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CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND PUPILS LEARNING OUTCOMES IN LAWRA MUNICIPALITY

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A thesis in the Department of Educational Administration and Management, Faculty of Educational Studies, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy (Educational Administration and Management) in the University of Education, Winneba

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Grace Yirmaalu Dassah declared that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature: ……

Date: ……

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Name of Supervisor: JUDITH BAMPO, PhD

Signature: ……

Date: ……

DEDICATION

To my loving son, Kelvin Vielu Naapaneh and my sweet mum, Madam Gladys Dassah.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

GLOSSARY

ABCC-R	Attitude and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory
BDT	Basic Design and Technology
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
BIMS	Behaviour and Instructional Management Scale
CST	California Standard Test
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GES	Ghana Education Service
GPS	Global Positing System
IRS	Internal Revenue Service
JHS	Junior High School
LM	Lawra Municipal
LOCs	Learning Outcomes
MMDAS	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
PBS	Positive Behaviour Supports
PLF	Positive Learning Framework
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientist
STAR	Student-Teacher Achievement Ratio
Tr	Teacher
US	United States

ABSTRACT

This study sought to examine the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes in Junior High Schools in Lawra Municipality, Upper West Region, Ghana. The objectives were to: (i) examine the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes, (ii) examine the classroom management strategies of teachers in basic schools (iii) investigate the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes and (iv) assess the learning outcomes of pupils in basic schools in Lawra Municipality. The study adopted a mixed method design. The population of this study comprise all the Junior High Schools within the Municipality. The target population comprised all JHS two pupils whilst the accessible population comprised of JHS two pupils in the selected 10 schools. The schools were regrouped into six circuits and 10 schools were selected randomly using simple random sampling techniques. A sample of 327 participants were interviewed, comprising: 10 teachers and 317 pupils. A self-administered close-ended Likert type (3point scale) instrument was used to collect quantitative data from the pupils and qualitative data was collected from the teachers using an interview guide. Statistical package for social scientist (SPSS) version 20 was used to analyse the quantitative data and ATLAS.ti to analyse the qualitative data. The result indicated large class sizes with negative effect on pupils learning outcomes, poor classroom management strategies hence influencing learning outcomes negatively. The results also indicated poor learning outcomes of pupils in basic schools in Lawra Municipality. The findings revealed that, 81.1% of respondents agreed that the classroom is congested whiles 18.9% had a different view. 84.2% of the pupils disagreed with the item: pupils are comfortable with the sitting arrangement whiles 15.8% taught differently. Also, 95.9% of the respondents agreed that teachers are not able to attendant to individual pupils during lesson delivery. It is therefore recommended that since government is the major financier of the schools, government policy on classroom management strategies on education must be regularly reformed to incorporate new and modern classroom management strategies to teaching and learning to make the school environment conducive for learning. In addition, this study will help Directors of education, school administrators, teachers and students to know the factors that influence classroom management strategies and how they affect learning outcomes. More so, Directors of education and Headteachers can use the findings from this study to come out with effective supervision approaches to teaching and learning process. This will help learners to know their expected learning outcomes as an individual or a class.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The quality of educators forms the back bone of quality of education of any given country. Thus, having the best teachers is an essential ingredient for the quality of teaching (Hidayati & Retnawati, 2016). It is important how teachers manage their classrooms to make it into an effective learning environment. According to Pashler, McDaniel, and Rohrer, (2009) pupils learn differently in a classroom and when an effective instructional method is chosen, it could alleviate behavioural problems of the pupils. The orientation of a teacher towards classroom management is important because it forms the classroom management theory of the educator (Egeberg & Price, 2016). Theories on classroom management are constantly evolving according to the day and age. However, there are major theories which will always help the educators to acquire necessary knowledge on how to solve a classroom management problem.

According to the Sugai, Horner and Gresham (2002) and Rajab (2018) in today's society, schools are being held accountable for every aspect of pupils learning outcomes. Classroom management plays a major role in a pupil's classroom achievement. Unfortunately, many of the education reforms have failed to mention or address how classroom management influences pupils' learning outcomes. Throughout the ages, classroom discipline has been as a major issue for teachers (Martin, Chiodo & Chang, 2001; Sass, Lopes, Oliveira & Martin, 2016). Richardson and Shupe (2003) claimed pupil learning outcomes has been affected in schools where discipline and behavioural issues are not appropriately handled. School discipline

issues are increasing in public focus. Despite longstanding attention to the problem, there is a growing perception that not all public schools are safe places of learning, highlighted by extensive media coverage of school-based violent acts, like that of the December 14, 2012 incident in Sandy Hook Connecticut, where twenty children and six adults were killed by an intruder. Discipline problems are of great concern in America's schools (Rajab, 2018; Sass, Lopes, Oliveira, & Martin, 2016) and Ghana is not an exception. More students/pupils are spending time outside of the classroom, issues like internal suspension or external school suspension, instead of in the classroom setting, which ultimately affects their academic outcomes.

Though several popular classroom management theories, such as (Burrhus Frederic Skinner, 1967; Kundur, Rogers, Wong, Wang, & Lauby, 1990), Glaser (1990) and Mansor, Eng, Rasul, Hamzah and Hamid, (2012) utilized in classrooms today, teachers are still concerned about classroom management and pupils learning outcomes (Rajab, 2018). As teacher concerns and mandates have evolved over the years, classroom management techniques have been divided into two major components: behavioural and instructional management. Based on Martin and Sass (2016),behavioural management is similar to, but different from discipline in that it includes pre-planned efforts to prevent misbehaviour as well as the teacher's response to it. Bahavioural management refers to the general daily maintenance of the classroom, which includes classroom rules for pupils input during instructional time and the types of reward systems utilized (Martin & Sass, 2016). Instructional Management includes aspects such as monitoring seatwork, structuring of the daily routines as well as teachers' use of lecture and pupils practice versus interactive, participatory approaches to instruction (Martin & Sass, 2016).

Colberg (2010), defined classroom management as the methods and strategies an educator uses to maintain a classroom environment that is conducive to student success and learning. Classroom management strategies should be a toolbox that efficient teachers can acquire and use within their classrooms. According to Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering (2003), well-managed classrooms provide an environment in which teaching and learning can flourish.

Also, Marzano, Marzano and Pickering (2003) is of the view that, the importance of pupils feeling safe at school is linked to pupil learning. Without this feeling of safety, pupils will develop anxiety and become uneasy in the classroom. Marzano, Marzano and Pickering (2003) viewed safety at school as; Safe and orderly environment is protecting students from physical or psychological harm and maintaining order so learning can take place. This present study was guided by Martin and Sass (2016), who suggest that classroom management encompasses teacher efforts to oversee the activities of the classroom including student behaviour, student interactions and learning.

Even though research shows the importance of classroom management, it is unclear which method or strategy is more appropriate to employ in elementary schools (Rajab, 2018). As teachers work through the new mandates and standards developed by the national and state governments and local school boards, classroom management strategies are driven to the end of their list. Even though many people have researched this topic, to the best of my knowledge there is limited literature on the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes in the Ghana. According to Sunday-Piaroi (2018), There are many experts telling us how to handle discipline problems in our classrooms. Yet these experts do not always agree.

The current trends: noninterventionist, interventionist, and interactionalist, are the approaches to classroom management that will be investigated in this research project. Noninterventionist (proactive) is "being prepared and in control" Sunday-Piaroi (2018). Interventionist (reactive) is doing "this" because some kid did "that!" Sunday-Piaroi (2018). Interactionalists are seen as believes pupils learn from interacting with peers in their environments, which is a shared classroom management strategy (Matovu, 2018). Each of these classroom management Philosophies is based on scholarly reasoning.

Harry Wong is the major proponent of noninterventionist discipline. He purports to the theory that classroom issues must be handled before an issue occurs. Teoh, Welch and Wong (1998), commented this management strategy in his work; Students involved with their work, especially with academic, even teacher-led instruction; Students always know what is expected of them and they tend to be successful; there is very little time off task such as wasted, disruption, etc.; the classroom environment is work oriented along with being pleasant and relaxed.

Lee Canter's assertive discipline is considered the interventionist approach. Etheridge, (2010) defined assertive discipline, originally designed by Lee Canter, (2010) as a disciplinary approach that is designed to acknowledge and take charge of assertive approach on the educator's part. The procedure is oriented to the teacher and ensures that rule making falls under the teacher's authority. Positive consequences, rewards, negative consequences, and punishment are items that were selected for the benefit of both the students and the teachers.

