

## CHAPTER 3

### CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF TRADITIONAL CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse and discuss traditional classroom management from a modernist perspective. Modernist thought – which informs traditional education curriculum, with its emphasis on teacher-centredness, disciplinarity and one-directional transmission of knowledge - has been the dominant scientific paradigm for the last three centuries (Claassen, 1998a:34). According to Hargreaves (as quoted by Theron, 1996:71), modernity, is a social condition that is sustained by Enlightenment beliefs in rational scientific progress, in the triumph of technology over nature, and in the capacity to control and improve human condition by applying the wealth of scientific and technological understanding and expertise to social reform. Jordaan and Jordaan (1998:62) see modernity as faith in the progress of human reason, together with confidence in the unstoppable urge of human reason to solve the world's diverse problems in spheres of science, technology, medicine, economics and politics. The earliest signs of modernity were discernible in Western society as far back as the 16th century. Jordaan and Jordaan (1998:62) assert that modernism is underpinned by the following three cornerstones:

- demonstrations of *rationality-based certainty*;
- the possibility and eagerness *to create order from chaos*; and
- attempts *to free individuals from all bounds and limitations*.

#### 3.2 CONCEPTUALISING INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management is important to everyone connected with education (Good & Brophy, 1990:193). As Slavin (1994:389) points, in the past, classroom management has often been seen as an issue of dealing with individual behaviour. According to

Maphumulo and Vakalisa (2000:329), many theorists on the subject of classroom management agree that the best way to achieve a well-managed classroom proceeding is through advance planning which aims at preventing delays, distractions and disruptions. They maintain that classroom management does not discount possibility of learner disruptions that may demand action from the teacher to maintain discipline in the classroom.

### **3.2.1 The concept “instructionist”**

Instruction, according to Calitz (as quoted by Kruger, 1995a:43), entails the selection and the arrangement of learning content, setting the goals and objectives, the unfolding of knowledge, the transfer of skills and attitudes, and the provision of feedback to the pupils on their learning achievements. For Frazer, Loubser and van Rooy (1993:29), the concept *instruction* is associated with the transfer of knowledge, skills, techniques and proficiencies. Curzon (as quoted by Frazer *et al.*, 193:29) sees instruction as a system of activities to induce learning, comprising the deliberated and systematic creation and control of those in which learning does occur. Instruction, according to Driscoll (1994:332), is the deliberate arrangement of learning conditions to promote the attainment of some intended goals.

Johnson (2004:75) discusses instructionist theory and instructionist classroom practice. According to her, instructionism includes teaching practices such as lecturing, telling, showing and explaining. In addition, she maintains that it is characterized by whole-group instruction, learner inactivity, rewarding silence in the classroom, worksheet activities, textbook learning, rote memorisation and reliance on standardized testing; and it is based on an acquisition metaphor (i.e., learning is a matter of acquiring information) and a transmission model. In contemporary educational contexts, instructionism is the term used to describe teacher-centered, outcome-driven, highly structured and non-interactive instructional practices (ibid:75). It is based on an acquisition metaphor (i.e., learning is a matter of acquiring information) and a transmission model (Martinez *et al.*, as cited by Johnson, 2004:75). The teacher instructs by transmitting facts to passively

receptive learners (ibid:75). Thus, as the primary source of information for learners, a good teacher organizes and presents curriculum with maximum efficacy.

Instructionism is preoccupied with teaching. According to Groen (2003:9), instructionism is the classical way of teaching, in which learners do not learn by actively constructing, but by studying text books. The most important learner characteristic centers on what needs to be taught; learner knowledge and skill deficits determine teacher instructional behaviour (Johnson, 2004:76). Instructionism is summarized as a systematic set of procedures for focusing teacher effort on: 1) determining learners' learning requirements, 2) enhancing the efficacy of the learning environment, and 3) monitoring learner curricular progress so that instruction can be improved and corresponding learning outcomes maximized (ibid:76).

Traditional education entails single-discipline direct instruction, characterised by inter-learner competition (De Villiers & Queiros, 2003:112). According to Reddy, Ankiewicz, and De Swardt (2005:14), instructional approach is based on behaviourist learning theory. In the behaviourist approach to learning, the emphasis is on controlling those behaviours of the learner that can be observed and measured and could be best served through the following instructional strategies: direct instruction, whole class teaching, lecture and demonstrations (ibid:14). The direct instructional strategy is widely applicable and can be used to teach concepts, factual knowledge and basic skills (ibid:14). This strategy places the teacher at the centre of instruction. When the direct instructional approach is used, the teacher assumes major responsibility for structuring the content or skills, providing opportunities for practice and giving feedback (Eggen and Kauchak as referred Reddy, Ankiewicz, & De Swardt (2005:14).

Lowry and Dawson (2005:59) assert that instructionist or epigenetic theories view cognition as the ultimate product of neuronal growth. In its most extreme form, the developing brain is viewed as initially being a *tabula rasa*. In classroom setup, instruction involves the following:

- directing learners to *appropriate* learning activities;

- guiding learners to *appropriate* knowledge;
- helping learners rehearse, encode, and process information;
- monitoring learner performance; and
- providing feedback as to the *appropriateness* of the learner's learning activities and practice performance.

In the light of the above, instructionism in a modernist environment infers transmitting facts and knowledge to passively receptive learners, teacher-centred, highly structured and non-interactive instructional practices. Also, it is characterised by inter-learner competition, whole group instruction, rote learning and standardized testing.

### **3.2.2 The concept “classroom”**

A classroom is an institutionalized setting for teaching and operates under a “norm of rationality” (Doyle, 1979:43). For Calfee and Brown (1979:145), the concept of “class” includes the one-room school, the self-contained classroom and system of departmentalized instruction. As Johnson and Brooks (1979:19) observes, the modern secondary classroom is readily seen to be a far cry from the old one-room school, but it is equally apparent that even in the present-day context, the term “classroom” has reference to a variety of situations.

Descriptive studies of classrooms suggest a number of interesting properties of these environments, including multi-dimensional, simultaneity, immediacy, unpredictability and history (Doyle, 1979:44). In addition, three significant factors on which classrooms vary are their size, their group character and their instructional purpose (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:19).

### **3.2.3 The concept “management”**

Management is an old idea. According to Kroon (1994:3), since the beginning of time man has formed groups to achieve certain goals not possible through individual effort

alone. A similar view is shared by Du Toit (1994:25) and Robbins and Decenzo (2001:27) by stating that the essence of management can be traced back to the time when people first attempted to work as a team in order to satisfy communal needs. He lists a number of instances, among others, for example, the Egyptians in the building of great pyramids (4500BC) required precise planning, mobilisation, organisation and coordination of natural and human resources; the Babylonians' King Hummarabi's Code (2000BC) containing 285 laws, stipulated specific guidelines and procedures regarding wages, control, responsibility and retribution in respect of personal property, trade and labour.

The idea of management has a Scriptural background. With the Hebrews, according to Du Toit (1994:26), the application of the span of management and the creation of a linear structure was provided through the appointment of competent and reliable God-fearing men from the whole nation of Israel by Moses (Exodus 18) as leaders of thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens respectively. On the other hand, in the Roman Catholic Church as a formal organisation, in the second century AD, a simple hierarchy of authority was created with an order of the pope, cardinal, archbishop, bishop and local priest (ibid:28).

As a formal discipline, management emerged only towards the end of the nineteenth century (Dawson, 1993:5). Literature (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:10; Bottery, 1992:23; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:47; Du Toit, 1994:32; Robbins & Decenzo, 2001:29) suggests that the concept "*management*" was first popularized by Frederic Taylor to describe what is called 'work study' or 'task study'. The oldest and perhaps most widely accepted viewpoint on management, according to Hellriegel and Slocum (1991:42), is called the traditional (classical) viewpoint. This viewpoint is constituted by three main branches, namely, bureaucratic management, scientific management and administrative management. All three emerged during, roughly, the same period of time – the late 1890s through the early 1900s, when engineers were seeking to make organisations run like well-oiled machines (ibid:42).

The concept “management” is broadly perceived. Hellriegel and Slocum, (1991:8) see management as planning, organising, leading and controlling the people working in an organisation and the ongoing set of tasks and activities they perform. Robbins and Decenzo (2001:25) define management as the process of getting things done, effectively, efficiently, through and with the people. Efficiency means doing the task correctly and refers to the relationship between inputs and outputs whilst effectiveness refers doing the right task; and goal attainment (ibid:5).

For Johnson and Brooks (1979:22), management is that function of an organisation that concerns the coordination and cooperation necessary for the goal attainment. Coordination is “the orderly arrangement of a group effort, to provide unity of action in the pursuit of common purpose; and cooperation, from the point of view of the operation of the organisation is made possible by authority and leadership (ibid:23). Authority involves the legitimate power to direct and control, and leadership being “the form that authority assumes when it enters into process, that is, when legitimate power is exercised (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:23).

Johnson and Brooks (1979:22) assert that the “nomothetic” view of management, which account only for the mobilization of resources and coordination of activities to attain institutional goals, omits one essential element – the human factor. For example, the activities are carried out by human beings, unique personalities with needs that have nothing to do with the organisation.

An ‘idiographic’ view of management recognises that unplanned, non-task-oriented activities, interactions and sentiments are inevitable within an organisation and that how managers deal with them, determines, in large measure, the efficiency with which institutional goals are achieved (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:24). Whether planned and coordinated or not, activities of any group are always accompanied by interpersonal interactions and interpersonal sentiments (ibid:24).

### 3.2.4 Defining classroom management

The concept “*classroom management*” is broadly perceived. As a concept, it is used in many situations to refer to various and different meanings. For an example, in reviewing literature, some scholars (Colvin, Sugai & Patching, 1993; Ellis, Finnegan, Hastings, Onsrud & Rohrer, 1996; Ellis & Karr-Kidwell, 1995; Kohn, 1994; Smith & Misra, 1992; Tauber, 1995; Toben & Sapp, 1972; Alexander & Galbraith, 1997; Allen, 1986; Clements, 1983; Evertson & Emmer, 1982) seem to consider classroom discipline and classroom management as being synonymous. In some studies on classroom management by Vaughan (1981) Bullough (1994) and Hindle (1994), emphasis ends up examining discipline or they use the two terms together without stating whether they are similar or not.

