

## CHAPTER THREE

### **Literature review on the dynamics of classroom leadership and management contributing to school effectiveness**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This literature review chapter enumerates how classroom leadership and management may contribute to school effectiveness. The role of the leader is an essential complement to that of a teacher. Ertesvag (2009:515-539) emphasizes that “classroom leadership is one of the greatest challenges teachers face, because it includes supporting pupils and also overseeing activities within and outside the classroom such as learning, social interaction and pupil behaviour and it is defined as a sustained and orderly environment so pupils can engage in a meaningful academic learning and enhanced social and moral growth. To serve these two purposes, teachers have to carry out a number of specific tasks. They must develop a caring, supporting relationship with pupils, organize and implement instructions in ways that optimize pupils’ access to learning”.

Classroom management on the other hand is a veritable means of achieving school effectiveness based on successful leadership and management. Therefore, it is also assumed to be the heart of school teaching and the possession of its crafts, assist the professional development of school teachers at any level of education - be it primary, secondary, or tertiary. Muijs and Harris (2007:111-134) conceptualize that classroom management “mainly influences the quality of teaching and levels of student motivation and achievement. It has also been demonstrated that the quality of leadership and management matters in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching in the classroom”.

Classroom management is “conceived as a crucial component of the successful teaching-learning process as well as a means to establish an effective learning environment for students with respect to the attainment of curricular goals. It also includes a large variety of events and tasks that take place simultaneously with other events, making it necessary for

teachers to interact rapidly with large numbers of students, because effective classroom management can look very different in different classrooms and schools” (Oplatka and Atias, 2007:41-59).

Classroom management skills are also integral part of a teacher’s skills repertoire. The study of effective teaching and instruction has focused on classroom management and structured didactic approaches. “Research shows that any successful change that is to take place at the school level is directly related to the skills and ability of the teachers and that the classroom climate they establish for themselves and their students greatly affects the learning process” (Norris, 2003:313-318). Buckridge and Guest (2007:133-146) also refer to teacher effectiveness as the achievement of quality learning outcomes, on a particular scale for a given time in teaching.

Heck (2007:399-432) found that “the focus on the quality of teaching staff stems from the view that initial preparation, content knowledge and licensing standards are relevant professional criteria that have received considerable attention as a policy lever to enhance learning outcomes and mediate inequities in students’ opportunities to learn”. Good classroom management is also founded on both the perceptual tradition, along with the self-concept theory and acknowledges the power of human perception and its impact on self-development (Schmidt, 2004:27; Steyn, 2007:265-281). Effective class management also requires taking into account the students as individuals, their emotional experiences and the different backgrounds they come from to allow everyone to develop to their full potential (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:127).

The above can be summarized that, student achievement may be secured through the establishment of an encouraging learning climate and teacher quality, which ultimately transforms into academic expectations of students. The essence of classroom management will be discussed in the next paragraph.

### **3.2 The essence of classroom management**

Accordingly, “the teaching process should take into account individual differences on the one hand, and learning should actively engage the student and be relevant to their personal interests, experiences and needs. Moreover, the learning process must occur in an

environment that contains interpersonal relationships in which students feel appreciated, acknowledged, respected and validated. When students are involved, when they believe that teachers have a personal interest in them, when learning is connected to the real world and their personal interests, students may not only become effective students, but their skills may be socially enhanced. They may also develop a deeper respect for their classmates and teachers as they realize how much they can learn from one-another” (Shechtman and Leichtentritt, 2004:323-333).

In furtherance of the essence of proper classroom management, Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997:6) argue that effective and successful learning can only take place when the following components of classroom management are present: A teaching and learning environment is created in which students are treated with dignity and respect and in which their integrity is respected and they are treated with justice and honesty, students are motivated and inspired to achieve their best, students’ achievements are acknowledged, competition is handled in the correct way. That is, in every way, every student is a winner by competing with him or herself, otherwise he or she stands a chance of being a loser by competing with others, conflict is handled in a correct and accountable way, communication takes place in such a way that students develop insight into their problems, the best possible resources are used in order to enrich the learning process, good and favourable relationships are created and maintained, discipline is applied in such a way that it will motivate a student rather than humiliate him or her and, the teacher is able to manage his or her own personal life and is also able to manage his or her students.

The above elements of respect, trust, optimism, and intentionality provide a consistent stance’ or framework from which to create healthy human environment (Steyn, 2007: 265-281). In addition however, they are also sets of philosophy and bases of creating a classroom climate which allow students to achieve their potential. However, in the context of some Nigerian secondary schools, classroom management can be assumed to be herculean, because the class size is larger than the normally prescribed one, given the average teacher-student ratio of about 1:60 (Akinsolu and Fadokun, 2008:1-24). This results in the limited rights of the students, in terms of participation during the teaching process and the multiplier effect is that, the academic achievement of the students may be at stake.

“The only definitive figure in the literature for large classes in developing countries is sixty or more, although, references to large classes in the literature indicate that some have more than 100 children” (O’ Sullivan, 2006: 24-37). In addition to that, Cakmak (2009:395-408) found that there was a relationship between class size and classroom management and managing large classes is always more difficult than managing small classes.

In large classes, the exposure to persistent noise hinders mental reasoning and impairs students’ pre-reading and reading skills. Students are also exposed to other problems including vandalism of school property, absenteeism, suspensions, disciplinary occurrences, violence and smoking (Earthman, 2004). However, “the passing of a value judgment on large classes often springs from a disparaging attitude that needs to be fought, because it may discourage teachers and make them feel guilty by shoring up the old idea that the quality of teaching is directly related to the number of students in the class” (O’ Sullivan, 2006:24-37).

The above an assertion is not borne out by scientific research which, on the contrary, denies the existence of a very close correlation between the number of students in a class and the academic results of those students. “A number of research studies found that larger classes did not result in lower rates of progress in basic skills. Greater learning gains are the consequence of some large class according to research and as international evidence shows no consistent evidence that class size affects student performance” (Pedder, 2006:213-134).

In a nutshell, the above implies that the process of classroom leadership and management should occur in an environment that guarantees interpersonal relationship of students and teachers, based on student motivation, discipline, recognition and acknowledgement, prescribed communication procedure and resources availability for teaching for the attainment of student achievement. Nevertheless, considering the fact that most developing countries classes are often larger than the officially prescribed 1:30 teacher-student ratio by the United Nations it is however, important in this study to explore relevant literature on how teacher’s leadership and management dynamics can in spite of large classes contribute to student achievement and school effectiveness.

### 3.3 Teacher effectiveness and classroom management

For decades, schools and the teachers in particular were held responsible for students' progress in terms of measurable learning goals; both in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domain. Sternberg and Zhang (2001) assert that the act of learning involves interaction among these three factors: (a) the teacher's knowledge and methods of instruction, (b) the curriculum (skills and knowledge to be acquired), and (c) the students' abilities (cognitive and non-intellectual), interests and learning styles, because effective learning for a student occurs when there is a compatible match among those factors. The emphasis on the importance of teacher's subject mastery by a number of authors have indicated how poor teaching can sometimes stem from the teacher's lack of understanding of classroom teaching qualities. It is also noteworthy that when government attempts to produce a list of the competences needed by the newly qualified and experienced teachers, subject mastery is often the first competency listed (Kyriacou, 1997:78).

Therefore, teachers are still required to make range of decisions that are important to teaching and learning environment improvement and; that applies an entire group of varied method and which are equally effective for all students (Buckridge and Guest, 2007:133-146). Also, "of critical importance among the many roles that teachers' play is that of creating a positive, supportive classroom environment based on a clear and well-organized management plan. Well-organized classroom management plans establish the parameters for the physical, social, emotional, and intellectual environments of the classroom. Classrooms where students feel safe to take risks, acquire new knowledge, and know they are valued members of a community are classrooms where learning is optimized" (Norris, 2003: 313-318).

Creemers and Kyriakids (2006:347-366) suggest that "teachers must necessarily orientate the students before teaching takes place. Orientation refers to teacher behaviour in providing the objectives for which a specific task or lesson or series of lessons take(s) place and/or, challenging students to identify the reason(s) for which an activity takes place in the lesson. An orientation task may also refer to a part of a lesson, the whole lesson, or even to a series of lessons (e.g. a lesson unit). Secondly, is the extent to which teachers help their students to understand the importance of finding the meanings of each task they are expected to be engaged".

“Thirdly, the stage at which an activity takes place and by implication, it is expected that orientation tasks will take place in different parts of a lesson or series of lessons (e.g. introduction, core and ending of the lesson). The fourth is that the measurement of quality refers to the properties of the orientation task and especially whether it is clear to the students. It also refers to the impact that the task has on student engagement in the learning process” Creemers and Kyriakidis (2006:347-366).

Lavy (2010:1-19) measures empirically the relationship between classroom teaching and students’ achievement and finds very strong evidence that several elements of teaching practices cause student achievement growth, in particular, teaching that emphasizes instilment of knowledge in the classroom has a very strong and positive effect on test scores and of students from low socio-economic background. Secondly, practising the techniques that endow students with analytical and critical skills in the classroom has high benefit as well, especially amongst students from educated families. In addition, transparency in the evaluation of students, proper and timely feedback and fairness in assessing students lead to cognitive achievement gains.

A comprehensive study by Pounder (2007:178-191) finds and reports that there is much agreement that the teacher is the key figure in any changes that are needed. This is because transformational leadership by teachers does exist in the classroom where effective teaching is practiced (Lieberman and Mace, 2010:77-88). Anderson (2008:9-18) argued that “a teacher’s power is essential both within and beyond the walls of the classroom”. Classroom management also involves the exhibition of appropriate leadership and management ability by the class teacher.

Research has shown that teachers' actions in their classrooms have twice the impact on student achievement is due to the presence of school policies regarding curriculum, assessment, staff collegiality, and community involvement (Marzano, 2003:6:18). It is also known that one of the most important jobs of the classroom teacher is managing the classroom effectively. Classroom management must be of “important concerns to all teachers, thus, equipping future teachers for the rigours and demands of the classroom appear to be the most effective and expeditious way to contribute to their success” (Akin-Little, Little and Gresham, 2004:323-325). Therefore, “classroom management refers to all of the things that a teacher does to organize students, space, time and materials so that

instruction in content and student learning can take place” (Norris, 2003: 313-318). In other words, everything teachers do to get their students to achieve the knowledge and skills necessary for success must be the result of a purposeful and well thought-out series of actions and activities.

Yilmaz and Cavas (2007:45-54) reveal in their study that “there is no significant differences in both self-efficacy and classroom leadership scores between males and females pre-service teachers. These findings suggest that pre-service teachers’ educational experiences during their teaching practice affect their attitudes toward classroom leadership”. Hence, their pre-service classroom management beliefs tended to change with their teaching practice.

Glass (2002) also confirms that successful teachers build relationships with students and seek to make learning relevant. Teaching based on the curriculum requires “that students “participate in classroom activities, become more involved in the learning process and take responsibility for their own learning. It also requires that teachers give students the opportunity to work at their own pace according to individual abilities and levels of development”. However, both teachers and students are required to focus on pre-determined results or outcomes that should be achieved during each learning process (Adridge, Fraser and Mokgoko, 2004: 245-253).