The interactionalist uses a shared classroom management strategy (Manning & Bucher, 2013) or foster pupils learning outcomes by adopting a combination of interventionist and noninterventionist approaches (Lanoue, 2019). These theories allow for the pupils and teachers to acknowledge the individual behavioural differences of others. This type of management allows a teacher to make modifications and adjustments in his/her classroom by determining how his/ her pupils desire to be treated.

Even though there is theoretical support for interventionist (Chao, Sze, Chow, Forlin, & Ho, 2017; Canter & Canter 1976 and Burrhus F Skinner, 1971), noninterventionist (Kounin, 1970; Wong, Wong, Rogers, & Brooks, 2012), and interactionalist (Manning & Bucher, 2013; Lanoue, 2019) on the aspect of classroom management styles, little is known regarding how pupils learning outcomes might be related to these classroom management styles (Rajab, 2018). Further, in my studies I have not come across literature on influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes especially in Ghana. Classroom management and pupils' learning appear to be linked. If elementary schools are striving to develop pupils who can be successful and who can achieve throughout their school experience, then classroom management techniques need to be studied to know how it influences pupils' learning outcomes and student success. This gap in the literature is reflected in the following problem statement.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In view of the behavioural model approach Harvard (2006), the Ghana Education Service (GES) instituted a teacher to students' ratio of 1:40, with the aim of enhancing effective teaching and learning procedure effectively in class. Contrary to

this standard, it is obvious to find large class sizes in almost all the 41 primary schools in Lawra Municipality. A baseline survey which the researcher conducted in 10 (24%) of these schools showed that, all the 10 primary schools had an average class size of 60-65 pupils.

With such large class sizes, preliminary interviews with staff and pupils during the baseline survey revealed that it becomes a bit tedious for the teachers to handle pupils with different behaviours couple with teaching and learning in the same class. Some head teachers acknowledged the difficulty with teachers delivering their lessons or dealing with such large numbers in single class since each child has a unique behaviour. Pupils equally complained of learning effectively in large classes which are always invariably noisy. Similarly, at the 2015 Annual General Meeting of Headmasters Conference one speaker lamented the increasing number of students to the inadequate facilities, teachers and other dwindling resources in schools. As observed by Harvard (2006), higher quality education fosters economic growth and development. But quality education partly depends on how well teachers are trained and the number of pupils they handle in the class since they are inputs to education delivery.

A number of studies have been conducted on the effects of large class size on academic performance (Ayeni & Olowe, 2016; Akoto-Baako, 2018; Earthman, 2002). However, data pertaining to the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils' learning outcomes is very limited in Ghana. From my observation in the 41 primary schools in the Municipality and my preliminary interviews with staff and pupils during the baseline survey which I conducted in 10(24%) of the schools revealed that the problem of classroom management strategies and pupils learning

outcomes exist in Lawra Municipality. Therefore, this study seeks to determine the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils' learning outcomes in the Lawra Municipality.

1.3 Research Objectives

1. To examine the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes in lawra municipality
2. To examine the classroom management strategies of teachers in basic schools in Lawra Municipality
3. To investigate the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcome
4. To determine the learning outcomes of pupils in Lawra Municipality

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes in basic schools in Lawra Municipality?
5. What are the classroom management strategies of teachers in basic schools in Lawra Municipality?
2. What is the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcome?
3. What are the expected learning outcomes of pupils in Lawra Municipality?

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study would focus primarily on the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes. The study would cover basic (JHS) schools in the Municipality. Geographically, the area under study is Lawra Municipality in the

Upper West Region-Ghana. The researcher selected the area for the study because of its urban/rural status.

1.6 Delimitations

According to Silva (2008) asserted that, All proposed research study have limitations; none is perfectly designed. With this in mind, it is worth mentioning that the study would focus on the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes. Teachers and pupils' would be used as the main respondents of the study because they are the direct victims when it comes to influence of classroom management strategies on pupils' learning outcomes.

For the purpose of providing understanding of the issues at hand, the study would focus on a cross-sectional survey design to have a fair bearing on the case. The total population of all basic schools in Ghana would not be studied but the studies would focus on only JHS two pupils and a teacher in the selected basic schools in the Lawra Municipality. JHS two pupils were considered because at the time of data collection, they were the not pupils in schools. The participants would be selected with no consideration of their ethnic, cultural and socio-economic background. It is clear that those who would be selected would not be the true representation of the whole JHS two pupils' population in Ghana, but it could be presumed that those that would be selected would share common challenges and barriers with the rest of the population in Ghana.

1.7 Limitations

According to Kahm (2017), limitations are conditions beyond the control of the researcher and may place restrictions on the conclusions of the study and their application to other situations. Initially, the research was to cover class four pupils

because, class four is the transition stage in the primary level, thus moving from lower level to upper level. However, with the emergence of the Corona Virus Disease (COVID-19) pandemic, the researcher had to change the population of the study from basic four to Junior High two pupils because as at the time the researcher was about to collect her data, it was only JHS two pupils that were given the chance to go to school but the rest of the pupils did not know their state as far as going back to school was concern. The teachers that were going to be considered were class teachers of basic four pupils in the selected schools in Lawra Municipality. Mostly, each class has one teacher, hence 10 teachers were to be interviewed. However, with the CVID-19 pandemic, the population of teachers was still maintained but the teacher to be interviewed was randomly selected. This is because the average number of teachers at the Junior High School level within the Municipality is five and not all of them could be interviewed.

Also, COVID-19 has automatically prolonged the time frame for the programme. At the pick of COVID, educational institutions and their activities were halted indefinitely.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The research report would be categorized into five main chapters. Chapter one provides an introductory background to the research, influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes. Other areas under this chapter include statement of the research problem, objectives of the research, research questions and justification of the study, scope of the study, delimitation and limitation. Chapter two consists of related relevant literature review of the topic and conceptual framework. Chapter three is made up of the methodology and profile of

Lawra Municipality, including the location and size; spatial distribution, the economy and educational institutions. Chapter Four comprises data analysis and discussions on the topic. Chapter five presents the summary of major findings, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Concept of Classroom

According to Sunday-Piaroi (2018), classroom is a space provided in a school where pupils gather and the teacher meets to teach them. It is a room designated for teaching and learning. Classroom is a room set aside and specifically designed and furnished for the purpose of teaching and learning (Agabi, 2010). A classroom is one of the facilities a school must have. As Agabi (2010) succinctly put a school is not complete without at least one block of classroom to facilitate organized teaching and learning.

A classroom is very important because it facilitate teaching and learning. A conducive classroom environment increases the desire for knowledge and heightens creativity in learners, (Agabi, 2010). The classroom protects learners from the erratic weather condition such as rain, wind, and extreme weather conditions (Agabi, 2010). The classroom, with the aid of its facilities such as: the writing board, classroom seats and instructional materials, enhances teaching and learning.

2.2 Classroom Management

Classroom management is the art of designing and implementing strategies by a teacher towards setting up a favourable learning environment for pupils with and without disabilities (Korpershoek, Harms, de Boer, van Kuijk, & Doolaard, 2016; & Matovu, 2019). According to Brewer and Kellough (2016), effective classroom management is the process of organizing and conducting a classroom so that it maximizes pupils learning. Henley, Ramsey and Algozzine (2002) identifies classroom management as the vital teaching skill and suggests effective teachers curtail misbehaviours to reduce interruptions and create learning environments that

allow for pupils' intellectual and emotional growth. Wong et al., (2012) is of the view that, classroom management is all the things that a teacher does to organize pupils, space, time and materials so that pupil learning can take place. Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom. Charlesworth, Mcdonald, Mcdonald and Charlesworth (2013) suggests that classroom management involves teacher actions and instructional strategies to create a learning environment that facilitates and supports active engagement in academic, social and emotional learning.

Gay (2006) argues that classroom management is broader than controlling pupils' misbehaviour and administrating discipline. It involves planning, facilitating and monitoring experiences that are conductive to high levels of learning for a wide range of pupils. It also deals with creating and sustaining classroom environments that are personally comfortable and intellectually stimulating. Kunter, Baumert and Köller (2007), state that classroom management generally is conceived to include all activities taken by the teacher to ensure order and effective time use during lessons. Evertson and Weinstein (2013) identifies that classroom management has two distinct purposes: it seeks to establish an orderly environment so pupils can engage in meaningful academic learning and it aims to enhance pupil social and moral growth. (Brophy, 2006) explained that classroom management refers to creating a learning environment which support successful instruction that is "arranging the physical environment, establishing rules and procedure, maintaining students' attention to lessons and engagement in activities" (p.9). One can therefore conclude by saying that, classroom management involves the general wellbeing of the pupils in the classroom.

