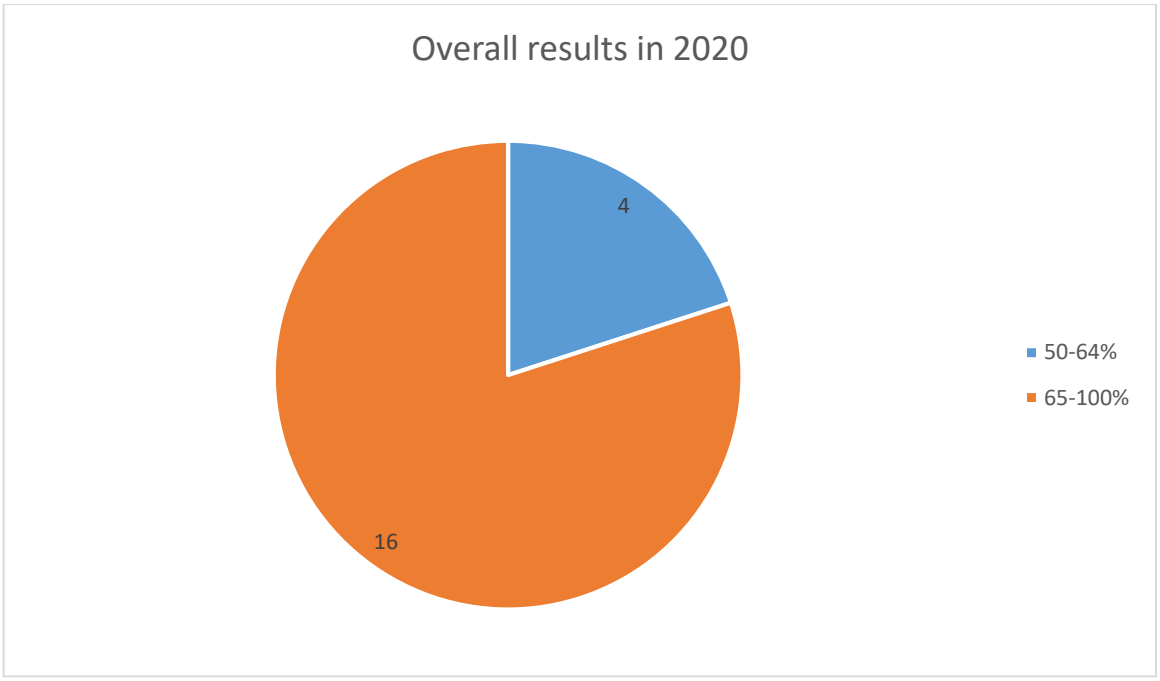


Figure 4.6: Overall Percentage Pass Rate of Learners for Sampled Primary Schools (2020)

Figure 4.6 describes the overall percentage pass rate of learners for the sampled primary schools in the academic year 2020. It indicates that in 4 primary schools the overall percentage pass rate for 2020 ranged from 50% to 64% whilst in 16 schools the results ranged from 65% to 100%. This reveals that most of the respondents were from schools which were performing according to the permissible pass rate target (65%). The tables below present descriptive statistics data on concepts drawn from the theoretical framework on the different classroom management approaches and classroom management techniques that teachers use at the sampled primary schools.

4.2.1.2 Data Presentation and Analysis of Theory, Classroom Management Approaches and Strategies

The frequencies are presented in percentages, means, medians, and standard deviations in the tables below. The tables' key is as follows: The mean is *M*, the median is *MD*, and the standard deviation is *SD*. The items in each table are arranged in accordance with the questionnaire items.

Theories

Table 4.4: Operant Conditioning Theory **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Operant Conditioning Theory	B1	I use punishment that gives learners immediate feedback about their behaviour.	4.03	4.00	2.17
	B2	When I reward positive behaviour, other learners copy that behaviour to earn the reward.	5.54	6.00	1.37
	B3	The rewarded learner repeats that behaviour because of the positive feedback.	5.70	6.00	1.28
	B4	Immediate feedback I give to the learners who misbehave is useful in curtailing negative classroom behaviours.	5.28	5.00	1.50
	B5	When I punish negative behaviour, other learners want to avoid that punishment, and so they are less likely to perform that behaviour.	5.25	5.00	1.38
	B6	The punished learner is less likely to repeat the behaviour as well	4.94	5.00	1.43

In Table 4.4, it is shown that the rewarded learners repeat that behaviour because of the positive feedback (*M* = 5.70, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.28), although the rate at which the teachers use punishment that gives learners immediate feedback about their behaviour is in a sustainable way is low (*M* = 4.03, *MD* = 4.00, *SD* = 2.17). The table further shows that when teachers reward positive behaviour, other learners copy that behaviour to earn the reward (*M* = 5.54, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* =1.37). Most of the means are lower than the medians, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Table 4.5: Classical Conditioning Theory **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Classical Conditioning Theory	B7	I provide learners with multiple opportunities to raise their voice and answer a question.	6.06	6.00	1.13
	B8	I reward the learners with stars, stickers, sweets, or candies.	4.73	5.00	2.18
	B9	Every time I walk into the classroom, I am greeted by my learners.	6.09	7.00	1.33
	B10	I create activities where learners are made to perform in a group.	5.28	6.00	1.67
	B11	I teach my learners expected behaviours for routine classroom activities without having to daily tell them what I want them to do.	5.83	6.00	1.22

Table 4.5 shows that when the teachers walk into the classroom they are greeted by their learners (*M* = 6.09, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 1.33). It also shows that learners are provided with multiple opportunities to raise their voices when answering questions. Therefore, learners are awarded incentives like, stars, stickers, sweets or candies for their action (*M* = 4.73, *MD* = 5.00, *SD* = 2.18). Most of the means are lower than the median, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Classroom Management Approaches

Table 4.6: Assertive Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Assertive Approach	C1	I provide a healthy learning environment for all learners.	6.52	7.00	0.77
	C2	I tell learners classroom rules they must observe.	6.45	7.00	0.83
	C3	I explain to the learners why each classroom rule is important.	6.30	7.00	1.03

	C4	I never invite learners to give their inputs on the classroom rules	3.74	4.00	2.18
	C5	I hold learners accountable to the classroom rules.	5.85	6.00	1.41
	C6	I prepare lessons before presenting them.	6.55	7.00	0.75
	C7	I prepare lesson materials before presentation.	6.37	7.00	0.94

Table 4.6 shows that teachers prepare lessons before they present them to learners (*M* = 6.55, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.75). Teachers provide healthy environments for all learners (*M* = 6.52, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.77). Teachers tell learners classroom rules they must observe (*M* = 6.45, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.83). However, learners are not invited to give input on the classroom rules (*M* = 3.74, *MD* = 4.00, *SD* = 2.18). Furthermore, the table shows that the medians are all higher than the means, which implies that the data are negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.7: Business Academic Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Business Academic Approach	C8	I prepare classroom activities in advance.	6.41	7.00	0.95
	C9	I apply sound teaching strategies to minimize classroom disruptions	5.62	6.00	1.54
	C10	I set assignments with precise instructions on how to complete them.	6.39	7.00	0.93
	C11	I begin my lessons on time.	6.25	7.00	0.97
	C12	I give learners quick feedback on work they have submitted.	6.13	6.00	0.98
	C13	I monitor learners' work from time to time.	6.28	7.00	0.89

Analysis of Table 4.7 reveals that teachers prepare activities in advance (*M* = 6.41, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.95) and teachers set assignments with precise instructions on how to complete them (*M* = 6.39, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.93). Also teachers apply sound teaching strategies to minimise classroom disruptions (*M* = 5.62, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.54). The table also shows that most of the medians are larger than the means which

implies that data are negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.8: Behavioural Modification Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Behavioural Modification Approach	C14	I clearly state acceptable behaviour at the beginning of each school year.	6.43	7.00	0.90
	C15	I clearly state unacceptable behaviour at the beginning of each school year.	6.05	7.00	1.47
	C16	I reward acceptable behaviour with compliments such as "Well done" or "Good" or "Excellent".	6.60	7.00	0.72
	C17	I explain consequences for unacceptable behaviour to discourage learners from undesirable forms of behaviour.	6.31	7.00	1.08
	C18	I spend little time on the personal history of the learners.	4.70	5.00	1.73

Analysis of data in Table 4.8 reveals that teachers reward acceptable behaviour with compliments such as "Well done" or "Good" or "Excellent" (*M* = 6.60, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.72) teachers prepare activities in advance (*M* = 6.41, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.95). Teachers also clearly state acceptable behaviour at the beginning of each school year (*M* = 6.43, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.90). Teachers spend little time on the personal history of the learners (*M* = 4.70, *MD* = 5.00, *SD* = 1.73). The table also shows that the means are lower than median, implying that the data is skewed negatively. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.9: Group Managerial Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Group managerial	C19	I strive to increase the occurrence of appropriate	5.44	6.00	1.41

approach		behaviour through a system of reward.			
	C20	I am aware of the behavioural patterns of learners in my classroom.	6.17	6.00	0.89
	C21	I emphasise developing a sense of allegiance to the class among learners.	5.87	6.00	1.10
	C22	I believe that learner allegiance to the class encourages them to refrain from engaging in disruptive behaviour, to avoid giving their class a bad name.	5.83	6.00	1.05
	C23	I keep learners on–task by moving around the classroom	6.20	7.00	1.14
	C24	I keep eye contact with all learners.	6.50	7.00	0.92
	C25	I identify potential learner misbehaviour.	6.28	6.00	0.89
	C26	I acknowledge good learner behaviour.	6.59	7.00	0.69
	C27	I involve all learners in learning activities.	6.47	7.00	0.85

Analysis of data in Table 4.9 shows that teachers acknowledge good learner behaviour (*M* = 6.59, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.69). Teachers keep eye contact with all learners (*M* = 6.50, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.92). Teachers also involve all learners in learning activities (*M* = 6.47, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.85). Teachers strive to increase the occurrence of appropriate behaviour through a reward system. (*M* = 5.44. *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.41). This table also shows that most of the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data are negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.10: Group Guidance Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
	C28	I can attend to more than one thing at a time while presenting a lesson.	5.65	6.00	1.48
	C29	I usually counsel the whole class if a learner misbehaves.	5.76	6.00	1.38

Group Guidance Approach	C30	I encourage learners to open to me whatever is bothering them.	6.30	7.00	1.01
	C31	I can listen to learners without judging them.	6.31	7.00	0.87
	C32	My learners trust me enough to confide in about their fears and frustration.	6.13	6.00	0.95
	C33	I understand the class, its needs, and interests.	6.17	6.00	0.87

Analysis of data in Table 4.10 indicates that teachers can listen to learners without judging them (*M* = 6.31, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.87). Teachers encourage learners to open up to them whatever is bothering them (*M* = 6.30, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 1.01). Furthermore, teachers can attend to more than one thing at a time while presenting a lesson (*M* = 5.65, *MD* = 6.00 *SD* = 1.48). This table also shows that most of the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.11: Acceptance Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Acceptance Approach	C34	I can manipulate the behaviour of the class.	5.65	6.00	1.26
	C35	I make a conscious effort to give learners who display antisocial behaviour some positive attention.	5.93	6.00	1.10
	C36	I make learners feel accepted by me and other learners.	6.46	7.00	0.80
	C37	I know that teaching is a challenging profession that can only be done by those who really love children.	6.53	7.00	0.71
	C38	I provide leadership by establishing classroom rules and consequences.	6.45	7.00	0.75
	C39	I can identify learner's mistaken goals.	6.06	6.00	0.98

Analysis of data in Table 4.11 reveals that teachers know that teaching is a challenging profession that can only be done by those who really love children (*M* = 6.53, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.71). Teachers make learners feel accepted by themselves and other

learners (*M* = 6.46, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.80). Teachers also provide leadership by establishing classroom rules and consequences (*M* = 6.45, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.75). However, teachers can manipulate the behaviour of the class (*M* = 5.65, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.26). The table also shows that all the medians are greater than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.12: Success Approach **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Success Approach	C40	I confront the learners with an explanation of what they are doing.	6.28	7.00	0.87
	C41	I ensure teachers work towards the realisation of the departmental goals and targets.	6.09	6.00	1.04
	C42	I encourage learners to take responsibility for their behaviour.	6.36	7.00	0.85
	C43	I encourage learners to respect classroom and school rules.	6.49	7.00	0.79
	C44	I encourage learners to follow the code of conduct of both the classroom and the school.	6.56	7.00	0.84
	C45	I call on learners who exhibit inappropriate behaviour to make value judgements about their own behaviour.	6.49	7.00	0.91

Analysis of data in Table 4.12. Shows that teachers encourage learners to follow the code of conduct of both the classroom and the school (*M* = 6.56, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.84). Teachers call on learners who exhibit inappropriate behaviour to make value judgements about their own behaviour (*M* = 6.49, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.91). They encourage learners to respect classroom and school rules. (*M* = 6.49, *MD* =7.00, *SD* = 0.79). They also encourage learners to take responsibility for their behaviour (*M* = 6.36, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.85). Efforts are made to ensure teachers work towards the realisation of the departmental goals and targets (*M* = 6.09, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.04). The table also shows that most of the medians are larger than the means, indicating

that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Classroom Management Strategies

Table 4.13: Showing Enthusiasm **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Showing enthusiasm	D1	I bring an exciting attitude to the classroom to improve learners' interests.	6.42	7.00	0.76
	D2	I show enthusiasm when presenting my lessons.	6.48	7.00	0.73
	D3	I present myself and lessons with energy and poise to draw learners' attention.	6.43	7.00	0.83

Analysis of data in Table 4.13 reveals that teachers show enthusiasm when presenting their lessons. (*M* = 6.48, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.73) and they present themselves and their lessons with energy and poise to draw learners' attention (*M* = 6.43, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.83) in order to bring an exciting attitude to the classroom to improve learners' interests (*M* = 6.42, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.76). The table also shows that all the medians are greater than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Table 4.14: Creating First-step Compliance **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Creating first-step compliance	D4	I give learners class activities before I start teaching new content.	5.14	6.000	1.99
	D5	I give learners a simple task at the beginning of the lesson.	5.53	6.00	1.57
	D6	I keep things as simple as possible and concentrate on getting things done in class.	5.99	6.00	1.25

Analysis of data in Table 4.14 shows that teachers keep things as simple as possible and concentrate on getting things done in class (*M* = 5.99, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.25).

They give learners a simple task at the beginning of the lesson (*M* = 5.53, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.57). Furthermore, they give learners class activities before they start teaching new content (*M* = 5.14, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.99). The table also shows that all the medians are greater than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Table 4.15: Preparation **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Preparation	D7	I plan for lesson disruptions.	4.86	5.00	1.91
	D8	I prepare learning material for unforeseen disruptions.	5.08	5.00	1.73
	D9	Activities I prepare keep learners focused and engaged throughout the whole lesson.	5.94	6.00	1.07

Analysis of data in Table 4.15 shows that activities teachers prepare keep learners focused and engaged throughout the whole lesson (*M* = 5.94, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.07). Teachers also prepare learning material for unforeseen disruptions (*M* = 5.08, *MD* = 5.00, *SD* = 1.73). As a result, teachers plan for lesson disruptions (*M* = 4.86, *MD* = 5.00, *SD* = 1.91). The table also shows that most of the medians are larger than the means, implying that the data are negatively skewed. The standard deviation scores are high, indicating that there is disagreement among the respondents.

Table 4.16: Mastering Lesson Transitions **N=162**

Questionnaire items			Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Mastering lesson transitions	D10	I easily signal for attention so that every learner has their eyes on me.	6.15	6.00	0.89
	D11	I easily grab attention with short, easy-to-accomplish instructions.	6.03	6.00	1.03
	D12	I tell learners when to move from one task to another.	6.30	7.00	0.93

Analysis of data in Table 4.16 reveals that teachers tell learners when to move from one task to another (*M* = 6.30, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.93). They easily signal for attention

so that every learner has their eyes on the teacher (*M* = 6.15, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 0.89). Lastly, they easily grab attention with short, easy-to-accomplish instructions (*M* = 6.03, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.03). The table also shows that most of the means are greater than the medians, implying that the data is positively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Table 4.17: Collaboration **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Collaboration	D13	I give learners an opportunity to work with one another.	5.89	6.00	1.27
	D14	I encourage learners to form positive relationships with one another to create a positive learning environment in the classroom.	6.23	7.00	1.12
	D15	I make sure that during group discussions, learners stay on the topic.	6.01	6.00	1.17

Analysis of data in Table 4.17 shows that teachers encourage learners to form positive relationships with one another to create a positive learning environment in the classroom M = 6.23, MD = 7.00, SD = 1.12). They also make sure that during group discussions, learners stay on the topic (M = 6.01, MD = 6.00, SD = 1.17).
Furthermore, they give learners an opportunity to work with one another (M = 5.89, MD = 6.00, SD = 1.27). The table also shows that most of the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Table 4.18: Practising Follow-Through **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Practicing follow-through	D16	I make learners respect my instructions.	6.38	7.00	0.90
	D17	I lead by example to keep learners engaged in the classroom.	6.53	7.00	0.77
	D18	If I promise to do something in class, I follow it through.	6.27	7.00	0.91

Analysis of data in Table 4.18 shows that when practising follow-through, teachers lead by example to keep learners engaged in the classroom (*M* = 6.53, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.77). Teachers also make learners respect their instructions (*M* = 6.38, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.90). Additionally, if they promise to do something in class, they follow through with it (*M* = 6.27, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.91). Furthermore, the table shows that all the medians are greater than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Table 4.19: Remember to Play **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Remember to play	D19	While teaching, I tell jokes for my learners to laugh at.	5.57	6.00	1.41
	D20	I praise learner achievement.	6.53	7.00	0.76
	D21	I stimulate learner involvement by giving them activities which reduce stress in the classroom.	5.78	6.00	1.34

Analysis of data in Table 4.19 reveals that teachers praise learners who are achieving (*M* = 6.53, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.76). Teachers also stimulate learner involvement by giving them activities which will reduce stress in the classroom (*M* = 5.78, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.34). Furthermore, teachers tell jokes for their learners to laugh at while they are teaching them (*M* = 5.57, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.41). The table also shows that all the medians are greater than the means, indicating that the data is negatively skewed. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement amongst respondents.