Kyriacou (1999:78) aims at investigating teacher effectiveness by examining, among other things, the following dimensions: teachers' involvement with students (explains points clearly at student's level), teachers' enthusiasm (have interest in the students), teachers' subject knowledge (conveys an enthusiasm for the subject to the students), teachers' engagement in elaborate conversation with students (stimulates students to think for themselves), facilitation of learning activities with material (has high expectation for the work students produce), consideration of requests for students' attention and help (pay attention to revision and examination techniques), provide assistance to students to reach their intellectual potential (the teacher is constructive and helpful in the criticism of students), teachers' reflection on own practice (the teacher is confident and at ease when teaching) and encouragement of students to be active participants in the learning process.

Historically, teacher-directed instruction has been the method of choice for teachers. According to Levin and Nolan (2000:48), “those of us who consider teaching a sophisticated

endeavour, experience are not the only thing that should be used to develop and plan instruction. More so, the ‘gut reaction’ approach is greatly limited when the old ‘proven methods’ seem not to work and there is a need for modifying or developing new instructional or management strategies”. They further state that others, when asked, limit teaching to only the cognitive domain and thus fail to recognize the extra-ordinary level of competence needed for making hundreds of daily content and pedagogical knowledge based-decisions in complex and dynamic classroom environments.

According to the above stated authors, teacher mastery of subject-matter, the method of instruction delivery, recognition of student diversity, student abilities as well as an organized classroom, teacher and student orientation about teaching and learning and transformational instilment of critical skills in student may guarantee teacher effectiveness. The next paragraph explains how school the effectiveness framework of Scheerens aligns with classroom management.

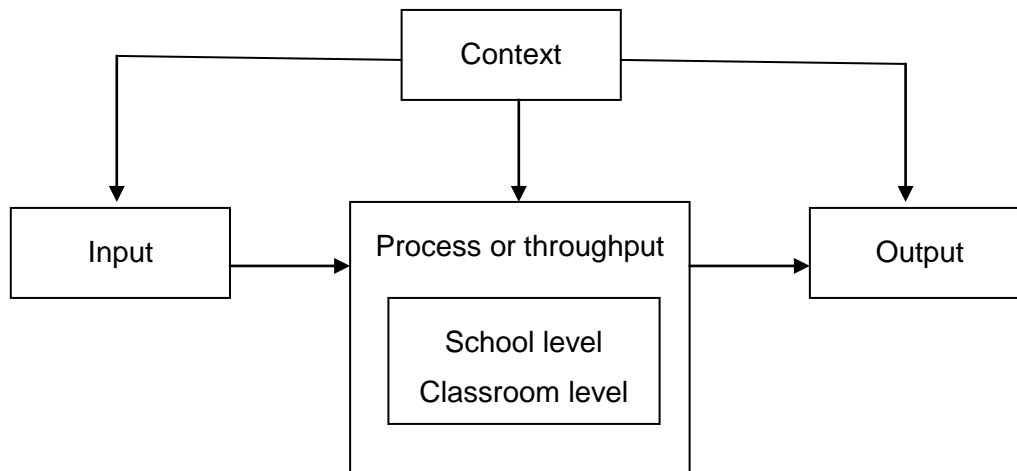
### **3.4 The relationship between the theoretical framework of Scheerens and classroom leadership and management**

School effectiveness is a “field characterized by many assumptions models, theories and approaches. Such models attempt to explain the multi-level structure and linkages between levels of the context-input-process-output chain” (Saleem, 2010:161-183). Thus, according to Scheerens, (1999:1-50) “the elementary design of school effectiveness research is the association of hypothetical effectiveness enhancing conditions of schooling and output measures - mostly, student achievement”. School effectiveness framework is “a basic model from systems theory, where the school is seen as a black box, within which processes or ‘throughput’ takes place to transform this basic system model of school functioning”, therefore, the inclusion of an environmental or contextual dimension makes it relevant in relation to this study (see Figure 1 below).

The major task of school effectiveness research is to reveal the impact of relevant input characteristics (e.g. classroom leadership and management) on output and to “break open” the black box, in order to show which process or throughput factors “work”, next to the impact of contextual conditions. The term input-output refers to studies in which quantifiable school-



related characteristics are mostly taken as school inputs and student achievement test scores are mostly taken as a measure of school output (Teodorovic, 2011:215:236). Within the school it is helpful to distinguish a school and a classroom level and accordingly, school organisational and instructional processes (Scheerens, 1999:1-50).



**Figure 3.1: A basic systems model of school functioning (1999:6)**

Scheerens (1999:6) raises a set of critical questions about the scope of the concept of school effectiveness. The questions are:

- Can a school be called effective on the basis of achievement results measured only at the end of a period of schooling, or should such a school be expected to have high performance at all grade levels?
- Can school effectiveness be assessed by examining results in just one of two school subjects? or
- Should all subject matter areas of the curriculum be taken into account? Should one not restrict the qualification of a school being effective to consistently high performance over a longer period of time, rather than a “one shot” assessment at just one point in time?

He adds that “fortunately, all of the above questions are amenable to empirical research. These types of studies that have to do with the consistency of school effects over grade-levels, teachers, subject-matter areas and time have sometimes been referred to as “foundational studies”, because they are aimed at resolving issues that bear upon the scope

and 'integrity" of the concept of school effectiveness; thus the need to relate instructional effectiveness to classroom management as a basis of achieving school effectiveness".

Scheerens (1999:6) summarizes varied studies on instructional effectiveness based on teaching and classroom processes as follows: "On the foundation of the characteristics of effective teachers and studies that go under the label of 'process-product studies' - classroom situation - like the student's relationships with peers and the home environment, consistency between the personal characteristics of the teacher - like warm heartedness or inflexibleness on the one hand (teacher behaviour and personality during lessons) and student achievement on the other hand".

The teacher behaviour in relation to students is referred to as "process-product studies" which include the following.

**Clarity:** Clear presentation adapted to suit the cognitive level of students.

**Flexibility:** Varying teaching behaviour and teaching aids and organizing different activities, etc.

**Enthusiasm:** Expressed in verbal and non-verbal behaviour of the teacher.

**Task-related and/or business-like behaviour:** Directing the students to complete tasks, duties, exercises etc. in a business-like manner.

**Criticism:** Much negative criticism has a negative effect on student achievement.

**Indirect activity:** Taking up ideas, accepting students' feelings and stimulating self-activity.

**Providing students with an opportunity to learn (criterion material):** That is, there must be a clear correspondence between what is taught in class what is tested in examinations and assessments.

**Making use of stimulating comments:** Directing the thinking of students to the question, summarizing a discussion, indicating the beginning or end of a lesson, emphasizing certain

features of the course material and varying the level of both cognitive questions and cognitive interaction Scheerens (1999:6).

In addition, Scheerens (1999:6) points out that that “effective teaching time became a central factor. Principle aspects of this teaching time model are actual net learning time, which is seen as a result of perseverance and opportunity to learn and necessary net learning time, stemming from student aptitude, quality of education and student ability to understand instruction. The master learning principles according to the learning model are the following: teaching goals should be clearly formulated, the course material to be followed is carefully split into learning tasks and placed in sequence, the teacher explains clearly what the students must learn, regularly asks questions to gauge what progress students are making and whether they have understood what has been taught, students have ample time to practise what has been taught, with much use being made of “prompts” and feedback, skills are taught until mastery of them is automatic and; the teacher regularly tests the students and calls on the them to be accountable for their work”.

He continues that, “to make highly structured teaching work equally as well for acquiring complicated cognitive processes in secondary education, testing need not be so frequent as possible and there should be space left for applying problem-solving strategies flexibly, emphasis on the importance of varying the learning tasks and of creating intellectually challenging learning situations, an evaluative climate in the classroom whereby students dare to take risks - even, for complicated task. This is a good means of attaining effective instruction via classroom management Scheerens (1999:6). In addition, individual teaching in secondary education hardly led to higher achievement and had no influence whatsoever on factors like the self-esteem and attitudes of students”.

In conclusion, the conditions of output measures in the classroom, rest on the characteristic behaviour of the teacher that ultimately influences students’ learning behaviour during teaching. Also, the process and through-put at classroom level manifest themselves primarily through instructional activities according to Scheerens’s model (1990:1-50) and this necessitates the essence of classroom leadership, which is the bedrock on which the accomplishment of classroom teaching goal is based.

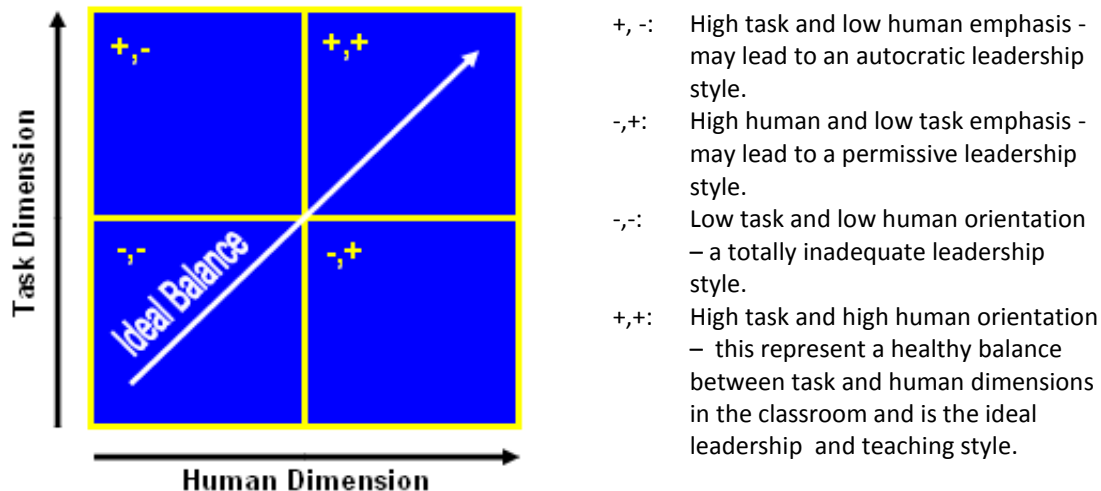
Classroom leadership also has undisputable bearing on the delivery of instruction. Therefore, the following paragraph discusses the elementary leadership as it relates to the classroom.

### 3.5 Classroom leadership dimensions and styles

The teacher places emphasis on either or both of these tasks in the classroom which automatically dictates the leadership style to be applied during teaching. These tasks according to Kruger and van Schalkwyk (1997:19) are as follows:

**Task dimension:** This is linked to the task of educating and teaching the students. Education and teaching are a teacher’s main task and in the execution of this, the teacher works with students and with the help of other people such as the parents, students’ leaders and the school supervisors (HODs).

**Human dimension:** This is the teacher’s ability to relate well and obtain the help and collaboration of, for example, parents, students’ leaders, HODs and other superiors in the execution of the main task (teaching task). In other words this is the ability of the teacher to establish sound interpersonal relationships with all the partners in education.



**Figure 3.2: Human and Task dimension in the classroom (Kruger and van Schalkwyk, 1997:20).**

Correct balance between the human and task dimension in the classroom is necessary because if one of the two dimensions is over-emphasized, it may only give rise to a problem

of leadership and teaching style. For example, when a leader solely emphasizes the task dimension, it may give rise to autocratic leadership and teaching style. On the other hand, if the human dimension is over emphasized, it may give rise to a laissez-faire leadership and teaching style (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:20). Therefore, the utilization of both human and the task dimension must always be equally applied and emphasized during teaching in the classroom.