2.3 Classroom Management Problem?

After extensive reading on classroom management one can come to the conclusion that classroom management problem is whatever that hinders or obstructs the academic learning of the pupils in the classroom, such as pupil misbehaviour leading to low pupil learning outcomes; ineffective teaching methods employed by teacher; inadequate infrastructure leading to low pupil learning; inadequate learning aids leading to low pupil learning; lack of relevant previous knowledge of pupils leading to low pupil learning; cultural differences among pupils leading to low pupil learning among others.

2.4 Models of Classroom Management

There are different models of classroom management that have emanated in teaching and learning. These have been as a result of the diversity of the pupils engaged in classrooms management today. What might be a good classroom management practice to one set of pupils might be an utter disaster for another set. The major models of classroom management in schools today include; interventionist classroom management, noninterventionist classroom management, and interactivist classroom management. Interventionist classroom management suggests that pupils' learning and development is a product of the learning environment as a result of the interventions in the learners' daily environment (Krause, Bochner, Duchesne, & McMaugh, 2010; Malmgren, Trezek, & Paul, 2005). Interventionist classroom management is a positive reinforcement in which rules are developed and enforced onto the learners in either a reward or consequence form (Krause et al., 2010). Noninterventionist classroom management postulates that a pupil's potential for success is predetermined. In this process a teacher guides the learner to attain his/ her problem solving abilities, positive relationship and personal growth that ultimately

can be executed independently in the absence of the teacher (Krause et al., 2010). For the interactionist the learner's development is also a product of the environmental conditions guided by the pupils' daily environment. This can be seen in a positive reinforcement classroom in which rules are established and pupils are either rewarded or given consequences based on their adherence to these rules and regulations(Krause et al., 2010).

2.5 Theoretical Overview of Classroom Management

2.5.1 Introduction

The theoretical overview for this study is based on the teacher behaviour continuum of (Wolfgang & Glickman 1980; Lanoue, 2019; Martin & Sass, 2016). According to the continuum, instructional and behavioural classroom management can be conceptualized as interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist (Lanoue, 2019; Martin & Sass, 2016) (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Classroom management teacher behaviour continuum

Source: Wolfgang and Glickman (1980), and of Martin & Sass (2016)

Classroom management approach in the 1960s was teacher centered and highly interventionist. Most theories on classroom management were on the basis of proverbs such as "spare the rod spoil the child"(Korpershock, 2016). Wolfgang (2004) explained interventionist as the reward and punishment of a teacher which form appropriate behaviour in pupils. Further, the interventionist philosophy advocates high degree of control by teacher in the classroom (Badiei, 2013).

According to Korpershock (2016), throughout the 1960s and later, non-interventionist approach to classroom management gained prominence. Porter (2008) named it as the egalitarian approach. Non-interventionist school of thought led by Dreer, Crowley, Cash, O'Neill, and Cox (2017), believed that there was no need for teacher's intervention to modify the behaviour of the children into a desirable one as they were naturally good and should be allowed time and space to grow. Other proponents of the non-interventionist approach were: Cullen, Harris, and Hill (2012) who promoted transactional analysis to solve problems. Ginott (1971), elaborated his theory on congruent communication, that is, teachers should avoid confronting pupils and understand their feelings so as to promote positive behaviour among pupils. Teacher Effectiveness Training by Gordon (2001) elucidated the way teachers should actively listen to the issues of the pupils and communicate to pupils. Kohn (2006) explained the concepts of discipline and pupils directed learning. These were some of the major non-interventionist approaches to classroom management.

Interactionalists stress that students learn necessary behaviour as a result of encountering the outside world of people and objects (Badiei, 2013). Thus, the interactionalists believe that the pupils and teachers share the responsibility of classroom management. Approaches to responding to misbehavior (Griffith, Cooper, & Ringlaben, 2002) on Cooperative Discipline, Judicious Discipline (Gathercoal & Crowell, 2000) and Discipline with Dignity (Curwin, Mendler, & Mendler, 2018) are some of the major studies based on the interactionalist ideology and approach to classroom management. Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper (2013), Kounin (1970) and Glaser (1990) provided the framework for interactionalist approach to classroom management (Wolfgang, 2004). The earliest known systematic empirical study on classroom management was conducted by Kounin (1970). Kounin (1970) focused

on classroom management as mastery of techniques that enables teachers to programme for individual differences in pupils. Spittler (2019) explained the concepts of socializing a child which offered different styles of parenting namely authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. This approach was used in the classroom back then.

After 1970 many studies emerged worldwide on the classroom management. Himes et al. (2012) advocated Assertive Discipline which established teachers to help form a structure in the classroom without hindering into the pupils rights. This Assertive Discipline training programme has since been given to teachers worldwide. According to Egeberg and Price (2016) in 1960s and 70s the theoretical foundation for teachers on classroom management was applied behaviour analysis.

According to Korpershock (2016), research on classroom management from the late 1990s to present focuses more on the area of creating positive environment through teacher-pupil collaboration in the classroom in solving the problems. Oliver, Wehby, and Reschly (2011) supported the positive learning environment methods which produce and increase constructive interactions resulting in successful classroom environment. Martin, Yin, and Mayall (2006), developed the Classroom management Style Inventory which measured teachers' styles to the classroom management in three broad dimensions such as instructional management, people management, and behaviour management. The Choice Theory Irvine (2015) has influenced classroom management by teachers creating environments and curricula that cultivate appropriate behaviour through meeting learners' needs for belonging and the feeling of empowerment.

2.6 Interventionist Classroom Management Strategies

These groups of classroom managers seek to manage the classroom by intervening to shape pupil behaviour with consequences. Skinner, Bandura, Dreikurs, and Canter each provided a unique contribution to our present understanding of interventionist classroom management.

2.6.1.1 Skinner (1971), Operant Conditioning

B.F. Skinner used the principles and ideas of behaviourism in his work and contributed immensely towards understanding human behaviour. Originally, Skinner's work on operant conditioning was not designed to address classroom management, however through his research with animals he found out that it is possible to produce desirable behaviour outcomes through rewards and undesirable behaviour through punishment so as to modify the behaviour into a favourable one (Burrhus F Skinner, 1971). He realized that, the ideas he developed could be used successfully to solve classroom management problems.

Omomia and Omomia (2014) observed that, Skinner's operant conditioning principles have influenced education greatly, especially on classroom management. Some of the areas which it has influenced are: instructional objectives, programmed instruction, mastery learning and behaviour analysis. The concepts of reinforcement and punishment were the basis of Skinner's operant conditioning. Burrhus F Skinner (1971), aptly believed that an individual learns on the basis of the consequences that follow after the performance not learn by doing something alone. Hence the term reinforcement was used. A child that adheres to the rules of the classroom it means that, such a child produces a favourable behaviour which should be reinforced with a reward. However, if that child disobeys the rule it means that, the behaviour is

unfavourable which should be reinforced with a punishment. Hence, reinforcement could be positive or negative. Reinforcement is meant for behaviour to be increased and one should keep in mind that rewards and punishment should follow right guidelines (Tauber, 2007). Positive reinforcement is given when a desirable behaviour occurs and is rewarded so that it continues to occur. For example, congratulating pupils on the completion of their tasks, rewarding the pupils with extra marks, rewarding those who scored well in the tests, etc. this proper use of reward could solve certain problems lingering in the classroom.

When an undesirable behaviour is projected by the pupils, negative reinforcement is applied by punishing the pupil to induce desirable behaviour. The objective for the use of the concept of punishment is to correct the behaviour of the pupil not to create a mental trauma. Skinner also believed that, ignoring the misbehaviour of the pupil is an alternative to punishment. According to Standridge (2014), re-enforcers used by teachers should be carefully applied to make sure that pupils continue to produce desired behaviours and not retract back to undesired behaviour. Constant reinforcement is necessary to modify the behaviour of the pupil. Rewards must be given to desirable behaviour whereas undesirable behaviour must be ignored or be punished. Negative reinforcement is applied in a classroom where teachers make pupils to follow rules of the classroom. Thus, the Theory of Reinforcement provides theoretical support to teachers and helps them to follow and set procedures to get desirable behaviour outcomes.

2.6.1.2 Bandura (1969)

The *Social Learning Theory* was developed by Albert Bandura who is of the view that, people learn behaviours from one another; appropriate and inappropriate. Chao et al., (2017) said that pupils learn through their perceptions and imitations of certain behaviours exhibited by parents, teachers, or other pupils. Bandura believed that, as behaviours were demonstrated, individuals would imitate one another (Chao et al., 2017). This theory has important implications for classroom management.