Different authors’ attempt to define the concept “classroom management” results in a variety of opinions. Classroom management, like other approaches or theories, seems to be a diversity of interpretations, having common link (basic management principles) and a little agreement about the process (management models). Collen’s (1994:44) research powerfully corroborates this view by pointing that classroom management definitions contain the following keywords: planning, organising, arranging, monitoring and anticipating. It does not matter where management takes place, be it in the business sector or the classroom, the basic principles (planning, organising, leading and control) are the same.

Kruger and van Schalkwyk (2000:6) see classroom management as the sum total of activities that are necessary to enable the core or main task of teaching an learning situation to take place effectively; a means to the effective execution of educational and teaching task of the teacher. For Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:87) it is a thoughtful implementation of the plan by the teacher, who makes on-the-spot judgments about where to apply the rules and procedures and how to communicate those decisions to learners.

In Duke's (1979:xii) view, classroom management constitutes the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur; encompasses more than the supervision of learners; and entails decision making as to how responsibilities are divided and how resources are allocated. For Brophy and Alleman (1998:56), good classroom management implies more than eliciting learner cooperation in maintaining order.

Classroom management as defined by Kruger (1995a:39), is a means to the effective execution of educational and teaching task of the teacher. According to Cruickshank, Bainer and Metcalf (1995:468), classroom management can be defined as the provision and procedures necessary to create and maintain an environment in which teaching and learning can occur. For some writers (Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 2000:329; Viljoen & Möller, 1992:12; Slavin, 1994:389; Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:7 Weber, 1986:272, Duke, 1979:xii; Good & Brophy, 1990:8; Moore, 1995:283) it involves methods used to organise classroom activities, instruction, physical structure and other features to make effective use of time, to create a happy and productive learning environment, and to minimise behavioural problems and disruptions.

Doyle (1986:423) contends that:

*Classroom management is fundamentally a process of solving the problems in the classroom rather than the problems of misbehaviour or learner engagement. These latter issues are not significant, but they are not the primary targets of teachers' management energies. In deed, high engagement and low levels of inappropriate and disruptive behaviour are by-products of an effective program classroom organisation and management. At its foundation the teacher's management task is primarily one of establishing and maintaining a work system for classroom groups rather than spotting and punishing misbehaviour or behaviour, remediating behavioural disorders or maximising the engagement of individual learners.*



From what has preceded, it can be inferred that classroom management involves a system of organisation that addresses the elements of the classroom (for example, learners, space, time, materials, behavioural problems, teaching and learning tasks). Also, it can be inferred that classroom management increases learners' involvement in curricular activities, enhances learning and saves time wasted in dealing with unexpected disruptions and minimise behavioural problems. Classroom management should not only be seen as those activities of the teacher that make his/her instructional activities possible.

In the light of the above, classroom management does not really pertain to handling misbehaviour, but rather to having a sense of how classroom energies ebb and flow. In this study, a pluralistic definition – one that is broad enough to embrace a variety of viewpoints – will be adopted. Thus, **classroom management will refer to the methods or system used to organise classroom activities, instruction, physical structure and other features to make effective use of time, to create a conducive and productive environment, and to minimise behavioural problems and disruptions** to maximize effective teaching and learner learning.

### **3.2.5 Distinctiveness of the classroom management situation**

Johnson and Brooks (1979:24) contend that in a number of important respects the management of schools differs from the management of organisations in business, government or military. The application of organisational management principles to the classroom is conditioned by such distinctive features as the general difference between the teacher and the learners, the fact that the “product” is learning on the parts of the participants themselves, and the added expectation that will develop self control and independence (ibid:40). The classroom, therefore, has some distinctive features, both as the organisational unit for the school as a management entity itself. Unlike other organisations making tangible products or rendering services to clientele, the school as an organisation does neither (ibid:24).

From a functional point of view, the school class can be treated as (the focal) agency of socialization, whereby individual personalities are trained to be motivationally and technically adequate to the performance of adult roles (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:25). Learning is not merely the goal, but the goal and specific content and method of what is to be learned is in large part given in the situation before the classroom group itself comes into being (ibid:25). The commitments and capacities, according to Johnson and Brooks (1979:25), are internal to the group members themselves. Thus, this organisation is peculiar in that its members “not only create the product, they are the product” (ibid:25).

Leadership at classroom level has distinctive features. Johnson and Brooks (1979:26) assert that the pupils have no control over the selection of the teachers, and no recourse from their leadership. In addition, there is a polarization due to the age disparity between the members, who are children or youth and their adult leader, who enjoys a presumption of “generational superiority” with respect to expert knowledge and general wisdom. The polarization diminishes the secondary school, as learners reach a level of maturity at which they are more amenable to reason and more capable of self-direction and self-control (ibid:26).

Another distinctive feature of classroom as an organisational group is that of anomalous roles of teacher and pupils. In one sense, teachers are at the technical production level of the organisation, in another sense the pupils are, with the teachers serving a managerial function (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:27). They hold that, in the first case, pupils are human “raw material” and products; in the second they are “workers”. In another sense they are “costumers”. To a degree, teachers are employed by both learners and administrators and are torn in their loyalties to the two (ibid:27).

Classroom management, in Johnson and Brooks’ (1979:2) understanding, represents an organisational function in which “tasks” are performed in a variety of “settings” on behalf of certain values. These tasks can be categorised under the main managerial function. Doyle (1979:45) contends that the concept “tasks” derived from the literature

on human cognition, refers to the way in which information processing demands of an environment are structured and experienced. Such demands, he maintains, are affected not only by the flow of events in an activity, but also by the point or end of the activity (ibid:45).

### **3.3 HISTORICAL AND ANALYTICAL PERSPECTIVES ON TRADITIONAL/ INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

The history of classroom management has a very rich background. However, this discussion will largely draw from Johnson and Brooks' (1979) work. Brophy and Putman (1979:214) are emphatically of the opinion that the trends in classroom management ideology have followed earlier trends in thinking about children and child rearing. In addition, early approaches featuring authoritarian regimentation and punitiveness reflected Victorian notions about children, who were seen as idle and undisciplined creatures, needing mental and physical training. Socialization was construed mostly as the curbing of unacceptable impulses through discipline and punishment (Brophy & Putman, 1979:214).

Bottery (1993:25) mentions that even before the scientific management took a stranglehold on the thought of educational administrators in the US, this love affair with the possibilities of science was already taking place in education. Furthermore, the founding father quantitative psychology, Thorndike, had already declared that:

*It was the vice or misfortune of thinkers about education to have chosen methods of philosophy or popular thought instead of those of science.*

Thorndike was already offering a course in the application of psychological and statistical methods of education at the Teachers College, Columbia University, and it was not long after this that intelligence testing became part of the educational practice of schools of the US, building on the work of French psychologists Binet and Simon, and culminating in the Stanford-Binet test of 1916 (Bottery, 1993:25). These intelligence tests were clamouring for "objective" measurement of ability and attainment, and to school

administrators who, by such testing, could obtain information which would enable them to sort and compare pupils, and thus more readily place them in suitable educational programmes (ibid:25).

As Johnson and Brooks (1979:5) state, until the 1840s, when normal schools began to be established, teachers had no training in management of a classroom, and their procedures primarily reflected their personalities and commonsense. They argue that one of the first books for prospective teachers appeared in 1847, three years after the founding of the State Normal School at Albany, New York, from the pen of its first principal, David P. Page. For Page, “order” was the first essential for the happiness and success of the school and that, whether or not it was secured and maintained, depended primarily on the teacher’s possessing certain requisite personal characteristics like:

- Being in self-command and confident of his ability to govern;
- Having deep moral principle; and
- Holding just views of both government and the governed (ibid:5).

Page held that the teacher’s authority to inflict punishment necessary to “order” was grounded in the doctrine of *in loco parentis*, and corporal punishment was to be a last, not a first resort, neither to be repeatedly threatened nor irrevocably renounced and never to be abused if used (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:6). In addition, he emphasised meticulous planning as the basis for good classroom management, for when the teacher is uncertain and the pupils idle, “all is confusion”. In his works, Page advocated the three principles of: (1) “management by motto” – for interruptions, the Lancasterian maxim, “A Time for Every Thing, and Every Thing for Its Time”; (2) for assignments, “Not How Much, But How Well”; and (3) for public examinations, “Let the Teacher Be Honest”.

Johnson and Brooks (1979:6) note that as urban centers grew, the concentration of population offered the alternatives of constructing more and more separate unguarded one-room schools or collecting a number of them together in a single larger building. In addition, by the time of the Civil War, state systems of common schools had succeeded in

organising uniform courses of the study, usually divided into eight grade levels, and graded readers and textbooks had appeared.

Organisations have many things in common – these share some characteristics (Bottery, 1993:3). In Theron’s (1996:37) view, an organisation is the framework within which human activities are directed and coordinated. In the light of this, by 1890, books on methods of teaching in elementary schools, such as one by Prince, found it necessary to present courses of studies for both graded and upgraded schools, and to make similar distinctions in treating “organisation”, particularly with respect to the “daily programme” and the classification of pupils (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:7). Also, other organisational aspects treated were the physical environment of the classroom, books and apparatus, and records and reports (ibid:7).

By the turn of the century, as Johnson and Brooks (1979:7) observe, some books on school management were directed at principals, rather than teachers, but other, especially those oriented to the elementary school, continued to emphasise the classroom. Further, the achievement of efficient group instruction through close classification of pupils, was deemed indicative of great progress in education. In 1897, Joseph Balwin noted the course of that progress during the preceding half-century, from the “individualism” of teaching each pupil separately, to “classification” of subgroups within the mixed-age classroom, to “gradation” through standardized curriculum levels, and finally, to “specialisation and departmentalization” of teachers (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:7).

Wolfgang (1994:131) notes that, historically, teachers have “docked” learners’ grades or subtracted points that lead to grades because of tardiness, unexcused absences, late papers, insolence and of deportment behaviours that are not acceptable to teachers. Furthermore, in practice, teachers have intertwined achievement with behaviour, but courts have ruled that a grade is perceived by society as a summation of academic achievement. A letter “grade” on a report card or a transcript is perceived as reflecting a level of skill and knowledge; and is seen as a property, as defined by the Fourteenth

Amendment, and the learners have earned this property by the mastery of academic skills and knowledge (Wolfgang, 1994:131).

Central to the practice of grading practice rests a principle of “human right”. Also, at statutory level, the grading practice enjoys legal protection. According to The Fourteenth Amendment (as quoted by Wolfgang, 1994:132), “*nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty or property*”. Thus, this property cannot be denied a part of discipline action to control behaviour. This does not mean that there may not be consequences for misbehaviour – merely these consequences should be kept separate from the learner’s letter grade (Wolfgang, 1994:132).