The role of the leader is an essential complement to that of the teacher. Three basic styles of classroom leadership can be deduced from the teachers' attitude during the performance of their teaching tasks, according to Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997:20-23). They are, the democratic, autocratic and laissez fair or permissive leadership styles.

### **3.5.1 Classroom leadership styles**

The role of the leader is an essential complement to that of a teacher. Effective leadership is dependent on the knowledge or acceptance of the leader's authority by all group members during teaching in the classroom. "Without this acceptance, individual members of the group or factions within it are likely to question the leadership of the incumbent (teacher) in a variety of ways. These would at least interrupt lessons and might escalate into major confrontation between challenger (student) and teacher" (Bull and Solity, 1987:65).

Nakamura (2000:32) indicates that everything a teacher does and says impacts on the classroom atmosphere and the students in it. It impacts on the leadership style of the teacher, because the teacher as leader aims to motivate students, to improve their character and citizenship by being student-centred and focused on the attitudes, values, ideals and goals of the students for their future. According to Kruger and van Schalkwyk (1997:20-23), the classroom leadership styles are; autocratic, laissez-faire or permissive, and the democratic leadership styles and these three styles of classroom leadership can be deduced from the teachers' attitude towards their teaching task and human dimensions.

### **3.5.1.1 Democratic leadership style**

A democratic leadership style is related to the interactive teaching approach. This approach requires the teacher to have a thorough knowledge of his or her subject and a good knowledge of people, so that he or she can encourage students to take part in teaching and learning activities in an active and meaningful way in the classroom. Such approach to teaching necessitates a democratic leadership style, with which the teacher maintains a balance between the task and the human aspect in the classroom.

One of the characteristics of the democratic leadership style is about students having a say in various leadership activities. For example, the teacher will let the students take part in classroom decision-making, classroom policy, rules and procedures, the organisation of class activities and maintaining order in the classroom. A teacher who has a democratic leadership style is friendly, firm, encouraging, helpful, warm caring and fair. In addition, this approach will of course, be to the advantage of the teaching and learning procedures (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997:20-23) amongst which are that students will take part in classroom activities with more confidence, students' initiative and creativity are encouraged, students receive recognition and appreciation, relaxed but still productive classroom atmosphere operates, there are both sound and effective discipline. As a result, students feel involved in the teaching activities with more confidence.

What lies within the philosophy of emancipation education is the foundation of teaching practice, since it seeks to empower students and mentors them to participate actively in the learning process (Chikunda, 2008:141-146; Zhao, Zhu and Liu, 2008:58-69). This approach may however be time-consuming and consequently, the teacher may not be able to complete their syllabi within the time allowed (van Schalkwyk (1997:20-23).

### **3.5.1.2 Autocratic leadership style**

According to Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997:20-23), the autocratic classroom leadership style or the teacher-centred style means that the teacher's role or directions constitute the greatest part in the teaching learning situation. In this case, the teacher is primarily interested in the learning performance of the students. Their participation is limited to listening, working and learning and performing. The task aspects in the classroom situation are therefore,

overemphasized at the expense of the human aspects and students often experience the situation as impersonal and cold.

The following leadership characteristics are displayed by the autocratic teacher. The teacher keeps to a fixed, incredible schedule in the class, arranges and controls all the activities in the classroom, draws up all the rules and procedures in the classroom, makes all the decisions pertaining to the class, e.g. test dates, class project and who the class leaders should be, permits only one-way communication, relies on his sole official position for authority and maintains a military and rigid, military style of discipline. Moreover, depending on the nature of the subject content to be covered, this leadership style has certain advantages. For example, some students experience a feeling of security in such a rigid class. The teacher fixed rules and procedures, provide students with certainty of what is expected of them. There is certainty about learning content (e.g. basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic are successfully acquired in such a class).

This classroom leadership approach however, has more disadvantages than advantages, some of which are that, the students have very little or nothing to say in classroom activities. When they are left alone, the classroom climate is characterized by competition and unwillingness between students to work together, lack of discipline and order. Active thinking of students is suppressed and students experience no personal growth - (They are afraid of taking risks); students do not cooperate with one-another and acquire an unconstructive attitude towards the subject taught by the teacher (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:20-23).

Concurrently, the autocratic teaching style, referred to the directive teaching style by the Oregon State University, (2002:1-20), outlines the following characteristics: One way communication from teacher to participants and solutions given to students rather than encouraging them to discover their own solutions. Therefore, the teacher is synonymous to a “know all expert”, meaning that his/her method of doing things is the best according to the students.

### ***3.5.1.3 Laissez-faire or permissive leadership Style***

This classroom leadership style is applicable when the teacher believes in a self-realizing or student centred-teaching style. Such a teaching style over-emphasizes the human aspects of

the teaching-learning situation. The personal happiness and development that the student experiences in the classroom is more important than the subject content which the student must master often. In such a classroom the teacher plays a supportive role and remains in the background instead of giving much direction in the teaching-learning activities.

The following factors are some of the characteristics of this leadership style: students make their own decision on classroom activities; students propose classroom rules and procedure; the organisation of the classroom space creates the opportunity for free participation by students and an informal type of discipline is applied in the classroom situation.

In certain teaching-learning situations, the democratic kind of teaching and classroom leadership style may of course be advantageous, especially in classroom situations in which students should be creative (art classes, craft classes, etc.). If, however, a teacher applies this classroom leadership style to all situations, teaching may not be successful. Such a disorganized situation gives some students a feeling of insecurity, tension and fear. There is also very little or no sign of productive class or learning work (Kruger and van Schalkwyk, 1997:20). In addition, according to the findings of Ross and Gray (2006:179-199), there is a statistically significant direct effect of leadership on students' achievement.

Contemporary explanations of the contemporary classroom leadership styles of a teacher resulting from students' behaviour are explained as follows:

#### ***3.5.1.4 Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory of leadership (1988)***

Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory of Leadership (1988) theory is adapted in order to explain how the behaviour of students spurs the teacher's leadership behaviour, relating to teaching in the classroom. The necessary terms have been translated to suit the concepts used in the classroom, because Hersey and Blanchard's theory of Leadership (1988) originally has situational perspective of leadership in general, but it is based on the functional maturity (readiness) of the followers (students). The basic idea of this model is that the functional maturity of followers determined. Above all, the 'style' and focus that need to be assumed by leaders (teacher) in order to obtain optimal goal achievement in the classroom are indicated.



Hersey and Blanchard (1988) further state that situational leadership comprises an interplay between the degree of guidance and direction (task behaviour) a facilitator gives, the extent of socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a teacher provides and the readiness level the student exhibits in performing a specific task function or objective. Thus, the anticipation of teachers is the adoption of their leadership to the specific needs of the students by taking into consideration the degree of readiness of implementation of a task (Creemers and Kyriakides, 2006:347-366).

“Maturity is assessed in relation to a specific task and has two parts. Psychological maturity where self-confidence and ability and readiness of a student to accept responsibility and be able to manage the given learning tasks and learning maturity in which relevant skills, technical knowledge and ability of student to bear responsibility and the ability to set up high goals and still manage them. As student maturity increases, leadership should be more relationship-motivated than task-motivated. The Hersey and Blanchard Leadership theory means that the developmental levels of a student play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles is most appropriate behaviour for the teacher. According to this conceptualization, leader behaviours fall under (1) directive behaviour and (2) supportive behaviour” They are briefly explained below.

**Directive behaviour:** one-way communication and in that case, followers' roles are spelled out and close supervision of performance.

**Supportive behaviour:** two-way communication, listening, providing support and encouragement and involving followers in decision-making.

[<http://psychology.about.com/gi/dynamic/offsite.htm?site=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.geociti.com%2Fathens%2FForum%2F>].

By combining attentive listening with such conversational guidelines as turn-taking, gauging understanding and conveying empathy, the teacher can both build and help monitor engagement. Creating opportunities to teach and listening practice is a frequently over-looked element in establishing a mutually motivational environment for both teacher and student. Listening is also an important aspect of relationship building - the most obvious one of all motivational strategies (Bartholomew, 2007:593-598).

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) discuss how the maturity level of the students dictates the leadership behaviour of the teacher towards them. They also observed that two dimensions of leadership behaviour (directive and supportive behaviour) are cross-partitioned into four leadership styles: The Telling Style (Directing); The Selling Style (coaching); the Participating Style (Collaboration or supporting), and Delegating Style (Delegation). Positive attitude of students towards learning will be ensured and enhance their achievement.

**The telling style/directing:** This style comprises both high task and low relationship. It is suitable when the students of a classroom are inexperienced about the topic being taught, hence, they need a lot of help, direction and reinforcement to learn (high task, low relationship focus). It is also appropriate when leading low to moderate (incapable, but enthusiastic or self-assured) psychologically mature students who lack competence, but are enthusiastic and committed. The teacher who adopts this style gives detailed instructions to students and oversees their classroom work, because the students need adequate direction to get started. Thus, decisions and communication style is largely one-way and the style is used for people who lack competence.

Notwithstanding, students' doubts are cleared, as the directions given by the teacher assists them to get answer their questions. The teacher makes every decision, but sometimes consults the students before taking decisions. The style does not become a success if the students do not trust that the teacher is honest in his/her interpersonal relationship them, hence they perceive him/her to be initiating more structures/learning tasks than is needed. Hersey and Blanchard refer to this style as persuading, explaining or clarifying.

**The selling style/coaching:** This style is suitable when students are a little more answerable, comparatively inexperienced, but enthusiastic to undertake the task, still, they may not have the required skills and commitment. The style is based on high task, high relationships focus. The teacher who employs this style gives the subordinates specific instructions and only supervises their work. In addition to that, he/she supports the students by clarifying 'what' and 'why' the task should be performed as directed. Such a teacher clears students' worries on what is being taught by responding to their queries in the teaching-learning process. The teacher must also praise the students to build their self-esteem. Though the discretion of decision-making lies solely with the teacher, but students are

sometimes consulted to restore their commitment to learning. Sometimes two-way communication is also encouraged, but the teacher has the final say.