According to Grusec, (1994) Social Learning Theory, people acquire a self-efficacy or a self-belief system, which allows them to possess self-control of their thoughts, actions, inspiration, drive, and feelings throughout various levels of life. Bandura differentiated self-efficacy as the "beliefs in one's capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (Chao et al., 2017). The importance of pupil opinions in the learning process with an emphasis on the idea that people frequently acquire knowledge, rules, skills, strategies, beliefs, and attitudes by watching others was highlighted in the theory (Chao et al., 2017). Therefore, social learning is important in classrooms.

Chao et al. (2017) believed that self-efficacy influenced the choices people make because a person's behaviour is revealed through his or her experiences and learning from others. Chao et al. (2017), said that, "Efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency. Unless people believe they can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties" Chao et al., (2017) offered "triadic reciprocal causation" as an identifier for justifying how one's personal behaviour and uniqueness, along with the surrounding environment, work together to make people both products and producers

in their environments (Chao et al., 2017). This triadic reciprocal causation is the interaction between thought, influence, and action (Chao et al., 2017) in what people believe, think, and experience that determines how they behave (Chao et al., 2017, Lai & Bower, 2019; Neisser, 2014). Efficacy beliefs that a person possesses regarding their skills, influence their actions in the present and future. Pupils learn from each other and that teachers can shape a pupil behaviour by letting pupils to realize they have the power to change. This is the foundation for classroom management strategies that centre on this idea.

While Bandura's Social Learning Theory extended the views of behaviourists like Skinner, by showing how pupils can learn from the consequences of others, Dreikurs showed how interventionalist classroom management can occur in the absence of rewards and punishments by focusing on logical consequences of classroom behaviour.

2.6.1.3 Dreikurs

Social Method of Classroom Discipline was developed by Rudolf Dreikurs. The theory had four behavioural goals: attention, power, revenge, avoidance of failure(McLain, 2018). Dreikurs did not believe in the use of punishment, reinforcement or praise. Instead, he believed that natural/logical consequences (directly tied to misbehaviour, involve moral judgments, etc.) and the process of encouragement are the most useful techniques for preventing discipline problems (Dreikurs et al., 2013).

Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper (2013) said teachers should be warm, friendly, and kind while at the same time remaining firm. Hence, pupil should to be taught in democratic classroom. Teachers should learn to talk less, act more and respect pupils

as individuals with various abilities. This will make the pupils teach co-operate and willing to learn. Thus problems on discipline will be minimal (Dreikurs et al., 2013). This gives pupils the chance to understand the logical consequences of their behaviour and are more likely to act in a manner that is compatible with the goals of the classroom.

Interventionists can be behaviourists like Skinner, or social learning theorists like Bandura, or cognitivists like Dreikurs, in that they all foster methods to intervene with perceived consequences. Canter contributes assertiveness to interventionist classroom management.

2.6.1.4 Canter and canter's assertive discipline

Canter and Canter (1976) developed the Assertive Discipline model which focuses on the need for the teacher to exhibit assertive behaviour. It is a competency-based program. The discipline has some elements of a behaviourist approach but it is not entirely a behavioural theory (Mohapi, 2008). With this approach, teacher are able to communicate clearly what they want, how they feel and at same time not abusing the rights of the pupils. Himes et al., (2012) pointed out that assertion training skills could assist businessmen, pupils, teachers and a wide spectrum of individuals.

Assertive discipline helps the teacher by providing a system for dealing with the behaviour when it occurs through a plan (Steere, 1988). Himes et al., (2012) classified teachers into three groups: Assertive, Non-assertive and hostile teachers. Assertive teachers communicate to the pupils what they want by using their skills and this foster learning in the classroom. Non-assertive teachers are manipulated by the pupils because they do not have a voice in the classroom. Whereas, Hostile teachers dictate and control the pupils (Duke & Meckel, 1980).

Duke and Meckel (1980) talked about the concept of assertive discipline in the following question: "An assertive educator will actively respond to a child's inappropriate behaviour by clearly communicating to the child her disapproval of the behaviour, followed by what she/he wants the child to do" (p.13). However, assertive discipline disagree with the abuse of the pupil's rights in any manner. Instead teachers should be caring and guide to correct the behaviour of the pupils. Himes et al., (2012) argue that learners have the right to a teacher who is consistent, positive and encourages and motivates favourable behaviour.

Assertive teacher is not an aggressive teacher. The aim is to develop skills in teachers to ensure that they are in control of the classroom. This makes the presence of the teacher valuable in the classroom. This is because, he/she is able to control the class calmly and enforces the agreed rules of the class. Canter's approach stresses on rules and consequences. A chart listing all the rules must be displayed. Likewise, the consequences for violating the rules must be explained and made visible to the pupils in another chart (Steere, 1988). Hence, the focus in assertive discipline is on strategies that will help teachers to control the classroom in a democratic and a stable manner. This system enables educators to dispense positive and negative consequences in a calm and fair manner. Thus, assertive discipline assists teachers to deal with misbehaving learners.

2.6.1.5 Summary of interventionist classroom management

Their classroom management strategies are reactive in nature; providing consequences for pupils actions (Burrhus F Skinner, 1971), which may help others learn by observation (Chao et al., 2017). Further, logical consequences can be as

powerful as rewards and punishments (Soheili, Alizadeh, Murphy, Bajestani, & Ferguson, 2015) and interventionists can be assertive (Canter, 2010).

Their limitations are; they are generally, reactive rather than proactive. Pupil behaviour drives the classroom and the teacher can become a full time disciplinarian rather than a teacher. According to Kennedy, Judd, Churchward, Gray, and Krause (2008), Once a teacher gets caught in the reactive mode, classroom problems seem to multiply. Rather than react to pupils actions, noninterventionist classroom managers take a proactive approach.

2.6.2 Noninterventionist classroom management

Noninterventionist (proactive) classroom management is geared towards planning ahead to extinguish any behavioural issues before they occur in the classroom. The noninterventionist management can be more constructive than the interventionist strategy and can lead to positive behaviour and the development of self-discipline, thus, the learners' moral behaviour (Evertson & Weinstein, 2013). The noninterventionist may post rules in the classroom, discuss correct ways to act in the classroom, and praise good behaviour.

Some of the popular proponents of the proactive (noninterventionist) theory are Rogers, Kounin, and Wong. A brief overview of the philosophy and unique contribution of each of these noninterventionist (proactive) classroom management pioneers follows.

2.6.2.1 Rogers

Bucholz, and Sheffler (2009) highlighted Carl Rogers's beliefs on classroom management. The research stated that teachers should seek to create emotionally

warm, supportive environments in which they worked collaboratively with their students to achieve mutual goals. According to Ganly (2018), another proponent of noninterventionist management, reinforcement is a positive way to discipline pupils, and it is a helpful tool in the goal of classroom management. Rogers believed in experiential learning, along with self-actualization (Bucholz & Sheffler, 2009). Rogers thought if teachers were real, praised their pupils, showed empathy and understanding, then classroom management issues would be obsolete.

2.6.2.2 Kounin (1970)

Kounin contributed the "ripple effect of discipline" to noninterventionist (proactive) management (1970; p. 1). Kounin performed a research study over the course of five years to determine how a teacher's method of handling the misbehaviour of one child influences other children who are audiences to the event but not themselves targets. After watching thousands of hours of videotapes, the researchers were able to discover that, a teacher's management style influenced pupil behaviour. The researchers identified numerous strategies associated with effective teachers such as, demonstrating to the pupils the teacher is aware of everything happening in the classroom, ability to deal with multiple situations at one time, and dealing with small behaviours immediately. Kounin ended his book by concluding, "One might say that a mastery of group management techniques enables a teacher to be free from concern about management" (p. 145).

2.6.2.3 Wong

Harry Wong and wife Rosemary Wong listed four characteristics a well-managed classroom in "**How to be an effective Teacher: The First Days of School**" (1998): "Students involved with their work, especially with academic, even teacher-led

instruction; students always know what is expected of them and they tend to be successful; there is very little time off task such as wasted, disruption, etc.; The classroom environment is work oriented along with being pleasant and relaxed" (p. 86) Kizlik (2012) commented on the importance of using appropriate effective praise versus ineffective praise. One should monitor their praise to ensure wanted behaviours (Kizlik, 2012). For the most part, the Wongs recommend that teachers establish procedures and teach them to students using a three-step approach Wong et al., (2012). They believed that being effective means the teacher has an assignment going the minute the students enter the classroom. According to Wilhite, Braaten, Frey, and Wilder (2007) beliefs about the classroom are more focused on curriculum.