Table 4.20 below shows data on the 'tech- off' policy.

Table 4.20: Tech-off Policy **N=162**

Questionnaire items			**Mean**	**Median**	**Standard Deviation**
Tech off policy.	D22	I do not allow learners to answer their cell phones in class.	5.79	7.00	2.25
	D23	I force all learners to remove	5.25	7.00	2.50

		cell phones from their pockets and turn them off.			
	D24	Learners keep their cellphones in a specified area of their desks.	4.49	6.00	2.69

Analysis of data in Table 4.20 displays that teachers do not allow learners to answer their cell phones in class (*M* = 5.79, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 2.25). They also force learners to remove cell phones from their pockets and turn them off (*M* = 5.25, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 2.50). However, learners are allowed to keep their cell phones in a specified area of their desks (*M* = 4.49, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 2.69). The table also shows that the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data is skewed negatively. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents.

Comparison of Theoretical Frameworks, Classroom Management Approaches and Classroom Management Strategies.

Table 4.21: Theoretical Framework **N=162**

Classroom management approaches	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Operant conditioning	5.12	5.17	1.52	0.95
Classical conditioning theory	5.60	6.00	1.51	0.95

Although two theoretical frameworks are implemented in the primary schools, Table 4.21 reveals that in most primary schools, classical conditioning theory (*M* = 6.60, *MD* = 6.00, *SD* = 1.51) is mostly applied whilst operant conditioning is the least applied theory (*M* = 5.12, *MD* = 5.17, *SD* = 1.51). The table also shows that the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data is skewed negatively. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents. This suggests that the subscales have very good internal consistency reliability. The Cronbach alphas of the two theoretical frameworks are all at subscale .95. This suggests very good internal consistency reliability for the subscales.

Table 4.22: Classroom Management Approaches **N=162**

Classroom management approaches	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Assertive approach	5.97	6.43	1.13	0.95
Business academic approach	6.18	6.67	1.04	0.95
Behavioural modification approach	6.02	6.60	1.18	0.95
Group managerial approach	6.15	6.44	0.99	0.95
Group guidance approach	6.05	6.33	1.09	0.95
Acceptance approach	6.18	6.50	0.93	0.95
Success approach	6.38	6.83	0.88	0.95

Although all seven classroom management approaches are implemented in the primary schools, analysis of data in Table 4.22 reveals that in most primary schools, the success approach is mostly applied (*M* = 6.38, *MD* = 6.83, *SD* = 0.88) whilst the assertive approach is the least applied classroom management approach (*M* = 5.97, *MD* = 6.43, *SD* = 1.13). The table also shows that the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data is skewed negatively. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents. The Cronbach alphas of the seven classroom management approaches are all at .95. This suggests that the subscales have very high internal consistency reliability.

Table 4.23: Classroom Management Strategies **N=162**

Classroom management strategies	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Showing enthusiasm	6.44	7.00	0.77	0.95
Creating first-step compliance	5.55	6.00	1.60	0.95
Preparation	5.30	5.33	1.57	0.95
Mastering lesson transition	6.16	6.33	0.95	0.95
Collaboration	6.04	6.33	1.19	0.95
Practising follow-through	6.40	7.00	0.86	0.95
Remember to play	5.96	6.33	1.17	0.95
Tech-off policy	5.18	6.67	2.48	0.95

Even though all eight classroom management strategies are implemented in the primary schools, analysis of data in Table 4.23 shows that in most primary schools, showing enthusiasm (*M* = 6.44, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.77) is mostly applied. It is followed by practising follow-through (*M* = 6.40, *MD* = 7.00, *SD* = 0.86). So, the most applied classroom management strategy is 'showing enthusiasm'. The least applied

classroom management strategy is tech-off policy. The table also shows that the medians are larger than the means, indicating that the data is skewed negatively. The standard deviations are high, indicating that there is disagreement among respondents. The Cronbach alphas of the eight classroom management strategies are all at subscale .95. This suggests that the subscales have very high internal consistency reliability.

4.2.2 Presentation and Analysis of Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are used by researchers to reach conclusions that go beyond the immediate data. Inferential statistics, for example, are used to try to infer what the population would believe, based on the sample data. Inferential statistics are also used by researchers to determine whether an observed difference between groups is reliable or if it occurred by chance. Therefore, researchers use inferential statistics to draw conclusions from data to more general conditions, while descriptive statistics are used to describe how the data is organised. Inferential statistics are defined by Bakkabulindi (2015) as an attempt by a researcher to infer or derive population parameters from sample results. Additionally, it is emphasised that inferential statistics help to generalise or makes assumptions about the group chosen for the study. The aim of research, according to Maree and Pietersen (2020) is to generalise from sample data to the total population. Furthermore, inferential statistics can be used to detect whether mean differences or associations between variables are significantly higher or lower than anticipated. For this study, an inferential statistical analysis was conducted by means of SPSS (version 22). Inferential statistics primarily focus on two areas:

- ***Estimating parameters***.

This requires using a statistic from your sample data to infer anything about a population parameter (i.e., the population mean).

- ***Hypothesis tests.***

Researchers can answer research questions with sample data. For example, in this study, I wanted to find out about the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement. The General Linear Model family of statistical models is largely responsible for inferential statistics. Examples of this include the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and T-tests.

4.2.2.1 Relationship between Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement

Pearson correlation coefficient was done to test the following hypotheses:

H_0: There is no relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.
H_1: There is a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.24 Relationship between Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Classroom management approaches	School overall results
Classroom management approaches	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.332
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	-0.077	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.332	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.24 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is -0.08, indicating a negative relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. Consequently, there is a very weak negative relationship between the two variables, although it has not reached a significant level $r = -0.08$, $p < .33$. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level reveals $p < .33$. Therefore, there is no relationship between classroom management

approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. Accordingly, the null hypothesis is accepted whilst the research hypothesis fails to be accepted.

Assertive Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Pearson correlation coefficient was done to test the following hypotheses:

H_0: There is no relationship between an assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is relationship between an assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.25: Assertive Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Assertive approach	School overall results
Assertive approach	Pearson Correlation	1	0.034
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.667
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	0.034	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.667	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.25 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is .03, indicating a positive relationship between an assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Consequently, there is a very weak positive relationship between the two variables, even though it has not reached a significant level $r = .03$, $p < .67$. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level reveals $p < .67$. Therefore, there is no relationship between an assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis fails to be accepted.

Business Academic Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Pearson correlation coefficient was done to test the following hypotheses:

H_0: There is no relationship between the business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is a relationship between the business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.26: Business Academic Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Assertive approach	School overall results
Assertive approach	Pearson Correlation	1	0.094
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.235
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	0.094	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.235	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.26 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.09 indicating a positive relationship between the business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Subsequently, there is a very weak relationship between the two variables, even though it has not reached a significant level $r = 0.09$, $p < .24$. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level reveals $p < .24$. Therefore, there is no relationship between the business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis is rejected.

Behavioural Modification Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The following hypotheses were tested using Pearson correlation coefficient:

H_0: There is no relationship between behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is relationship between behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.27: Behavioural Modification Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Behavioural modification approach	School overall results
Behavioural modification approach	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.360
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	-0.072	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.360	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.27 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is -0.07 indicating a negative relationship between behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Subsequently, there is a very weak relationship between the two variables, even though it has not reached significant level r = -0.08, p < .36. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional p < .05 level reveals p < .36. Therefore, there is no relationship between behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis is rejected.

Group Managerial Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The following hypotheses were tested using the Pearson correlation coefficient:

H_0: There is no relationship between the group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is a relationship between the group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.28: Group Managerial Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Group managerial approach	School overall results
Group managerial approach	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.304
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	-0.081	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.304	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.28 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is -0.08, indicating a negative relationship between the group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Subsequently, there is a very weak negative relationship between the two variables, even though it has not reached a significant level $r = -0.08$, $p < .30$. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level reveals $p < .30$. Therefore, there is no relationship between the group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis fails to be accepted.

Group Guidance Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The following hypotheses were tested using the Pearson correlation coefficient:

H_0: There is no relationship between the group guidance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is a relationship between the group guidance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.29: Group Guidance Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Group guidance approach	School overall results
Group guidance approach	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.193
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	-0.103	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.193	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.29 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is -0.10 indicating a negative relationship between the group guidance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Subsequently, there is a very weak negative relationship between the two variables, although it has not reached a significant level $r = -0.08$, $p < .19$. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level reveals $p < .19$. Therefore, there is no relationship between the classroom management approaches and the learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis fails to be accepted.

Acceptance Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The following hypotheses were tested using the Pearson correlation coefficient:

H_0: There is no relationship between the acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is a relationship between the acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.30: Acceptance Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Acceptance approach	School overall results
Acceptance approach	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.056
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	-0.151	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.056	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.30 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is -0.15 indicating a negative relationship between the acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Subsequently, there is a very weak negative relationship between the two variables, although it has not reached a significant level r = -0.08, p < .06. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional p < .05 level reveals p < .06. Therefore, there is no relationship between acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis fails to be accepted.

Success Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The following hypotheses were tested using Pearson correlation coefficient:

H_0: There is no relationship between the success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

H_1: There is a relationship between the success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools.

Table 4.31: Success Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools N = 162

		Success approach	School overall results
Success approach	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.144
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.067
	N	162	162
School overall results	Pearson Correlation	-0.144	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.067	
	N	162	162

Analysis of data in Table 4.31 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient is -0.14, indicating a negative relationship between the success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Subsequently, there is a very weak negative relationship between the two variables, although it has not reached a significant level r = -0.08, p < .07. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional p < .05 level reveals p < .07. Therefore, there is no relationship between the success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted whereas the research hypothesis fails to be accepted.

4.2.2.2 Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The table below presents data that test the following hypothesis, as suggested by several authors (Elliot & Woodward, 2016; Morgan et al., 2013; Pallant, 2016). The following table provides data on teacher application of different classroom approaches according to gender.

Table 4.32: Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Classroom Management Approaches (n = male 038, females 124)

Variables		***M***	***SD***	***t***	***Df***	***p***	***CI***	***d***
Classroom management approaches								
	Males	272.05	21,55	-1,11	160	0.27	-14.16 to 3.99	0.01
	Females	277.14	25,68					
Assertive approach								
	Males	41.08	4,70	-1,05	160	0.30	-2.61 to 0.80	0.01

	Females	41.98	4,66					
Business academic approach								
	Males	36.32	4,89	-1,22	160	0.23	-2.60 to 0.62	0.01
	Females	37.31	4,23					
Behavioural modification approach								
	Males	30.26	3,00	0,35	160	0.73	-1.07 to 1.53	0.00
	Females	30.03	3,67					
Group managerial approach								
	Males	54.74	5,81	-0,71	160	0.48	-3.02 to 1.43	0.00
	Females	55.53	6,17					
Group Guidance Approach								
	Males	35.39	4,18	-1,47	160	0.14	-2.80 to 0.41	0.01
	Females	36.59	4,43					
Acceptance approach								
	Males	36.11	4,25	-1,58	160	0.12	-2.86 to 0.32	0.01
	Females	37.38	4,37					
Success Approach								
	Males	38.16	3,90	-0,20	160	0.84	-1.72 to 1.41	0.00
	Females	38.31	4,38					

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on classroom management approaches. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for males (*M* = 272.05, *SD* = 21.55) and females (*M* = 277.14, SD = 25.68; *t* (160) = -1.11, *p* < 0.27, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -5.09; 95% *CI*: -14.16 to 3.99 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the assertive approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in the assertive approach scores for males (*M* = 41.08, *SD* = 4.70) and females (*M* = 41.98, *SD* = 4.66; *t* (160) = -1.05, *p* < 0.30, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.9; 95% *CI*: -2.61 to 0.80 was very small (eta squared = 0.01)

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the business academic approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in the business academic approach scores for males (*M* = 36.32, *SD* = 4.89) and females (*M* = 37.31, *SD* = 4.23; *t* (160) = -1.22, *p* < 0.23, two-tailed). The

degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.99; 95% *CI*: -2.60 to 0.62 was very small (eta squared = 0.01)

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the behavioural modification approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in the behaviour modification scores for males (*M* = 30.26, *SD* = 3.00) and females (*M* = 30.03, *SD* = 3.67; *t* (160) = 0.35, *p* < 0.73, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.23; 95% *CI*: -1.07 to 1.53 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the group management approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.21 indicates that there is no difference in the group managerial approach scores for males (*M* = 54.74, *SD* = 5.81) and females (*M* = 55.53, *SD* = 6.17; *t* (160) = -0.71, *p* < 0.48, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.79; 95% *CI*: -3.02 to 1.43 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the group guidance approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in the group guidance approach scores for males (*M* = 35.39, *SD* = 4.18) and females (*M* = 36.59, *SD* = 4.43; *t* (160) = -1.47, *p* < 0.14, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.2; 95% *CI*: -2.80 to 0.41 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the acceptance approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in the acceptance approach scores for males (*M* = 36.11, *SD* = 4.25) and females (*M* = 37.38, *SD* = 4.37; *t* (160) = -1.58, *p* < 0.12, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.27; 95% *CI*: -2.86 to 0.32 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare male and female teachers, an independent-samples t- test was conducted on the success approach. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicates that there is no difference in the success approach scores for males (*M* = 38.16, *SD* = 3.90) and

females (*M* = 38.31, *SD* = 4.38; *t* (160) = -0.20, *p* < 0.84, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.15; 95% *CI*: -1.72 to 1.41 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

The following table provides data on teacher application of different classroom approaches according to their ages.

Table 4.33: Comparison of Teachers Aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on Classroom Management Approaches (n = 22-35 years old 68, 36-68 years old 94)

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management approaches			-0.25	160	0.81	-8.79 to 6.85	0.00
22-35 years old	275.38	25.12					
36-68 years old	276.35	24.70					
Assertive approach			0.15	160	0.88	-1.36 to 1.59	0,00
22-35 years old	41.84	5.04					
36-68 years old	41.72	4.41					
Business academic approach			-1.64	160	0.10	-2.52 to 0.23	0.02
22-35 years old	36.41	4.19					
36-68 years old	37.55	4.50					
Behavioural modification approach			-1.48	160	0.14	-1.94 to 0.28	0.01
22-35 years old	29.60	3.59					
36-68 years old	30.44	3.48					
Group managerial approach			0.07	160	0.95	-1.85 to 1.98	0.00
22-35 years old	55.38	6.28					
36-68 years old	55.32	5.96					
Group Guidance Approach			0.90	158.26	0.37	-0.73 to 1.94	0.01
22-35 years old	36.66	3.82					
36-68 years old	36.05	4.76					
Acceptance approach			0.42	160	0.68	-1.08 to 1.67	0.00
22-35 years old	37.25	4.48					
36-68 years old	36.96	4.30					
Success Approach			-0.11	160	0.91	-1.42 to 1.27	0.00
22-35 years old	38.24	4.15					
36-68 years old	38.31	4.37					

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and between 36-68 years on classroom management approaches an independent-sample t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 275.38, *SD* = 25.12)

and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 276.35, SD = 24.70; t (160) = -0.25, p < 0.81, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.97; 95% CI: -8.79 to 6.85 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on the assertive approach an independent-sample t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in the assertive approach scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 41.84, SD = 5.04) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 41.72, SD = 4.41; t (160) = 0.15, p < 0.88, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.12; 95% CI: -1.36 to 1.59 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on the business academic approach an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in business academic approach scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 36.41, SD = 4.19) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 37.55, SD = 4.50; t (160) = -1.64, p < 0.10, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.14; 95% CI: -2.52 to 0.23 was very small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on the behavioural modification approach an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in the behaviour modification approach scores for teachers aged 22-35 years (M = 29.60, SD = 3.59) and teachers aged 36-68 years (M = 30.44, SD = 3.48; t (160) = -1.48, p < 0.14, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.81; 95% CI: -1.94 to 0.28 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and between 36-68 years on the group management approach an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in the group management approach scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 55.38, SD = 6.28) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 55.32, SD = 5.96; t (160) = 0.07, p < 0.95,

two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.06; 95% *CI*: -1.85 to 1.98 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on the group guidance approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in the group guidance approach scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 36.66, *SD* = 3.82) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 36.05, *SD* = 4.76; *t* (160) = 0.90, *p* < 0.37, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.62; 95% *CI*: -0.73 to 1.94 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on the acceptance approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in the acceptance approach in scores for teachers aged 22-35 years (*M* = 37.25, *SD* = 4.48) and teachers aged 36-68 years (*M* = 36.96, *SD* = 4.30; *t* (160) = 0.42, *p* < 0.68, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.29; 95% *CI*: -1.08 to 1.67 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on the success approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.33 indicates that there is no difference in the success approach scores for teachers aged 22-35 years (*M* = 38.24, *SD* = 4.15) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 38.31, *SD* = 4.37; *t* (160) = -0.11, *p* < 0.91, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.07; 95% *CI*: -1.42 to 1.27 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

The table below provides information on teacher application of different classroom approaches according to their years of teaching experience.