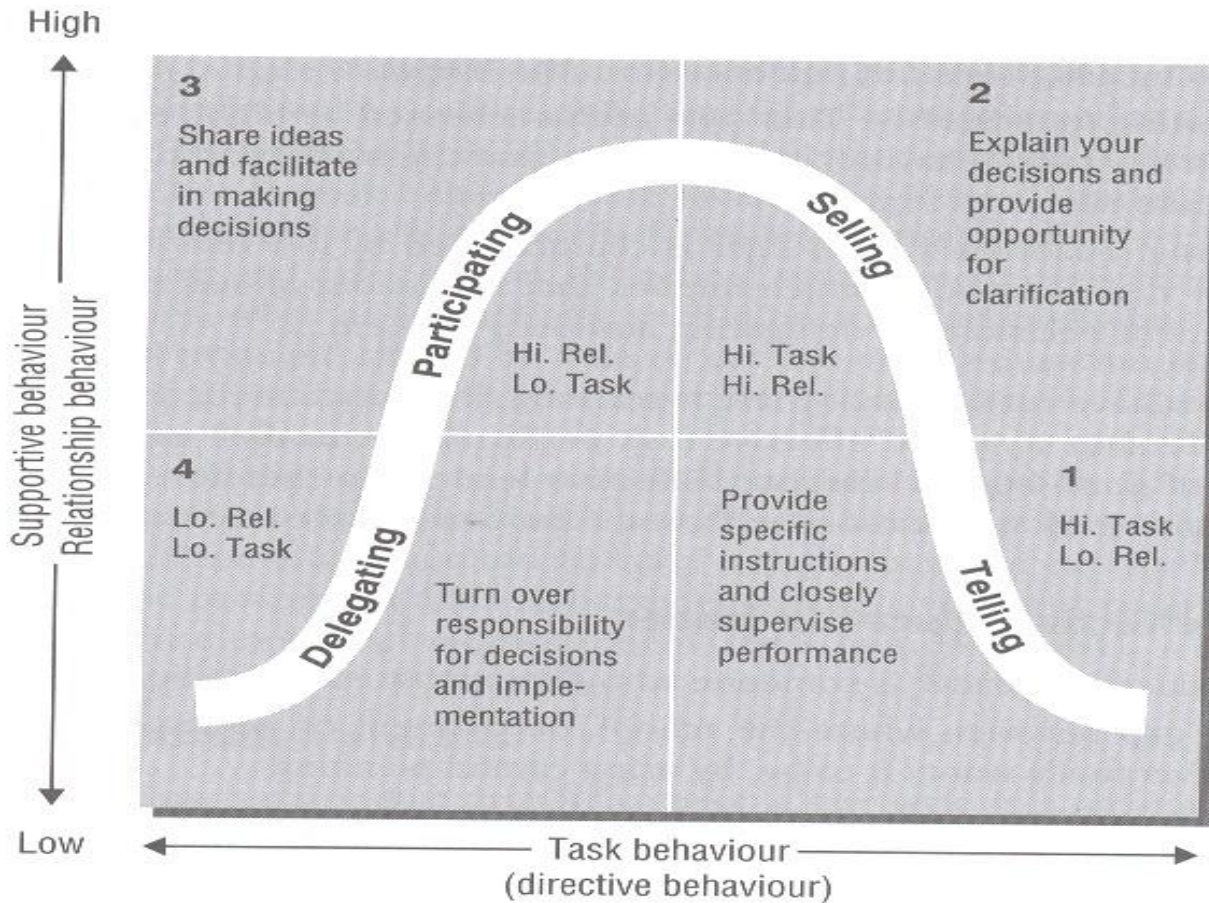
**Participating style/supporting:** The supportive style is used when students have the ability to learn, but may be unwilling to start or complete the learning task (low learning task, high relationship focus). It is used effectively when teaching students with both high learning ability and psychological maturity (able, willing or confident). Teachers as leaders facilitate and take part in classroom decision-making, but control (in form of high level of participation in learning) resides with the students during teaching, implying that students in this category are well competent and highly motivated.

More so, the teacher tells the students what to do (boosts their confidence and motivation) and offers little or no direction. The students are also allowed to make their own decisions based on the teacher's limitations - teacher facilitates and takes part in decisions during teaching. The teacher encourages students' contributions and originalities through support, and confidence. However, Hersey and Blanchard (1993:132) are of the opinion that this style is not effective when students feel that the teacher is providing little structure and support when necessary.

**Delegating style:** The delegating style is applied when students show willingness and are able to take responsibility for style is useful when students are willing and able to take responsibility for guiding their own behaviour (low relationship, low learning task focus). This model suggests that the teacher applies effective style of leadership as students' maturity increases. Thus, teachers' effectiveness is characterized by a drive for students learning and concern for the students. When situations correspond with a teacher's leadership style it gives way for teacher effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard 1993:196). By implication, the increase in the level of the students' learning skill and competence as regard the achievement of specific learning tasks enable the teacher to to change his/her leadership style to a more relationship oriented style, thus, increasing the learning effectiveness of students.

The above implies that the increase in the level of maturity/readiness of students (students who have learning skill, motivation, competence and commitment) with regard to accomplishing a specific learning task, will afford the teacher the opportunity to change

his/her leadership style to a more relationship-oriented style for increased learning effectiveness. In this situation, the teacher seldom directs nor supports, but closely supervises students' performance. Teachers are also still involved in decisions and problem-solving, but task/learning control is done with the students.



**Figure 3.3: Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership (Van Deventer and Kruger, 2003:147-148)**

Bolden, Gosling, Maturano and Dennison (2003) recommend that “to determine the appropriate leadership/teaching style to use in a given situation, the teacher must first determine the maturity level of the students in relation to the specific task that the teacher is attempting to accomplish, through the effort of the students and as the level of students’ maturity increases, the teacher should begin to reduce his or her teaching task behaviour, and increase the relationship behaviour until the students reach a moderate level of maturity. As the students begin to move into an above average level of maturity, the teacher should

decrease not only task behaviour, but also relationship behaviour and once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leadership style can be determined”.

In conclusion, based on Hersey and Blanchard (1988) leadership model, the success of a teacher is determined by his or her ability to identify the readiness level of the students. That is, the teacher coaches, trains and explains task completion to the students, so that they can understand what is specifically expected from them and therefore, the leadership style to be applied by the teacher would be sell/coaching or tell/telling, (that's is, 1 and 2 in Fig. 3.3). Moreover, where the students are capable, self-assured and devoted, the appropriate level of leadership style would be participating/supporting or delegating (that is, 3 and 4 in Fig. 3.3). Nevertheless, leadership styles of teachers could emanate from their personal characteristics which they possess. They could also emanate from the diagnosis of the students' readiness to learn. Therefore, the next chapter discusses how the teacher's process of management helps in effecting the extent of the students' readiness to learn, in order for the student to achieve academically.

## **3.6 Management in the classroom**

### **3.6.1 Planning**

Planning is integrated into every other management function. Therefore, it comes first in the process of managing a class. A high premium must be placed on planning compared to other management functions and a classroom teacher has to convert classroom plans into action in order to ensure successful and effective classroom management. Deliberate consideration of the objectives, policies, methods, means, standards and time schedules, with a view to attaining the objectives of the classroom situation are known as classroom planning (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:27-31).

The lesson outcome envisaged by the teacher determines his or her planning goals and objectives and the lesson plans should reflect the intended outcomes, even though many of the outcomes are determined by the state or local curriculum guidelines (Evertson and Emmer, 2009:98). In addition, a teacher should examine the content, concepts and goal of the lesson that will be taught, start the teaching process by introducing a problem and

exploring possible solutions to reframing a lesson through a thoughtful discussion of how it relates to individual experiences and show enthusiasm for the lesson or topic presentation, so that the students can share the teacher's feelings about what is being taught or presented (Evertson and Emmer, 2009:105).

Killen (2000:99) indicates that teachers would need to do careful planning preparation to help students to succeed and optimally benefit from co-operative planning. In co-operative learning, the roles of teachers are summed up as thoughtful and thorough planning and preparation of teaching activities, good grasp of how language mediates learning in the classroom, good understanding of the barriers to learning, ability to cater for diverse group of students with regard to culture, gender, ethnicity, language ability, etc., ability to support students to develop internal discipline within the learning environment created and student's support in the development of critical and creative thinking activities.

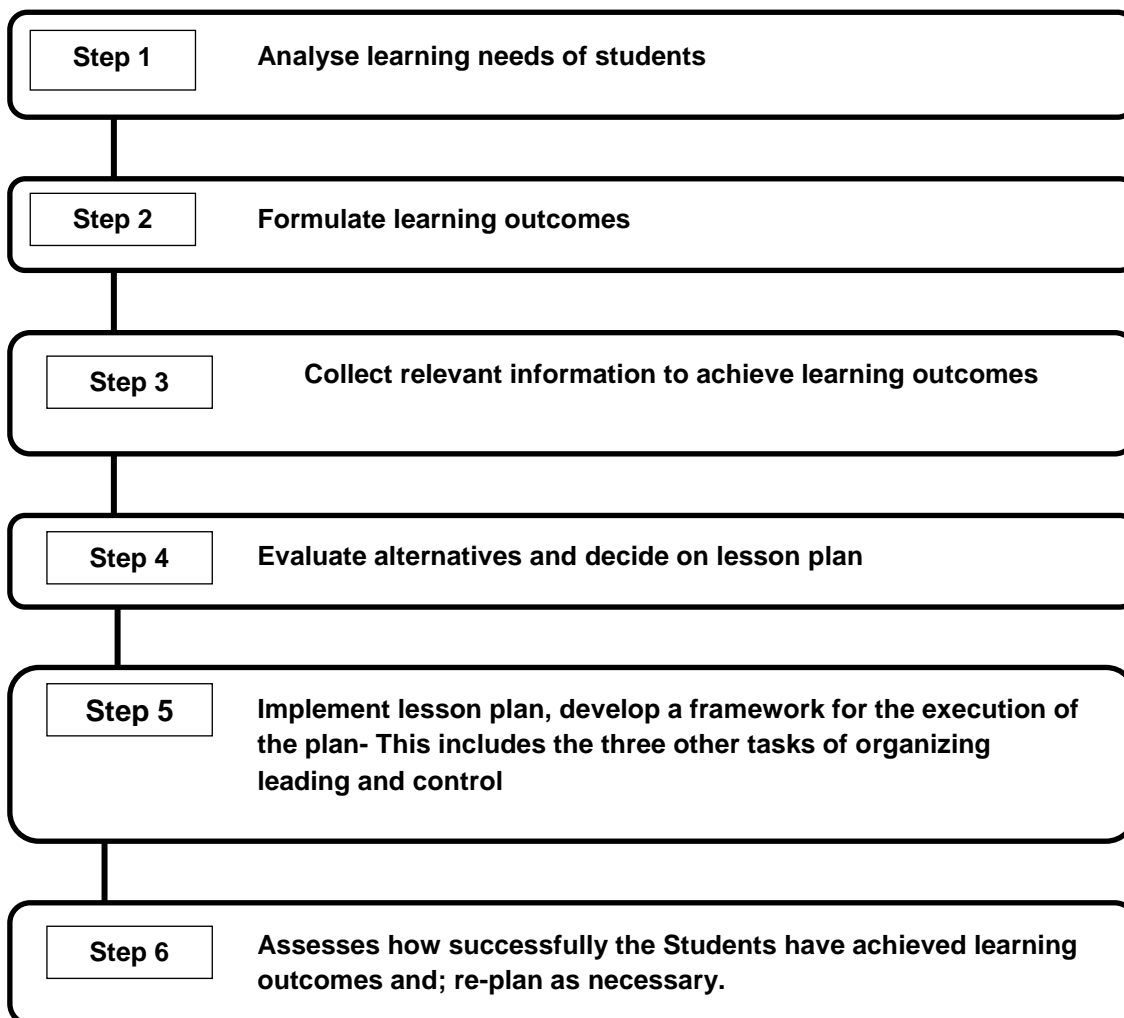
Planning function is necessary in classroom management efforts because it involves information gathering: This could be by way of the teacher reviewing the topic to be taught, study the exercises, questions and problems from the textbook, skills and content that must be learnt by the students. The teacher decides on the appropriate lesson objectives to be achieved in the lesson and thus set the goals. This could be done by designing activities to let student construct new knowledge, acquire practice skills and consolidate knowledge and formulate proper working plans - Classroom arrangement and methods of teaching, etc. and proper use of time: This is necessary in order to facilitate teaching (Kruger and van Schalkwyk, 1997:27-31). Wright and Choi (2006) found that greater part of teachers assumed that scores from high-stakes tests are of little use in planning instruction for English Language Learners (ELLs), although some teachers agreed that scores can be useful.