Wong's philosophy is definitely not one for play in the learning environment, instead more geared towards the students working and producing at all times. As a matter of fact, the Wongs suggest for teachers to explain all classroom rules, procedures, and consequences to students (Wong et al., 2012). Wong believes in teacher readiness, meeting students, seating plan, and immediate feedback. His belief is led by the three most important student behaviours: discipline, procedures, and routines. However, Wong et al., (2012) recommend that all educators make the appropriate changes to their classroom management method in order to meet the individual needs of each classroom. Their main belief is efficient classroom management generates an environment that is a safe and productive learning environment for all stakeholders (Wong et al., 2012).

2.6.2.4 Summary of non-interventionist classroom management

The noninterventionist approach to classroom management focuses on proactive rather than the reactive strategies of the Interventionists. However, it is possible that optimal classroom management may include both proactive and reactive approaches.

2.6.3 Interactionalist classroom management

The ninteractionalist classroom management strategy is a combination of noninterventionist and interventionist strategies. Glasser, (1999) was the major proponent of this management style. Glasser's used two theories as his bases: Reality Theory and Choice Theory. Choice Theory allows opportunities for pupils and teachers to understand one another's individual behavioural differences. Changes and accommodations are made in the classroom once the teacher recognizes how the pupils would like to be treated. In Reality Theory, redirection of misbehaviour is tackled by employing logical consequences, such as individual improvement plans for pupils, teacher/pupil conferences, and providing ways for pupils to evaluate their own behaviour. Ritter and Hancock (2007) define the interactionalist, like Glasser, (1999), as believes pupils learn from interacting with peers in their environments. Interactionalists have a shared classroom management strategy versus interventionist and noninterventionist.

2.6.3.1 Glasser, (1999) choice theory

The Choice Theory also known as the Control Theory was developed by Glasser which is based on the five basic principles of human needs and is beneficial in solving classroom management problems. Zeeman (2006) identified survival, belonging, freedom, power and fun as the driving force behind displaying desirable or undesirable behaviour in the classroom. The basic idea of this theory is that teachers

can play a critical role in controlling the behaviour of their pupils by helping them to make a choice which can lead to positive behavioural changes (Zeeman, 2006).

Food, shelter, physical comfort, among others are the needs for survival which are the basis for human functioning. Pupils in the classroom may not feel safe and secured if the survival need is not satisfied. According to Gabriel and Matthews (2011) teachers should understand that all pupils do not come from a safe and sound environment and they must make sure that pupils eat well, are healthy, get adequate sleep, etc. Glasser (1999) believes that for managing the class better, a teacher must arrange lighting, seats, air circulation, etc. which in turn will be conducive to classroom learning.

Another important need in the Choice Theory which is to be satisfied in pupils is the need for love Glasser (1999) believes that, when pupils share their knowledge among their friends and classmates it makes them feel loved and cared for. Hence the responsibility of the teacher to make sure that pupils are loved and cared for by allowing pupils to share their knowledge among their friends and classmates. This makes them feel accepted and respected by classmates and adults (Wilhite et al., 2007).

According to Wilhite et al. (2007), the need for freedom is vital to the pupils because it gives them a feel of independence and autonomy. This can be done by giving the pupils the space to create, think and their independence. This enhances their confidence in participating in the classroom activities. Wilhite et al. (2007), defined power as the capability of the child. This need can be fulfilled through personal development. If this need is not met, then the pupils may portray undesirable behaviour. Pupils must feel that they are worth. The power to choose what they want

to study, choice to actively participate and have a say in the learning activities must be given to the pupils. The misconduct of the pupils in the classroom will reduce if the need is fulfilled.

According to Glasser (1999), joy, pleasure, doing the activities one enjoys are some of the fun needs which a teacher can include in his teaching. It is important for a teacher to incorporate fun in his teaching because makes the pupils cooperate and learn more effectively. When learning is successfully pupils are competent and they feel confident. This makes the pupils to bond with the teacher. The choice made by the pupil must not be forced or restricted by the teacher, although giving a number of options to choose from is important. Hence, it should be real and not illusionary. (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson, 2008; Brooks & Young, 2011). The theory explains that, the brain gives everyone the self-directing capability to fulfill life needs (Shojafard et al., 2009).

It is the teacher's responsibility in the classroom to guide the learner identifies which of their needs are not being met so as to help the learner to make a choice so that they can produce a favourable behaviour. Glasser (1999), believes that when the needs of the pupils are not met problems or misbehaviour occurs in the classroom. Glasser, (1999) believed that a learner's behaviour is based on their choices hence behaviour is a matter of personal choice, Osanyin and Adebayo's School wide and Classroom Management. Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) identified that robust, management and organizational skills have led to lesser classroom management problems. Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) found out that disciplinary issues in a classroom has a significant impact on teaching and learning. Later they identified that teachers facing these problems often failed to implement their lesson plan. This theory focuses on

the three major concepts of Content Management, Conduct Management and Covenant Management.

According to Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) when teachers are able to manage equipment, materials, space, the movement of people and lessons that are part of a curriculum to be studied Content Management occurs. Emphasis is on instructional management skills, sequencing and integrating additional instructional activities and dealing with instruction-related discipline problems. An example is when pupils are working in groups on an assignment and the teacher monitors the groups by going round each desk to check what they are doing (Taylor, 2009). It is necessary for the teacher to give feedback and assist them.

Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) identifies that in an attempt to address and resolve discipline issues in the classroom, teachers employ a set of procedural skills in the classroom which they turned as conduct management. Which is centered on one's beliefs about the nature of people (Shamina & Mumthas, 2018). It is essential to create an orderly and task-oriented approach to teaching and learning. Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) identified "acknowledging responsible behaviour, correcting irresponsible and inappropriate behaviour, ignoring, proximity control, gentle verbal reprimands, delaying, preferential seating, time-owed, time-out, notification of parents/guardians, written behavioural contracts, setting limits outside the classroom, and reinforcement systems" as best teaching practices. Disciplinary actions must be taken by teachers if learners fail to adhere to the expectations. Hence, teachers can manage their classrooms in a better manner if they can assimilate knowledge about diversity and individuality. This intervention compels a change in behaviour of the pupils.

Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) believe that covenant management deals with teachers being careful when managing interpersonal relationships of pupils in the classroom because the classroom is a social system that has its own features. (Wubbels et al., 2014) concur that, inter-personal relationship in classroom management is a crucial component. To maintain a conducive learning environment the teacher-pupil relationship is an important factor.

Taylor (2009) believes that covenant management is meant to improve the relationship among pupils. It helps pupils to work better in a group by helping them manage the problems that may occur. Thus the role of the teacher is to encourage the group to work together to find a solution. The primary responsibility of the classroom teacher is to manage the classroom effectively and the pupils should accept the responsibility of their inappropriate behaviour (Osanyin & Adebayo, 2011).

2.6.3.2 Summary of interactionalist classroom management

In summary, interventionists are generally proactive in providing consequences for pupil behaviour, noninterventionists are generally proactive in providing learning environments that bypass negative pupil behaviours, and interactionalists manage their classroom with a combination of interventionist and noninterventionist approaches. Each of these philosophies promises superior student outcomes, so the next section provides a review of the empirical literature supporting or not supporting the interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist approaches to classroom management.

2.7 Main Principles of Learning Outcomes Approach

According to Kinta (2013), Learning outcomes are defined as statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do when completing a certain period of learning. Thus, learning outcomes describe nonmaterial benefits pupils acquire during their learning. The major differences regarding the definition of terms lie in categories or elements learning outcomes describe – knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes, competences, values etc. The most frequently three categories are used – knowledge, skills and competences, because these are considered to be measurable.

Knowledge is defined as a set of cognitive items forming in various contexts (Dainov & Sauka, 2010). Knowledge imparts the ability to perceive data or information, create meaningful links and relate the new information with past experiences, as well as foresee future situations. Perceived information may not be considered as knowledge, but knowledge is created with the help of individual's cognitive operations (Brox et al., 2006).

Skills are explained as an ability to carry out a task or action in order to find solutions; thus, skills are based on knowledge that allows analysing and solving problems (Brox et al., 2006). Skills include the ability to perform cognitive and practical operations acquired in different life and work situations (Dainov & Sauka, 2010). Skills may be obtained during repeated practical and purposeful activities as a reaction towards some external requirements (Moser-Mercer, 2008).

Competences focus on the manner how knowledge and skills obtained are used in various contexts (Dainov & Sauka, 2010). Competences are acquired and developed through practice in studies, life and work. The term of competence has caused the most of discussions. One of the questions is whether competence or learning

outcomes is more general concept to describe qualifications referred to the European Qualifications Framework (Brockmann, Clarke & Winch, 2008). On one hand, in some contexts competence is explained as the acquisition of skills or performing specific tasks according to previously formulated standards. On the other hand, competence is considered as ability in a wide professional field, i.e. competence is a holistic term imparting knowledge and skills (Cedefop, 2018). These two approaches create confusion about terminology, which occasionally is increased due to various national contexts. In this paper and also in the European Qualifications Framework competence is seen as one of the categories describing expected learning outcomes.