Table 4.34: Comparison of Teachers with Teaching Experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on Classroom Management Approaches (n = 0-5 years 91, 6-41 years 71)

Variables		*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management approaches				-0.01	160	0.10	-7.80 to 7.56	0.00
	0-5 years	275.93	25.60					
	6-41 years	275.96	23.92					

Assertive approach			-0.82	160	0.41	-2.07 to 0.85	0.00
0-5 years	41.51	4.63					
6-41 years	42.11	4.73					
Business academic approach			-0.75	160	0.46	-1.90 to 0.86	0.00
0-5 years	36.85	4.74					
6-41 years	37.37	3.93					
Behavioural modification approach			0.68	160	0.50	-0.73 to 1.49	0.00
0-5 years	30.25	3.53					
6-41 years	29.87	3.56					
Group managerial approach			0.64	160	0.52	-1.29 to 2.52	0.00
0-5 years	55.62	6.29					
6-41 years	55.00	5.82					
Group Guidance Approach			0.50	160	0.62	-1.03 to 1.72	0.00
0-5 years	36.46	4.39					
6-41 years	36.11	4.42					
Acceptance approach			-0.30	160	0.76	-1.58 to 1.16	0.00
0-5 years	36.99	4.49					
6-41 years	37.10	4.23					
Success Approach			-0.05	160	0.96	-1.37 to 1.31	0.00
0-5 years	38.26	4.43					
6-41 years	38.20	4.07					

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and between 6-41 years on classroom management approaches, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 275.93, SD = 25.60) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 275.96, SD = 23.92; t (160) = -0.01, p < 0.10, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.03; 95% CI: -7.80 to 7.56 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and between 6-41 years on the assertive approach an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in the assertive approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 41.51, SD = 4.63) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 42.11, SD = 4.73; t (160) = -0.82, p < 0.41, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.6; 95% CI: -2.07 to 0.85 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and between 6-41 years on the business academic approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in the business academic approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 36.85, *SD* = 4.74) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 37.37, *SD* = 3.93; *t* (160) = -0.75, *p* < 0.46, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.52; 95% *CI*: -1.90 to 0.86 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on the behavioural modification approach an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in the behaviour modification approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 30.25, *SD* = 3.53) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 29.87, *SD* = 3.56; *t* (160) = 0.68, *p* < 0.50, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.38; 95% *CI*: -0.73 to 1.49 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on the group management approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in group managerial approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 55.62, *SD* = 6.29) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 55.00, *SD* = 5.82; *t* (160) = 0.64, *p* < 0.52, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.62; 95% *CI*: -1.29 to 2.52 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and between 6-41 years on the group guidance approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in the group guidance approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 36.46, *SD* = 4.39) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 36.11, *SD* = 4.42; *t* (160) = 0.50, *p* < 0.62, two-tailed). The degree of the difference

in the means (mean difference 0.35; 95% *CI*: -1.03 to 1.72 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and between 6-41 years on the acceptance approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in the acceptance approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 36.99, *SD* = 4.49) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 37.10, *SD* = 4.23; *t* (160) = -0.30, *p* < 0.76, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.11; 95% *CI*: -1.58 to 1.16 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and between 6-41 years on the success approach an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicates that there is no difference in success approach scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 38.26, *SD* = 4.43) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 38.20, *SD* = 4.07; *t* (160) = -0.05, *p* < 0.96, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.06; 95% *CI*: -1.37 to 1.31 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

The following table provides data on teacher application of different classroom approaches according to their class size.

Table 4.35: Comparison of Teachers with Class Sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 learners on Classroom Management Approaches (n = 1-35 learners 35, 36-80 learners 127)

Variables		*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management approaches				0.33	160	0.74	-7.81 to 10.94	0.00
	1-35 learners	277.17	20.78					
	36-80 learners	275.61	25.87					
Assertive approach				-0.33	160	0.75	-2.06 to 1.47	0.00
	1-35 learners	41.54	4.11					
	36-80 learners	41.83	4.83					
Business academic approach				-1.68	160	0.09	-3.06 to 0.24	0.02
	1-35 learners	35.97	4.32					
	36-80 learners	37.38	4.39					

Behavioural modification approach				0.21	160	0.83	-1.19 to1.1.48	0.00
	1-35 learners	30.20	3.23					
	36-80 learners	30.06	3.63					
Group managerial approach				1.00	160	0.32	-1.13 to 3.45	0.01
	1-35 learners	56.26	4.61					
	36-80 learners	55.09	6.41					
Group Guidance Approach				0.75	160	0.46	-1.03 to 2.28	0.00
	1-35 learners	36.80	3.34					
	36-80 learners	36.17	4.64					
Acceptance approach				1.32	160	0.19	-0.54 to 2.74	0.01
	1-35 learners	37.94	3.64					
	36-80 learners	36.84	4.52					
Success Approach				0.28	160	0.78	-1.38 to 1.84	0.00
	1-35 learners	38.46	4.00					
	36-80 learners	38.23	4.35					

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on classroom management approaches, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 277.17, SD = 20.78) and teachers with class sizes of between36-80 learners (M = 275.61, SD = 25.87; t (160) = 0.33, p < 0.74, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 1.56; 95% CI: -7.81 to 10.94 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the assertive approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in the assertive approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 41.54, SD = 4.11) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (M = 41.83, SD = 4.83; t (160) = -0.33, p < 0.75, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.29; 95% CI: -2.06 to 1.49 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the business academic approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in business academic approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 35.97, SD = 4.32) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 (M =

37.38, *SD* = 4.39; *t* (160) = -1.68, *p* < 0.09, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.41; 95% *CI*: -3.06 to 0.24 was very small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the behaviour modification approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in the behaviour modification approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 30.20, *SD* = 3.23) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 (*M* = 30.06, *SD* = 3.63; *t* (160) = 0.21, *p* < 0.83, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.14; 95% *CI*: -1.19 to 1.48 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the group management approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in group managerial approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 56.26, *SD* = 4.61) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 (*M* = 55.09, *SD* = 6.41; *t* (160) = 1.00, *p* < 0.32, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 1.17; 95% *CI*: -1.13 to 3.45 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the group guidance approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in the group guidance approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 36.80, *SD* = 3.34) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 (*M* = 36.17, *SD* = 4.64; *t* (160) = 0.75, *p* < 0.46, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.63; 95% *CI*: -1.03 to 2.28 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the acceptance approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in the acceptance approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 37.94, *SD* = 3.64) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 (*M* = 36.84, *SD* = 4.52; *t*

(160) = 1.32, $p < 0.19$, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 1.1; 95% *CI*: -0.54 to 2.74 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those between 36-80 learners on the success approach, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicates that there is no difference in the success approach scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 38.46, *SD* = 4.00) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 (*M* = 38.23, *SD* = 4.35; *t* difference (160) = 0.28, $p < 0.78$, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.23; 95% *CI*: -1.38 to 1.84 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

The following section provides data on teacher application of classroom strategies.

4.2.2.3 Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Classroom Management Strategies

The following table provides data on teacher application of classroom strategies according to gender.

Table 4.36: Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Classroom Management Strategies (n = male 38, females 124)

Variables		*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management strategies				-1.91	160	0.06	-12,45 to 0.20	0.02
	Males	136.42	15.69					
	Females	142.55	17.73					
Showing enthusiasm				-0.96	160	0.34	-1.12 to 0.38	0.01
	Males	19.05	2.07					
	Females	19.42	2.05					
Creating first-step compliance				-1.82	160	0.07	-2.60 to 0.10	0.02
	Males	15.71	3.54					
	Females	16.96	3.74					
Preparation				-1.92	160	0.06	-2.92 to 0.04	0.02
	Males	14.79	4.22					
	Females	16.23	3.99					
Mastering lesson transitions				-1.64	160	0.10	-1.61 to 0.15	0.02

	Males	17.92	2.35					
	Females	18.65	2.43					
Collaboration				-0.85	160	0.40	-1.60 to 0.64	0.00
	Males	17.76	3.39					
	Females	18.24	2.95					
Practicing follow-through				-0.22	103.18	0.83	-0.70 to 0.56	0.00
	Males	19.13	1.46					
	Females	19.20	2.41					
Remember to play				-0.61	79.98	0.54	-1.14 to 0.60	0.00
	Males	17.68	2.18					
	Females	17.95	2.87					
Tech-off policy				-1.29	160	0.20	-3.87 to 0.82	0.01
	Males	14.37	6.61					
	Females	15.90	6.34					

To compare male and female teachers on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for males (M = 136.42, SD = 15.69) and females (M = 142.55, SD = 17.73; t (160) = -1.91, p < 0.06, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -6.13; 95% CI: -12.45 to 0.20 was moderately small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare male and female teachers on showing enthusiasm, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in showing enthusiasm scores for males (M = 19.05, SD = 2.07) and females (M = 19.42, SD = 2.05; t (160) = -0.96, p < 0.34, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.37; 95% CI: -1.12 to 0.38 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

An independent-samples t-test was done to compare male and female teachers on creating first-step compliance, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in creating first-step compliance scores for males (M = 15.71, SD = 3.54) and females (M = 16.96, SD = 3.74; t (160) = -1.82, p < 0.07, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.25; 95% CI: -2.60 to 0.10 was moderately small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare male and female teachers on preparation, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in

preparation scores for males (*M* = 14.79, *SD* = 4.22) and females (*M* = 16.23, *SD* = 3.99; *t* (160) = -1.92, *p* < 0.06, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.44; 95% *CI*: -2.92 to 0.04 was moderately small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare male and female teachers on mastering lesson transitions, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in mastering lesson transitions scores for males (*M* = 17.92, *SD* = 2.35) and females (*M* = 18.65, *SD* = 2.43; *t* (160) = -1.64, *p* < 0.10, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.73; 95% *CI*: -1.61 to 0.15 was moderately small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare male and female teachers on collaboration, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in collaboration scores for males (*M* = 17.76, *SD* = 3.39) and females (*M* = 18.24, *SD* = 2.95; *t* (160) = -0.85, *p* < 0.40, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.48; 95% *CI*: -1.60 to 0.64 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare male and female teachers on practising follow-through, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in practising follow-through scores for males (*M* = 19.13, *SD* = 1.46) and females (*M* = 19.20, *SD* = 2.41; *t* (160) = -0.22, *p* < 0.83, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.07; 95% *CI*: -0.70 to 0.56 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare male and female teachers on remember to play an independent-samples, an independent-sample t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in remember to play scores for males (*M* = 17 .68, *SD* = 2.18) and females (*M* = 17.95, *SD* = 2.87; *t* (160) = -0.61, *p* < 0.54, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.27; 95% *CI*: -1.14 to 0.60 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare male and female teachers on the tech-off policy, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.36 indicates that there is no difference in the tech-off policy scores for males (*M* = 14.37, *SD* = 6.61) and females (*M* = 15.90,

SD = 6.34; *t* (160) = -1.29, *p* <two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.53; 95% *CI*: -3.87 to 0.82 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

Table 4.37: Comparison of Teachers Aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on Classroom Management Strategies (n = 22-35 years old 68, 36-68 years old 94)

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management strategies			-1.08	160	0.28	-8.48 to 2.47	0.01
22-35 years old	139.37	16.80					
36-68 years old	142.37	17.84					
Showing enthusiasm			-0.21	160	0.84	-0.71 to 0.58	0.00
22-35 years old	19.30	2.00					
36-68 years old	19.36	2.10					
Creating first-step compliance			-0.83	160	0.41	-1.66 to 0.68	0.00
22-35 years old	16.38	3.79					
36-68 years old	16.87	3.68					
Preparation			-1.71	160	0.09	-2.38 to 0.17	0.02
22-35 years old	15.25	4.32					
36-68 years old	16.35	3.85					
Mastering lesson transitions			-1.37	160	0.17	-1.29 to 0.23	0.01
22-35 years old	18.18	2.34					
36-68 years old	18.70	2.47					
Collaboration			-0.35	160	0.72	-1.14 to 0.79	0.00
22-35 years old	18.03	3.08					
36-68 years old	18.20	3.05					
Practicing follow-through			-0.19	160	0.85	-0.76 to 0.63	0.00
22-35 years old	19.15	2.26					
36-68 years old	19.21	2.19					
Remember to play			-1.43	160	0.15	-1.47 to 0.23	0.01
22-35 years old	17.53	2.98					
36-68 years old	18.15	2.50					
Tech off policy			0.04	160	0.97	-1.99 to 2.06	0.00
22-35 years old	15.56	6.53					
36-68 years old	15.52	6.37					

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 139.37, *SD* = 16.80) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 142.37, *SD* = 17.84; *t* (160) = -1.08, *p*

< 0.28, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -3.00; 95% *CI*: -8.48 to 2.47 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on showing enthusiasm, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in showing enthusiasm scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 19.30, *SD* = 2.00) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 19.36, *SD* = 2.10; *t* (160) = -0.21, *p* < 0.84, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.06; 95% *CI*: -0.71 to 0.58 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on creating first-step compliance, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in creating first-step compliance scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 16.38, *SD* = 3.79) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 16.87, *SD* = 3.68; *t* (160) = -0.83, *p* < 0.41, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.49; 95% *CI*: -1.66 to 0.68 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on preparation an independent-samples, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in preparation scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 15.25, *SD* = 4.32) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 16.35, *SD* = 3.85; *t* (160) = -1.71, *p* < 0.09, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -1.1; 95% *CI*: -2.38 to 0.17 was moderately small (eta squared = 0.02).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on mastering lesson transitions, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in mastering lesson transitions scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (*M* = 18.18, *SD* = 2.34) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (*M* = 18.70, *SD* = 2.47; *t* (160) = -1.37, *p* < 0.17, -two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.52; 95% *CI*: -1.29 to 0.23 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on collaboration, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in collaboration scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 18.03, SD = 3.08) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 18.20, SD = 3.05; t (160) = -0.35, p < 0.72, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.17; 95% CI: -1.14 to 0.79 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on practising follow-through, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in practising follow-through scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 19.15, SD = 2.26) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 19.21, SD = 2.19; t (160) = -0.19, p < 0.85, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.06; 95% CI: -0.76 to 0.63 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on remember to play, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in remember to play scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 17.53, SD = 2.98) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 18.15, SD = 2.50; t (160) = -1.43, p < 0.15, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.62; 95% CI: -1.47 to 0.23 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and those between 36-68 years on the tech-off policy, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicates that there is no difference in the tech-off policy scores for teachers aged between 22-35 years (M = 15.56, SD = 6.53) and teachers aged between 36-68 years (M = 15.52, SD = 6.37; t (160) = 0.04, p < 0.97, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.04; 95% CI: -1.99 to 2.06 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

The table below provides information on teacher application of classroom strategies according to their teaching experience.