Departmentalization, according to Hellriegel and Slocum (1991:323), involves the subdivision of work and assigning it to specialised groups within an organisation. Management can use any four basic types of departmentalization, namely by function, by place (or location), by product and service and by a matrix.

Baldwin defines a “class” as a “group of pupils who can work together”, a condition that demanded a certain degree of homogeneity with the respect to the work of which they were capable (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:7). Also, he (Baldwin) not only distinguished between teaching and the tactics of classroom management, but also saw them as having almost antithetical requirements – “variety in teaching, but informatory in tactics”. A recurring theme among writers of that era was the analogy between the individual group (ibid:7).

Bottery (1993:21) asserts that education has increasingly turned to business for its management theory because it had so little of its own. While the classroom was increasingly likened to a home or community, its context was becoming more like a business enterprise (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:10). With the increasing urbanization with school enrollment growing even faster than the cities, the efficiency of scale that underpinned “big business” turned the classroom from synonym for the school into organisational component, not only of large school, but also a large system of schools

(ibid:10). As a result, teachers found themselves at the end of an extended chain of command that included a central staff and a superintendent, a chain downwards which flowed directives for standard operating procedures, in conformity with rules established by businesslike lay boards (ibid:10).

The idea of scientific management revolutionized business and industry in the early years of the twentieth century and soon infiltrated the government bureaucracy (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:10). As early as 1909, classroom management was perceived as “the problem of economy”; and it seeks to determine in what manner a working unit of the school plant may be made to return the largest dividend upon the material of investment of time, energy and money (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:11).

In 1912, Rice, developed the earliest standardised achievement test and published a book on scientific management in education (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:11). Tests and measurements, rating scales and school surveys became the primary means of detecting efficiency in the schools. As a result, the classroom manager was in danger of becoming an operative in a mass production education factory. As late as 1932, the scientific approach formed the basis of the book by Frederick Breed on classroom organisation and management (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:11). In his work, Breed perceived classroom management as an aspect dealing with problems, factors and conditions externally related to class instruction and the application of scientific methods to the control of human behaviour (ibid:11).

Between the 1940s and 1950s, educational management was further influenced by works of theorists, among others, such as Franklin Bobbitt, Ralph Tyler, and Benjamin Bloom. Bobbitt’s approach viewed “efficiency” in education as a primary rather than a secondary goal (Bottery, 1993:26). This approach began with an acceptance of the notions of efficiency, standards and hierarchy of goods in themselves; and considered education to prepare children for their roles in present-day society (ibid:26).

Tyler, in his curriculum rationale in 1949, had the following four questions “(1) *what educational purpose the school try to attain?* (2) *how can learning experiences, which are likely to be useful in attaining these objectives be selected?* (3) *How can learning instruction be organised for effective instruction?* and (4) *how can the effectiveness of learning experiences be evaluated?*” (Jacobs, 2000:102; Arjun, 1998:24). He viewed the criterion for success as the attainment aims and objectives (Bottery, 1993:26). Tyler’s rationale, according to Malan (2000:1), has been used extensively by curriculum practitioners. In Arjun’s (1998:23) opinion, Tyler’s means-end or product-oriented rationale has enjoyed a long period of normal science.

Malan (2000:23) posits that during the 1950s, the work of Bloom and his co-workers on developing the taxonomies for educational objectives became very important. Further, these benchmarks were used in the formulation and the development of criteria to establish whether learners have actually attained acceptable standards compared to the desired learning outcomes.

Flowing from Bloom’s and Tyler’s works, in the 1960s theorists, among others, such as Mager, and Wheeler continued with tradition. Mager’s work was published in 1962, highlighting expected performance, the conditions under which it is attained, and the standards for assessing quality. In McAvoy’s (1985:29) view, Bloom’s work captured the imagination of many teachers and helped spark off a wave of enthusiasm (and controversy) over objectives. Using Tyler’s rationale, Wheeler constructed a sequential model of curriculum design, which was adopted for as the main curriculum model for several decades (Arjun, 1998:24).

In the 1970s the pressure for “accountability” emerged, with its criterion referenced testing and competency-based education, suggesting that business orientation to education is not mere a thing of the past (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:11).



### **3.4 ORGANISATIONAL ANALYTICAL PERSPECTIVES ON TRADITIONAL/INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

A classroom situation is a complex and dynamic setting within an organisation. Robbins and Decenzo (2001:3) define an organisation as a systematic arrangement of people, brought together to accomplish some specific purpose. For Theron (1996:37), it is the framework within which human activities are directed and coordinated. However, a classroom as a teaching-learning setting is based, among others, on philosophies, theories approaches and models. In case of a school an as organisation in teacher-centered setting, it is informed and guided by traditional or classical viewpoint of management. Traditional classroom management, thus, flows from theoretical frameworks of mechanistic worldview (bureaucracy, Taylorism, Fordism, etc.). In this study, the conceptual analysis is viewed from an organizational perspective, where modernist organizational theory will be employed. The following key aspects: bureaucratization (power and control), Taylorism (productivity and outputs), Fordism (production) will form the pillar of the discussion. Each of these is underpinned by a deeper philosophical understanding of what it means to manage (exerting power and control, achieving results through well organized processes, etc.).

#### **3.4.1 Bureaucratization (power and control)**

The concept “bureaucracy” is most closely associated with Max Weber, a German social historian (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:41; Van der Westhuizen, 1995:71; Du Toit, 1994:40). Bottery (1992:35) mentions that bureaucracy was intended to standardize far more than the conduct of public business. Various scholars (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:42; Van der Westhuizen, 1995:71-2; Johnson & Brooks, 1979:10; Theron, 1996:49) indicate that bureaucratic organisation or systems are characterised by rules, impersonality, division of labour, hierarchical structure, authority structure, lifelong commitment and rationality. Bottery (1992:35) asserts that the functions of bureaucracy are two-fold: to impose upon the society the kind of order which perpetuates its

domination; and to conceal this domination by means of unending flow of form-filling, task division and constant supervision.

Control is an essential element in any organisation management. For example, for an organisation like a school to function effectively and efficiently in monitoring the achievements and objectives, a form of control should be adopted. At the heart of bureaucracy are four primary mechanism social influence and control, namely: authority, power, persuasion and exchange. Spady and Mitchell (1979:97) believe that these mechanisms of social influence and control, represent the fundamental tools for classroom management; and identify the alternative strategies for control available to the teacher, and differentiate sharply between legitimacy-based and resource-based approaches to classroom control. In addition, they emphasise the direct but temporary compliance effects associated with extrinsic rewards and sanctions when compared to the enduring and reorienting effects of authoritative experiences.

For Weber, power is reflected in “the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in position to carry out his own will despite resistance (Spady & Mitchell, 1979:99). Du Preez (1994:295) defines “power” as the ability a person has to influence others. In addition, the element of “influence” causes behavioural change that results directly or indirectly from the actions and/or example of individuals or groups. Thus, power and influence are fundamental to change the behaviour or attitudes of an individual or a group. Power-based control is initiated directly through interpersonal demand and institutional mandate, or indirectly through specific manipulations of resources (Spady & Mitchell, 1979:99).

Persuasion operates on the basis of acknowledged legitimacy; and it involves presenting the subordinates with reasons for accepting control from the subordinate (Spady & Mitchell, 1979:102). The primary preconditions for successful persuasion are for the persuaders to have at least one established base of legitimacy and for the subordinates to trust them.

Exchange is a control process closely related to power. According to Spady and Mitchell (1979:99), exchange occurs when resources are more evenly distributed among the competing parties so that no one actor is able to establish a clear dominance. Thus, power and exchange exist on a continuum, with total domination possible only if the subordinate party has both a true monopoly of critical resources and the necessary capacity to enforce their distribution (ibid:100). In case of the school as an organisation, more specifically at classroom setting, teachers and other school officials have at their command, some very potent resources for complete monopolies and never have the license to use them at will (Spady & Mitchell, 1979:100).

The concept “authority” originates from the Latin word *autoritas*. It is connected to the verb “*augere*” which means “to assist, guide or encourage” (Engelbrecht *et al.*, 1989). Authority is only a subset of power relationships in which the use of power is limited through social endorsement or justification (Spady & Mitchell, 1979:101). For Hellriegel and Slocum (1991:320), authority is basically the right to decide and act. It is rooted in personal orientations and experiences that tie the superordinate who is “in authority” to a subordinate who is “under authority” (Spady & Mitchell, 1979:101). Furthermore, people respond to influence as authoritative when they perceive in an encounter the opportunity to realise the own significance, not merely satisfy the intentions of someone else because of the attractiveness or threat of external resources. Thus, authoritative control is characterised by supportive and collaborative rather than competitive interactions (ibid:102).

Although authority is universal, the authority of the educational leader in the school, as Van der Westhuizen (1995:29) states, is unique and is based on the rules which apply to the school as a social relationship. Also, the authority of the educational leader is based on his professional status as the holder of authority (Ward & Tikunof, 1979:289). Cohen, Initili and Robbins (1979:117) state that the teacher, as supervisor, is part of the official authority structure of the school and is given discretionary power by the school to allocate tasks to the learners, and to evaluate their performance. Thus, it must be kept in

mind that authority is not solely “power or right to enforce obedience or give orders and make orders.

### **3.4.2 Taylorism and Fordism (production, productivity and outputs)**

Literature (Du Toit, 1994:32; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:47; Bottery, 1992:23; Johnson & Brooks, 1979:10) considers Frederick Taylor (1856-1915) as the "Father of Scientific Management" and was nicknamed "Speedy" Taylor for his reputation as an efficiency expert. The movement he started, the "Scientific Management" movement, reached its peak in America during 1900-1930, but it has had lasting effects beyond that. Hellriegel and Slocum (1991:47) contend that scientific management's philosophy is that management practices should be based on proven fact and observation, not on hearsay or guesswork; and focuses on individual worker-machine relationships in manufacturing plants.

As an engineer, at Midvale Steel Works, he (Taylor) realised that a new philosophy and approach should be developed in the industry (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:147; Du Toit, 1994:32). His writings emphasized standardization, time and task study, systematic selection and training and pay incentives. In motivating the employees to work to their fullest capacity, Taylor maintained that higher productivity would be maintained if productivity and remuneration were combined (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:67; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:48). Also, he believed that increased productivity ultimately depended on finding ways to make workers more efficient (Bottery, 1993:24); and was convinced that efficiency could be increased by having workers to perform routine tasks that did not require them make decisions (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:48).