As the most crucial features of learning outcomes could be mentioned:

i. Learning outcomes are defined in advance of learning;
ii. Learning outcomes achieved are certified by demonstrating;
iii. Learning outcomes are measurable or observable;
iv. Learning outcomes are clear and understandable for all participants of education process;
v. Learning outcomes are achievable during the particular period of learning;
vi. Learning outcomes indicate the individual progress of learners.

Statements of learning outcomes should be observable and clearly formulated before the period of education, for students and teachers to be certain whether and at what level the expected learning outcomes have been achieved. According to the political standpoint, learning outcomes are already used in the Latvian vocational education, since state education standards and occupational standards outline knowledge, skills and professional competence to be obtained in education programmes. Moreover, vocational education programmes as such always have been learning outcomes

oriented since labour market requires employees with particular abilities (Cedefop, 2018). However, the presence of some elements of learning outcomes in education planning documents does not ensure that learning outcomes approach is applied in classroom. When using learning outcomes in education, approach to the education planning and implementation should be altered by ensuring that students to a certain extent achieve expected learning outcomes. Learning outcomes based education has the following characteristics:

1. Focuses of students' ability to learn in order to ensure continuous and independent development of personality(Sowell, 2013);
2. Describes outcomes that should be achieved by a successful learner;
3. Uses tools to determine what and to what extent students has learnt and acquired;
4. Seeks for ways how to help students learn and achieve the expected outcomes;
5. Explains why students should learn and acquire expected outcomes (Acharya, 2019);
6. Emphasizes learner centred approach to education (Cedefop, 2018);

To conclude, learning outcomes may be used as a tool for promoting more successful students' learning, and ensuring clear description of knowledge, skills and competences students may obtain or improve in the particular study course or education programme

2.7.1 Emergence of learning outcomes approach

According to (Saifi, Salamat, Iftikhar & Hussain, 2018) attention to the learning outcomes or competence oriented education was observed since 1950-ties. Initially, United States of America (USA) introduced outcomes-based education programmes.

Similarly, in the 1980-ties and 1990-ties outcome based education processes were also noted in Australia, Canada and may countries in the world. The approach received some critics notwithstanding the rapid rise in popularity, for example, measurable learning outcomes excluded concepts such as values and beliefs (Barclay & Kurta, 2007). The traditional curriculum division in study subjects was challenged in defining learning outcomes and this created confusion in educational planning and pupils' assessment(Saifi et al., 2018).

Changes in technological development, work organization and the emergence of knowledge-based society influence learning outcomes in vocational upper-secondary education. In 1980ties, industrial mass production which brought about division of labour where employees had a strict division of duties and performed single tasks under a supervision of a manager, lost its significance. Team work with wider employees' functions and roles was emphasized with the development of technologies and multi-disciplinary industries. (Brockmann et al., 2008) felt that, be able to take responsibility and make decisions employees needed to possess knowledge and understanding on the entire production process. Technological innovations supported performing more complicated actions in a shorter time with less human resources, this allows the integration of work duties (Espinosa-Cristia, 2012). Hence, this led to the changes in vocational education in terms of content and form to adapt to labour market requirements.

In summary, the introduction of learning outcomes approach and its review seems to be logical step in the development of educational systems. Shift towards learning outcomes is rather complicated measure and process of large scale; therefore, reforms in education should be carefully planned and involve all stakeholders.

2.8 Theoretical Background for Learning Outcomes based Approach

This study focuses on three theoretical standpoints that have somehow influenced learning outcomes based approach: taxonomy of educational objectives, learning theories and learner-centred education.

2.8.1 Taxonomy of educational objectives

Bloom (1956) came out with the taxonomy of educational objectives which reflects pupils' performance in a certain sequence of increasing difficulty of the levels of their learning outcomes. Since the creation of the taxonomy or the classification in 1950-ties it has experienced serious evaluations and revisions. For example Guskey (2014) revised Bloom's work in his journal "Learning for Mastery" which he involved several researchers and he said that a more accurate title would be the taxonomy of educational objectives. The taxonomy consists of three domains which are arranged in a hierarchical manner – cognitive, affective and psychomotor – that are impacted in learning process (see Figure 2).

Bloom, in the 1950-ties supervised a group of psychology scientist who explored pupils' work in class to find out which intellectual operations are essential in learning. The scientists elaborated mental actions of pupils' measurable learning objectives in classification system of six hierarchical levels which he defined as measurable learning objectives. Each level represents a cognitive function that is mastered in course of learning (Bloom, 1956).

Cognitive domain .	Affective domain	Psychomotor domain
6. Evaluation	5.Internalizing values	7. Origination
5. Synthesis	4. Organizing	6. Adaptation
4. Analysis	3. Valuing	5. Complex overt responses
3. Application	2. Responding	4. Mechanism
2. Comprehension	1. Receiving	3. Guided response
1. Knowledge		2. Set
		1. Perception

Figure 2: Levels for taxonomy of education objectives

Source: Adopted from (Bode, 1964 ;Widyartono, Dawud, & Ghazali, 2017)

2.8.1.1 The cognitive domain has six levels. These are:

1. **Knowledge**: Refers to the recalling or reciting of things, ideas and phenomena. It means that pupil can save certain information in their memory and remember it later, sometimes with little changes;
2. **Comprehension**: It deals with an individual understanding the meaning of received information and decides whether to their reaction in order to reply appropriately;
3. **Application**: Includes ability to use previously obtained material in new situation or situations with new elements; an individual is able to solve unexpected problem or apply previously unused solution for familiar issue;
4. **Analysis**: Involves dividing information in smaller parts and finding links between these parts; analysis is like a means for full understanding of things;
5. **Synthesis**: Includes uniting of separate elements and forming a whole concept; synthesis has an aspect of creativity with certain limitations;

6. **Evaluation**: Involves making judgments that is about values, ideas, works, solutions; criteria and standards are used to estimate accuracy and relevance of details (Bloom, 1956).

The activities on each level are characterised by particular verbs. These verbs are highly essential when formulating learning outcomes as they assist in indicating the complexity of actions. Yet the verbs in various levels may overlap; therefore, the additional context should be provided in the statements of learning outcomes.

The classification was revised several times; researchers in the 1990-ties under the supervision of Anderson and Krathwohl introduced the most evident alterations. To adapt the taxonomy to the present requirements of education and new ideas in pedagogy, the titles of levels were changed to verbs and two upper levels were switched; thus, the new levels are: remember, understand, apply, analyse, evaluate and create (Bloom, 1956; Forehand, 2010).

Bloom and his colleagues developed the affective domain later and this consist of five levels of classifications. This domain refers to emotional aspects of learning and their levels. Additional to the increasing complexity of emotional actions they are underpinned by personal characteristics and conscience (Bode, 1964). The levels are also reflected with verbs that characterize emotional operations developed in education process.

2.8.1.2 The affective domain has the succeeding five levels:

1. **Receiving**: Imparts that an individual is aware of something, takes into account particular situation, phenomenon or thing. It also concerns willingness to receive information;

2. **Responding**: Refers to individual's motivation to participate actively in the learning process;
3. **Valuing**: Denotes value of something; when an individual's behaviour is sufficiently consistent and stable something that is called his opinion or attitude towards that particular thing; operations vary from accepting values to choosing and following them;
4. **Organizing**: Includes the stage after the inclusion of values; an individual has to solve issues that are related to several values; therefore the need to organized values, determine the link, compare and synthesized them;
5. **Internalizing values**: Imparts actions, here an individual behaves in accordance with their internal values; behaviour is consistent, foreseeable and characteristic to the individual, whose opinion, ideas and attitudes are integrated in united perception of the world (Bode, 1964).

Bloom and colleagues address motor skills by initiating the psychomotor domain, but the researchers did not develop a detailed outline for the domain. Psychomotor domain is usually applied through practical works, arts, music, theatre and sports (Widyartono, Dawud, et al., 2017). Practical and work-based learning is crucial in pupils' education. Several authors have further developed Bloom's ideas about psychomotor domain, among them is Simpson who designed the seven levels of the domain (Widyartono, Dawud, et al., 2017). Each levels action is characterized by certain verbs.