Table 4.38: Comparison of Teachers with Teaching Experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on Classroom Management Strategies (n = 0-5 years 91, 6-41 years 71)

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management strategies			-0.17	160	0.86	-5.94 to 4.98	0.00
0-5 years	140.90	18.67					
6-41 years	141.38	15.70					
Showing enthusiasm			-0.18	160	0.86	-0.70 to 0.59	0.00
0-5 years	19.31	2.15					
6-41 years	19.37	1.94					
Creating first-step compliance			0.01	160	0.99	-1.16 to 1.18	0.00
0-5 years	16.67	4.01					
6-41 years	16.66	3.35					
Preparation			-0.66	160	0.51	-1.70 to 0.85	0.00
0-5 years	15.70	4.32					
6-41 years	16.13	3.76					
Mastering lesson transitions			-0.80	159.64	0.43	-1.03 to 0.44	0.00
0-5 years	18.35	2.71					
6-41 years	18.65	2.01					
Collaboration			0.48	160	0.64	-0.73 to 1.19	0.00
0-5 years	18.23	3.06					
6-41 years	18.00	3.06					
Practicing follow-through			-0.27	160	0.78	-0.79 to 0.60	0.00
0-5 years	19.14	2.26					
6-41 years	19.24	2.17					
Remember to play			0.24	160	0.81	-0.75 to 0.96	0.00
0-5 years	17.93	2.63					
6-41 years	17.83	2.85					
Tech-off policy			0.05	160	0.96	-1.96 to 2.07	0.00
0-5 years	15.56	6.30					
6-41 years	15.51	6.62					

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 140.90, SD = 18.67) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 141.38, SD = 15.70; t (160) = -0.17, p < 0.86, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.48; 95% *CI*: -5.94 to 4.98 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on showing enthusiasm, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in showing enthusiasm scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 19.31, *SD* = 2.15) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 19.37, *SD* = 1.94; *t* (160) = -0.18, *p* < 0.86, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0-.06; 95% *CI*: -0.70 to 0.59 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on creating first-step compliance, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in creating first-step compliance scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 16.67, *SD* = 4.01) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 16.66, *SD* = 3.35; *t* (160) = 0.01, *p* < 0.99, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.01; 95% *CI*: -1.16 to 1.18 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on preparation, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in preparation scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 15.70, *SD* = 4.32) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 16.13, *SD* = 3.76; *t* (160) = -0.66, *p* < 0.51, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.43; 95% *CI*: -1.70 to 0.85 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on mastering lesson transitions, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in mastering lesson transitions scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (*M* = 18.35, *SD* = 2.71) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (*M* = 18.65, *SD* = 2.01; *t* (160) = -0.80, *p* < 0.43, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.3; 95% *CI*: -1.03 to 0.44 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on collaboration, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in collaboration scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 18.23, SD = 3.06) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 18.00, SD = 3.06; t (160) = 0.48, p < 0.64, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.23; 95% CI: -0.73 to 1.19 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on practising follow-through, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in practising follow-through scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 19.14, SD = 2.26) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 19.24, SD = 2.17; t (160) = -0.27, p < 0.78, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.1; 95% CI: -0.79 to 0.60 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on remember to play, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in remember to play scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 17.93, SD = 2.63) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 17.83, SD = 2.85; t (160) = 0.24, p < 0.81, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.1; 95% CI: -0.75 to 0.96 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and those with teaching experience between 6-41 years on the tech-off policy, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicates that there is no difference in the tech-off policy scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years (M = 15.56, SD = 6.30) and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years (M = 15.51, SD = 6.62; t (160) = 0.05, p < 0.96, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.05; 95% CI: -1.96 to 2.07 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

The table below provides information on teacher application of classroom strategies according to their class size.

Table 4.39: Comparison of Teachers with Class Sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 learners on Classroom Management Strategies (n = 1-35 learners 35, 36-80 learners 127)

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*CI*	*d*
Classroom management strategies			0,64	75.69	0.53	-3.72 to 7.23	0.00
1-35 learners	142,49	13,05					
36-80 learners	140,73	18,47					
Showing enthusiasm			0.03	160	0.98	-0.76 to 0.79	0.00
1-35 learners	19,34	1,78					
36-80 learners	19,33	2,13					
Creating first-step compliance			0.80	160	0.42	-0.83 to 1.98	0.00
1-35 learners	17,11	2,95					
36-80 learners	16,54	3,91					
Preparation			0.32	160	0.75	-1.29 to 1.79	0.00
1-35 learners	16,09	3,87					
36-80 learners	15,83	4,15					
Mastering lesson transitions			-0.07	160	0.95	-0.95 to 0.88	0.00
1-35 learners	18,46	2,28					
36-80 learners	18,49	2,47					
Collaboration			0.03	160	0.98	-1.14 to 1.17	0.00
1-35 learners	18,14	2,52					
36-80 learners	18,13	3,19					
Practicing follow-through			0.13	160	0.90	-0.78 to 0.89	0.00
1-35 learners	19,23	1,75					
36-80 learners	19,17	2,33					
Remember to play			-0.22	160	0.83	-1.14 to 0.92	0.00
1-35 learners	17,80	2,29					
36-80 learners	17,91	2,84					
Tech-off policy			0.91	65.94	0.36	-1.17 to 3.16	0.01
1-35 learners	16,31	5,37					
36-80 learners	15,32	6,68					

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 142.49, SD = 13.05) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (M = 140.73, SD = 18.47; t (160) = 0.64, p < 0.53, two-tailed).

The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 1.76; 95% *CI*: -3.72 to 7.23 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on showing enthusiasm, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in showing enthusiasm scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 19.34, *SD* = 1.78) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (*M* = 19.33, *SD* = 2.13; *t* (160) = 0.03, *p* < 0.98, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.01; 95% *CI*: -0.76 to 0.79 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on creating first-step compliance, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in creating first-step compliance scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 17.11, *SD* = 2.95) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (*M* = 61.54, *SD* = 3.91; *t* (160) = 0.80, *p* < 0.42, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.57; 95% *CI*: -0.83 to 1.98 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on preparation, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in preparation scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 16.09, *SD* = 3.87) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (*M* = 15.83, *SD* = 4.15; *t* (160) = 0.32, *p* < 0.75, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.26; 95% *CI*: -1.29 to 1.79 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on mastering lesson transitions, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in mastering lesson transitions scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (*M* = 18.46 *SD* = 2.28) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (*M* = 18.49, *SD* = 2.47; *t* (160) = -0.07, *p* < 0.95, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.03; 95% *CI*: -0.95 to 0.88 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on collaboration, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in collaboration scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 18.14, SD = 2.52) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (M = 18.13, SD = 3.19; t (160) = 0.03, p < 0.98, two tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.01; 95% CI: -1.14 to 1.17 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on practising follow-through, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in practising follow-through scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 19.23, SD = 1.75) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (M = 19.17, SD = 2.33; t (160) = 0.13, p < 0.90, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.06; 95% CI: -0.78 to 0.89 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on remember to play, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in remember to play scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 17.80, SD = 2.29) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (M = 17.91, SD = 2.84; t (160) = -0.22, p < 0.83, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference -0.11; 95% CI: -1.14 to 0.92 was very small (eta squared = 0.00).

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and those with between 36-80 learners on the tech-off policy, an independent-samples t-test was used. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicates that there is no difference in the tech-off policy scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners (M = 16.31, SD = 5.37) and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners (M = 15.32, SD = 6.68; t (160) = 0.91, p < 0.36, two-tailed). The degree of the difference in the means (mean difference 0.99; 95% CI: -1.17 to 3.16 was very small (eta squared = 0.01).

To compare the variance between teachers, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted at three primary school phases with the variability within each phase on classroom management approaches.

Table 4.40a: Means and Standard Deviations Comparing Three Primary School Phases on Classroom Management Approaches (n = Foundation Phase = 56, Intermediate Phase = 60, Senior Phase = 46)

Primary School Phases	**Classroom Management Approaches**		
	N	*M*	*SD*
Foundation Phase	56	279.52	26.25
Intermediate Phase	60	277.47	24.05
Senior Phase	46	269.61	23.26

Table 4.40b: One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Three Primary School Phases on Classroom Management Approaches

(n = Foundation Phase = 56, Intermediate Phase = 60, Senior Phase = 46)

Source	***df***	***SS***	***MS***	***F***	***p***	***d***
Classroom Management Approaches						
Between groups	2	2700.628	1350.314	2.23	0.11	0.03
Within groups	159	96351.872	605.987			
Total	161	99052.500				

Analysis of data in Tables 4.40a and b show that there is no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on classroom management approaches: F (2,159) = 2.23, p=0.11. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.03, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test, indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=279.52, SD=26.25), Intermediate Phase (M=277.47, SD=24.05) and Senior Phase (M=269.61, SD=23.26) did not differ significantly.

Table 4.41a: Means and Standard Deviations Comparing Three Primary School Phases on Assertive Approach, Business Academic Approach, Behavioural Modification Approach, Group Managerial Approach

(n = Foundation Phase = 56, Intermediate Phase = 60, Senior Phase = 46)

Primary School Phases	Assertive Approach			Business Academic Approach		Behavioural Modification Approach		Group Managerial Approach	
	n	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Foundation Phase	56	42.66	4.27	37.61	4.04	30.50	2.98	55.68	6.69
Intermediate Phase	60	41.38	4.59	37.05	4.35	29.47	3.99	55.88	5.79
Senior Phase	46	41.20	5.16	36.46	4.88	30.39	3.51	54.24	5.62

Regarding the assertive approach there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on classroom management approaches: F (4,157) = 1.54, p=0.19. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.04 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=42.66, SD=4.27), Intermediate Phase (M=41.38, SD=4.59), Senior Phase (M=41.20, SD=5.16), did not differ significantly

Regarding the business academic approach there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on classroom management approaches: F (4,157) = 1.54, p=0.19. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.04 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=37.61, SD=4.04), Intermediate Phase (M=37.05, SD=4.35), Senior Phase (M=36.46, SD=4.88), did not differ significantly.

Regarding behaviour modification approach, there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on classroom management approaches: F (4,157) = 1.54, p=0.19. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.04 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=30.50, SD=2.98), Intermediate Phase (M=29.47, SD=3.99), Senior Phase (M=30.39, SD=3.51), did not differ significantly

Regarding the group managerial approach, there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on classroom management approaches: F (4,157) = 1.54, p=0.19. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.04 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=55.68, SD=6.69), Intermediate Phase (M=55.88, SD=5.79), Senior Phase (M=54.24, SD=5.62), did not differ significantly

Table 4.41b: One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Three Primary School Phases on Assertive Approach, Business Academic Approach, Behavioural Modification Approach, Group Managerial Approach (n = Foundation Phase = 56, Intermediate Phase = 60, Senior Phase = 46)

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	*d*
Assertive Approach						
Between groups	2	68.573	34.287	1.58	0.21	0.02
Within groups	159	3441.976	21.648			
Total	161	3510.549				
Business Academic Approach						
Between groups	2	33.491	16.745	0.86	0.42	0.01
Within groups	159	3083.620	19.394			
Total	161	3117.111				
Behavioural Modification Approach						
Between groups	2	36.900	18.450	1.48	0.23	0.02
Within groups	159	1979.890	12.452			
Total	161	2016.790				
Group Managerial Approach						
Between groups	2	79.875	39.937	1.08	0.34	0.01
Within groups	159	5864.767	36.885			
Total	161	5944.642				

Analysis of data in Tables 4.41a and b show that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the assertive approach: F (2,159) = 1.58, p=0.21. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.02 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=42.66, SD=4.27), Intermediate Phase (M=41.38, SD=4.59), Senior Phase (M=41.20, SD=5.16), did not differ significantly

There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the business academic approach: F (4,157) = 0.86, p=0.42. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.01 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=37.61, SD=4.04), Intermediate Phase (M=37.05, SD=4.35), Senior Phase (M=36.46, SD=4.88), did not differ significantly

There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the behaviour modification approach: F (4,157) = 1.48, p=0.23. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.02 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=30.50, SD=2.98), Intermediate Phase (M=29.47, SD=3.99), Senior Phase (M=30.39, SD=3.51), did not differ significantly

There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the group managerial approach: F (4,157) = 1.08, p=0.34. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.01 which was a small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (M=55.68, SD=6.69), Intermediate Phase (M=55.88, SD=5.79), Senior Phase (M=54.24, SD=5.62), did not differ significantly.

To compare the variance between groups, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted between the three primary school phases with the variability on group guidance approach, acceptance approach and success approach.

Table 4.42a: Means and Standard Deviations Comparing Three Primary School Phases on Group Guidance Approach, Acceptance Approach, Success Approach (n = Foundation Phase = 56, Intermediate Phase = 60, Senior Phase = 46)

Primary School Phases	Group Guidance Approach			Acceptance Approach		Success Approach	
	N	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Foundation Phase	56	36.70	4.61	37.80	4.19	38.57	4.25
Intermediate Phase	60	37.08	3.38	37.68	4.07	38.92	4.13
Senior Phase	46	34.83	4.98	35.41	4.57	37.09	4.30

Table 4.42b: One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Three Primary School Phases on Group Guidance Approach, Acceptance Approach, Success Approach (n = Foundation Phase = 56, Intermediate Phase = 60, Senior Phase = 46)

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	*d*
Group Guidance Approach						
Between groups	2	145.537	72.768	3.91	0.02	0.05
Within groups	159	2957.031	18.598			
Total	161	3102.568				
Acceptance Approach						
Between groups	2	178.982	89.491	4.93	0.01	0.06
Within groups	159	2886.975	18.157			
Total	161	3065.957				
Success Approach						
Between groups	2	94.550	47.275	2.65	0.07	0.03
Within groups	159	2831.950	17.811			
Total	161	2926.500				

Analysis of data in Tables 4.42a and b show that there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the group guidance approach: F (2,159) = 3.29, p=0.02. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was

0.05, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (*M*=36.70, *SD*=4.61), Intermediate Phase (*M*=37.08, *SD*=3.38) and Senior Phase (*M*=34.83, *SD*=4.98) did not differ significantly. Furthermore, the mean score for the Intermediate Phase (*M*=37.08, *SD*=3.38) and Senior Phase (*M*=34.83, *SD*=4.98) differed significantly whereas the mean score for the Intermediate Phase (*M*=37.08, *SD*=3.38) and the Foundation Phase (*M*=36.70, *SD*=4.61) did not differ.

Analysis of data in Tables 4.42a and b show that there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the acceptance approach: F (2,159) = 4.93, p=0.01. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.06, which was a moderately large effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (*M*=37.80, *SD*=4.19) and Senior Phase (*M*=35.41, *SD*=4.57) differed significantly. Furthermore, the mean score for the Intermediate Phase (*M*=37.68, *SD*=4.07) and Senior Phase (*M*=35.41, *SD*=4.57) also differed significantly, whereas the mean score for the Intermediate Phase (*M*=37.68, *SD*=4.07) and the Foundation Phase (*M*=37.80, *SD*=4.19) did not differ.

Analysis of data in Tables 4.42a and b show that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on the success approach: F (2,159) = 2.65, p=0.07. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.03, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Foundation Phase (*M*=38.57, *SD*=4.25), Intermediate Phase (*M*=38.92, *SD*=4.13) and Senior Phase (*M*=37.09, *SD*=4.30) did not differ significantly.

Table 4.43a: Means and Standard Deviations Comparing Five School Quintiles on Classroom Management Approaches (n = Quintile 1 = 45, Quintile 2 = 36, Quintile 3 = 6, Quintile 4 = 28, Quintile 5 = 47)

School Quintile	Classroom Management Approaches		
	N	*M*	*SD*
Quintile 1	45	280.04	22.78
Quintile 2	36	274.47	30.50
Quintile 3	6	253.67	27.60
Quintile 4	28	276.89	25.34
Quintile 5	47	275.43	20.14

Table 4.43b: One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Five School Quintiles on Classroom Management Approaches (n = Quintile 1 = 45, Quintile 2 = 36, Quintile 3 = 6, Quintile 4 = 28, Quintile 5 = 47)

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	*d*
Classroom Management Approaches						
Between groups	4	3850.115	962.529	1.59	0.18	0.04
Within groups	157	95202.385	606.385			
Total	161	99052.500				

Analysis of data in Tables 4.43a and b show that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the three primary school phases on classroom management approaches: F (4,157) = 1.59, p=0.18. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.04, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Quintile 3 (M=253.67, SD=27.60) is significantly different from Quintile 1 (M=280.04, SD=22.78). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected whereas the alternative hypothesis is accepted. However, Quintile 2 (M=274.47, SD=30.50); Quintile 4 (M=276.89, SD=25.34) and Quintile 5 (M=275.43, SD=20.14), did not differ significantly from either Quintile 3 or 4.