Rees (2001) asserts that Taylorism and Fordism are characterised by: emphasis on productivity, output and profits; pyramid & structure (Ford – production line); control and efficiency (Taylor); and effectiveness and efficiency. Productivity, according to Van Niekerk (1994:216), is the relationship between output and input, where output is usually

measured in physical units whilst input is measured with regard to labour in terms of man-hours and with regard to capital in monetary or physical unit.

The Taylorist ideology and approach were not confined to industries that mass-produced "hardware" such as automobiles or washing machines, with their simple structures and standardized outputs, or to offices that performed a narrow range of simple tasks ([http://www.accel-team.com/scientific/scientific\\_02.html](http://www.accel-team.com/scientific/scientific_02.html)). This ideology is also applicable to various fields of study, *inter alia*: politics, psychology, science, and more specifically, teaching and education. For example, education management theorists have traditionally borrowed ideas from industrial settings.

Taylorism received mixed reviews in its own time and failed in its goal of transforming American society ([http://www.accel-team.com/scientific/scientific\\_02.html](http://www.accel-team.com/scientific/scientific_02.html)). In 1962, the historian Raymond Callahan wrote the best-known account of how scientific management has affected American schools. Much of his book recounts the influence of Taylor's ideas on educational administration, everything from how to make better use of buildings and classroom space to how to standardize the work of janitors. Other aspects of scientific management in education treated learners like workers (*ibid*).

In the light of these, the classroom then becomes one station in a production line that needs to fit into a larger machine like-organisation (school). Within organisational perspective, it could be inferred that classroom management is hierarchical with all the power centralized in the teacher as the carrier of the knowledge that needs to be transferred to learners; it is organized around the results to be achieved – curriculum and evaluation dominated; it is bounded – certain tasks to be completed in specific time-frames; and it is teacher-centred as the initiator, organiser and manager of the learning that must take place, and learners are recipients of knowledge to be absorbed and regurgitated in exams.

### **3.5 THE NATURE AND ESSENCE OF TRADITIONAL/INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

In this section, Table 2.3 (Matrix of Paradigmatic Value Systems) will be used as a tool in analysing and exploring the paradigmatic roots of instructionist classroom management. Also, hermeneutic principles will be adopted in the analysis of the presuppositions and the dogma underpinning the instructionist classroom management. This section explores views on traditional (instructionist) teaching and learning, and leadership roles of the teacher in instructionist setting.

#### **3.5.1 The origins and characteristic features of traditional/instructionist classroom management**

As Bottery (1993:20) points, educational management practices do not happen in a vacuum – they are undergirded by particular theories and particular conceptions of humankind. Among others, educational management, which informs and guides instructionist classroom management, is rooted in positivist, objectivistic/modernistic and/or behaviourist and *Christian*-orientated philosophy (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:12; Van der Westhuizen & Mentz, 1996:27). In essence, the nature and the structure of being of traditional classroom management seem to be rooted in the mechanistic/scientific worldview. Most of the research on which classroom management principles are based, has taken place in traditional classrooms characterised by transmission approaches to teaching, that is, where the teacher acts as the transmitter of knowledge (Brophy & Alleman, 1998:56). Dooyeweerd (as quoted in Van der Westhuizen, 1995:28) asserts that all scientific practice is based on transcendental foundation or on presuppositions. It is further held that by means of transcendental-critical method, a person investigates the structure of scientific thought and indicates that his/her presuppositions underlie this scientific thought.

In a scriptural perspective, Engelbrecht *et al.* (1989:189) posit that man is a creature – he was created by a Creator. Therefore, man is not an independent entity carrying on a

closed existence. In his profound dependence, man is constantly in dialogue with his Creator (ibid:189). Thus, the relationship between man and his Creator can be typified as a primordial. An etymological enquiry into the origin of the concept *relation* dates back to the Latin supine *relatum* which means “to carry”, “to support”, “to transfer something to a beneficiary” or to communicate with another and benefit him by interfering with him” (ibid:128). The nature of the relationship is characterised by authority and obedience. Without ontic authority, *managing* and *regulating* learner behaviour cannot exist. Therefore, the primordial or religious characteristic/element in the relationship, between man and his Creator, informs and guides traditional classroom management theory and practice.

Mechanistic worldview recognises the possibility of human control over nature (Black, 1999). In ontological and epistemological dimensions, traditional classroom management theory and practice is scriptural – it has a *Christian*-orientated or religious characteristic. It sees *managing* and *regulating* human activity as a scriptural mandate. Van der Westhuizen (1995:28) notes that God has equipped man with abilities, gifts and talent for his mission on earth – mission of reigning over and controlling the creation. In a similar view, Engelbrecht *et al.* (1989:189) see man as a crowning glory of creation, the prince who has been elected to reign over the entire creation of God.

Central to this paradigm is the belief that God’s sovereignty is based on the fact that He embodies or concretises His everlasting power in laws which apply to creatures, while He Him is not subject to any of these laws (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:27). The onticity of traditional classroom management emerges from the teacher’s position of authority and from his/her creational mandate. Thus, traditional/instructionist classroom management as a practice and theory of knowledge can be typified as rooted in objective reality and truth, and as positivistic. It has an absoluteness and dogmatic characteristic view knowledge, which underpins the scientific worldview.

Taljaard (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 1995:17) maintains that there is nothing in the creation that does not function according to the law God made for it. In a mechanistic

worldview, the universe is seen as a mechanical system which is made up of permanent objects and immutable laws (Black, 1999). In case traditional classroom management, it is assumed that man *rules* and *regulates* that which has been entrusted to him (teacher); and can regulate something because God has provided for its regulation. Also, this tradition assumes that God reigns over His creation by means of laws which have existed as concrete proof of His will since the creation of the earth (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:12). God directly reigns and sovereignly over all educational institutions. The ontic origin of traditional classroom management is traceable in the the regulative actions that man has to carry out within the organised creation. Thus, the ontic characteristic forms the basis or foundation of rules and regulations of controlling and regulating learner behaviour.

The creation functions according to certain fixed “rules” and “regulations” (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:12). In the scientific worldview, phenomena take a reductionist and empirical view. Phenomena, as Palmer (1977:127) put it, are the collection of what is open to the light of day or can be brought to the light, what the Greeks identified simply as *ta onta, das Seiede*, what is. In a hermeneutic dimension, the mind does not project meaning onto the phenomenon, rather, what appears is an ontological manifesting of the thing itself (ibid:128). Further, through dogmatisation a thing can be forced to be seen only in the desired aspect. Therefore, the fullness of being is not a fixed understanding but historically formed – it accumulates in the very experience of encountering phenomena. Ontology must become ontology – it must render visible the invisible structure of being-in-the-world and lay open the mood and the direction of human existence (Palmer, 1977:127).

With reference to the relationships between entities, scientific paradigm is underpinned by discrete units’ hierarchical orders. Black (1999) contends that mechanistic worldview is characterised by patriarchal and hierarchical social pattern which is maintained by systems of command and control at all levels of the hierarchy. Another outstanding feature is that authority is transmitted hierarchically (Dollard & Christensen, 1996). In



Theron's (1996:38) opinion, within structural authority, a certain hierarchical order exists, where at every level of the hierarchy; a person is given authority from above.

Blom's (1999:59) research states that theories of management are top-down; they contain a view of the organisation looking down from the position of those in "control". Also, the primary instrument is a hierarchy of continuous and functional surveillance. The top-down structure in schools is essentially prescriptive (Paisey as cited by Blom, 1999:59). Policies and objectives are usually formulated by the principal and the senior management team and either by a hard process of telling or more softer process of selling, each individual is obliged or persuaded to adopt them (ibid:60).

The person in authority has the right to give instructions and to expect obedience from those below (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:12). In the case of traditional classroom practice, the teacher gives the instructions and learners are expected to obey them. The teacher's authority is limited because he/she is also subject to the authority of those above him (i.e. the HOD or the principal). Thus, the teacher's level hierarchy gives him/her freedom to act within the limits of the authority.

Badenhorst (1995:32) notes that the hierarchy within the traditional organisation determines its formal communication. The principal delegates certain powers and tasks to the head of department, who in turn issues instructions controlled by him/her (ibid:32). Further, it is held that the formal channels of communication are not only vertical they may be also horizontal. For example, teachers offering the same subjects at the same level/standard, are expected to remain in constant touch with one another in order to ensure that they maintain roughly the same work rate, and that the necessary consultation takes place when tests are compiled (ibid:32).

Linear causation is informed by behaviourist philosophy – the view of causation takes a linear pattern. Fundamental to the positivist paradigm, causal linkages are possible. It is based on the assumption that one event precedes another and that one can say it *causes* the event (Zuber-Skerritt, 1991; Moser, 1999). This paradigm is characterised by linear

cause-effect and unidirectional interaction, and explained by deductive reasoning. In traditional classrooms, the activity of managing and regulating learners adopts classroom management models (e.g. in *John Kounin* in Table 3.3) that focus on the learning behaviour that will allow them to become better leaders in the classroom). In addition traditional classrooms use approaches (e.g. teacher power bases and theories of classroom management) that are guided by a chain of events as cause and effect and, in this, way describe causal connections which remain stable over time and space.

Traditional classroom management framework appears to be largely coloured by behaviourism. According to Bull and Solity (1987:4), behavioural model centers on the relationship between behaviour and the environment. It is constituted, among others, by the assumptions that behaviour is learned, learning means changing behaviour, and our behaviour is shaped or governed by what follows our actions (ibid:4). In traditional classroom management practice, when planning the teaching of new skills, the concern is focused on setting events for the learner' behaviour. The idea of setting up the situation is to help the learners respond with appropriate behaviour. Thus, with reference to the view of change or orientations to the future, managing and regulating learner behaviour is determinate and controllable by humans.

Also, in traditional practice, decision-making as a management function, is portrayed as a linear rational process which is objectively derived (Patton, 2005:23). Objectivity of qualitative research implies that the method emphasises the avoidance of distortion and subjectivity and allows the phenomenon which is researched to speak for itself (Niemann, Niemann, Brazelle, Van Staden, Heyns and De Wet, 2002: 283). In Kruger's (1995a:52) understanding, decision-making involves choosing the most suitable way of solving a problem or handling a situation.