### ***3.6.1.1 Essentials of planning***

What is said about the planning process in the school is also applicable in the classroom. The only difference is that in classroom management teachers have to set the learning outcomes, because the learning process is based on end-product outcomes and is student-driven. The set outcomes are achieved by mastering and employing contextualised knowledge, skills, values and procedural steps. It is also important for teachers to think ahead and to decide on

the most appropriate outcomes for each lesson, how to achieve the outcomes and determine assessment criteria to measure if the students have achieved the outcomes.

Teacher's lesson planning is necessary as a primary and basic management function because it is the starting point of classroom management, makes teachers think ahead, helps teachers to obtain clarity on learning outcomes, teaching strategies and assessment criteria, and time aspects, promotes effective teaching and learning, provides an opportunity for considering alternative plans, lays the basis for the better utilisation of time, teaching and assessment strategies/methods, directs actions for teachers and students and; leads to better teamwork and co-operation in the classroom (University of Pretoria, 2008).



**Figure 3.4: Steps in classroom planning (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997, p.27)**

Some of the essentials of classroom policy (teaching methods/strategies and policy) are discussed below.

### ***3.6.1.2 Classroom teaching methods/strategies***

A teaching method as an element of planning is a particular technique that teachers use to help students gain the knowledge that they need to achieve in the teaching process. Therefore, a variety of teaching methods can be used to present teaching. Teaching strategy is a broad plan of action used when a teacher aims to achieve more than one learning outcome. Two common teaching approaches, which are contemporary, are the inductive and deductive strategies.

Specific examples are used to explain, e.g. a general rule, law, principle of definition when the inductive approach is used. When the deductive approach is used, a general rule, law, principle or definition is stated and examples are cited for clarification. Within a strategy, there are methods, media student activities and learning content (Mahaye and Jacobs, 2004:175). Teaching methods are means to an end in classroom teaching learning process, and not an end in themselves, because they serve as a means towards the achievement of learning outcomes. The implication of learning methodological norm enables teachers' practice of teaching to be evaluated against learning objectives/outcomes that a teacher sought for students ([station05.qc.ca/css/cybersite/reach-out/strategies/teaching.htm](http://station05.qc.ca/css/cybersite/reach-out/strategies/teaching.htm)).

If the right teaching method is not used in large classes, it is assumed that the rights of the students in terms of participation during the teaching process are limited and the multiplier effect is that the academic achievement of the students may be at stake. therefore, "highly qualified and engaged teachers passionately believe that they make a difference, because of their teaching practices and personal concern for their students" (Calabrese, Goodvin and Niles, 2005: 437-449). The "strongest message emerging from the review of studies is that class sizes do not matter. This has led some to argue that class size reductions are unimportant and that the issue is more to do with changing teaching approaches" (O' Sullivan, 2006:24-37).

Teaching methods/strategies are also an essential part of planning and teachers' leadership styles are related to their teaching approaches (Oregon State University, 2002:1-20). Also,



stressing the need for effective teaching, Clark and Starr (1991) note that if the strategies and techniques that will lead to objectives of teaching are not used, the goals of teaching will never be achieved. They added that as learning activities are selected, many strategies and techniques to choose from abound. Amongst them are clarifying students' ideas, showing students how to do things (demonstration), affecting or changing attitudes, ideals and appreciation, living security, motivating and set inducting, evaluating and measuring, guiding or directing students' work, arousing, directing, or assuaging emotions and creating room for critical and creative thinking.

Grosser (2007:37-52) argues that the teacher becomes a strategist who constantly makes decisions about the substance of instruction and particular procedures needed to acquire a function. Teaching strategies for teaching large classes are necessary in order for the teacher to keep different groups of students along during classroom interactions, which further promote student learning (Creemers and Kyriakids, 2006:347-366). Thus, a teacher must not only teach content to students, but also the functions required by engaging with that content in order to make learning effective, meaningful, integrated and transferable (O' Sullivan, 2006:24-37).

The findings of Pickens and Eick (2009:349-362) confirm that "students benefit from a positive learning environment with high expectations for their achievement, because teachers made strong attempts at linking their curriculum to the world and to the interests of their students through connections to the media and through practical applications and uses of concepts. The results also suggest that students responded to teacher overtures of care, support, and praise that built up their self-confidence".

O' Sullivan's (2006:24-37) experiment highlights areas with "implications for effective teaching and learning in large classes and concluded that the following strategies could be employed for effective teaching in large classes in developing country contexts. They are, effective questioning, wise use of instructional time, positive student teacher relationships and atmosphere in the class, provision of feedback by teachers, good planning of learning experiences and the use of appropriate pace. For example, monitoring of students when they were working in groups or individually, reliance on a rote learning whole-class teaching approach to elicit prior knowledge and that enables the teacher to provide oral input as students repeat and then copy the facts into their exercise books". Moreover, the essence of

these strategies are “to elicit prior knowledge, to explain and conduct feedback and ask students questions. Effective teaching is framed within contextual and realistic factors, that is, what will feasibly bring about learning within the realities with which the teachers’ work. With relativity to the lesson or subject taught, Sullivan (2006:24-37) however inferred and suggested as panacea in the literature for effectively teaching large classes”. They are two generic and basic teaching strategies such as the Cooperative/Collaborative/Group-Work and Active/Whole Class Teaching strategies. These two methods of teaching large classes are elaborately discussed below (O’ Sullivan, 2006:24-37).

- **Co-operative learning/collaborative teaching strategy**

Co-operative Learning is a “systematic pedagogical strategy that encourages small groups of students to work together for the achievement of a common goal. The term ‘collaborative learning’ is often used as a synonym for cooperative learning when, in fact, it is a separate strategy that encompasses a broader range of group interactions such as developing learning communities, stimulating student/faculty discussions and encouraging electronic exchanges. However, both approaches stress the importance of teachers and student involvement in the learning process. When utilizing integrating cooperative or collaborative learning strategies, careful planning and preparation are essential and this involves understanding how to form groups, ensure positive interdependence, maintain individual accountability, resolution of group conflict, developing appropriate assignments, grading criteria, and managing active learning environments are critical to the achievement of a successful cooperative learning experience” ([www.gmu.edu/facstaff/part-time/strategy](http://www.gmu.edu/facstaff/part-time/strategy)).

Furthermore, co-operative strategy of teaching encourages students to actively participate in discussions and to be involved in their learning rather than passively wait for the teacher to bestow knowledge on them. Language and cognitive development of the students are also enhanced and their academic achievement improves ([www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4](http://www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4)). Cooperative teaching method will not only help students to develop language communication skills through interactions and collaboration with his or her peers, but also allow students the experience of cooperation during teaching and learning (Ning, 2007:66-69, Kutnick and Berdondini, 2008:71-94).

Studies indicate that students in small co-operative groups gain significantly higher achievement on the total test in English Language compared to those in the teacher led (whole class teaching) learning environment ([www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4](http://www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4)). Specifically the findings of Marzano, Pickering and Pollock (2001) reveal a considerable effect size for cooperative learning in a synthesis of research on instructional strategies across grade levels and subject areas using experimental design. The result is consistent with the view that one of the basic requirements for effective language teaching is, reward structures and carefully structured interactions ([www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4](http://www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4)).

“Although some scholars view collaborative and cooperative learning as positioned on a continuum from the most structured (cooperative) to the least structured (collaborative) and some other authors use the terms, cooperative and collaborative inter-changeably to mean students working interdependently on a common learning task. However, cooperative and collaborative learning are complementary, but there are some important differences between the two in terms of their goal. The goal of cooperative learning is to work together in harmony and mutual support to find solutions to classroom exercises but the goal of collaborative learning is to develop autonomous, articulate, thinking students; even if at times such a goal encourages dissent and competition that seems to demean the ideals of cooperative learning and; while cooperative education may be appropriate for children, collaborative learning is more appropriate for college students” ([www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4](http://www.knjc.tw/admn/aa/publish/pic-1/book/3/4)).

- **Active/whole-class teaching**

In interactive whole class teaching, “there is high quality and direct oral teaching and it is usually interactive and lively. It is a two-way process in which students are expected to play an active part by answering questions, contributing points to discussions, explaining and demonstrating their methods to the class”. It also allows for a socio-constructivist approach to teaching in which students construct new knowledge that they validate within the social context of the classroom, bringing something of themselves to the teaching-learning process and not merely acting as passive recipients of assumed facts of the teacher (Tanner, Jones, Kennewell and Beauchamp, 2005:720-728).

Whole-class teaching based on interaction can provide dialogue (Jones and Tanner, 109-115) between the teacher and the student, depending on the degree of teacher/student

control and the nature of the interaction. In whole class teaching, the teacher believes in his or her students and makes it possible for them to enhance effective learning by providing the chance for more interactions in daily classes. On the other hand, whole class interactive teaching does not rule out the effective use of group-work and other forms of teaching (Zhou, 2010).

Whole class teaching also allows for group/team work. Group/team work is recommended as a way of teaching English Language, because “it is useful not only for the teacher to observe students, but also for the students to cooperate and learn from one-another. When a good student works with poor students, the student can be a source of language knowledge for the group/team. Other hand, the teacher may form group/teams of weaker and stronger students separated from one-another and give different tasks to these groups. Thus the better and quicker students work with more complicated tasks; whereas the poor students deal with a simpler task or work with the teacher as a group/team member” (Peng, 2006:74-78).

Studies show that learning “is enhanced when students become actively involved in the learning process. Instructional strategies that engage students in the learning process stimulate critical thinking and a greater awareness of other perspectives, therefore, teaching strategies should obviously be matched with the teaching objectives of a particular lesson” ([www.gmu.edu/facstaff/part-time/strategy](http://www.gmu.edu/facstaff/part-time/strategy)). Carpenter’s (2006:13-22) findings indicate that most students desire to be active in the classroom teaching learning process. Furthermore, Calvin and Chumba (2011) found that teacher’s influence on the mastery of language, skill on lesson planning, presentation skill, was high, hence pupils’ academic performance was high and; that is concurrent with Atanda and Jaiyeola (2011:93-99) who established that the quality of instruction has a significant contribution to students’ achievement in English Language. He continued that “active and collaborative teaching methods examined in this study are not only desirable for many students, but they also appear to produce significant improvement in terms of learning outcomes”.

### **3.6.2 Classroom policy**

Policy-making goes with classroom planning and those policies that go with teaching in the classroom are according to Evertson and Emmer (2009:23-29), referred to as policy rules. For example, all students must be prepared at all times and this must be done by letting them

acknowledge the importance of having the right materials, as well as the mental attitude to be successful in school work. They must listen quietly while others are speaking and raise a hand and wait to be called on if a question or comment is to be raised. They must listen carefully when a teacher or another student is talking and the teacher must define how much noise is acceptable when they are asking their neighbour or friend questions during lesson presentation.

The classroom is an organisation and the people who are part of it must know what is expected of them in various situations. Policy formulation is the management function that sets guidelines for behaviour according to which objectives can be realised. By means of a classroom policy, teachers use rules and procedures to regulate all aspects of the classroom environment and all the actions and behaviour within the classroom. A classroom policy ensures co-operation and order so that teaching and learning may take place effectively. The most important requirement of a policy is that, it should give clear guidelines to everyone concerned – that is, to the teacher as well as for the students (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:49).