Table 4.44a: Means and Standard Deviations Comparing Five School Quintiles on Assertive Approach, Business Academic Approach, Behavioural Modification Approach, Group Managerial Approach (n = Quintile 1 = 45, Quintile 2 = 36, Quintile 3 = 6, Quintile 4 = 28, Quintile 5 = 47)

School Quintile	Assertive Approach			Business Academic Approach		Behavioural Modification Approach		Group Managerial Approach	
	N	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Quintile 1	45	42.07	4.02	36.56	3.97	30.53	3.45	56.62	5.89
Quintile 2	36	40.83	5.16	36.89	4.94	29.86	3.41	55.83	6.24
Quintile 3	6	38.83	5.78	34.00	4.15	28.83	3.87	47.83	7.73
Quintile 4	28	42.54	4.94	38.32	4.98	29.82	4.39	55.14	6.81
Quintile 5	47	42.13	4.49	37.36	3.89	30.15	3.19	54.83	4.82

Table 4.44b: One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Five School Quintiles on Assertive Approach, Business Academic Approach, Behavioural Modification Approach, Group Managerial Approach (n = Quintile 1 = 45, Quintile 2 = 36, Quintile 3 = 6, Quintile 4 = 28, Quintile 5 = 47)

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	*d*
Assertive Approach						
Between groups	4	109.718	27.429	1.27	0.29	0.03
Within groups	157	3400.832	21.661			
Total	161	3510.549				
Business Academic Approach						
Between groups	4	117.486	29.372	1.54	0.19	0.04
Within groups	157	2999.625	19.106			
Total	161	3117.111				
Behavioural Modification Approach						
Between groups	4	22.387	5.597	0.44	0.78	0.01
Within groups	157	1994.403	12.703			
Total	161	2016.790				
Group Managerial Approach						

	Between groups	4	434.164	108.541	3.09	0.02	0.07
	Within groups	157	5510.478	35.099			
	Total	161	5944.642				

Analysis of data in Tables 4.44a and b show that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the primary school teachers adopting the assertive approach: F (4,157) = 1.27, p=0.29. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.03, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Quintile 1 (M=42.07, SD=4.02), Quintile 2 (M=40.83, SD=5.16), Quintile 3 (M=38.83, SD=5.78), Quintile 4 (M=42.54, SD=4.94) and Quintile 5 (M=42.12, SD=4.49) did not differ significantly.

There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the primary school teachers adopting the business academic approach: F (4,157) = 1.54, p=0.19. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.04, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Quintile 1 (M=36.56, SD=3.97), Quintile 2 (M=36.89, SD=4.94), Quintile 3 (M=34.00, SD=4.15), Quintile 4 (M=38.32, SD=4.98) and Quintile 5 (M=37.36, SD=3.89) did not differ significantly.

There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the primary school teachers adopting the behaviour modification approach: F (4,157) = 0.44, p=0.78. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.01, which was a small effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Quintile 1 (M=30.53, SD=3.45), Quintile 2 (M=29.86, SD=3.41), Quintile 3 (M=28.83, SD=3.87), Quintile 4 (M=29.82, SD=4.39) and Quintile 5 (M=30.15, SD=3.19) did not differ significantly

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the primary school teachers adopting the group managerial approach: F (4,157) = 3.09, p=0.02. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.07, which was a moderately large effect. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Quintile 1 (M=56.62, SD=5.90) and Quintile 3 (M=47.83, SD=7.73) differed significantly, furthermore, Quintile 2 (M=55.83, SD=6.24) and Quintile 3 differed

significantly whilst Quintile 4 (*M*=55.14, *SD*=6.81) and Quintile 5 (*M*=54.83, *SD*=4.82) did not differ significantly

To compare the variance between groups, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted between the different quintiles with the variability on the group guidance, acceptance approach and success approach.

Table 4.45a: Means and Standard Deviations Comparing Five School Quintiles on Group Guidance Approach, Acceptance Approach, Success Approach (n = Quintile 1 = 45, Quintile 2 = 36, Quintile 3 = 6, Quintile 4 = 28, Quintile 5 = 47)

School Quintile	Group Guidance Approach			Acceptance Approach		Success Approach	
	N	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Quintile 1	45	37.31	4.14	38.02	4.25	38.93	4.31
Quintile 2	36	36.22	5.00	37.06	4.59	37.78	5.11
Quintile 3	6	32.83	3.54	35.83	4.79	35.50	5.61
Quintile 4	28	35.75	4.79	36.46	4.65	38.86	3.95
Quintile 5	47	36.19	3.80	36.72	4.10	38.04	3.39

Table 4.45b: One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Five School Quintiles on Group Guidance Approach, Acceptance Approach, Success Approach (n = Quintile 1 = 45, Quintile 2 = 36, Quintile 3 = 6, Quintile 4 = 28, Quintile 5 = 47)

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	*d*
Group Guidance Approach						
Between groups	4	127.341	31.835	1.68	0.16	0.04
Within groups	157	2975.227	18.950			
Total	161	3102.568				
Acceptance Approach						
Between groups	4	65.888	16.472	0.86	0.49	0.02
Within groups	157	3000.069	19.109			
Total	161	3065.957				
Success Approach						

	Between groups	4	86.634	21.659	1.20	0.31	0.03
	Within groups	157	2839.866	18.088			
	Total	161	2926.500				

An analysis of variance with one-way between-groups was carried out to explore the difference amongst primary school teachers at different school quintiles on the group guidance, acceptance approach and success approach. Participants were divided into five groups according to their quintiles (Quintile 1; Quintile 2; Quintile 3; Quintile 4; Quintile 5). Analysis of data in Tables 4.45a and b reveals that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level in group guidance approach for the five quintiles: F (4, 157) = 1.68, p=0.16. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was approximately 0.04, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Quintile 1 (M=37.31, SD=4.14), Quintile 2 (M=36.22, SD=5.00), Quintile 3 (M=32.83, SD=3.54), Quintile 4 (M=35.75, SD=4.79) and Quintile 5 (M=36.19, SD=3.80) did not differ significantly.

However, regarding the acceptance approach**,** analysis of data shows that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level for the five quintiles: F (4, 157) = 0.86, p=0.49. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was approximately 0.02 which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Quintile 1 (M=38.02, SD=4.25), was significantly different from Quintile 3 (M=35.83, SD=4.79). Quintile 2 (M=37.06, SD=4.58), Quintile 4 (M=36.46, SD=4.65) and Quintile 5 (M=36.72, SD=4.10) did not differ significantly from either Quintiles 1 or 4.

Moving on to the success approach**,** there was no statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level for the five quintiles: F (4, 157) = 1.20, p=0.31. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was approximately 0.03, which was a moderately small effect. Post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Quintile 1 (M=38.93, SD=4.31), Quintile 2 (M=37.78, SD=5.11), Quintile 3 (M=35.50, SD=5.61), Quintile 4 (M=38.86, SD=3.95) and Quintile 5 (M=38.04, SD=3.39) did not differ significantly.

4.3 Summary

In this chapter the quantitative data were presented, analysed, and interpreted to establish if there is relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement in primary schools. The means, medians and standard deviations were used to analyse descriptive statistics. Pearson correlation coefficient was used to test the relationship hypotheses whereas the t-test was employed to test hypotheses on difference between two groups. The next chapter provides summarised findings, discussions, recommendations, and a conclusion.

Chapter 5: Summarised Findings, Implications, Recommendations and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the findings, implications, recommendations, and conclusion. The findings discussed are based on a review of the literature and data collected through questionnaires. The chapter also provides suggestions for research that could be conducted in future. The research questions in this study are as follows:

Main research question

Is there a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools?

Subsidiary questions

- What is the nature and essence of classroom management?
- Which classroom management approaches are implemented at primary schools?
- How do classroom management approaches influence learner achievement at primary schools?

Research objectives

The research objectives that this study sought to realise are to:

- Explore if there is a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.
- Establish the nature and essence of classroom management.
- Identify the classroom management approaches which are implemented at primary schools.
- Examine how classroom management approaches influence learner achievement at primary schools.

5.2 Summarised Findings of the Research

National Education Policy Act (1996) mandates that schools and school authorities should produce a supportive educational environment that fosters each learner's full personal development. The prohibition of corporal punishment is emphasised, along with the growth of democracy, human rights, and peaceful dispute resolution. Violence in the classroom is not acceptable, according to the positive discipline philosophy. Instead of using fear to enforce good behaviour, teachers must focus on directing children's behaviour. The positive discipline approach contributes towards creating a suitable environment at school and this is to ensure that all learners are accommodated and treated fairly and respectfully. This promotes meaningful learning where all learners participate actively and responsibly toward their learning activities. Teaching and learning should be meaningful and create lifelong learning that will eventually promote responsible future adults. The positive discipline approach promotes a warm classroom environment that encourages children to learn without fear of any physical threat or harm. In this environment, learners can enjoy learning together or individually in a disciplined manner.

The following sections discuss the findings that emerged from the literature study and the questionnaire.

5.2.1 Summarised Findings and Implications of the Literature Review

A literature review was conducted to answer the following research questions:

- What is the nature and essence of classroom management?
- Which classroom management approaches are implemented at primary schools?

5.2.1.1 Summarised Findings and Implications of the Operant and Classical Conditioning Theories as Theoretical Frameworks for this Study

Chapter Two's theoretical framework reveals that there are classroom management methods which could be applied to organisations such as schools. The theoretical framework is aimed at reinforcing the theories of classroom management within the school situation. These theories are based on an organisational context that meets learner achievement challenges. It is further argued that, operant and classical conditioning theories are theories of classroom management that positively impact learner achievement. (cf. 2.2, cf. 2.2.1, cf. 2.2.1.1, cf. 2.2.2, cf. 2.2.2.1, cf. 2.2.2.2, and cf. 2.2.2.3).

The implication of the above-mentioned argument is that organisations, such as primary schools, should adopt classroom management approaches based on theories that can give proper guidance on how learning institutions should operate. In this theoretical framework the nature and essence of classroom management, a consideration of what constitutes classroom management, the purpose of classroom management, the significance of classroom management, and levels of effectiveness of classroom management, (cf. 2.3) are encouraged for their implementation to enhance teacher and learner achievement.

5.2.1.2 Summarised Findings and Implications of the Classroom Management Approaches

Chapter Two also highlighted various classroom management methods that could be adopted at primary schools. It discussed the influence of different classroom management methods (cf. 2.4) such as the assertive approach (cf. 2.4.1), the business academic approach (cf.2.4.2.), the behavioural modification approach (cf.2.4.3), the group managerial approach (cf.2.4.4), the group guidance approach (cf.2.4.5), the acceptance approach(cf.2.4.6), and the success approach (cf.2.4.7). The chapter also assumed that there could be an association between these classroom management approaches and learner achievement (cf. 2.6).

The Assertive Approach

In an assertive approach, learners are not permitted to forget who is in command of the classroom since it is managed in such a way that learners will always respect teachers' authority (cf.2.4.1). Learners gradually discover that their teacher wants them to behave in a specific manner in class. Learners are held responsible for their behaviour by their teachers. If misbehaviour is ignored or not addressed early on, it will become uncontrollable, and a growing number of learners will become disruptive. The implication is that teachers should immediately take control of the classroom, set ground rules, and engage with learners in a calm but authoritative manner. The assertive approach to classroom management involves a high level of teacher supervision. The goal is for the teacher to respond swiftly and effectively to a learner's misbehavior.

The Business Academic Approach

The business academic approach is ideal to use when the teachers have a definite idea on the kind of classroom conditions, learners' conduct and instructional exercises that are required (cf.2.4.2). The teacher coordinates learners' tasks, runs errands, screens assignments, provides input and considers teachers responsible for giving rewards and punishment. This implies that teachers must clearly communicate to learner what the work assignments are, the features of the work, standards to be met and procedures that need to be followed to complete the work successfully.

If teachers establish routines and properly explain work assignments to learners, they will no longer need to be reminded of what is expected of them on a regular basis. Vakalisa (2016) maintains that procedures for learners who are unable to attend class and make up work for absent learners should also follow a clear set of rules. The business academic approach regards advanced planning of classroom activities and the use of effective teaching methods as a means of reducing classroom disruptions. Hence, the teacher may reprimand disruptive learners by adopting the behavioural modification approach.

The Behavioural Modification Approach

The behavioural l modification approach refers to a means of changing behaviour through various approaches used to replace undesirable behaviours with desirable ones. Behaviourists believe that the environment shapes behaviour and give little attention to the causes of problems. According to Gage et al. (2018), the classroom, resources, and equipment for teaching and learning should be ready at the beginning of the year. Effective classroom managers organise their spaces well and deal with existing limits effectively. Rules and processes are taught and reinforced in a systematic manner (e.g., line up, turning in work, etc.). The teachers clearly define the consequences for not adhering to the rules and procedures, and these are consistently implemented (cf.2.4.3.). Teachers plan instructional activities for all learners in the class at appropriate levels. This implies that teachers give clear instructions, which keep learners focused and help them learn more quickly while also reducing discipline issues.

The Group Managerial Approach

The term "group attention" refers to the ability of a learner to remain concentrated on a group activity or work. To avert problems, rather than dealing with them once they occur, Rijal (2015) emphasizes the necessity of responding quickly to a group of learners' behaviour that may be desirable or inappropriate. Learners are expected to work hard and act properly. Successful teachers closely observe their learners' progress and clearly define acceptable and unacceptable behaviour (cf.2.4.4.). When a learner misbehaves, the teacher steps in right away, the misbehaviour is contained and does not become a problem. This implies that, bad behaviour can swiftly spread throughout the group and become more serious if it is overlooked, ignored, or allowed to continue over an extended period. On the off chance that a learner acts up, and the teacher stops the misconduct quickly, it remains an isolated incident, and does not develop into a bigger issue.

The Group Guidance Approach

Group guidance and management are closely related concepts. Garrett (2014) believes that disciplinary issues are caused by three factors namely, individual case history, group conditions, and mixture of individual and group causes. The teacher must be aware of the group's needs and interests to maintain discipline and then influence the group's surface behaviour (cf.2.4.5.). Dealing with a hostile or violent group is probably the most challenging classroom managerial task.

According to teachers, having a positive connection with learners entails reacting with sensitivity to learners' needs and feelings, as well as trying to understand them. Teachers who use this approach permit learner to talk about whatever disturbs them and they are ready to listen to the learners without judging them.

Teachers must know their groups, their needs, and their interests to maintain good discipline. The implication is that, if teachers do not appropriately diagnose management issues, particularly group management issues, the problems will remain and worsen.

The Acceptance Approach

Acceptance is something that learners like everyone else, strive for. They are more concerned with belonging and being liked by those who are important to them than with learning. The acceptance strategy is also founded on a democratic educational model, which allows learners to take part in making decisions while the teacher offers leadership by defining rules and penalties (cf.2.4.6.). Some learners engage in a variety of behaviours to gain status and recognition. This implies that, if learners do not receive praise through socially acceptable means, they will pursue erroneous goals, which will lead to anti-social behaviour. Teachers use this approach by giving attention to misbehaving learners and showing interest in them. Consequently, teachers should demonstrate to all learners that they care for their well-being and academic success.

The Success Approach

Schunk (2016) states that the success approach to discipline is simple but effective. It is possible to change one's behaviour. Good decisions lead to good behaviour, whereas bad choices lead to negative behaviour (cf.2.4.7.). A teacher's responsibility is to assist learners in making excellent decisions. Learners make decisions based on whether the outcomes of their choices are desired or not. For some learners, a school may be the only place where they meet individuals who genuinely care about them (Rijal, 2015). Nonetheless, some learners are hesitant to build meaningful relationships with adults such as teachers. As a result, teachers must demonstrate that they care and are optimistic, as well as be persistent in their efforts to help learners. Because the emphasis is on helping, which is exactly what the teaching profession is about, many teachers find this approach attractive.

The teachers' job is to help learners make the right choices. It is the teachers' responsibility to assist students in making sound decisions. This implies that teachers must work hard to change any negative behaviour that exists and to improve conditions so that students can succeed. Although teachers must implement these classroom management approaches for effective teaching and learning, they should also adopt classroom management strategies which curb disruptions of lessons.

5.2.2 Summarised Findings and Implications of Questionnaire Data

The following section summarises the results of the questionnaires distributed to primary school teachers.

5.2.2.1 Findings and Implications of Descriptive Statistics

This section discusses the findings and implication of the descriptive statistics data in relation to the teachers' use of the theoretical framework, classroom management approaches and classroom management strategies.

5.2.2.1.1 Findings from the Study on Teachers' use of Theoretical Frameworks

Summarised findings and implications on how teachers apply operant conditioning theory in the classroom

The findings and implications are presented in this section, on how teachers apply the operant conditioning theory in the classroom according to the questionnaire. When a desired behaviour occurs, it is rewarded with positive reinforcement to encourage it to continue (cf.2.2.1.1). For instance, congratulating learners on completing work, rewarding learners with extra marks, rewarding learners who do well in tests, and so forth, the proper use of incentives can ease certain consistent classroom problems. Table 4.4 shows that, the rewarded learners repeat that behaviour because of the positive feedback and when teachers reward positive behaviour, other learners copy that behaviour to earn the reward. These findings imply that there is a positive impact when learners are rewarded. Through his studies with animals, Skinner (1953) discovered that it is possible to achieve desirable behaviour results through rewards and unwanted behaviour outcomes through punishment. These kinds of rewards assist in developing a positive atmosphere that influences learner achievement at primary schools. This also implies that when teachers reward learners who show good behaviour, this will also have a positive impact on other learners as they will copy their fellow learners. For instance, if a learner receives a good mark in class, the teacher will reward them (cf.2.2.1.1). This will also stimulate other learners and assist the entire class in this way. As a result, positive reinforcement indicates that if someone responds positively to something or does a positive action, they should be positively rewarded. As a result, the reinforcement theory of motivation considers the mental state of each learner and focuses on each particular action (Omomia & Omomia, 2014). However, negative reinforcement is a strategy that may be used to assist in the training of certain behaviours (cf.2.2.1.1). It is applied when learner's exhibit unwanted behaviour and are punished for this, to instil desired behaviours that will stick. When learners exhibit an unwanted behaviour and are punished, negative reinforcement is used to encourage desirable behaviour.