At the heart of this tradition, according to Black (1999), is the image of the "rational man". This paradigm considers empiricism and rationalism as the only real ways to truth (ibid). Phenomena in the scientific worldview follow a reductionist and empirical pattern. Moser (1999) states that methodologically, it is bound up with processes such as

"induction" and "deduction," by means of which it is attempted to explain observations and derive prognoses. Explanations from one time and place can be generalized in other times and places (Zuber-Skerritt, 1991). Thus, theory and practice emanated or developed from scientific paradigm can be generalised in traditional classrooms.

Metaphorically, traditional classroom management takes a description of the Newtonian clock or the machine. Black (1999) notes two key images of the mechanistic worldview that dominate bureaucratic-managerial model – machine and pyramid. The organisational model of the mechanistic worldview can be typified as the machine bureaucracy (ibid). The organisation is envisaged as a machine and the leader as the “servo-mechanism” that drives it. The management or leadership style in the machine bureaucracy is characterised by command and control exercise by those at the top of the bureaucratic hierarchy who are charged with the responsibility of articulation and promoting the vision of strategic planning for the future and of maximising the resources. Thus, the values of bureaucratic-managerial model dominate educational management, more specifically in classroom management.

Management style dominating and compatible to traditional classroom management seems to be influenced by scriptural authority – it flows from the teacher’s convictions and his/her philosophy of life. According to Kruger (1995a:44), a teacher’s approach to his/her teaching and management task is largely linked to his view of how much personal emphasis should be placed on the task aspects and the human aspects respectively. In this tradition, classroom management is teacher-centered – it takes an autocratic pattern. Autocratic management style forms the basis in doing teaching and management tasks. It is task-oriented, overemphasising the dimension of the classroom (ibid:44). Van der Westhuizen (1995:190) posits that the autocratic leadership will never disappear completely because situations arise in school, for instance in the classroom, where any other style of leadership would be impossible for maintaining discipline.

### 3.5.2 Views on traditional (instructionist) teaching and learning

At conceptual or philosophical level, traditional teaching and learning are, among others, informed and guided by objectivistic/modernistic and/or behaviourist principles, and John Locke's ideas. Literature (Claassen, 1998a:34; Jacobs, 2004a:42; Vakalisa, 2004:2) suggests that the modernist thought has been the dominant scientific paradigm for the last three centuries. In addition, this paradigm strongly informs the traditional education curriculum, with its emphasis on teacher-centredness, disciplinarity and the one directional transmission of knowledge.

Also, traditional teaching and learning is largely hinged on Ralph Tyler's thoughts – behavioural objectives and behaviourist curriculum theories. This school of thought maintains that learning is manifested by the change in behaviour (Ormond, 1999:20; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999:251-253). Jacobs (2004a:42) posits that in behaviourist theories, each lesson in the curriculum should result in a desirable change in behaviour of the learner. Jonnavithula and Kinshuk (2005) assert that the classic “instructionist” or “transmissionist” model for delivery of education idealizes the learner as an empty vessel and instruction as the delivery of reified decontextualised knowledge. The learner arrives at an instructional setting as an empty vessel and is “filled-up” with information by the instructor. The learner then possesses the information and may call upon it as necessary (ibid).

Traditional paradigm largely sees the learner as a *tabula rasa*. *Tabula rasa* is the notion that individual human beings are born “blank” (with no built-in mental content), and that their identity is defined entirely by events after birth ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tabula\\_rasa](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tabula_rasa)). The concept was first conceptualized by Thomas Aquinas in the 13th century, though it was John Locke who fully expressed the idea in the 17th century. He maintained that all knowledge originates in senses – man learns through his experiences (Landman *et al.*, 1990:35). Considerable literature (Ornstein & Levine, 2000:107; Ozmon & Craver, 1999:60; Vakalisa, 2004:2; Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:28) suggests that John Locke (1632-1704), an English philosopher and a physician, held that at birth

the human mind is like a blank slate, a *tabula rasa*, that is empty of ideas; and we gradually acquire knowledge from the information about that world that our senses bring to us.

In traditional classrooms, a way of teaching can be described as direct instruction, guided instruction and active teaching. Literature (Murphy, 1997b; Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:28; Scheurman, 1998:6; Mokhaba, 2005:221; Van Niekerk, 2000:204; Jonnavithula & Kinshuk, 2005) states that traditional teaching relies on transmission, instructionist approach which is largely passive, teacher-directed and teacher-controlled. Among others, this tradition is characterised by differentiation of content as indicated in the syllabus, diagnostic tests and remedial exercises, and arranged content in a fixed order.

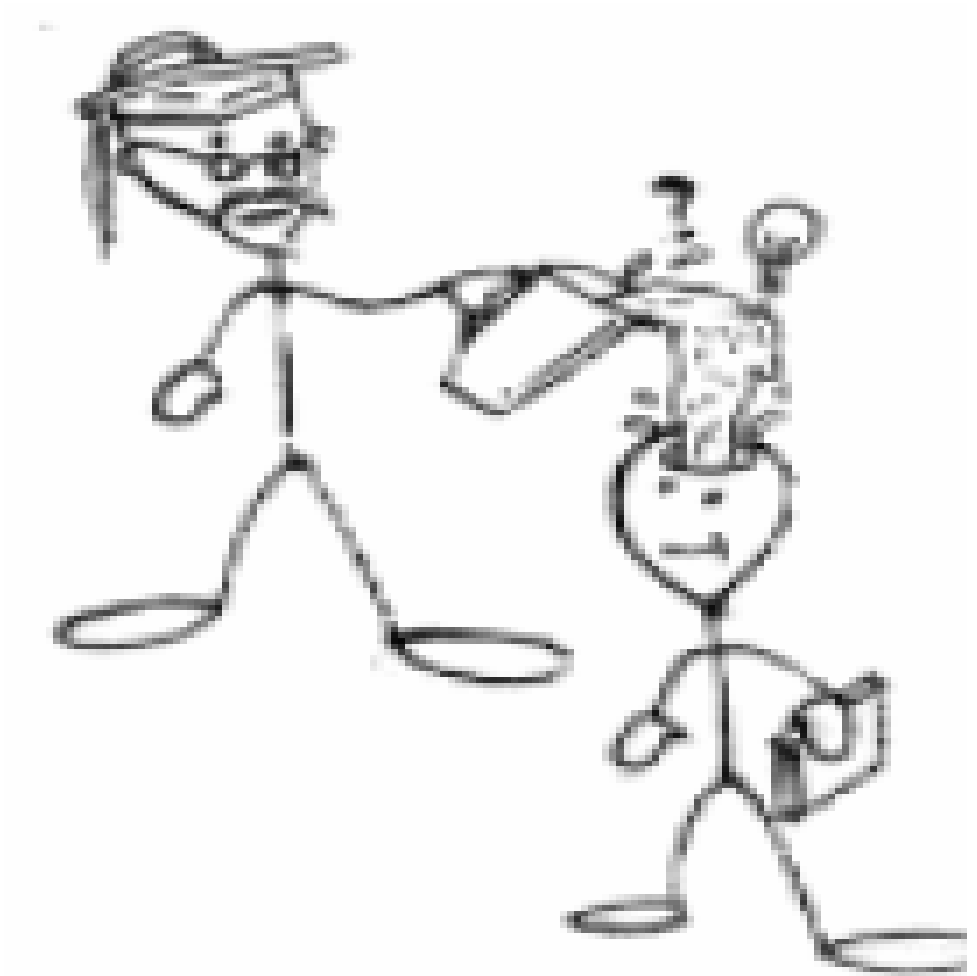
In Wood's (1994:332) opinion, all of these educational practices can be related to an epistemology that contends that knowledge exist in an external world and philosophy that claim information is acquired through processes of perception and representation of the external world. According to Zuber-Skerritt (1992), in the traditional epistemology, Humankind is viewed as follows:

- Passive receiver of knowledge;
- World-produced;
- Having a static, analytic conception of knowledge;
- Believing in truth and validity of knowledge; and
- Regarding teaching as the acquisition of skills and techniques to transfer knowledge from teacher to learner.

In this tradition, the teacher ("expert") pours absolute knowledge into passive learners who wait like empty vessels to be filled. According to Van Niekerk (2000:204), teachers are defined as experts who make their knowledge available to the learners through lecturing; and the teacher is the source of knowledge and the learner is the recipient. The

Figure 3.1 below gives a detailed and broader picture of traditional learning occurs.

**Figure 3.1 Traditional learning**



(Adapted from Zuber-Skerritt, 2001:13)

Table 3.1 on the next page presents the matrix of teaching learning approaches.

**Table 3.1 Matrix of teaching learning approaches**

<b>Role of teacher</b>	<b>Transmitter</b>	<b>Manager</b>	<b>Facilitator</b>	<b>Collaborator</b>
<b>Nature of knowledge</b>	Universal, objective and fixed (independent of the knower)	Universal and “objective” (influenced by knower’s prior knowledge)	Individually constructed; “objective” (contingent on knower’s intellectual development)	Socially constructed; “subjective” (distributed across knowers)
<b>Grounding theoretical tradition</b>	Behaviourism	Information processing	Cognitive constructivism	Social constructivism
<b>Metaphorical view of learner</b>	Switchboard	Computer	Naïve scientist	Apprentice
<b>Nature of teaching activity</b>	<p><i>Present reality to learners</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• disseminate information incrementally</li> <li>• demonstrate procedures</li> <li>• reinforce habits during independent practice</li> </ul>	<p><i>Help learners to process reality</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• assemble information</li> <li>• model expert memory and thinking strategies</li> <li>• foster metacognition</li> </ul>	<p><i>Challenge learner’s conception of reality</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• promote disequilibrium with discrepant objects and events</li> <li>• guide learners through problem solving activities</li> <li>• monitor reflective thinking</li> </ul>	<p><i>Participate with learners in constructing reality</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• elicit and adapt to learners (mis)conceptions</li> <li>• engage in open-ended inquiries with learners</li> <li>• guide self and learners to authentic resources and procedures</li> </ul>
<b>Nature of learner activity</b>	<p><i>Replicate reality to learners</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• listen</li> <li>• rehearse</li> <li>• recite</li> </ul>	<p><i>Manipulate reality</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• perceive through senses</li> <li>• Practice thinking and memorizing activities</li> <li>• Practice self-regulatory strategies</li> </ul>	<p><i>Experience reality during physical and social activity</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Assimilate information</li> <li>• Develop new schemes and operations to deal with novel experiences</li> <li>• Reflect on physical, social, and intellectual discoveries</li> </ul>	<p><i>Create reality during physical and social activity</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Manufacture “situated” (cultural understandings)</li> <li>• Actively engage in open-ended enquiries with peers and teachers</li> <li>• Reflect on constructed meaning</li> </ul>

(Adapted from Scheurman, 1998:7)

According to the Table 3.4, traditional teaching and learning is teacher-centred, and the transmissive approach is firmly grounded on the theoretical tradition of behaviourism notion that knowledge can be transferred from one person (teacher) to another (learner). The nature of knowledge is universal, objective and fixed (independent of knower). To a larger extent, it sees the learner as an empty vessel to be filled with knowledge (see figure 3.1). Thus, the teacher transmits absolute knowledge that reflects the external and independent reality – knowledge underpinned by objectivist principles. In the traditional setting, the metaphorical view of the learner is that of a switchboard. The nature of teaching activity involves presenting reality to learners through disseminating information incrementally, demonstrating procedures and reinforcing habits during independent practice. In this practice, the nature of learner activity involves replicating reality transmitted by authorities through listening, rehearsing and reciting.