2.8.1.3: The seven levels of the psychomotor domain are:

1. **Perception**: Involves the ability to use sensory organs to guide motor operations;
2. **Set**: Refers to individual's readiness to commence particular operations, which impart physical, emotional and cognitive aspects;
2. **Guided response**: Related to individual's ability to imitate; the accuracy of this ability may be evaluated according to particular criteria;
3. **Mechanism**: Involves acquired responses, which have become habitual, individual's movements show some certainty and mastery;
4. **Complex** overt responses: Involve skillful performance of motor operations including complex movements; mastery appears in fast, precise and coordinated work execution requiring minimum energy; responses are automatic;
5. **Adaptation**: Imparts developed skills at such level that an individual is able to change their movement structure in order to adapt to specific requirements or solve a problem;
6. **Origination**: Implies creating new movement structures to adapt to particular situation or problem; at this level creativity based on highly developed skills is emphasised (Widyartono, Dawud, et al., 2017).

Quite often when are dealing with learning outcomes they focus on the cognitive domain with the view that it is the most essential in learning. However, in the course of time the original Bloom's ideas have been subjected to discussions and changes regarding the current needs; therefore, the taxonomy should be explored in the relevant context and taking into account all three domains. The use of ideas implied by three domains for writing learning outcomes ensures more versatile education process. This aspect is particularly important in pupils education – parallel to the

acquisition of professional knowledge, skills and competences, it should provide general development of pupils' personality.

2.9 Learning Theories in the Context of Learning Outcomes

The use of learning outcomes in pupils' education is based on various learning theories. According to the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop), one of the reasons for introducing learning outcomes approach was to develop didactics and pedagogies (Cedefop, 2018). The most influential theories of learning, outlined in the following paragraphs are behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivis. Although other learning theories, e.g., sociocultural learning, activity learning, have gained an increasing importance, their analysis was not included in this work due to its limited time. Major features of the learning theories are learning outcomes may include the acquisition of various cognitive operations, also an ability to evaluate one's own learning skills. This work supports the opinion that pupils need to be guided by the teacher to enable them master expected learning outcomes. Yet as regards learning outcomes, formulating particular information processing strategies is not emphasised, but the ability to find the most appropriate solution to a problem. Problem situations, use of which is supported by cognitivism, may be applied in learning outcomes based basic education in Ghana.

According to behaviourism and cognitivism, world is real and forms external environment, while constructivism focused not only on developing cognitive strategies, but also on the interpretation of external world by creating new meanings for things and phenomena. Generally, constructivism concentrates on construing the individual perception of the world (Ertmer & Newby, 2006). Pupils construct, not "receive" ready-made knowledge; this construing operation to great extent depends on

previous knowledge and experience that pupils use in their learning. Thomas et al. (2018), considered learning not to be linear, since pupils achieve expected learning outcomes in different speed and manner. Learning is both social and cultural activity occurring through interaction, when each participant contributes to the process (Thomas et al., 2018). When pupils interact, their learning is more productive than independent studies, as the learners involved share and discuss their varied previous ideas and experiences.

Constructivism focuses on processing and interpreting information, not recalling facts or acquiring certain modules of behaviour which is found in bahaviourism. Pupils should be provided with real-life tasks that would form relevant context for obtaining expected knowledge and skills. Also, learning should be organized in an authentic environment (Ertmer & Newby, 2006). In basic education pupils' involvement in work based learning at home and school is an essential part of education programmes.

Principles of constructivism are said to be the most appropriate in learning situations when particularly complex knowledge has to be acquired. Regarding the new information, perceptions created in the previous learning experiences can be reviewed and, if need be, altered or discarded (Ertmer & Newby, 2006). Learning outcomes based education emphasizes pupils' active participation in learning which is similar to the principle of constructivism. Pupils acquire or improve their knowledge, skills and competences in a relevant learning context and on basis of their previous experience. The activity of pupils may be promoted by using problem solving situations.

To conclude, none of the learning theories is right or wrong, because each of them imparts some ideas or principles that may be applied in education. For an instance, repeated actions, enforcement and feedback supported by behaviourism assist in

widening learning and improving pupils' memory. Cognitivism focuses on cognitive operations for learning to be more than adapting certain modules of behaviour. Constructivism contributes to pupils' ability to face unpredictable and changing situations with unclearly formulated problems that may be solved with the means of imagination, discussion and cooperation (Ertmer & Newby, 2006). Thus, each learning theory suggests some principle to be used in learning outcomes based basic education. Below is a summary of the learning theories in tabular form using several sources of literature:

Table 1: Comparison of learning theories

	Behaviourism	Cognitivism	Constructivism
Founders	Pavlov, Watson, Skinner, Thorndike	Chomsky	Dewey, Vygotsky, Bruner, Piaget, von Glasersfeld
Ground principle	Observation and change of pupils' behaviour; repetition of favourable behaviour until it becomes automatic	Cognitive processes determining behaviour; changes in behaviour indicate activity of cognitive operations	On basis of experience and cognitive schemes, individual constructs their own perception of world
Learning is…	Relevant response (Particular behaviour) to external stimuli. Teacher should create appropriate learning environment for pupils to react in a certain manner	Process of creating knowledge; acquiring meaning of phenomena. Teacher should make information meaningful to help pupils organizing and relating new information to the previous knowledge	Interpretation of external world on basis of individual experience; creating meaning and understanding of phenomena. Teacher should arrange real-life tasks to be performed in authentic environment and help students mastering strategies of knowledge construction
Learning is influenced by…	Environment circumstances, instructions	Environment, circumstances; instructions; operation of individual cognitive processes; individual's beliefs, values, attitudes	Interaction between individual and environment (including other individuals); context
Potential application	Acquisition of simple, daily knowledge or motor skills to be used in various situations without evident alterations	Discussions, problem situations, processing information	Acquisition of complex and advanced knowledge, when previous perceptions are reviewed
Strong points	Clear objectives are provided; fast acquisition of necessary operations regarding certain criteria	Students acquire cognitive operations for performing certain functions	By mastering the interpretation of various situations, students may act more successfully in real life situations
Weak points	Disregarding individual differences; oversimplifying cognitive processes that impact behaviour	Students learn how to operate, but not always efficiently	Not appropriate for situations when discussing various opinions is undesirable
Similar to learning outcomes approach	Observation of pupils' behaviour	The acquisition of various cognitive operations (also ability to evaluate learning skills), use of problem situations	Active pupils' participation in learning, relevant learning context, previous experience

Source: (Ertmer & Newby, 2006; James, 2001)

According to the principles of behaviourism, the most crucial factor of learning is the environment because learning is explained as a response to external stimuli. Therefore, awards and punishments are important to develop or discard a certain module of pupils' behaviour (Ertmer & Newby, 2006).

Pupils' behaviour is monitored without analysing the role of cognitive and affective aspects of learning. Thus, learning achievements are often seen as accommodating skills and recalling particular facts; pupils acquire such habitual behaviour that allows working quickly and correctly (James, 2001). Pupils should master the ability to follow teacher's instructions fast and precisely, starting from simple to more complicated skills (Ertmer & Newby, 2006).

Learning outcomes based approach is said to overemphasise the observation of pupils' behaviour, i.e. expected learning outcomes is the ability of a learner to perform certain operations. This approach has been criticized because all knowledge, skills, competences, values and attitudes cannot be easily demonstrated during practical tasks. Therefore, when pupils should obtain some simple daily knowledge or motor skills, which may be used in new situations without significant changes the principles of bahaviourism may be applied, e.g., multiplication table, sewing a button or changing a car wheel. Thus, acquisition of such knowledge and skills involves memorizing facts and/or operations by repeatedly performing the same tasks.

Cognitivism is of the view that, behaviour of humans cannot be stipulated only by some external stimuli hence this was developed to partly oppose naturally to behaviourism. Cognitivism focused on promoting cognitive operations. Yet both behaviourism and cognitivism emphasise the meaning of environment in learning, as well as instructions and correcting mistakes are important (Ertmer & Newby, 2006).

As result of cognitive operations, particular actions are performed; hence, processing information, when structures, concepts and principles are organized in relevant cognitive schemes, is essential (James, 2001).

According to the principles of cognitivism, learning involves pupils' participating actively in all tasks for pupils to use their strategies for processing information and managing their learning. Thus, both cognitivism and constructivism consider a pupil to be an active participant, but in constructivism pupils not only process information, but also develop new meanings for the piece of information (Ertmer & Newby, 2006). James (2001) said that, when creating new knowledge and solving problems previous knowledge and experience is crucial. This is seen as construing knowledge.