Because classroom policy is a means of accomplishing teaching and learning outcomes, it should clearly reflect the aims (short-term) and outcomes (long-term) for which the class is striving. It must be consistent and flexible. That is, it must be possible to adapt the policy when situation change, it must be put in writing and pinned up on a notice board in the classroom, it must be explained to the students – the students must be familiar with its contents. More so, it must be acceptable to the majority to facilitate decision-making on certain matters and make provision for class rules and procedures.

Because classroom policy serves as a general guideline for behaviour in the classroom, it should include all aspects of classroom activities, such as teaching, student behaviour, homework, student leadership, parent involvement and finances. More so, it should include matters such as task allocation, class decoration, the neatness of the classroom and respect for property can also be included (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997, 50).

### 3.6.3 Classroom organizing

Once classroom plans have been completed, efforts should be made to take steps to put those plans in operation, hence, the need for organizing. It is usually done by arrangement and allocation of duties, responsibilities and authority to people (Students) and determining the relationship between them. This could be by way of assigning student class leadership and defining the relationship between them and other class members (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:27-31). Tagliacollo, Volpato and Junior (2010:198-201) found a significant between students' position in classroom and school performance and absenteeism in class. That is, students who sit far from the board had lower performance and higher percentage of absence from the school. On the other hand, the best performing students were more frequent in the school and usually sit at the front position of the classroom.

Based on Teacher Effectiveness Research (TER), Creemers and Kyriakids (2006:347-366) state that “effective teachers are expected to help students to use strategies and/or develop their own strategies which can help them solve different types of problems. As a result of this, it is more likely that students will develop skills that help them to organize their own learning (e.g., self-regulation, active learning)”.

Smit and Cronje (1999:209) stress that organizing is the function most visible and directly concerned with the systematic co-ordination of many tasks of the school or classroom and consequently, of formal relationships between the people who perform the tasks. Through classroom organisation, it is decided who does what, determines the responsibility for various actions, how the classroom floor plan is organized and developing relationships on the class, which has to do with the teachers and students. Similarly, classroom organisation is about, who gets the work done as the teacher wants it to be done? Who does what? (defining responsibilities, building structures and developing relations) which resources to use for practical and effectiveness of what should be done? And when should it be done? (Van der Westhuizen, 1997:161).

Classroom organisation can also include the physical arrangements of furniture in the class. Schmuck and Schmuck (1997:153-155) cited in Kitshoff (2006) states that the physical arrangement of a classroom impacts on effective communication. The seating arrangement and proximity of students to the teacher affects the communication in the class and students

who sit more to the middle facing the front of the class will participate more freely in the classroom activities. In addition, students who are seated to the side or the back may feel they are not important and a marked reduction in their classroom communication can be observed. Proper classroom organisation also allows for arrangement of teaching materials or resources in a way that facilitates movement around the room for students as well as the teacher and finally, organizing lesson parts into coherent sequence by outlining the main components in order to be adequately prepared for lesson presentation.

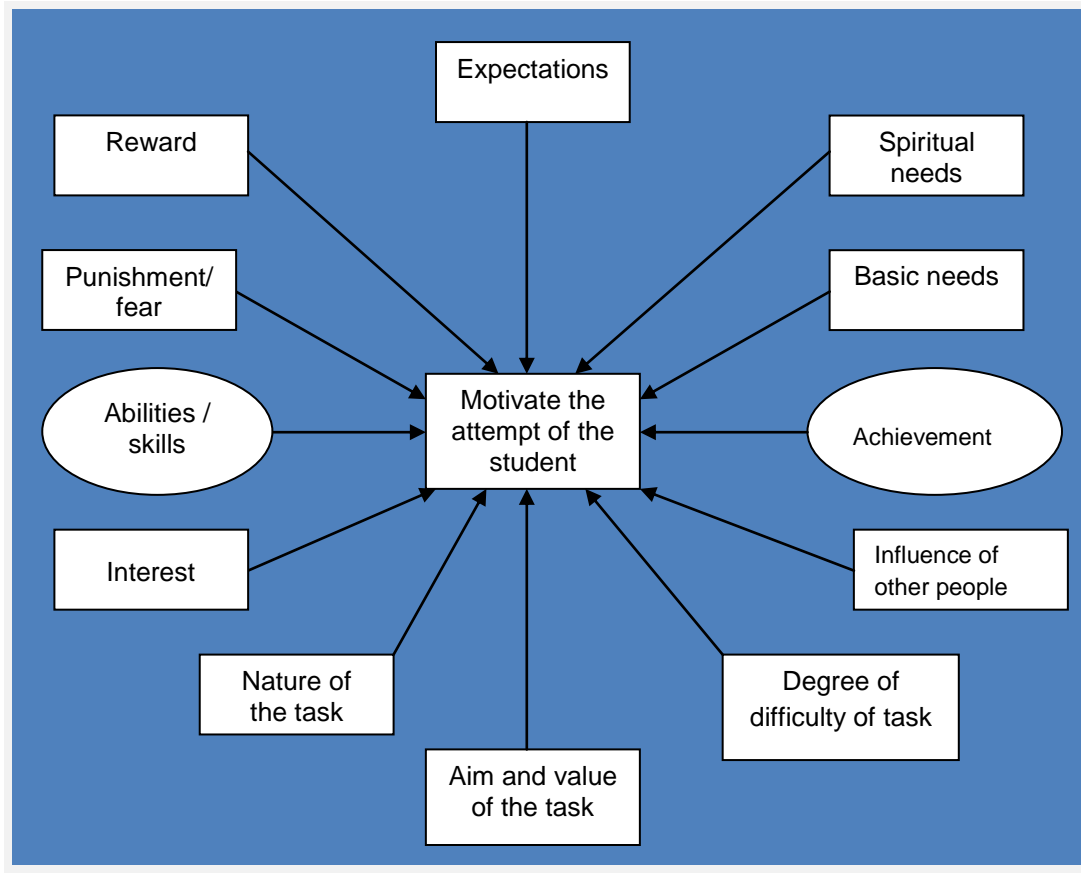
Findings of the research of Laiqa, Shah and Khan(2011:706-711) elucidates that overall building condition contributes to student academic achievement whereby, students feel more comfortable in classrooms where they can easily maintain a social distance from their teachers and that affect their learning ability.

### **3.7 Classroom management: Motivation and communication**

#### **3.7.1 Motivation**

Pickens and Eick (2009:349-362) define student motivation as “a significant challenge encountered by virtually every high school teacher. It is essential to engage students in achievement-oriented goal behaviours that lead to success in the school”, even more than the knowledge of the content being taught (Bartholomew, 2007:81-86). Pickens and Eick (2009:349-362) reports a research finding indicating that an increase motivation leads to improved cognitive, behavioural uprightness and ultimately conceptual understanding. “Exceptional teachers guide students and colleagues to greatness by inspiring them to discover where their talents and passions intersect. Specifically, teachers inspire students by channelling students’ energy and passion toward their strengths” (Bowman, 2007:81-86).

The question however is, what motivates students? To answer this very important question, Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1993:68-70) identify several motives. They are discussed below.



**Figure 3.5: Motivational motives (Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1993:68-70)**

**Spiritual and noble needs:** These needs are not naturally present in all people, but are cultivated by means of education and aroused by faith and religion. This type of need takes the form of obligations, responsibilities and ‘calling’. The need for neighbourly love, to see justice done, to protect the honour of others, to protect lives, possessions and relationships and to be loyal and helpful are all examples of spiritual and noble needs which motivate people to act.

**Expectations and aspirations:** Expectations are future-oriented and are essentially the hopes people have to receive something for their actions (a reward) or to attain something (an achievement). People are motivated if they think they will achieve what they want. Therefore, there is a direct relationship between the action and the expectation of reward. That is, greater the expectation of being rewarded, the better the attempt will be. Thus, students normally achieve according to the expectations of their teachers and parents.



**Reward:** People are motivated to act if they are rewarded for it; however, the reward must have sufficient value. The higher the value of the reward, the greater the attempt will be.

**Punishment and fear:** The fear of punishment makes people fulfil their obligations or act according to rules and regulations. Punishment and fear are negative forms of motivation. The fact that people may be punished for offences motivates them, for example, motivation to obey the laws of the country or traffic regulations so that one is not punished by the law. The fear of punishment is not a real motivational tool, because it is not useful in teaching students about values.

**Abilities and skills:** If people have the ability to do something, they are more willing to act than if they do not have the skill. Intellect, experience, knowledge and skills motivate people to act. The teacher should do everything possible to build and develop students' self-esteem and abilities.

**Interest:** People do not easily carry out a task in which they are not interested. The greater the interest in a matter, the better the motivation will be to carry it out.

**The nature of a task:** Interesting and challenging tasks motivate people to undertake them.

**The aim and value of a task:** A task which is worth being undertaken will motivate people to act. Hence, people generally do not want to waste their time on useless and worthless tasks.

**The degree of difficulty of a task:** A task which is too difficult is not readily undertaken. In turn, a task which is too easy may not provide enough challenge and may bore some people.

**Other people's influence:** If teachers have realistic, but challenging expectations for students, it may motivate them to achieve according to the expectation. If students are aware of the expectations of teachers, friends and family, they may decide not to disappoint them, thus try harder to achieve.

A person's attempt to carry out a task as well as the quality of its execution is influenced by different motives. The more favourable the motives, the better the performance will be. Broussard and Garrison (2004:106-120) findings on motivation of young children in the

classroom indicate that there is a significant relationship between motivation and achievement in young children based on intrinsic motivation. That is, as intrinsic motivation increased academic achievement increased.

### **3.7.2 Classroom communication**

Rue and Byars (2007:40) conceptualize communication as a process of interaction between individuals that involves sending and receiving of messages (Verbal or non-verbal). The basic purpose of communication is to transmit information (Rue and Byars, 2004:40). An event or condition brings about the need to share information. Therefore, the sender creates a message (encodes) and communicates it verbally, non-verbally or both and the receiver then in turn interpret (decodes) the message and creates a reply message (feedback) as a response to it. If the reply message generates a response by the initial sender, it implies that the process may continue in the fashion of interaction.

Wall (2006:71-94) states that learning crucially depends on communication and found that if nothing is gestured, said or written down, no activity is undertaken, that is, communication cannot occur and learning cannot take place. Gestures and bodily action can inform, supplement or replace speech in interpersonal communication. Research supports the use of gesture is likely to be useful in improving classroom practice and teacher pedagogy.

Karadag and Caliskan (2009:1-6) conclude that “in order for a teacher to provide interaction with his/her students, a teacher should be democratic, lovable, patient and reliable balanced, have a sense of humour and the ability to use different channels of communication, because an effective learning-teaching process cannot work without communicating. The more a teacher forms a shared common life area, the more an effective learning-teaching process is formed through the quest to know what background different students come from”.

Frymier (2005:197-212) findings indicate that students who are more effective communicators through involvement, responsive and assertive and out-of-class communication generally demonstrate superior effective learning indicators, assert motivation to study and exhibit greater satisfaction of communication with their instructor during classroom teaching activities. It also showed that students who engaged in more interaction involvement in the

classroom received higher grades. The higher grades were and that was associated with learning, motivation, and satisfaction with communication.

From the above, teacher motivation results in the engagement of students in the teaching process and the result of this, there occurs conceptual of teaching resulting by the student through teacher's care, support, praise, use of proper gesture and effective communication by the teacher.