Extinction is quite often applied as a component of a bigger programme of reinforcement. Punishment is intended to remove difficult, harmful, or otherwise undesirable behaviour from a repertoire on the assumption that a person who has been punished is less likely to repeat the same behaviour (cf.2.2.1.1). If, in a group-work discussion, one learner starts talking about matters unrelated to the discussion and distracts other learners from completing the task, and the teacher politely asks the learner to stop misbehaving, and the learner continues to be disruptive, the teacher will tell the learner to leave the group and go and sit alone at the naughty corner. The person attempting to punish should consider some point to negative punishment. For instance, when a learner yells at another learner in class, the teacher may deduct the learner's good behaviour tokens, which are used to earn monthly prizes for good behaviour. When someone suffers a negative consequence for their actions, they are less likely to repeat the same action in future. The act of increasing or decreasing the likelihood of a certain behaviour by reinforcing it every time it is shown, results in the learner associating pleasure or discomfort with the reinforcement (McLeod, 2018). This theory does not investigate the underlying causes of learner behaviour. As a result, the reinforcement theory of motivation the mental state of each learner and focuses on each particular action (Omomia & Omomia, 2014). Skinner (1953) correctly states that an individual does not learn by doing something alone, but rather by the consequences of their actions. However, if the learner breaks the rule, it indicates that the behaviour is undesirable and should be dealt with accordingly. As a result, reinforcement can either be positive or negative. For example, a teacher might put a gold star or a smiley face sticker next to a name on a poster when a learner is doing well, or at least not underperforming. Learners are encouraged to excel in the classroom. The implication is that the children are given a valid reason to behave better and be given the chance at some point. The next section discusses the classical conditioning theory of the second theory that underlies this study.

Summarised findings and implications on how teachers apply classical conditioning theory in the classroom

The findings and implications are presented in this section on how teachers apply classical conditioning theory in the classroom according to the questionnaire.

Behaviourism works with the basic rules that learning is said to occur when there is relationship with the environment and that the environment affects the practices (cf.2.2.2). Table 4.5 shows that when the teachers walk into the classroom they are greeted by their learners. It also shows that learners are provided with multiple opportunities to raise their voices when answering questions. Therefore, learners are awarded with incentives like, stars, stickers, sweets, or candies for their action. This implies that this kind of action assists in developing learners who participate in the classroom in ways that will enhance their achievement. Even though this theory is not supported much by primary school teachers, it can also have a positive influence on learners as it allows them to participate fully in class. At this stage, adapted reactions will, in general get a reaction (moulded) even without the presence of the unconditioned stimuli which at the previous stages assumed a part of causing a reaction. Although the traditional response is recognized as a craft by physiologists, its importance has always been in the field of brain science, where it is used to predict behaviourism. For example, the teacher gives sweets to the learners who give correct answers in the classroom. Whenever the teacher takes out sweets, learners raise up their hands even before the teacher asks them questions.

The unconditioned stimulus is separated from the modified improvement after continued matching which has made a connection between the moulded upgrade and the adapted reaction (Egeberg & McConney, 2018). The adapted reaction is a reaction educated brought about by the previous impartial improvement. For example, learners continue to give answers even when the teacher does not give them sweets. This implies that learners are conditioned that whenever the teacher asks them questions based on the lesson's content, they should answer the questions.

Summarised Findings and Implications on the Most Applied Theoretical Frameworks in the Classrooms

Two theoretical frameworks framed this study and teachers were asked about their implementation in their classrooms. Table 4.21 reveals that in primary schools used in this study; classical conditioning theory is mostly applied whilst the operant conditioning is the least applied theory. This implies that the teachers prefer classical

conditioning more than operant conditioning as they believe that it will enhance their classroom management skills to improve learner achievement. The Cronbach alphas of the two theoretical frameworks are all .95. This suggests very good internal consistency reliability for the subscales.

5.2.2.1.2 Findings from the Study on Teachers' Use of Classroom Management Approaches

The findings and implications of descriptive statistics data are provided for the following classroom management approaches:

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Assertive Classroom Management Approach

In an assertive classroom management approach, the teacher's purpose is to respond quickly and properly to a learner's misconduct, moderate misbehaviour is met with modest consequences, but if the misbehaviour is contagious, it will snowball unless addressed early. If misbehaviour is ignored or not addressed early on, it will become uncontrollable, and a growing number of learners will become disruptive (cf.2.4.1). Table 4.6 shows that teachers prepare lessons before they can present them to learners. Teachers provide healthy environments for all learners. Teachers tell learners the classroom rules they must observe. However, learners are not invited to give input on the classroom rules**.**

These findings imply that this kind of classroom approach creates an atmosphere that encourages teachers to adopt innovative teaching strategies where learners do not take part in decision-making. However, if it can be utilised well by teachers, it can produce positive results on learner achievement. The teacher immediately takes control of the class, sets rules, and engages with learners in a calm but authoritative manner. It also implies that strong teachers can deal with disciplinary issues by themselves, therefore educational failures which are caused by a lack of classroom discipline, are avoided. The assertive method is based on the disciplinary model developed by Lee and Marlene Canter, whereby teachers demand that their learners

behave responsibly (Aliakbari & Bozorgmanesh, 2015). Another classroom management approach which teachers can adopt is the business academic approach.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Business Academic Classroom Management Approach

Teachers must clearly communicate learners work assignments assignments, the features, standards, and procedures of the work to be met and procedures. The business academic approach is ideal to use when the teachers have a clear idea on the kind of classroom conditions, learners' conduct, and instructional exercises (cf.2.4.2). Table 4.7 reveals that teachers prepare activities in advance and teachers give precise instructions on how to complete assignments. Teachers also apply sound teaching strategies to minimise classroom disruptions**.** These findings suggest that teachers strive for the development of an atmosphere that endorses effective teaching and learning. Eventually, this approach enhances learners' achievement as teachers are actively involved. Learners should be given broad rules for all tasks before they begin, such as the type of paper to use and the writing equipment to use (pencil, pen, typewriter), page numbering system, heading format, due dates, and so on (Vakalisa, 2016). Learners will no longer need to be reminded what is expected of them on a regular basis. The teacher coordinates learners' tasks, runs errands, screens assignments, provides input and consider them responsible for giving prizes and punishment. Teachers must establish and properly explain work assignments to learners (cf.2.4.2). Nonetheless, while learners are engaged in a classroom activity, some of them may still misbehave. Hence, the teacher may seek to reprimand these learners by adopting the behavioural modification approach.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Behavioural Modification Classroom Management Approach

Behaviourists believe that the environment shapes behaviour and give little attention to the causes of problems. Teachers ensure that learners understand and follow rules and procedures; they spend extra time explaining and reminding learners of

regulations at the beginning of the year (cf.2.4.3). Table 4.8 reveals that teachers compliment acceptable behaviour by saying "Well done" or "Good" or "Excellent". Teachers prepare activities in advance. At the beginning of each year the teachers clearly explain to learners what constitutes acceptable behaviour. However, teachers dedicate little time to their learners' personal histories. These findings imply that well-prepared teachers enhance learner achievement. Teachers who use these strategies can deal with misbehaviour quicker than teachers who are less effective. Teachers give clear instructions, which keep learners focused and help them learn more quickly while also reducing discipline issues. Because the directions are explicit, there is less confusion.

Learners that violate the rules are either ignored, reminded of correct behaviour, or penalised. Various types of behavioural modification techniques have different responses to rule- breaking. The ability of each teacher to act as a reinforcing agent for each learner is undervalued. Teachers who use a behaviour modification method spend minimal time on learners' personal backgrounds or investigating the explanations or causes for a specific problem, instead, teachers seek to increase learner engagement in appropriate behaviour. According to Vakalisa (2016), behaviorists believe that the environment shapes behaviour and pay little attention to the underlying causes of problems. Teachers who employ this behaviour modification technique devote little time to their learners' personal histories or to investigating the root causes of a specific problem. They aim to increase the likelihood of correct behaviour through rewards while decreasing the likelihood of incorrect behaviour through punishments.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Group Managerial Classroom Management Approach

The goal is to prevent minor misbehaviour from becoming significant misbehaviour by addressing minor misbehaviour as soon as it occurs (cf.2.4.4). Teachers use desist methods to put an end to misbehaviour Table 4.9 shows that teachers acknowledge good learner behaviour. Teachers keep eye contact with all learners. Teachers also involve all learners in learning activities. Also through a reward system, teachers work

to enhance the occurrence of appropriate behaviour. These findings suggest the teachers are hands-on and the results are positively influenced through the exchange of rewards between teachers and the learners. Eventually this will practice enhances learners' achievement as it acknowledges and recognises good learner behaviour. Vakalisa (2016) has divided classroom activities into categories of learner behaviour and teacher management behaviour for the objectives of classroom management. The three major aspects of teacher behaviour are desisting tactics, movement management, and group focus. The group managerial approach emphasises the significance of reacting quickly to undesirable learner behaviour to avoid problems before they come up again (cf.2.4.4). Learners are expected to cooperate and act in a suitable manner. A successful teacher closely observes learners' work and outlines behaviors that are acceptable and those that are inappropriate.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Group Guidance Classroom Management Approach

The teacher must be aware of the group's needs and interests to maintain discipline and then influence the group's surface behaviour. Table 4.10 indicates that teachers can listen to learners without judging them. Teachers encourage learners to talk to them about anything that is bothering them. Furthermore, teachers can attend to more than one thing at a time while presenting a lesson. This may imply that some teachers care a lot about the well-being of the learners they are teaching. Moreover, teachers are conscious of diversity. Dealing with a hostile or violent group is probably the most challenging classroom management issue. If a teacher is gradually and openly defied by such a classroom group, it will disrupt educational activities (cf.2.4.5). According to teachers, having a positive working connection with learners on an individual and group basis entails reacting with sensitivity to learners' needs and feelings, as well as trying to understand them. The group guidance approach and the group management are strongly linked. Both considers the unacceptable behaviour of the individual to be indicative of a malfunctioning group that can be resolved by counselling the whole group (cf.2.4.5). The teacher who uses this approach permits learners to be open about whatever disturbs them and is ready to listen without judging them. If teachers do not appropriately diagnose management issues, particularly

group management issues, the problems will remain and worsen. Gartrell (2013) states that teachers must consider how much the difficulty reflects the group, the teachers' own behaviour, and the learners' behaviour. The teacher must be aware of the group's needs and interests to maintain discipline and then influence the group's surface behaviour. When a problem arises, holding group talks with learners can be beneficial in terms of exploring differences and identifying conflict sources. When disciplining disruptive learners, the teacher must consider the principles of humanity and respect, i.e., the need to act in the manner which prevents and alleviate the humiliation of the learners in front of their peers.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Acceptance Classroom Management Approach

The acceptance approach is founded on the notion that for some learners, misbehaviour is frequently a cry of acceptance from role models they look up to (cf.2.4.6). The acceptance approach to discipline is based on humanism, and it argues that individuals have a strong desire for respect. Table 4.11 reveals that teachers know that teaching is a challenging profession that can only be done by those who really love children. Teachers make learners feel accepted by the individual and other learners. Teachers also provide leadership by establishing classroom rules and outlining consequences. Teachers can manipulate the behaviour of the class. This implies that the teachers who can sustain teaching are those who view teaching as a calling. As such, this might affect the performance of teachers and learners in the classrooms. They are more concerned with belonging and being liked by those who are important to them than with learning. They will also rather behave than misbehave. The acceptance strategy is also founded on a democratic educational model, which allows learners to participate in decision-making and make choices while the teacher offers leadership by defining rules and penalties (cf.2.4.6). Teachers use this approach by giving attention to misbehaving learners and showing interest in them. The acceptance approach assumes that when learners are accepted by their teachers and peers, their behaviour and achievement improve. Vakalisa (2016) maintains that peer and teacher acceptance is a requirement for acceptable behaviour and academic progress in school. Some learners engage in a variety of behaviours to get status and

recognition. The humanistic psychology approach asserts that everyone has a fundamental need for acceptance. Consequently, teachers should demonstrate to all learners that they care for their well-being and academic success.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Success Classroom Management Approach

This approach for success addresses broader psychological and societal issues, rather than dealing with the appropriate behaviour and its consequences. The teachers' job is to help learners make the right choices. Teachers work hard to change any negative behaviour that exists and to improve conditions so that learners can succeed (cf.2.4.7). Nonetheless, rather than addressing incorrect behaviour and its consequences, it focuses on general psychological and societal issues. Table 4.12 shows that teachers encourage learners to follow the code of conduct of both the classroom and the school. According to Schunk (2016), successful discipline methods are simple yet effective. Changing one's behaviour is possible. Good decisions lead to good behaviour, whereas bad choices lead to negative behaviour. A teacher's responsibility is to assist learners in making excellent decisions. However, efforts are made to ensure teachers work towards the realisation of the departmental goals and targets. This implies that if learners follow the classroom rules and behave well, their performance will be of high standard.

Learners make decisions based on whether the outcomes of their choices are desired or not. The first step for learners to have high self-worth and achievement is to have a healthy relationship with those who care about them such as peer and teachers (cf.2.4.7). Although teachers must implement these classroom management approaches for effective teaching and learning, they should also adopt classroom management strategies which curb disruptions of lessons.

Summarised Findings and Implications on the Most Applied Classroom Management Approaches

Although all seven classroom management approaches are implemented in the primary schools, analysis of data in Table 4.22 revealed that in most primary schools, the success approach is mostly applied whilst the assertive approach is the least applied classroom management approach. This implies that the most advantageous classroom management approach is success approach which will improve learner achievement. Furthermore, teachers in this study do not use the assertive approach so it cannot have an impact in improving learner achievement in their classes. The Cronbach alphas of the seven classroom management approaches are .95. This suggests very good internal consistency reliability for the subscales.

5.2.2.1.3 Findings from the Study on Teachers' Use of Classroom Management Strategies

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Enthusiasm Classroom Management Strategy

A passionate teacher frequently stimulates the classroom with enthusiasm, delight, and anticipation; engages learners in participation; and encourages them to explore. Thus, teacher excitement sparks learner's interest and kick-starts their motivation to study. It is crucial for cognitive and emotional engagement (Korpershoek et al., 2016). Some learners may behave inappropriately in class because of regulations. The enthusiastic teacher should arrive early for class so that he or she can interact with his or her learners (cf.2.5.1). They should also greet them politely and open a discussion with them.

Table 4.13 reveals that teachers show enthusiasm when presenting their lessons. It also indicates that teachers present themselves and lessons with energy and poise to draw learners' attention and they bring an exciting attitude to the classroom to improve learners' interest. This study found that showing enthusiasm is the most used

classroom management strategy. This implies that if teachers apply this classroom management strategy effectively learner's interest grow. Bringing a positive attitude into the classroom enhances learner engagement, involvement, and even learning (cf.2.5.1). Although enthusiasm may not cause disruptive students to behave nicely, it does keep their attention. In a nutshell, learners are affected by the teacher's energy, which increases their attention, involvement, and stimulation. As a result, learner passion facilitates learning. Kopershoek et al. (2016) relate improved student learning to a concept known as "emotional contagion" which is the spread of an emotion that someone expresses.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Creating First-step Compliance Classroom Management Strategy

First-step compliance allows the teachers to set the tone for their class period while drawing learners learning (cf.2.5.2). This idea is to get learners engaged in class right away, and it is surprisingly simple and effective. All the teachers must do is to assign a simple task to the learners at the beginning of class. Table 4.14 shows that teachers in this study keep things as simple as possible and concentrate on getting things done in class. They give learners a simple task at the beginning of the lesson. Furthermore, they give learners class activities before they start teaching new content. The trick about creating first-step compliance is to keep things as simple as possible and to concentrate on getting things done. Looking somewhere is usually the best lesson because most learners pay attention to something when they look at it (Nasey, 2012). With first-step compliance, the teacher gets every class off to a productive start.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Preparation Classroom Management Strategy

As any teacher will confirm, teaching begins long before the teacher enters the classroom (cf.2.5.3). It all begins with preparation. The value of solid, old-fashioned preparation work cannot be overstated, even in the age of the internet. Table 4.15

shows that prepared activities keep learners focused and engaged throughout the whole lesson and lead to better learner achievement. The teacher can anticipate disturbances, plan for contingencies, and identify areas where a learner can improve. Preparing for the classes ensures that everything runs smoothly (Popescu, 2014).