In light of the above discussion, traditional (modernistic/objectivistic) view of learning is linked to the ideas of Locke (“tabula rasa”) and a hegemony of a teacher-centeredness and a transmissive approach to teaching imbedded in the notion that knowledge can be transferred from one person (teacher) to another (learner). Thus, in ontological, epistemological and anthropological perspectives, traditional teaching and learning are informed and guided by the scientific paradigm.

### **3.5.3 Leadership roles of the teacher in instructionist setting**

Research (Blom, 1999:57) states teachers and principals fulfill their roles and responsibilities according to the hierarchical structure of the school. Traditionally, educational institutions have been established, based on an instructionist/objectivist philosophical orientation. From this perspective, culture and knowledge can be transmitted from the knower to the learner. Learning means being able to acquire a set of facts or information base. The role of the teacher is to pass on the knowledge (absolute) they have, and the learner's role is to acquire the same knowledge that the teacher has (Van Niekerk, 2000:204).



The teacher's role is directive and rooted in authority. For Elliot (1984:101), the teacher's role is not limited to imparting (transferring) knowledge, but passes on the values, beliefs and norms of the society. Further, it is maintained that the teacher's role in shaping and influencing the learner's personality, requires skill and tact in his/her relationship with the parents. For example, teaching subjects such as religion and sexuality education must be done in accordance with the wishes of the parents.

Scheurman (1998:6) asserts that the primary function of the teacher is to break information and skills into small increments, present them part-to-whole in organised fashion, and then reward learner behaviours that mirror the reality presented by the teachers. In addition, for the teacher as transmitter, classroom activity might include responding to questions in a chapter, taking notes from a lecture, or responding to cues provided by the computer.

### **3.6 PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACHES TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

The history of classroom management during the past half century can be viewed as an interplay of three competing paradigms, characterised as task-oriented, group-oriented, and individual oriented (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:12). Furthermore, in any given classroom setting, and in the professional philosophy and managerial style of a particular teacher, one emphasis may be dominant, but others are manifested in some degree. The task orientation flows from the scientific management. As Johnson and Brooks (1979:2) note, it is associated with scientific management and businesslike efficiency. Both of the other two are "people orientated" and "democratic". The individual- (or learner-) centered orientation emphasizes values such as individual differences and the achievement of maximum potential, and the group-centered orientation stresses participation in, and initiation of collective activities (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:13).

Research (Good & Brophy, 1990:193) on classroom management has yielded a knowledge base that offers a coherent set of principles to guide teachers in making

decisions about how to manage their classrooms. The philosophical approaches to classroom management are grouped under two major headings, namely, *teacher power bases* and *theories of classroom management* (Levin & Nolan, 2000:73). Collen's (1994:18) research states that two approaches are distinguished: one is that the function of classroom management can be distinguished conceptually from teacher's primary functions and instruction; and classroom management is a particular instance of general function that is found in a variety of general managerial activities, occurring in a variety of organisational settings in which human enterprise is carried out. In most cases, some of these techniques are effective in some situations but not in others, for some learners but not for others, and for some teachers but not for others. Thus, for teachers to effectively manage classrooms, it is essential for them to have a reasonable knowledge and understanding of teacher power bases and a variety of theories of classroom management.

In the paragraphs below, the discussion will be focused on various types of power bases that are available to teachers to ensure acceptable/ appropriate learner-behaviour.

### **3.6.1 Teacher power bases**

Teachers as social agents, use power bases to influence the learner behaviour. For an example, every teacher probably uses each of the four types of power at some time; and every teacher has a dominant power base he/she uses most often (Levin & Nolan, 2000:73). Due to learner diversity, no single power base is applicable to all learners. Power bases, however, compliment one another in order to accommodate diversity. Central to effective and efficient classroom management is the use of a variety of power bases.

#### **3.6.1.1 Attractive/Referent power**

Du Preez (1994:296) holds that a person has reference or imitative authority if others want to identify with his work and methods. In Tauber's (1999:25) view, referent power can be learned – it is not simply some innate charisma that either you have or you do not.

As Froyen (1988:31) observes, attractive or referent power is essentially relationship power, the power teachers have because they are likable and know how to cultivate human relationships. Literature (Levin & Nolan, 2000:76; Tauber, 1999:24) maintains that when the teacher has a referent power, learners behave as he/she wishes because they like him/her as a person. They respect and are attracted to the teacher personally (Tauber, 1999:24) Also, learners view the teacher as a good person who is concerned about them, cares about their learning, and demands certain type of behaviour because it is for their best interest (Levin & Nolan, 2000:76).

The greater the attraction, the broader range of referent power (Tauber, 1999:24). For instance, teachers with referent power are able to appeal directly to learners to behave in a certain way (Froyen, 1988:31; Levin & Nolan, 2000:76). According to Levin and Nolan (2000:76), referent power should not be equated with the situation in which the teacher attempts to be the learner's friend. For learners to become the teacher's friends, they should fulfill his/her personal needs. In turn the learners are able to manipulate the teacher; and the teacher loses the ability to influence the learner to behave appropriately (ibid:76).

It is neither possible nor wise to use referent power with all the learners – using referent power with learners who genuinely dislike the teacher may result in disaster. For referent power to be used effectively, the teacher should perceive that the learners like him/her; and communicate that he/she cares and likes them. This could be done through positive nonverbal gesture, positive and oral comments, extra mile and attention, displays of sincere interest in learners' ideas, activities, specifically learning (Levin & Nolan, 2000:76).

### **3.6.1.2 Expert power**

Expert power was conceptualised by Raven and French (Tauber, 1999:25). Du Preez (1994:296) contents that expert power stems from the special knowledge or skills in a task, and can be seen as the power of professional competence (Tauber, 1999:25). As

Froyen (1988:32) points, that a teacher acquires this type of power by imbuing a subject with significance. With expert power, according to Tauber (1999:25), learners perceive that the teacher has a special knowledge or expertise and respect the teacher professionally. The teacher who uses it influences learner behaviour.

Levin and Nolan (2000:77) claim that when the teacher enjoys expert power, learners behave as the teacher wishes because they view him as a good knowledgeable teacher who can help them to learn. In order to use expert power effectively, two conditions should be fulfilled, namely:

- The learners must believe that the teacher has both special knowledge and the teaching skills to help them acquire knowledge; and
- The learner must value learning what the teacher is teaching.

Learners attach value on learning for various reasons: the subject matter is interesting, they can use it in the real world, they want good grades or they want to reach some personal goal such as college or a job (Levin & Nolan, 2000:77). The teacher, who uses expert power successfully, communicates his competence through mastery of content material, the use of motivating and teaching techniques, clear explanations, and thorough preparation (Froyen, 1988:32; Levin & Nolan, 2000:77). In essence, he/she uses professional knowledge and skills to help the learners to learn.

As is the case with referent power, expert power is not applicable to all instances. For example, a technology teacher may use it in specific areas of learning but not in remedial general technology group. Also, in junior phase levels (primary school), learners perceive their teachers as experts and expert power does not seem to motivate these learners to behave properly because the teachers have formal and legal authority in maintaining appropriate behaviour in the classroom (Levin & Nolan, 2000:77). By inference, this type of power base seems to be compatible to learners above the primary grade.

### 3.6.1.3 Legitimate power

This power, as Du Preez (1994:296) states, stems from the boss's "right" or formal position to exercise authority – the subordinates have an obligation to obey. Legitimate power, in Tauber's (1999:24) understanding, operates on the basis that people accept the social structure of institutions – homes, churches, the military and schools. At the heart of this structure is a hierarchy of power. Learners perceive that a teacher has the right to prescribe behaviour and they recognise and respect the teacher's position (ibid:24).

Froyen (1988:34) contends that *in loco parentis* is a term often used to refer to the teacher's legitimate power, and acting in place of the parent has long been regarded as a legitimate function of the teacher. Further, the teacher might draw upon legitimate power to exact conformity to academic and conduct standards. Legitimate power emanates from the learner's belief that the teacher has a right to prescribe academic and conduct standards (ibid:34).

According to Levin and Nolan (2000:78), the teacher who seeks to influence the learners through legitimate power expects learners to behave properly because he/she has the legal and formal authority to maintain appropriate behaviour in the classroom. This type of power base needs the teacher to demonstrate through his/her behaviour, that he/she accepts the responsibilities, as well as power, inherent in his/her the role. In essence, the learners behave because the teacher is the teacher, and inherent in that role is a certain authority and power.

Teachers can also gain legitimate power through following and enforcing school rules; and by supporting school policies and administrations. Even though the learners of today are likely to be influenced by the legitimate power than learners of 30-40 years ago, it is still possible to use legitimate power with some learners and in some classes (Levin & Nolan, 2000:79).

### 3.6.1.4 Reward/Coercive power

This is the power a person possesses to remunerate another for orders or assignments that have been carried out precisely and/or successfully whilst coercive power means that a person has to compel another to carry out an order or task (Du Preez, 1994:295). Froyen (1988:34) holds that when we think of rewards as ways to influence behaviour, we are often reminded of the exact opposite – punishment. Reward and coercive power are the two sides of the same coin – both are based on behavioural notions of learning, foster teacher control over learner behaviour and are governed by the same principles of application (Levin & Nolan, 2000:79).