### **3.8 Classroom management: Classroom climate and culture**

#### **3.8.1 Classroom climate**

Lipnevich and Smith (2008:34-40) describe classroom climate as the main feature of the atmosphere, ethos or milieu of the learning environment in which students acquire or fail to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes. "These knowledge, skills and attitudes are deemed relevant to their education and social development. Although there is no precise consensus on what constitutes a positive classroom climate, its features include what may be termed "a supportive classroom environment" in which students feel personally supported and respected by teachers. The students and students consequently enjoy positive relationships with their peers in the class". A positive classroom climate is one that is stimulating, task-oriented and orderly. The quality of the classroom climate is seen as determined largely by the contributions made by the teacher and also the profile of students attending the class.

Stornes, Bru and Idsoe (2008:315-329) demonstrate that "integral to the achievement-goal approach is the construct of motivational climate. A motivational climate implies perceptions of how success is defined in an achievement setting. This necessarily involves perceptions of priorities and values. In this way the motivational climate could be viewed as a cultural aspect of the learning environment. The term motivational climate refers to students' perceptions of motivational goals and purposes present among teachers and fellow students. Students may perceive that teachers and fellow students emphasize attainment of competence or ability, through efforts trying to improve and develop skills.

These efforts are according to the students' individual capabilities (a mastery of motivational climate) and/or emphasize attainment of competence or ability, by social comparison in competition among peers (a performance motivational climate)". Furthermore, results from the study of Stornes, Bru and Idsoe (2008:315-329) indicate that "the social classroom structure may influence the motivational climate, implying that a teacher who involves him/herself emphatically with each student may facilitate a mastery of motivation during teaching and learning".

### **3.8.2 Classroom culture**

Culture is the "social and inter-generational glue that defines, connects, sustains and enriches the members of successful communities - including schools and classrooms. A classroom culture is a psychological atmosphere that nurtures and shapes students' attitudes about their own identity, classes, school and learning in general. Classroom culture helps to shape students' collective personality and spirit, sustains particular habits of thinking and working. It channels the student group's behaviour in a specific direction and helps a teacher to build a culture that transmits healthy values, habits and behaviour to students, which eventually helps them to excel" (Major, 2009:24-28).

The initial findings by Crick, McComb, Hadden, Bradfoot and Tew (2007:267-307), which was based on the exclusive use of a designed Effective Lifelong Learning Inventory (ELLI) assessment tool to assess an individual's learning power "indicates that the assessment tool (ELLI), was not sufficient for the creation of a learning culture in a classroom. They however found other variables that have an impact on the development of learning power, which include the quality of relationships between students and their teachers, the nature of the curriculum, the emotional climate of the classroom, the forms of pedagogy engaged in by teachers and the quality and nature of educational leadership further help in the creation of a learning culture in the classroom".

Furthermore, Crick, McComb, Hadden, Bradfoot and Tew (2007:267-307) research indicates that "student learning power profiles were highest with teachers who were high in terms of their students' insight of their levels of student-centred practices. Moreover, the students experience highest levels of motivation, learning power and feelings of emotional safety in the school".

The relationship between school culture and climate differs for various groups of students, depending on their age level. For instance, students in the Foundation Phase would not differentiate between school and classroom culture as they spend most of their time in the same classroom (Kruger and Steinmann, 2003:15). As students grow older and start to go to different classrooms for different learning areas or subjects, they differentiate more between school climate and classroom climate. Therefore, personality and teaching style of the teacher also begins to play a role. Kruger and Steinmann (2003:15) also suggest that if enough classrooms with positive climates exist in a school, they would contribute towards a positive whole school climate.

Similar to school culture, classroom culture is related to aspects such as a set of values and norms which reflect the communication and behaviour of everybody in the classroom. Classroom culture emphasis are also evident in the classroom management philosophy of the teacher. In a classroom where individual needs and differences are accepted, where student has a feeling of being wanted and appreciated, where the core social values of justice, tolerance, concern for human dignity and mutual respect are acknowledged, respected, promoted and fulfilled, a positive climate will be created in which effective teaching and learning can take place. By using their knowledge, skills and specific behaviour, effective teachers can ensure the creation of effective learning environments in their classrooms. In such environments, well-managed students experience maximum opportunities to learn and can rely on the teacher to create a sense of security and order in the classrooms. They can also create opportunities to participate actively in the classroom, in order to make it an interesting and exciting place (Steinmann, 2003:17-18).

### **3.9 Classroom control**

Control as defined in terms of students' discipline is one of the key characteristics of school effectiveness. Discipline focuses on the creation of and maintenance of a culture of teaching and learning (Joubert and Prinsloo, 2009:36). Eshel and Kohavi (2003:249-260) confirm that that forward that "classroom control is determined by two factors, namely that teacher control over learning and opportunities for self-directed learning extended to students by the teacher. Classroom control structure has often been defined in terms of a single dimension running from teacher control to student autonomy".

In furtherance of the definition of classroom control, Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997:44) quote Johnson and Brooks (1979) as follows:

*Control has to do with determining whether or not the intentions embodied in plans, policies and rules are being carried out properly and successfully. Thus it encompasses evaluating and monitoring activities of teachers that are directed at assuring that students are learning, doing their assigned tasks, reaching their group goals and adhering to the norms of the school and classroom.*

With reference to control in the classroom, Marzano and Marzano (2003:6-18) conceptualize control as “providing clear consequences for unacceptable behaviour and teacher actions that recognize and reward acceptable behaviour. Furthermore, important of classroom management activities such as the arrangement and positioning of the classroom to give room for an environment conducive to effective management, identification and; implementation of operating rules and processes”. Also, in a recent report of meta-analysis of more than 100 studies, Marzano and Marzano by (2003:6-18) indicates that the between quality of relationship between teachers and students is a foundation on which other classroom management function stand and succeed. Moreover, their analysis indicates that on average, teachers who had high-quality relationships with their students had 31 per cent fewer disciplinary problems, rule violations and related problems over a period of year than those teachers who did not have high-quality relationships with their students.

Furthermore, Marzano and Marzano (2003:6-18) express that fair relationship between the teacher and the student have no relationship with their personality, rather, the most influential teacher-teacher behaviour are indicated by specific behaviour such as, the exhibition of appropriate level of dominance, cooperation, well-being and exclusive needs of the students as explained below:

### **Appropriate levels of dominance**

Dominance is defined as the teacher's ability to provide clear purpose and strong guidance regarding both academic and student behaviour. When asked about their preferences for teacher behaviour, students typically express a desire for this type of behaviour during teacher-student interaction. Teachers can exhibit appropriate dominance by establishing clear behaviour expectations and learning goals and by exhibiting assertive behaviour.

## **Establish clear expectations and consequences**

Teachers can establish clear expectations for behaviour in two ways namely; by establishing clear rules and procedures and by providing consequences for student behaviour. Along with well-designed and clearly communicated rules and procedures, the teacher must acknowledge students' behaviour, reinforce acceptable behaviour and provide negative consequences for unacceptable behaviour.

Teachers must also strategically establish effective relationships with the students through the practice of a wide variety of verbal and physical reactions to curb students' misbehaviour. For example, moving closer to offending students and using a physical cue such as, putting a finger to the lips, pointing out inappropriate behaviour, indicating expected behaviours to students through pre-arranged signals such as; raising a hand to indicate that all students should take their seats, providing tangible recognition of appropriate behaviour, for example, with tokens or chits, employing group contingency policies that ensure that entire groups of students are held responsible for behavioural expectations, employing rewards and sanction techniques.

## **Exhibit assertive behaviour**

Assertive behaviour is the ability to stand up for one's legitimate rights in ways that make it less likely that others will ignore or circumvent them. Assertive behaviour differs significantly from both passive behaviour and aggressive behaviour. Teachers can also communicate appropriate levels of dominance by exhibiting assertive behaviour. They can do this by maintaining an erect posture, facing the offending student, but keeping enough distance so as not to appear threatening, matching the facial expression with the content of the message being presented to students, using appropriate tone of voice e.g., speaking clearly and deliberately in a manner that is slightly, but not greatly elevated from normal classroom speech, avoiding any display of emotion in the voice, persistence until students respond with the appropriate behaviour - that is, must not ignore any inappropriate behaviour and should not be diverted by a student denial, argument, or blame, but must listen to legitimate explanations.

### **Appropriate levels of cooperation**

Cooperation focuses on the students and teacher functioning as a team. The interaction of these two dynamics - dominance and cooperation - is a central force in effective teacher-student relationship. Although not the antithesis of dominance, cooperation certainly occupies a different realm and it is characterized by a concern for the needs and opinions of others, whereas dominance focuses on the teacher as the driving force in the classroom.

### **Provide flexible learning goals**

This is done by giving students the opportunity to set their own objectives at the beginning of a teaching or asking students what they would like to learn by providing flexible learning goals, which convey a sense of co-operation to them. This increases students' understanding of the topic, conveys the message that the teacher cares about them and tries to accommodate students' interests.

### **Take a personal interest in students**

Although busy teachers, particularly those at the secondary level do not have the time for extensive interaction with all students, some other teacher's actions can communicate personal interest and concern without taking up much time. Good examples are the following: talking informally with students before, during and after class about their interests; greet students outside of the school for example, at extra-curricular events or at the store; single out a few students each day in the lunch room and talk with them; be aware of and comment on important events in students' lives, such as participation in sport, drama or other extracurricular activities; compliment students on important achievements in and outside of school; meet students at the door as they come into class and greet each one by name.

### **Use equitable and positive classroom behaviours**

Teacher expectations and student achievement programmes emphasize the importance of the subtle ways in which teachers can communicate their interest in students. This program recommends many practical strategies that emphasize equitable and positive classroom interactions with all students by, for example, making eye contact with each student by



scanning the entire room as they speak and by freely moving about in all parts of the room; deliberately moving toward and standing close to each student during the class period; making sure that the seating arrangement allows the teacher and students clear and easy ways to move around the room; attribute the ownership of ideas to the students who initiated them during teaching; allow and encourage all students to participate in class discussions and interactions; make sure to call on students who do not commonly participate, but not just those who respond most frequently to provide appropriate waiting time for all students to respond to questions, regardless of their past performance or your perception of their abilities.

### **Awareness of high-needs students**

Most effective classroom managers did not treat all students in the same way. They tend to employ different strategies with different types of students. In contrast, ineffective classroom managers did not appear sensitive to the diverse needs of students.

### **Do not leave relationships to chance**

Teacher-student relationships provide an essential foundation for effective classroom management and classroom management is a key to high student achievement. Teacher-student relationships should not be left to chance or dictated by the personalities of those involved. Instead, by using strategies supported by research, teachers can influence the dynamics of their classrooms and build strong teacher-student relationships that will support student learning.

Maphosa and Mammen (2011:213-222) found in their research that verbal reprimands, demotion, sending students out of class, kneeling on the floor and denial of privileges were most common disciplinary measures utilized by teachers to deal with students problems of discipline in the classroom. Corporal punishment was also practised in some of the school teachers despite the fact that it has been outlawed. Moreover, the findings of Agbeyenga (2006:107-122) found that some of the reasons behind corporal punishment usage by teachers in school were intended to advance academic levels, standard and; motivate the students, and establish a close relationship and cooperation with parents of the students in terms of discipline.