If teachers spend more time preparing, learners will have fewer surprises in the classroom. The learners will be more focused and engaged because of this. The learners become eager to learn when the teachers are prepared to teach (cf.2.5.3). After all, it is simpler to stay energized when the teacher knows what one will do next.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Mastering Lesson Transition Classroom Management Strategy

Depending on the school's scheduling strategy, most class periods last between 45 and 90 minutes. That means the teacher will probably have to change direction once or twice during each class. In every lesson, the change in gears is critical. Table 4.16 reveals that teachers in this study tell learners when to move from one task to another they easily signal for attention by ensuring that every learner has their eyes on them. Lastly, they easily grab attention with short, easy-to- accomplish instructions. This classroom management strategy is the third most used strategy of classroom management. This implies that focused learners perform better than those who are not paying attention in class. It is more likely that the teacher will lose learner participation during a transition than at any other time (Popescu, 2014). Fortunately, moving from one topic to the next is relatively simple. It is vital to draw attention to the teachers so that all the learners' eyes are on them. This step, like the first, employs a short, easy-to-follow instruction to grab attention (cf.2.5.4). In addition, the term “in a moment” is significant. This point out to learners that the instructions will be brief and that they will soon change gears. Finally, the teacher must pay attention to how well the learners follow through.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Collaboration Classroom Management Strategy

This teaching method's peer-to-peer nature permits learners to form bonds with one another. It also promotes the development of relationships, which results in a more favorable learning atmosphere in the classroom (cf.2.5.5). Collaboration in the classroom provides the teachers with a fresh teaching method with no effort on their part. After teachers have established expectations, goals, and deadlines, teachers may let learners leave the classroom. (Imms & Byers, 2017). Table 4.17 shows that teachers in this study encourage learners to form positive relationships with one another to create a positive learning environment in the classroom. They also make sure that during group discussions, learners stay on the topic. Furthermore, they give learners an opportunity to work with one another. This classroom management strategy encourages teamwork. This implies that when teachers encourage learners to work together and have a positive relationship with one another that will create a conducive atmosphere in the class. The only thing the teacher must do is to ensure that the groups stay on track. Collaboration does not have to take place face-to -face.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Practising Follow-through Classroom Management Strategy

It is important that teachers be respected by the learners. That means they must adhere to the teacher's instructions. Learners need to believe that if the teacher says they will do something, the teacher will do it. This results in happy learners and fosters positive traits such as honesty, trust, and commitment (cf.2.5.6). The more the learners see the teacher follow through on their promises, the more likely they are to do so themselves. This organizes the class in a positive, productive manner (Imms & Byers, 2017). Table 4.18 shows that when practicing follow-through, teachers in this study lead by example to keep learners engaged in the classroom. They also make learners respect their instructions. Additionally, if they promise to do something in class, they follow it through. Practising follow-through strategy is the second most used classroom management strategy that is implemented in the primary schools in this study. This

implies that when applied carefully, it will enhance learner achievement. Learners perceive the classroom as a place where promises are kept and potential is realized, which keeps them motivated. It is how the teacher keeps learners involved in the class by leading by example.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Remember to Play Classroom Management Strategy

Table 4.19 reveals that teachers who participated in this study praise learners who are achieving. They also stimulate learner involvement by giving them activities which will reduce stress in the classroom. Furthermore, the participating teachers tell jokes for their learners to laugh while teaching them. The "play" classroom strategy encourages teachers to praise learner's achievements. These findings imply that when learners are given activities that relieve stress, their involvement will be stimulated. Using comments that make them laugh, stimulating creativity, praising learner achievements, and remaining upbeat are all ways that the teacher can alleviate stress in the classroom (cf.2.5.7). Laughter is the most effective method on the list. If the teacher can make learners laugh even once a day, it means they have temporarily forgotten about their stress.

Summarised Findings and Implications on how Teachers Apply the Tech-off Policy Classroom Management Strategy

Teachers need a tech-off policy if they want to keep the learners on track as much as possible. Table 4.20 shows that the teachers who were respondents on the questionnaires, do not allow learners to answer their cellphones in class. They also force learners to remove cell phones from their pockets and turn them off. However, learners are allowed to keep their cell phones in a specified area of their desks. This classroom management strategy is the least applied classroom management strategy. These findings show that primary school teachers are not fully implementing this

classroom strategy. If a learner does not complete their tasks on the computer before the conclusion of this session, they must do it in the next class on paper (cf.2.5.8). Learners should keep their smartphones in a specified region of their workstation, such as the top right corners of their desks (Ahmad et al., 2017). When devices are turned off, the teacher may rest assured that learners will not be distracted.

Summarised Findings and Implications on the Most Applied Classroom Management Strategies

Even though findings indicate that all eight classroom management strategies are implemented in the primary schools that are part of this study, analysis of data in Table 4.23 showed that in most primary schools, “showing enthusiasm” is the most applied strategy. This finding implies that showing enthusiasm may be more advantageous compared to other classrooms management strategies towards the goal of learners achieving better academically. It also implies that teachers use it more often to enhance learner performance. It is followed by practicing follow-through. The more the learners see the teacher follow through on their promises, the more likely they are to do so themselves. Teachers apply practising follow-through as a second advantageous classroom management strategy towards achieving learner’s performance at primary schools. The third and the fourth applied classroom management strategies are “mastering lesson transitions” and “collaboration”. The least applied classroom management strategy is the “tech-off” policy. The finding implies that primary school teachers are not applying tech off policy classroom management strategy as one of the strategies that can make learners achieve better academically. The Cronbach alphas of the eight classroom management strategies are .95. This suggests very good internal consistency reliability for the subscales.

The adoption of these classroom management approaches and strategies hold the possibility of leading to meaningful learning and better learner academic achievement.

5.2.2.2 Summarised Findings and Implications Pearson Correlation Coefficient Results

The findings and implications of inferential statistics data are as follows. The discussion below provides information which answers the following research question:

Is there a relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools at the Lejweleputswa district?

The Relationship between Classroom Management and Learner Achievement

Analysis of data in Table 4.24 showed there was a very weak negative correlation (r = -0.08) between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. The p value was .33 which indicated that there was no relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted whilst the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Assertive Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.25 indicated that the Pearson correlation was .03, indicating a very weak positive relationship between assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. The p value was .67 which indicated that there was no relationship between the assertive classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Business Academic Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.26 showed that the Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.09 indicating a very weak negative relationship between the business academic classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level reveals $p < .24$ which indicated that there was no relationship between the behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Behavioural Modification Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.27 showed that the Pearson correlation coefficient -0.07 indicated a very weak negative relationship between the behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level revealed $p < .36$. Therefore, there was no relationship between the behavioural modification classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools that were part of this study. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Group Managerial Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.28 showed that the Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.08, indicating a very weak negative relationship between group managerial classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level revealed $p < .30$. Therefore, there was no relationship between the group managerial classroom

management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Group Guidance Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.29 showed that the Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.10 indicating a weak negative relationship between group guidance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level revealed $p < .19$. Therefore, there was no relationship between the classroom management approaches and the learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Acceptance Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.30 showed that the Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.15 indicating a weak negative relationship between the acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level revealed $p < .06$ indicating that there was no relationship between acceptance classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

The Relationship between Success Classroom Management Approach and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

Analysis of data in Table 4.31 showed that the Pearson correlation coefficient was -0.14, indicating a weak negative relationship between the success classroom management approach and learner achievement at primary schools. Analysis of the significant level at the traditional $p < .05$ level revealed $p < .07$ indicating that there was no relationship between the success classroom management approach and the

learner achievement at primary schools. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted whereas the research hypothesis was rejected.

5.2.2.3 Summarised Findings and Implications of t-test Results

Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Classroom Management Approaches

To compare male and female teachers on classroom management approaches an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.32 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for males and females. This finding implies that the gender of teachers does not affect the classroom management approaches. The paragraphs to follow compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on all classroom management approaches.

Comparison of Teachers Aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on Classroom Management Approaches

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on classroom management approaches an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4. 33 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers aged 22-35 and teachers aged 36-68 years. This finding implies that the age of teachers does not affect the classroom management approaches. The next paragraph compares teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on classroom management approaches.

Comparison of Teachers with Teaching Experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on Classroom Management Approaches

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on classroom management approaches an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.34 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-

5 years and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years. This finding implies that the teaching experience of teachers does not affect the classroom management approaches. The next paragraph compares teachers with class sizes of between 1-25 learners and 36-80 learners on classroom management approaches.

Comparison of Teachers with Class Sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 Learners on Classroom Management Approaches.

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 learners on classroom management approaches, an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and teachers with class sizes of between 36-80 learners. This finding implies that the class sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 learners does not affect the classroom management approaches. The next paragraph compares male and female teachers on classroom management strategies.

Comparison of Male and Female Teachers on Classroom Management Strategies.

To compare male and female teachers on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.35 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for males and females. This finding implies that the gender of teachers does not affect the classroom management strategies. The next paragraph compares teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on classroom management strategies.

Comparison of Teachers Aged Between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on Classroom Management Strategies.

To compare teachers aged between 22-35 years and 36-68 years on classroom management strategies an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.37 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers aged between 22-35 and teachers aged between 36-68 years. This finding implies that the age of teachers does not affect the classroom management strategies. The next paragraph compares teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on classroom management strategies.

Comparison of Teachers of with Teaching Experience of Between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on Classroom Management Strategies.

To compare teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and 6-41 years on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.38 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management approaches scores for teachers with teaching experience of between 0-5 years and teachers with teaching experience of between 6-41 years. This finding implies that the teaching experience of primary school teachers does not affect the classroom management strategies. The next paragraph compares teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 learners on classroom management strategies.

Comparison of Teachers of with Class Sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 Learners on Classroom Management Strategies.

To compare teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and 36-80 learners on classroom management strategies, an independent-samples t-test was done. Analysis of data in Table 4.39 indicated that there is no difference in classroom management

approaches scores for teachers with class sizes of between 1-35 learners and teachers with class sizes of between36-80 learners. These findings imply that the class sizes of learners do not affect the classroom management strategies. The next paragraph discusses the ANOVA results.

5.2.2.4 Summarised Findings and Implications of Analysis of Variance Results

The three primary school phases did not significantly differ on the application of classroom management approaches. Additionally, the three primary school phases did not significantly differ on the application of the assertive, business academic, behavioural modification, group managerial and success approaches. However, it is important to note that a significant difference existed between the Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase teachers on the application of the group guidance approach. Intermediate Phase teachers applied the group guidance approach more than Senior Phase teachers. This result implies that Senior Phase teachers are less open to troublesome learners hence they are less trusted by these learners. The learners confide their fears and frustrations to the teachers less. Furthermore, Senior Phase teachers offer modest counselling to the whole class when individual learners misbehave. Foundation Phase teachers did not differ significantly with Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase teachers regarding their application of the group guidance approach in the classrooms. With regards to the application of the acceptance approach, Foundation Phase and Senior Phase teachers significantly differed, with Foundation Phase teachers applying this approach more than Senior Phase teachers. Likewise, Intermediate Phase and Senior Phase teachers also significantly differed, with Intermediate Phase teachers applying the acceptance approach more than Senior Phase teachers. These findings imply that Senior Phase learners are likely to engage in antisocial behaviour because they experience modest acceptance by their teachers. Moreover, it would be to the advantage of Senior Phase learners if their teachers could give more positive attention to the learners who seek acceptance by showing inconsiderate behaviour. Yet, Intermediate Phase and Foundation Phase teachers did not significantly differ on their application of the acceptance approach in their classrooms. Finally, the three primary school phases did not significantly differ on the application of the success approach.

The five school quintiles did not significantly differ on the application of classroom management approaches. Similarly, the five school quintiles did not significantly differ on the application of the assertive approach, business academic approach, behavioural modification approach group guidance approach, acceptance approach, success approach in the classrooms. Nevertheless, teachers in Quintile 1 and Quintile 3 primary schools differed significantly in the application of the group managerial approach with teachers in Quintile 1 schools applying this approach more. Still, Quintile 2 and Quintile 3 primary schools differed significantly on the application of the group managerial approach with teachers in quintile 2 schools are applying this approach more. These findings imply that teachers in Quintiles 1 and 2 primary schools are always cognisant of the actions of learners in their classrooms. Hence learners are not likely to misbehave during the teaching-learning process. However, learners in Quintile 3 schools are likely to participate in unruly behaviour. To conclude, teachers in Quintiles 4 and 5 primary schools did not differ significantly in their application of the group managerial approach in the classrooms.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are influenced by the data in Tables 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.14 and 4.19. To minimise learner misbehaviour and manage the classroom effectively, this study recommends that primary school teachers should adopt punishment that gives learners immediate feedback, apply rewards in the classroom, know socio-economic backgrounds of their learners and provide lockers in the classrooms.

5.3.1 Adoption of Punishment that Gives Learners Immediate Feedback

Learner reprimands for misbehaviour can be a very effective deterrent to a variety of minor misdemeanours if used correctly. For example, a teacher can call to order students who leave the classroom without permission by saying, "You will not leave the classroom without my permission." Vakalisa (2016) suggests that teachers refrain from using sarcasm to ridicule learners causing problems, and instead seek to appeal to learners' rational thinking as to why certain behaviours are unacceptable. It is

argued that teachers should try to use classroom management as an opportunity. For example, a teacher can tell restless learners not to talk during exam time. Therefore, this research recommends that the teachers should reprimand learners in a sensitive manner. They should try to convey their message without offending the learner. There needs to be greater awareness of the importance of alternative methods of discipline, like reinforcement, in controlling learner behaviour. One of the key suggestions is that a teacher should make sure the punishment is swift and obvious enough to stop the undesirable reaction without being abusive (Godlove, 2013). It is crucial that teachers reprimand the learners as soon as possible after the misbehaviour has occurred, rather than waiting until later. According to Arigbo and Adeogun (2018), a learner is likely to accept punishment without complaint if it follows logically from transgression. As a result, the researcher recommends that teachers always help learners to recognise the appropriateness of punishment before instituting it.

5.3.2 Application of Rewards in the Classroom

Teachers should commend learners for following the rules they are already familiar with. Praise can be given individually or as a whole class and should specifically mention positive behaviour by the learners or the whole class in respecting the rules. For example, the teacher may congratulate a learner who wiped the blackboard before starting the lesson by saying “Well done” or “Keep up the good work class” (if the whole class did well in a task). Learners adapt to appropriate behaviour when rewarded internally or externally (Vakalisa, 2016). Learner incentives also motivate learners to be more productive by instilling a sense of pride and accomplishment. They lead to improved academic outcomes. Therefore, the researcher recommends that the teachers should t acknowledge good behaviour by giving recognition to learners for good teamwork. Teachers should praise good learners during public gatherings at the school. This will help in promoting positive learner behaviour. Reward has long been acknowledged to increase student motivation and performance in educational settings. For example, if a student achieves the highest score on a test, the teacher may award them with a medal. Another way that rewards are used to manage behaviour and learning is to encourage it (Phungphai & Boonmoh, 2021). For instance, a teacher might reward a learner with a treat for

entering the classroom quietly in the hopes that this will improve the likelihood that the student will do so again the following time. However, many of these incentives should be given only to those who have achieved the maximum level of success, consistently outperform their peers in games and competitions, and excel academically. According to Coe (2014), lavish praise should be avoided because it can have a negative impact on learning.

5.3.3 Knowledge of Learners' Socio-economic Background

Teachers should take into consideration the social and cultural backgrounds of learners when planning active participation in classes. Aspects such as learning patterns and parenting practices in the home and family provide useful information about these contexts. Children from low- socio-economic backgrounds are less likely to have experiences that support the development of basic reading skills such as phonological recognition, vocabulary, and oral language (Buckingham et al., 2013). Teachers should plan activities so that learners can participate voluntarily. A teacher's work is easier when learners come from an environment where critical questioning is encouraged. Therefore, teachers may choose to examine how learners are affected by social issues such as HIV and AIDS and use that information to contextualise learning.

The socio-economic environment in which children grow up has important implications for their academic performance, levels of aspirations, levels of motivation, and attitudes towards school. People from underprivileged backgrounds, persons of colour, women and people with disabilities face more career difficulties (Blustein, 2013). Therefore, it is important that teachers are aware of the impact of learners' socioeconomic backgrounds and prepare lessons to meet learners' aspirations. In other words, it is important to know how motivated learners are and what kind of attitude can be expected during lessons. Poor socioeconomic background and adversity are associated with lower educational attainment (McLaughlin & Sheridan, 2016). Teachers should be capacitated on how to refer learners to school-based support teams (SBST).

5.3.4 Provision of Lockers in the Classroom

To engage learners in the classroom environment, teachers can use learners' contributions to create a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning. Learner work can be displayed on a board fixed to the wall. School lockers are often underestimated, but they not only keep things safe, but they can also play a big role in school safety. When one considers school lockers, the word "storage" immediately comes to mind, but they also played an important role during the COVID-19 pandemic for hygiene reasons. Additionally, lockers provide security for valuables, maintain privacy, relieve learners' shoulders, and reduce distractions (Lindeque et al., 2016). Therefore, schools should supply secure quality school lockers to ensure that devices, which may lead to learner mischief during lessons, are kept away in a safe space. The purpose of a locker is to provide learners with a secure location to store their valuable belongings without worrying about theft or damage. Learners are taught to respect both their own belongings and those of their classmates through lockers in schools. It creates an understanding that we each value our own property when learners realize that the lockers that secure their own treasures are equally responsible for securing their peers' items.