Reward power is based on the assumption that learners allow teachers to exert power over them because they perceive that the teacher is in a position to pass out or withhold desired rewards (Tauber, 1999:23). On the other hand, coercive power as Tauber (1999:22) notes, because learners perceive teachers to be in a position to mete out punishment, learners allow teachers to dictate their behaviour. In addition, learners cope with repeated punishment in a variety of ways, including rebelling, retaliating, lying, cheating, conforming, submitting and withdrawing from teaching (Froyen, 1988:33; Tauber, 1999:22).

According to Froyen (1988:33), coercive power is the ability to mete out punishments when the learner does not comply with a request or a demand. For this power base to be effectively used, there are several requirements that should be fulfilled, among other, these include:

- the teacher must be consistent in assigning and withholding rewards and punishments;
- the teacher must ensure that learners see the connection between their behaviour and the rewards or punishment; and
- rewards or punishments actually must be perceived as rewards or punishments by the learner (many learners view a three-day out-of –school suspension as a vacation, not a punishment) (Froyen, 1988:31; Levin & Nolan, 2000:79).

Table 3.2 below illustrates the different teacher power bases.

**Table 3.2: Teacher Power Bases**

	Referent	Expert	Legitimate	Reward/Coercive
<i>Motivation to behave</i>	Learner likes teacher as a person	Teacher has special knowledge	Teacher has legal authority	Teacher can reward and punish
<i>Need for teacher management of learner behaviour.</i>	Very low	Very low	Moderate	High
<i>Requirements for use</i>	Learners must like the teacher as a person	Teacher expertise must be perceived and valued	Learners must respect legal authority	Rewards and punishments must be effective
<i>Key teacher behaviours</i>	Communicates caring for learners	Demonstrates mastery of content and teaching skills	Acts as a teacher is expected to act	Has and uses knowledge of learner likes and dislikes
<i>Age limitations</i>	Useful for all levels	Less useful at primary level	Useful at all levels	Useful at all levels, but less useful at senior high level
<i>Caveats</i>	Teachers is not learner's friend	Heavily dependent on learner values	Societal changes have lessened the usefulness of this power base	Emphasises extrinsic over intrinsic motivation

(Adapted from Levin and Nolan, 2000:81)

Maphumulo and Vakalisa (2000:335) discuss approaches to classroom management. They assert that the teachers must find and adopt the classroom management approach that fits well with their individual teaching style. According to Ornstein (as quoted by Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 2000:335), personality, philosophy and teaching style directly affect the teacher's approach to management and matters of discipline in the classroom. Ornstein (ibid:335) describes seven approaches which teachers may identify. This includes the following that are discussed below:

***The assertive approach*** – The assertive approach is based on the philosophy that the teacher knows the way, and that the learners need a decisive guidance. The teacher pronounces the rules and explains their rationale, but never gives into the persuasion of the learner.

***The business-academic approach*** – The business-academic approach stems from the belief that “*the devil always finds work for the idle*”. This is the philosophy which guides the view that good advance planning of classroom activities, and sound strategies of how activities should be carried out, go a long way towards minimising classroom management problems. The teacher sets clearly stated assignments with precise instructions on how to complete them, begins lesson promptly and give feedback on learners’ progress on time.

***The behavioural modification approach*** – The behavioural modification approach originates from the behaviourist psychology of Watson and Skinner. This approach claims that learning is synonymous with behaviour modification which may be effected through the conditioning of the individual’s responses to external stimuli.

***The group managerial approach*** – The group managerial approach holds that to minimise chances of disruptive behaviour, the teacher should develop the sense of allegiance to the group among the learners.

***The group guidance approach*** – The group guidance approach is closely related to the group managerial approach. Its emphasis lies on viewing unacceptable behaviour of individual learner as manifestations of a malfunctioning group which should be solved by counseling the whole group. It is informed by the view that individuals (the behaviour) are products of the communities of which they are part.

***The acceptance approach*** – The acceptance approach stems from the belief that for many learners’, misbehaviour is often a cry for acceptance by the people they admire, both elders and peers.

***The success approach*** – The success approach is also rooted in humanist psychology; and plays a big role in determining whether one will develop a positive self-concept or negative one.



### **3.6.2 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT THEORIES**

The theories on classroom management represent three points on a continuum moving from learner-directed towards teacher-directed practices. In practice, classroom behaviour of most teachers constitutes some blending of these theories. In Strachota's (1996:133) view, theories about how best to help children learn and change, have to be broad enough to encompass the vitality and ambiguity that come with life in classroom. In addition, if relied on too exclusively, behaviourism or constructivism or nurturance winds up "living awkwardly" in a school.

#### **3.6.2.1 Learner-directed management**

The learner-directed management model, among others, draws heavily from the works of Thomas Gordon, Alfie Kohn, Bob Strachota; Ruth Charney. Gordon developed the Teacher Effectiveness Model (Wiseman & Hunt 2001:67; Tauber, 1999:25). Gordon's philosophy stresses freedom and responsibility, and abandonment of power and authority in favour of negotiation of "no lose" arrangement resulting in mutual meeting of needs; and it is based on effective communication among learners and teachers (Brophy & Putman, 1979:212; Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:68; Levin & Nolan, 2000:83). As Moore (1995:294) notes, learner-directed management model strives to instruct teachers on how to establish positive relationships with learners. Gordon believed that teachers can reduce negative behaviours by using clearer, less provocative communications; and if you (the teacher) are blocked from reaching your goals by the learner's action, then you own the problem (ibid:294).

Gordon believed that learner-owned problems call for the teacher to provide sympathy and help; when the teacher owns a problem, he/she should explain it using "I" messages that explicitly describe the learner behaviour; and that the "I" messages help the teacher and learners to achieve shared rational views of problems and to assume a cooperative problem-solving attitude (Good & Brophy, 1990:236). According Levin and Nolan (2000:83), advocates of learner-directed management believe that the primary goal of

schooling, is to prepare learners for life in democracy – which requires citizens who are able to control their behaviour, care for others and make wise decisions. Viewed from learner-directed management perspective, time spent on management is considered as well spent on equipping learners with skills that are essential to them as adult citizens in democracy (ibid:83).

Learner-directed theory of classroom management holds that learners must have primary responsibility for controlling their behaviour and are capable of controlling their behaviour if given the opportunity to do so (Levin & Nolan, 2000:83). Also, learner-directed models of management advocate for the establishment of classroom learning communities, which are designed to help learners become more self-directed, more responsible for their own behaviour; more independent in making appropriate choices; and more caring toward fellow learners and teachers.

In learner-directed learning environment, learners develop self-regulation skills, collaborative social skills and decision-making skills (Levin & Nolan, 2000:83). The teacher relies more heavily on concepts such as learner ownership, learner choice, community, conflict resolution and problem-solving. Basically, a well managed classroom is the one in which learners care for and collaborate successfully with each other, make good choices, and continually strive to do high quality work that is important and interesting to them (Levin & Nolan, 2000:83).

### **3.6.2.2 Collaborative management**

Collaborative management theory takes its shape, among others, from the works of the theorist: Rudolf Dreikurs, Bernice Grunwald, Childers Pepper and William Glasser. Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper developed the Logical Consequences Model. Logical consequences, in Tauber's (1999:119), are those supplied by someone else, not by nature. To a reasoning person, supplying logical consequences makes sense. Literature (Moore, 1995:295; Brophy & Putman, 1979:210; Tauber, 1999:119) suggests that Logical Consequences Model emphasises that learners should be taught to be responsible for their

behaviour; and teach learners to evaluate situations, to learn from experiences and to make responsible choices.

Rudolph Dreikurs' theoretical position was founded on his personal experiences with his psychoanalytic psychology (Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:58). For example, as Tauber (1999:119) points, the consequences must be experienced by a child as logical in nature, or the corrective effect may be lost. Dreikurs *et al.* (1982) believed that one clue to the learners' motives being attention seeking is that they comply with the teacher's instructions but then quickly offend again, so it is sometimes important to ignore unwanted behaviour; and learners may challenge teachers on the basis of power by refusing to comply, telling the teacher, "You can't Make me".

Dreikurs held that learners want to belong and gain acceptance and that their behaviour is directed towards achieving this goal; and the key to correcting a behaviour problem lies in identifying the mistaken goal and making the learner understand that it is prompting the problem behaviour; and that learners often misbehave because they desire recognition from the teacher and/or classmates (Moore, 1995:295; Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:58). Thus, the learner is informed of the logical consequences of the behaviour and is encouraged to make a commitment to good behaviour (Moore, 1995:295).

On the other hand, the Glasser Model recommends reality therapy as a means to good discipline (Good & Brophy, 1990:264; Moore, 1995:292; Brophy & Putman, 1979:211; Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:63). Reality therapy, according to Tauber (1999:133), operates on the premise that it is more important for the client to confront his or her inappropriate behaviour by dealing with the present rather than dwelling in the past. Glasser's model finds place in French and Raven's Social Power Bases of Power framework under "legitimate" power (Tauber, 1999:134). According to Good and Brophy (1990:237), it is intended for use with learners who persistently violate rules that are reasonable and emphasises showing learners that they will be responsible for their in-school behaviour. This model believes that learners are rationale beings and control their behaviour if they wish; and stresses the use of classroom meetings in addressing problems (Tauber,

1999:138; Moore, 1995:292; Good & Brophy, 1990:264; Cangelosi, 2004:92; Wolfgang, 1994:253).

In addition, the Glasser Model advocates that the learner responsibility must be continually stressed, and learners must be forced to acknowledge their behaviour and to make judgments regarding it (Moore, 1995:292). At the heart of model are the rules which must be enforced. The Glasser Model holds that the rules should remain flexible and open to changes at future meetings in order to accommodate changing situations (Moore, 1995:293). The teacher's role is to stay in the background and to give opinions sparingly.

Levin and Nolan (2000:89) contend that collaborative theory of classroom management is based on the belief that the control of learner behaviour is the joint responsibility of the learner and the teacher. Furthermore, its theorists hold that outward behaviour must be managed to protect the rights of the group; and the individual's thoughts and feelings must be explored to get to the heart of the behaviour. This school of thought is underpinned by the assumption that relating behaviour to its natural or logical consequences, helps the learners learn to anticipate the consequences of the behaviour and thus, become more self-regulating (ibid:89). Thus, in collaborative management, learners become capable of controlling their behaviour, not simply following the rules, but rather understand why rules exist and then choose to follow them because they make sense.