### 3.9.1 Monitoring

Monitoring is the action by which the teacher's awareness of what is actually happening in the day-to-day teaching practices. It allows the teacher to consider and improve his/her practice, understanding of his or her practice and the situation or environment in which the practice takes place (Moyles, 1992). Hence, the academic support rendered to students by teachers in terms of monitoring and emotional support may be seen as the three relevant characteristic of competence in measuring classroom leadership classroom (Ertesvag, 2009:515-535). The findings of Kalis, Vannest and Parker (2007:20-27) maintains that the use of support and self-monitoring in increasing teaching practice effectiveness (e.g. praise), is an effective instrument that may help in monitoring or transforming the behaviour of teachers in the classroom.

By monitoring the learning environment in the classroom, the teacher can establish what works well and which areas need slight adjustments, in order to be effective. Creemers and Kyriakids, (2006:347-366) contend that "once the students are released to work independently, effective teachers circulate to monitor progress and provide help and feedback and specifically provide constructive feedback, has positive implications for teaching and learning".

Eshel and Kohavi (2003:249-260) also found that maintaining the high level of teacher control and close monitoring of learning in class are more likely to have additive effect students' academic achievement, through improved learning. They also emphasize the significance of personal efficacy to effect change through the use of capabilities, as other basis for higher academic performance. The "instruction, motivation and behaviours of the teachers can be greatly influenced by the mechanisms of assessment, feedback and reinforcement, but Sun, Creemers and de Jong (2005: 93-122) contrarily disagree that regular assessment of student achievement is also an important condition for achieving curricular goals". However, based on a meta-analysis of past teaching effectiveness research studies, Seidel and Shavelso (2007:454-499) found that among motivational (affective) outcomes, regulation and monitoring of teaching was one of the highest ranked factors, notwithstanding domain specific activities, social experiences and time for learning.

### 3.9.2 Assessment and assessment feedback

Assessment focuses on the 'ends' of learning in terms of what the student has achieved at a particular point (Van der Horst and McDonald, 1997:170). Therefore, it helps teachers to know the next thing to do, for instance, change instructions, revisit an idea or give students the opportunity to revise their work. Assessment is a strategy for measuring knowledge, behaviour, values or attitudes, because the strength of assessment feedback is always aimed to "drive" the students toward (often unknown) goals or to "do more" or "do better" (Hattie and Timperley, 2007:81-112). Assessment is an achievement data-gathering strategy and therefore used for making decisions about the success of students and instruction (Taylor and Nolen, 2005).

When a teacher creates a test that is used to determine whether students have learnt what a teacher wants them to learn, it is referred to as assessment. The tool of assessment is known as test and the answers to the questions teachers ask concerning assessment are called, assessment feedback (Taylor and Nolen, 2005). According Hattie and Timperley (2007: 81-112) "effective teaching does not exclusively involve imparting knowledge to the students; it also involves assessing and appraising the understanding of the information learnt by students so that the future teaching can be matched with the present knowledge of the students".

Moreover, teachers always limit students' chances to obtain evidence about their performance, in relation to what they have learnt in the classroom, they however establish that "positive feedback increases motivation relative to negative feedback for a task that people 'want to do' and decreases motivation relative to negative feedback for a task that people have to do".

Brookhart (2005:429-458) categorized assessment into informal and formative assessment patterns and they discuss how each contributed to teachers' instruction. Informal assessments can be used for sizing up student' skills and knowledge and also, to monitor whether students understand what they are supposed to be doing in an assignment given; to assess students' progress towards a learning objective or final performance. During teaching, performance assessment can take the form of walking around and listening to students, observing them to obtain a sense of whether they understand the task or underlying concept

you are teaching. Thus, if problem arises the teacher can quickly step in to explain or provide direction (Taylor and Nolen, 2005).

Furthermore, formative assessment is designed to find out whether students have misconceptions that need to be challenged, so that students can move to the next level of understanding. Teachers who are focused on students learning of skills use assessment to find out what students can do and cannot do, so that they can determine what to teach next. For example, teachers may look at students' use of the writing process to see where they can improve in generating ideas, organisation of ideas and in the use of revision skills to elaborate on ideas and so on. They can then intervene by giving each student the tool needed to develop their skills further (Taylor and Nolen, 2005). Nevertheless, In addition Cakmak (2009:395-408) found that large classes limit the use of distinct evaluation techniques, because it is not only difficult to observe the children that lack understanding of the subject being taught, but also those students who do understand.

Feedback is delivered from a teacher to a student and it is based on interpersonal communication (Lipnevich and Smith, 2008:2). Teachers, parents, school management and departmental officials should be involved in assessment Teachers assess students' progress by monitoring how they fare in the classroom activities. Teachers can assess in a number of ways, for example, giving marks or symbols for activities, tests, examinations, general comments on activities. The SMLT conduct class visit to monitor record books and moderate tests and examinations. They can also organize or facilitate assessment workshops for teachers (Marnewick and Rouhani, 2004:197).

Brookhart (2005:429-458) clarifies that "assessment strategies included using other tools such as teachers' records, using written tests, observing, questioning (of two types, oral testing and delving), getting a child to demonstrate, checking, listening, eavesdropping, marking, making a mental assessment note and gauging the level of assessing general level of understanding and judging individual progress. However, traditionally teachers used oral questioning, class or individual discussions, informal observations, commenting or marking work, behaviour, interaction, paper-pencil exercises and tests".

Jones and Jones (2001:193-194) state that students need to know how to assess their own participation in class to prevent them from becoming disillusioned and dropping out from

school if they perceive themselves as failures. They also state that teachers should discuss with the students what successful learning looks like. Once students assess themselves at the beginning of the year, teachers can always assess their own teaching and classroom management performance against a pre-planned performance “checklist” to see whether they are doing their best.

According to Marzano, Norwood, Paynter, Pickering and Gaddy (2001:187), assessment results can help the teacher to plan the next step in teaching and learning. The teacher who provides feedback ensures that assessment is effective by giving the students feedback between three to four days, after assessment and explaining incorrect responses or answers by the students.

By giving feedback this way, assessment will have a positive and constructive influence on students and only then, will students know what they have done and which areas need improvement, thus, teachers communicate students’ results to them after evaluating their class work. Written feedback makes students’ errors noticeable in a motivationally, favourable, and effective way (Brookhart, 2005:429-458). More so, Burnette (2001:5-16) found that students who perceived that their teachers frequently provided negative feedback in the classroom, related negatively with their teachers. On the other hand, satisfied students receive more general praise from their teachers in comparison to dissatisfied students.

Feedback allows for the reorientation of the teaching process and is closely related to the strengthening of students’ learning through, for example, rewards and sanctions (Sun, Creemers and de Jong (2005: 93-122). It also helps to establish whether students understand a presentation and this can be done by asking students to provide a written response to key questions and then check some or all of their answers either orally or by examining the written work (Evertson and Emmer, 2009:107). Moreover, an experimental study of Binglan and Jia (2010:18-34) established that the group that received specific corrections and marginal explanation in English Language composition gained significant improvement in writing accuracy performance results, compared to the control group who only received general comments.

The implication of feedback for assessment in the classroom is that it “provide information on and interpretations of the discrepancies between current status and the learning goals at any

of the three levels of tasks - processes or strategies to understand the tasks and regulation, engagement and confidence - to become more committed to learning” (Hattie and Timperley, 2007:81-112).

### **3.9.3 Reflection**

In reflective teaching, teachers critically examine their own actions and attitudes, which enable them to contemplate how they can improve on their actions and attitudes. It is about improving teachers’ practices in the classroom. In essence, data is collected on teachers’ lesson presentations; examine their individual attitude, principles, expectations and teaching practices, so that they can be used for critical reflections on their teaching practices (Jacobs, 2004:77).

Reflection can also be defined as a mind-set, a process, a tool or method that allows the teacher to develop and refine his or her classroom skills and develop a variety of teaching models and personal aspects of own teaching. Assessment data and subjective perception is used to reflect, to be able to make real improvement in class organisation. When reflecting during teaching and learning, the teacher does not have to take a best guess or make use of an informal hunch about what is best or not (Conzemius and O’Neill, 2001:ix).

The approval of reflection rests on the presupposition that it is good for teacher and even students and it however contributes towards school effectiveness and improvements, that is, as teachers become motivated to develop new teaching method and styles, they learn to connect teaching theory to practice. Thus, they become a critic of his or her own actions (Calitz, Fuglestad and Lillejord, 2002:45-46). Basically, reflection is not Reflection is not essentially helpful and may contribute more havoc than good if not well embraced (Tan, 2008: 225-23). This is because some teachers find it difficult to accept criticism of their behaviour and beliefs (Jacobs, 2004:81). Chamberlin (2009:22-35) found that teachers’ reflections were more aligned with their thoughts, experiences and understanding of teaching mathematics.

From the above as regards the different means of control in the classroom to ensure effective teaching and learning, it can be understood that student discipline is of prime importance. Discipline is ensured by stipulating and regulating the behaviour expected of students. That is

followed by the responsibility of the teacher to provide monitoring, assessment, and feedback to students during teaching. The teachers 'self-reflection of teaching is of prime importance. Monitoring is essential in order for the teacher to know whether the students are in tune with what is being taught. Monitoring can be done through regular assessment of students and providing them feedback on their performances concerning what is done in the class and expected of them. It is also clear that monitoring enhances teaching and learning in the classroom and thus influence student achievement.

The reflection of the teacher is done through sincere and honest self-evaluation of the teacher's teaching practices. An honest reflective practice enables the teacher to know his or her areas of weakness or strength and; to know how to work on the weaknesses so that there can be improvement in teaching and learning. The entire mentioned control processes enhances teaching and learning in the classroom and thus influence student achievement.

### **3.10 Conclusion**

Leadership in general and education management in particular are no longer the sole prerogative of the principal and other SLMT members. It has increasingly become the responsibility of every individual classroom or subject teacher. The education leader is responsible for classroom planning, setting learning outcomes, planning learning and assessment strategies; classroom organisation, classroom policy and monitoring of students, to ensure that they achieve the learning outcomes. However, the teacher as a leader is also responsible for setting the pace, giving direction, determining the academic standards and expectation and; creating a safe classroom environment in which students will be motivated to achieve their full potential.

There is a relationship between school climate and culture and classroom climate and culture. A positive school climate is one in which the students are assisted along a number of developmental pathways. In a teacher-student relationship that is characterized by caring, a positive school climate manifests itself listening, critical questioning, openness and a feeling of being cared for. In such a caring environment, students will be more willing to take risks. A positive climate will have the following positive effects on the teaching and learning in the classrooms: There will be a reduction of absenteeism and the drop-out rates, because students want to be at school, there is also an increased willingness on the part of the

teacher to take risks, step out of defined boundaries, make the classroom more exciting and challenging for students. Therefore, student motivation and the will to learn can also be promoted.

However, teachers can no longer pay attention merely to classroom processes via planning, efficiency, thoroughness, order and punctuality. Effective classroom management also requires taking into account the students as individuals, their emotional experiences and an understanding of the different backgrounds they come from in order to allow them to develop as individuals. Classroom management can therefore be seen as the sum of activities that are necessary to enable the core or main task of the teaching-learning situation to take place effectively. It is a means to the effective execution of teaching and learning task of the teacher through the control of teaching and learning. This is achieved by ensuring students' discipline, monitoring of learning, assessment and feedbacks and teacher's self-reflection of his or her teaching practices in order to attain objectives and goals of teaching.

In the next chapter, the research design and methodology of the study are discussed.