As learners want their lockers to be safe, it is likely they will show consideration for their fellow learners' lockers (Spinello, 2018).

5.4 Problems Experienced in this Research

Some school principals were not cooperative during fieldwork. The researcher left the questionnaires at school which ended up at the principals’ office uncompleted. Some of the principals did not distribute the questionnaires to teachers. Proper arrangements were made in advance with the principals regarding time and dates for the collection of questionnaires. However, I had to deal with some challenges. This was because questionnaires were not completed at the arranged time of collection. Therefore, I had to visit the same schools on numerous occasions to collect the questionnaires. It was also difficult to meet with teachers or enter the school premises due to the COVID-19 regulations.

Furthermore, some teachers did not respond to the questionnaire because of the following reasons:

- The teachers claimed that the questionnaire was too long.
- The teachers lost the questionnaire given to them.

5.5 Future Research

The following educational areas should be researched in the future to enhance learner achievement at primary schools:

- Induction of newly appointed teachers on classroom management approaches and strategies.
- Guidance and counselling as determinants of learner achievement.
- Teacher performance and the effectiveness of instructional methodologies on classroom management approaches and strategies.

5.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have summarised the research findings and implications of the literature review and presented descriptive statistics and inferential statistics on classroom management approaches, strategies, and learner achievement in primary schools. Furthermore, recommendations were presented that might help how teachers can enhance the achievement of learners through classroom management approaches and classroom strategies in future. In general, primary school teachers in the Lejweleputswa district clearly understand their roles and responsibilities in classroom management approaches. However, there are challenges in some classroom management approaches that make it difficult for teachers to execute their roles and responsibilities effectively. Nevertheless, I believe these challenges can be reduced for teachers to improve learner performance with the given recommendations.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: FRIC Approval Letter

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

FACULTY RESEARCH AND INNOVATION COMMITTEE (FRIC)

To: The Research Project Promoters

Dr Rambuda, A.M

OUTCOMES OF FRIC APPLICATIONS (REF: S. FRIC 20/06)

Dear Study Promoter/Supervisor

The application for the approval of research proposal (LS262a form) for student **Matsepe, R.D,** was presented at the FRIC meeting, which was held on Wednesday, 30 September 2020, and was discussed as follows:

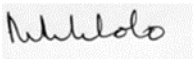
5.10 Matsepe, R.D – M. Ed (Dr Rambuda, A.M)

RESOLUTION: FRIC 07/20/06

The FHUM FRIC approved the LS262a form for student Matsepe, R.D.

Kind regards,

Signature:



_____

Prof. M. Mhlolo

Assistant Dean: Research, Innovation, & Engagement:

Faculty of Humanities

Chairperson of the FRIC

***N.B**: This letter is issued for ethical clearance purposes and it should only serve as evidence of the approval of the submission from the FHUM FRIC Committee.*

Appendix B: Ethics Clearance Certificate

Central University of Technology, Free State

RESEARCH ETHICS APPROVAL

Date: 3 August 2021

This is to confirm that ethical clearance has been provided by the Faculty Research and Innovation Committee **[01/06/16]** in view of the CUT Research Ethics and Integrity Framework, 2016.

Ethical clearance number: **[HREIC 2021/08/03]ST**

Applicant's Name and student number	R D Matsepe
Supervisor's Name for Student Project	Dr AM Rambuda
Level of Qualification for Student's Project	M.Ed
Tittle of research project	The relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools
FRIC approval number	**FRIC 07/20/06**

All conditions as set out below have to be met as set out in your LS 262 a form.
As this research focuses primarily on human beings you will be ethically responsible for:

- protecting the rights and welfare of the participants;
- gaining the trust and co-operation of all the participants with the assurance that the information collected will be kept confidential;
- informing the participants from the outset that their participation will be voluntary, and that the data collected will be conducted with the consent of the relevant principals and teachers of the identified schools;
- adhere to the principles of rigorous data collection, analysis and interpretation consistent with the design of the study;
- keeping a data trail for possible auditing purposes and safe-keeping of raw data for a period of three years after publication of the results/findings;
- respecting the confidentiality of the data.

We wish you success with your research project.

Regards

Prof JW Badenhorst
(Chairperson: Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics and Integrity Committee)

Appendix C: Letter approval to Conduct Research

Ref: Notification of research: R.D. Matsepe
Tel. 082 537 2654
Email: MZ.Tharoo@fseducation.gov.za

education
Enquiries: MZ Tharoo
FREE STATE PROVINCE

District Director
Lejweleputswa District

Dear Ms. Zonke

NOTIFICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH PROJECT IN YOUR DISTRICT BY R.D. MATSEPE

The above-mentioned candidate was granted permission to conduct research in your district as follows:

Topic: The relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.

1. **List of schools involved**: Allanridge Primary School, Aurora Primary School, Bedelia Primary School, Dr. Mngoma Primary school, Hani Park Primary School, Ikgwantlelle Primary School, Letsibolo Primary School, Malebaleba Primary School, Reitzpark Primary School, Riebeckstad Primary School, St Helena Primary School, T.S. Mafalatsa Primary School, Tshirelotso Primary School and Welkom Preparatory School.

2. **Target Population**: One Hundred and eighty educators teaching in grades 1 to 7 at the selected primary schools.

3. **Period of research**: From the date of signature of this letter until 30 September 2021. Please note the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year nor during normal school hours. The researcher is expected to request permission from the school principals to conduct research at schools.

4. **Research benefits**: This research will recommend classroom management approaches that will promote excellent learner performance at primary schools. It will provide teachers with information that will enable them to create productive learning environments at their schools.

5. Strategic Planning, Policy and Research Directorate will make the necessary arrangements for the researchers to present the findings and recommendations to the relevant officials in the district.

Yours sincerely

Mr. J.S. Tladi
Acting DDG: Corporate Services

20/08/2021
DATE:

Appendix D: A Letter to the Principal Seeking Permission to Conduct Research in the School

P.O. Box 207
Odendaalsrus
9480

Dear School Principal

Research on the Relationship between Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

I hereby request to conduct research at your school. The purpose of this research is to obtain first-hand information from teachers about their experiences in managing their classrooms. The questionnaire will also gather data which determine how the adoption of different classroom management approaches influences academic performance of learners. The research findings will provide insight into the expected support that should be made available to primary school teachers by the Free State Department of Education. The findings will also highlight areas of professional development that should be provided to the teachers at primary schools.

Attached please find the questionnaire that should be completed by the teachers. This survey has been approved by the Free State Department of Education. They should complete the questionnaire after school hours or at home. They should email me the completed questionnaire not later than 30 September 2021. My email address is rdmatsepe@gmail.com.

Data obtained from the teacher will be analysed and the findings will be reported in a dissertation. The researcher will be grateful for their response and wishes to ensure that their response and your school will remain completely confidential and anonymous. Teachers' participation is voluntarily, and they may withdraw at any time. Kindly refer to the attached consent form and general information form. If you have questions and problems related to the study, please feel free to contact me by email or cell phone at 083 763 1679 or office number 057 899 7003.

Yours sincerely

R.D. Matsepe

PRINCIPAL'S CONSENT:

By signing below, you are giving consent to the teachers to participate in the study.

Name of the Principal: _____

Signature of the Principal: _____

Date: _____

Appendix E: A Covering Letter to the Teachers Requesting Them to Participate In the Research

P.O. Box 207
Odendaalsrus
9480

Dear Teacher

Research on the Relationship between Classroom Management Approaches and Learner Achievement at Primary Schools

The purpose of this research is to obtain first-hand information from you about your experiences in managing your classroom. The questionnaire will also gather data which determine how the adoption of different classroom management approaches influences academic performance of learners. The research findings will provide insight into the expected support that should be made available to primary school teachers by the Free State Department of Education. The findings will also highlight areas of professional development that should be provided to teachers at primary schools.

Attached please find the questionnaire. This survey has been approved by the Free State Department of Education. The questionnaire will be emailed to the teachers at schools. Please complete the questionnaire after school hours or at home. Email me the completed questionnaire not later than 30 September 2021. My email address is rdmatsepe@gmail.com.

Data obtained from you will be analysed and the findings will be reported in a dissertation. The researcher will be grateful for your response and wishes to ensure that your response and your school will remain completely confidential and anonymous. Your participation will be voluntarily, and you may withdraw at any time. Kindly refer to the attached consent form and general information form. If you have questions and problems related to the study, please feel free to contact me by email or cell phone at 083 763 1679 or office number 057 899 7003.

Yours sincerely

R.D. Matsepe

GENERAL INFORMATION FORM: PARTICIPANTS

[The relationship between classroom management approaches and learners' achievement at primary schools]

Information Sheet

Dear Participant,

My name is Ramotsabi Dorrington Matsepe and I am masters' student in education in the Faculty of Humanities at the Central University of Technology, Free State. You are invited to participate in a research study of the relationship between classroom management approaches and learner achievement at primary schools.

Why am I being invited to take part in this study?

You were selected as a possible participant because you are a primary school teacher who implements the identified classroom management approaches while presenting lessons.

What will I do if I agree to participate?

If you agree to be in the study, you will do the following:

- You will be expected to read the statements in the questionnaire and rate them in a semantic differential scale of 1 to 7.
- You will return the questionnaire by email or WhatsApp on the date to be agreed by you and me.

What happens if I say yes, but I change my mind later?

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to participate at any time, even after the study has started. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study, there will be no penalty.

What are the benefits to me for being in this study?

The benefits of you participating in this study are that the research will provide you with information that will enable you to create productive learning environment at your school. This study will also outline areas of professional development that should be provided to you by the Free State Department of Education.

What happens to the information collected for the study?

Your responses will remain completely confidential and anonymous. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be used.

Is there any way being in this study could be bad for me? Is there any risk to me by being in this study? If so, how will these risks be minimized?

The risk is that you may be infected with COVID-19 if a hardcopy questionnaire is delivered to you. To minimize this risk, you will complete the questionnaire online and email it to me. You may even send the completed questionnaire by WhatsApp.

Who should I contact for questions?

If you have questions about the study, please call me at 083 763 1679 or e-mail me at rdmatsepe@gmail.com. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact. _____

PLEASE KEEP THIS INFORMATION SHEET FOR YOUR RECORDS

For office use only		

PART A: PERSONAL DATA

A1. Indicate your gender.

Male	1
Female	2

A2. Indicate your age in the box provided below.

A3. Write the total years of your teaching experience below.

A4. Indicate your current position at the school.

School principal	1
Deputy principal	2
Head of department	3
PL 1 Educator	4

A5. Indicate the highest phase you teach.

Foundation phase	1
Intermediate phase	2
Senior phase	3

A6. What is the average number of learners you teach? Add the total number of learners in each grade and divide by the number of classes you teach. Write the answer in the box provided.

A7. What is your school's quintile?

Quintile 1	1
Quintile 2	2
Quintile 3	3
Quintile 4	4
Quintile 5	5

A8. Write your school's overall percentage past rate in 2020

How to respond to each statement.

Indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree as described in the statement.

Please respond by making a cross (X) over the number in the appropriate block, with 1 being NOT AT ALL (the lowest rank) and 7 being ALWAYS (the highest rank).

SECTION B: **Theoretical Framework**			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**For office use only**
Operant Conditioning Theory	B1	I use punishment that gives learners immediate feedback about their behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B2	When I reward positive behaviour, other learners copy that behaviour to earn the reward.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B3	The rewarded learner repeats that behaviour because of the positive feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B4	Immediate feedback I give to the learners who misbehave is useful in curtailing negative classroom behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B5	When I punish negative behaviour, other learners want to avoid that punishment, and so they are less likely to perform that behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	B6	The punished learner is less likely to repeat the behaviour as well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Classical Conditioning Theory	B7	I provide learners with multiple opportunities to raise their voice and answer a question.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B8	I reward the learners with stars, stickers, sweets, or candies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B9	Every time I walk into the classroom, I am greeted by my learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B10	I create activities where learners are made to perform in a group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	B11	I teach my learners expected behaviours for routine classroom activities without having to daily tell them what I want them to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
SECTION C **Classroom Management Approaches**										
Assertive Approach	C1	I provide a healthy learning environment for all learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C2	I tell learners classroom rules they must observe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C3	I explain to the learners why each classroom rule is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C4	I never invite learners to give their inputs on the classroom rules	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	C5	I hold learners accountable to the classroom rules.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C6	I prepare lessons before presenting them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C7	I prepare lesson materials before presentation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Business Academic Approach	C8	I prepare classroom activities in advance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C9	I apply sound teaching strategies to minimize classroom disruptions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C10	I set assignments with precise instructions on how to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C11	I begin my lessons on time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C12	I give learners quick feedback on work they have submitted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C13	I monitor learners' work from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Behavioural modification Approach	C14	I clearly state acceptable behaviour at the beginning of each school year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
		I clearly unacceptable behaviour at the beginning of each school year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C15	I reward acceptable behaviour with compliments such as "Well done" or "Good" or "Excellent".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C16	I explain consequences for unacceptable behaviour to discourage learners from undesirable forms of behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	C17	I spend little time on the personal history of the learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C18	I strive to increase the occurrence of appropriate behaviour through a system of reward.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Group Managerial Approach	C19	I am aware of the behavioural patterns of learners in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C20	I emphasise developing a sense of allegiance to the class among learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C21	I believe that learner allegiance to the class encourages them to refrain from engaging in disruptive behaviour, to avoid giving their class a bad name.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C22	I keep learners on–task by moving around the classroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C23	I keep eye contact with all learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C24	I identify potential learner misbehaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C25	I acknowledge good learner behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C26	I involve all learners in learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C27	I can attend to more than one thing at a time while presenting a lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C28	I usually counsel the whole class if a learner misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Group Guidance Approach	C29	I encourage learners to open up to me whatever is bothering them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C30	I can listen to learners without judging them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C31	My learners trust me enough to confide in about their fears and frustration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C32	I understand the class, its needs, and interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C33	I can manipulate the behaviour of the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Acceptance Approach	C34	I make a conscious effort to give learners who display antisocial behaviour some positive attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C35	I make learners feel accepted by me and other learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C36	I know that teaching is a challenging profession that can only be done by those who really love children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C37	I provide leadership by establishing classroom rules and consequences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C38	I can identify learner's mistaken goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C39	I confront the learners with an explanation of what they are doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C40	I influence the development of my learners' self-concept.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Success Approach	C41	I encourage every learner to develop a positive self-concept.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C42	I encourage learners to take responsibility for their behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C43	I encourage learners to respect classroom and school rules.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C44	I encourage learners to follow the code of conduct of both the classroom and the school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	C45	I call on learners who exhibit inappropriate behaviour to make value judgements about their own behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
SECTION D: **Classroom Management Strategies**										
Showing enthusiasm	D1	I bring an exciting attitude to the classroom to improve learners' interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D2	I show enthusiasm when presenting my lesson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D3	I present myself and lessons with energy and poise to draw learners' attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D4	I give learners class activities before I start teaching new content.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D5	I give learners a simple task at the beginning of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Creating first-step compliance	D6	I keep things as simple as possible and concentrate on getting things done in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Preparation	D7	I plan for lesson disruptions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D8	I prepare learning material for unforeseen disruptions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D9	Activities I prepare keep learners focused and engaged throughout the whole lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Mastering lesson transitions	D10	I easily signal for attention so that every learner has their eyes on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D11	I easily grab attention with short, easy-to- accomplish instructions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D12	I tell learners when to move from one task to another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Collaboration	D13	I give learners an opportunity to work with one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D14	I encourage learners to form positive relationships with one another to create a positive learning environment in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D15	I make sure that during group discussions, learners stay on the topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Practicing follow-through	D16	I make learners respect my instructions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D17	I lead by example to keep learners engaged in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D18	If I promise to do something in class, I follow it through.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Remember to play	D19	While teaching, I tell jokes for my learners to laugh at.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D20	I praise learner achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D21	I stimulate learner involvement by giving them activities which reduce stress in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Tech off policy.	D22	I do not allow learners to answer their cell phones in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D23	I force all learners to remove cell phones from their pockets and turn them off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	D24	Learners keep their cell phones in a specified area of their desks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Appendix G: Inferential Statistics Outputs

Reliability of the questionnaire

Reliability of the Questionnaire & Othe	Cronbach's Alpha for Questionnaire Items.x

Descriptive statistics outputs

Final Study, Personal Data.xlsx	Final Study, Extra Personal Data.xlsx
Final Study, Theoretical Framewor	Comparing Means for the Theoretical Fra
Comparing Means of the Classroom Manag	Comparing Means for the Classroom Ma
Final Study, Classroom Managem	Final Study, Classroom Managem

Inferential statistics outputs

(Correlation)

Classroom Management Approa	Classroom Management Strategi

(t-test)

Classroom Management Approa	Age and Classroom management approac
Classroom Management Strategi	Gender and Classroom managem
Gender and all Classroom Managem	

(ANOVA)

ANOVA, Primary School Phases & All C	ANOVA, School Quintile & All Classroc