### **3.6.2.3 Teacher-directed management**

Teacher-directed management, among others, departs on the works of theorists such as, James Cangelosi, Lee Canter and Marlene Canter and Michael Valentine. Wiseman and Hunt (2001:69) posit that the Canters developed a model for classroom management known as *Assertive Discipline*. For Canter (1988a:24) Assertive Discipline is teaching learners the natural consequences of their actions. Learners choose (consequences) and assertive teachers do not punish learners; and learners are taught to accept the

consequences for their own actions (ibid:24). This model, according to Tauber (1999:68), finds its home in the Wolfgang and Glickman's School of Thought framework as an interventionist strategy. For Wolfgang (1994:252), assertiveness training is based on the premise that humans can respond to the conflict in three ways: nonassertively, hostilely or assertively.

Curwin and Mendler (1989:83) contend that Assertive Discipline provides an attractive, packaged, simple-to-understand, easy-to-implement alternative. As literature (Moore, 1995:292; Cangelosi, 2004:300; Wolfgang, 1994:335) states, *Assertive Discipline Model's* intent is to help teachers take charge in their classrooms; and advocates the need for teachers to be assertive. In addition, the Canter's Assertive Discipline model is concerned with a teacher asserting his or her rights and putting together a plan of rewards and punishments that will enforce the teacher's authority; and encourages teachers to make their own expectations clear to their learners and to follow through with established consequences for those learners who choose to break established rules (Wolfgang, 1994:333; Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:69).

From the beginning of the year, assertive teachers refuse to tolerate improper behaviour (Moore, 1995:292). Assertive teachers, according to Canter (as quoted by Robertson, 1999:187), take the following stand in their classrooms:

*"I will tolerate no pupil from stopping me from teaching, I will tolerate no pupil preventing another pupil from learning. I will tolerate no pupil engaging in any behaviour that is not in his or her own best interest and in the best interest of others. And most important, whenever a pupil chooses to behave appropriately, I will immediately recognise that behaviour"*

Advocates of teacher-directed management theory, as Levin and Nolan (2000:90) noted, is that learners become good decision makers by internalising the rules and guidelines for behaviour that are given to them by responsible and caring adults. Its goal is to create a learning environment in which management issues and concerns play a minimal role,

discourage misbehaviour, and to deal with it as swiftly as possible when it does occur (ibid:90).

The primary emphasis in teacher-directed classrooms is on academic content and processes. According to Levin and Nolan (2000:90), the teacher makes almost all the major decisions, including room arrangement, seating arrangement, classroom decoration, academic content, assessment devices, and decisions concerning the daily operation of the classroom. In contrast to the learner-directed management theory, in teacher-directed, time spent on management issues is not seen as productive time because it reduces time for teaching and learning.

Table 3.3 below gives a comparison of the three theories of classroom management.

**Table 3.3 Theories of classroom management**

Question	Learner-directed	Collaborative	Teacher-directed
<i>Primary responsibility for management</i>	Learner	Joint	Teacher
<i>Goal of management</i>	Caring community focus and self-direction	Respectful relationships, academic focus	Well-organised, efficient, academic focus
<i>Time spent on management</i>	Valuable and productive	Valuable for individual but not for group	Wasted time
<i>Relationships within management systems</i>	Caring, personal relationships	Respect for each other	Noninterference with each other's rights
<i>Provision of learner choice</i>	Wide latitude and freedom	Choices with defined options	Very limited
<i>Primary goal in handling misbehaviour</i>	Unmet need to be explored	Minimise in a group; pursue individually	Minimise disruption; redirect
<i>Interventions used</i>	Individual conference, group problem solving, restitution, natural consequences	Coping skills, natural and logical consequences, anecdotal record keeping	Clear communication, rewards and punishments, behaviour contracting
<i>Individual differences</i>	Extremely important	Somewhat important	Minor importance
<i>Teacher power bases</i>	Referent	Expert, legitimate	Reward/coercive
<i>Theorists</i>	Charney, Farber and Mazlish, Gordon, Kohn, Strachota, Putnam and Burke	Curwin and Mendler, Dreikurs, Glasser	Axelrod, Cangelosi, Canter, Valentine

(Adapted from Levin & Nolan, 2000:92)

### 3.7 MODELS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Johnson and Brooks (1979:36) posit that the history of classroom management (models) progresses from a theoretical, commonsense, prescriptions to quasitheoretical, moralistic “laws” to the disparate ideological formulations of Taylorism, individualization “plans”, and group dynamics. However, literature (Levin and Nolan, 2000:73; Wiseman and Hunt, 2001:59; Bush, 2003:30; Tauber, 1999:41) indicates that there are multiple models or systems of classroom management and hundreds of techniques for promoting positive learners within these models. Most of these approaches to classroom management are rooted in the behaviouristic psychology, as attested by the prevalence of such terms as positive and negative reinforcement, operant conditioning, token economies, and contingency management (Johnson & Brooks, 1979:38).

Johnson and Brooks (1979:36) discuss two general models for management, both rooted in the notion of a dynamic tension among contending values. The first one proposed by Redl in 1944, recognises the claims of both individual and the group in both the immediate situation and the long-term perspective. This model holds that in solving management problems, it is seldom possible to serve each of these four interests optimally. But while one must predominate, the “Law of Marginal Antisepsis” advises the teacher that what ever action taken on behalf of the group should at least be harmless to the individual (and vice versa), and whatever is done to bring about “surface behavioural changes must at least be harmless in so far as long-range attitude changes are concerned” (and vice versa) (ibid:37). Thus, in dealing with a learner who causes a disturbance in the classroom, the teacher cannot ignore either the immediate interests of the group or the long-range welfare of the learner in question (ibid:37).

The second model was conceptualised and developed by Getzels and Thelen. Extending the model originally advanced by Getzels and Guba, the authors proposed a “transactional” resolution of the institutional (homothetic) and personal (idiographic) interests that are always in contention within an organisation (Johnson & Brooks,

1979:37). A general equation for the behaviour of individuals in organizations was advanced, namely:

$$B = f(R \times P),$$

where **B** is observed behaviour, **R** is a given institutional role defined by expectations attaching to it, and **P** is the personality of the particular role incumbent defined by his need-disposition (ibid:37). For Getzels and Thelen (as quoted by Johnson & Brooks, 1979:37), the notion of “dynamic transaction” takes into account “both the socialization of personality and the personalization of roles” through a “balance of emphasis on the performance of role requirements and the expression of personality needs”, making” the standard of behaviour both individual integration and institutional adjustment.

Tauber (1999:41) asserts that several models, for example, the Canters’, Glasser’s and Gordon’s, have been widely used for in-service and, to some extent, pre-service training. Further, these models range from interventionist to noninterventionist in nature – from those that purport to control to those that purport to influence. In Wiseman and Hunt’s (2001:59) opinion, some of these models rely less on the motivation of learners in their learning than might be thought of as appropriate. A central thread running through these models is the emphasis on creating environments that are conducive to preventing learner behaviour and not just reacting to misbehaviour once it occurs (ibid:59).

These perspectives overlap in several aspects, where similar models are given different names or the same term is used to denote different approaches (Bush 2003:30). Further, the models have been borrowed from a wide range of disciplines, and in few cases developed specifically to explain unique features of educational institutions. Wiseman and Hunt (2001:59) hold that some management models actually are best used when the entire faculty and administration of a school participate in their implementation. This is because many teachers are discovering theories and procedures they would like to implement in their classrooms, even though other teachers and administrators in their schools may not be participating in their use. Thus, a personalised approach to management generally has more appeal and can be much effective.



No model can satisfy all the situations. The approach adopted, however, in a particular situation, is largely informed by the teaching style and the philosophy of education. Thus, teachers need to develop eclectic, self-styled approach to classroom management that borrows the best presented by one or more models or recommended behaviours (Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:59). Table 3.4 below on the next page illustrates management theorists and management models.

**Table 3.4 Management theorists and Management Models**

<b>Theorists</b>	<b>Focus of management model</b>
<i>John Kounin</i>	Focus is on the learning behaviour that will allow them to become better leaders in the classroom.
<i>Rudolf Dreikurs</i>	Focus is on analysing behaviour problems to determine their source/origin.
<i>William Glasser</i>	Focus is on empowering learners to become better group members
<i>Hiam Ginott</i>	Focus is on improving communication to avoid alienating learners inhumanely.
<i>Fred Jones</i>	Focus is on keeping learners engaged in academically appropriate activities.
<i>Thomas Gordon</i>	Focus is on teachers using counseling techniques to improve communication with their learners.
<i>Lee and Marlene Canter</i>	Focus is on teachers asserting their right to teach and their learners' right to learn.
<i>B.F. Skinner</i>	Focus is on shaping learner behaviour with positive reinforcement
<i>David and Roger Johnson</i>	Focus is on learners resolving their conflicts
<i>Alfie Kohn</i>	Focus is on learners becoming intrinsically motivated to value and good behaviour

(Adapted from Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:60)

From what has preceded, it can be inferred that these influential models have been developed to create positive learning environment and manage learner behaviour in the classroom. This study assumes that teacher's shallow or little understanding of the basic models, will limit the endeavour to construct own best model for classroom management for a particular classroom setting, and more specifically, constructivist classroom.

### **3.8 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, instructionist classroom management was conceptualised from a historical perspective and an organizational perspective. Also, the essence of traditional classroom management, philosophical approaches and theories to classroom management and practice of classroom management, were presented. In a modernist framework, the nature

of knowledge is universal, objective and fixed (independent of the knower; it is grounded on the theoretical tradition behaviourism). Metaphorically, it views of learner as a switchboard. The nature of teaching activity present reality to learners, disseminates information incrementally, demonstrate procedures and reinforce habits during independent practice.

Lastly, the nature of learner activity replicates reality to learners through listening, rehearsing and reciting. The Taylorist ideology and approach were not confined to industries that mass-produced "hardware" such as automobiles or washing machines, with their simple structures and standardized outputs, or to offices that performed a narrow range of simple tasks ([http://www.accel-team.com/scientific/scientific\\_02.html](http://www.accel-team.com/scientific/scientific_02.html)). This ideology is also applicable to various fields of study, *inter alia*: politics, psychology, science, and more specifically teaching and education. For example, education management theorists have traditionally borrowed ideas from industrial settings. In the next chapter, the focus will be on analysis of research in traditional classroom management.