2.10 Learner-Centred Approach

Learner-centred or progressive approach to education was developed to oppose the traditional education practice teacher-centred or study subject-centred approach. This theory emphasizes that pupils are individuals with varied needs and interests; more important are pupils as they are at present situation, not what they could become in future (Darling-hammond & Youngs, 2002). A teacher's aim is not a more successful learning on some abstract level and greater volume of education materials but learning occurring in particular situation when working with particular pupils as such the direct object of learning are the pupils. Therefore, learning should be a specific process, which in a way is a unique experience (Cullen et al., 2012).

Time is constant and learning is variable in the traditional approach; a lesson has a certain duration, but volume and essence of learning content to be acquired in this period change. However, in the learner-centred approach learning becomes constant and time is a variable. Thus, the main focus is on the particular pupil and continuous

assessment whether and when the pupil has achieved the expected learning outcomes, while providing necessary information in limited period of time assuming that all pupils are able to receive and process the information in the same speed becomes insignificant (Cullen et al., 2012). In learning outcomes based education certain time limits are set – the expected learning outcomes are defined for particular period of education and pupils' performance is assessed constantly and at the end of course or programme. Yet differences in pupils' learning, e.g. speed and methods, are accepted as natural.

Learners are active participants of the education process, with the introduction of learner-centred approach. They want to learn and are natural discoverers and creators of new knowledge. Hence, the role of the teacher and pupils change significantly. Tolerance, group and project work dominate in studies; those involved in learning trust, support and learn from each other. Individual differences of pupils and their varied experiences are not only taken into account, but also are favourable, because differences make learning more interesting and allows the participants to acquire different experiences (Cullen, Harris, & Hill, 2012; Darling-hammond & Youngs, 2002).

Teacher becomes a guardian or manager of resources. However, the issue concerning the extent of pupils' freedom in class is debated, since not all pupils may possess a good and motivated attitude towards their learning (Darling-hammond & Youngs, 2002). Moreover, pupils may appear reluctant when learner-centred approach is implemented. One of the reasons could be additional duties pupils acquire in learner-centred approach – pupils have to work more and display initiative. A new approach may seem to be threatening, because many issues are unclear, e.g. new duties,

responsibilities, changes. Discarding the previous approach may create sense of loss, and pupils may miss the traditional approach when they had fewer responsibilities, and decisions were made by teachers. Since changes related to introducing learner-centred approach are large, the reforms should be introduced gradually, because pupils would not be able to accept some new forms of work or follow complex instructions characteristic to learner-centred approach without adequate preparation.

According to Darling-hammond and Youngs (2002) said that, negative previous learning experience and discrepancy that exist between pupils' interests and actual learning content are the two main reasons for pupils' lack of curiosity and motivation for learning. Pupils are frequently interested in the issues, which cannot be framed in a single study subject or discipline (Darling-hammond & Youngs, 2002) . This aspect raises an additional challenge to the usual curricula planning with study subjects.

Weimer describes five major aspects of change in education with the introduction of the learner-centred approach. Firstly, balance of power is influenced, because in learner-centred approach emphasis is on pupils' ability to learn, not teacher's ability to teach and give instructions. Secondly, functions of education content change in terms of previous learning experience and volume of learning content. That is, the important thing is what pupils actually acquire, not the content explained by a teacher. Thirdly, the role of the teacher alters crucially – teacher is like a guardian that assists pupils in their learning. Fourthly, the responsibility for learning changes, because pupils have to fully take charge of their learning. Fifthly, the aim and process of pupils' assessment changes – the main function is to ascertain with the help of varied assessment methods that pupils in fact have achieved expected learning outcomes.

Both in learner-centred and learning outcomes approaches the control of learning is divided between teacher and pupils. The pupils are expected to assume responsibility and manage actively their own learning because teachers or parents cannot learn instead of pupils. Using learning outcomes in basic school education planning, implementation and pupils' assessment provides adequate support for a successful implementation of learner-centred approach. Thus, learning outcomes may be considered as a valuable tool for introducing and applying learner-centred approach to education.

2.11 Conclusions

Learning outcomes are statements, which describe what a learner knows, understands and is able to apply when completing a certain period of education. Learning outcomes are expressed in three categories – knowledge, skills and competences. Although basic education programmes always have been outcomes oriented, to apply learning outcomes approach completely, changes both in education planning and implementation have to be conducted. In learning outcomes based education expected outcomes are clearly formulated for all education process participants, as learning outcomes should serve as guidelines for managing teaching and learning.

To describe learning outcomes in a system of increasing complexity, the most frequently Bloom (1956) taxonomy is applied. Since the original taxonomy has been reviewed and complemented over the decades, at present this classifications should be referred as the taxonomy of educational objectives. The taxonomy of educational objectives imparts three domains arranged in a hierarchical system: cognitive domain with six levels (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 2002), affective domain with five levels (Bode, 1964), and psychomotor domain with seven levels (Widyartono, Ghazali, &

Harsiati, 2017). The use of all three domains when writing learning outcomes ensures a holistic approach to education for general development of students' personality.

Behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism are the three learning theories discussed in this work. Although these theories have different views about the process of learning, some of their principles and ideas are essential in learning outcomes based education. For example, when some simple knowledge or motor skills used in routine situations have to be acquired, the principle of behaviourism is applied. When expected learning outcomes are related to the acquisition of some cognitive skills; pupils have to manage their learning by providing the most appropriate solutions- the principle of cognitivism is applied. The principle of constructivism is more useful when particularly complicated knowledge has to be mastered and when previous perceptions and opinions need to be critically reviewed and analysed. Here, previous pupils' experience is highly important, as well as their mutual cooperation; learning should include authentic tasks and context, which in basic education is ensured during the work-based learning in basic design and technology (BDT).

In learner-centred approach, pupils are active participants who want to learn, which agrees with and learning outcomes based education. The most often mutual cooperation, project and group work as methods are used. The cooperation between participants becomes more interesting when learners along with their individual differences have different previous experiences. The focus in education is on the particular pupil in the particular situation and regular assessment whether the expected learning outcomes have been achieved. Since the introduction of learner-centred approach involves substantial reforms in education process, the changes should be conducted gradually for both pupils and teachers to adapt to their new roles.

Learning outcomes may serve as a useful means when introducing and implementing learner-centred approach to basic education.

2.12 Empirical Review

The population of a school to a large extern determines the class sizes, more especially when there is an increase it is likely to affect the class sizes and the performances of pupils become an issue. Class size refers to the number of pupils in a given course or classroom, specifically either the number of pupils being taught by individual teachers in a course or classroom or the average number of pupils being taught by teachers in a school or educational system. The term may also be the number of pupils participating in learning experience. Class size is almost an administrative decision over which teachers have little or no control. Class size refers to an educational tool that can be used to describe the average number of pupils per class in a school (Ayeni & Olowe, 2016). There are large and small class sizes in school. The smaller the class, the greater the likelihood is that a teacher will spend more time with individual pupils.

Classroom management becomes more challenging with large class sizes. Pupils control, marking, planning, and assessment of students becomes a bid tedious. Teachers can easily spot problems and give feedback, identify specific needs and gear teaching to meet them, and set individual targets for pupils in smaller classes than in large classes. This makes them more strain when faced with large classes. Teachers also experience better relationships with, and have more knowledge of individual pupils in the case of smaller classes as compare the large classes. Ayeni and Olowe (2016) are of the view that, in order to control rising capital cost of education, the average class-size could be increased. These opine were also supported by Oyibo and

Obro (2020) who reported that the increase in enrollment in many institutions which has become major concerns of students could definitely lead to an increase in class size. Commeyras and Inyega (2007) however, disagreed with these arguments and said that effective teaching seems impracticable for teacher educators having large class sizes of 50, 75, 100 or more.

In Nigeria, Ogboro and Nwadiani (2017) reported that the class-size in University of Nigeria, should range between 35 or 40 students. He argued that few students per class are uneconomical, as they do not make full use of space, teachers and teaching materials. Ogboro and Nwadiani, (2017) argued that the higher the class-size, the lower the cost of education. He contended however, that most classrooms are over-crowded spreading resources thinly and thereby affecting the quality of education. One of the pillars of a successful implementation of effective business education progamme is the availability and adequacy of teaching and learning resources. Unfortunately, as observed by the researchers, one of the major challenges facing tertiary institution in Ekiti State is inadequate infrastructural facilities which are obvious in inadequate laboratory equipment, classrooms and lecture halls. It is therefore the intention of this study to examine the implication of large class size in the teaching and learning of Business Education in Ekiti State, Nigeria.

In teaching and learning especially where the pupils learning outcomes is of more importance, the pupil-teacher ratio have to be considered, pupil-teacher ratios are a general way to measure teachers workloads and resources as well as the amount of individual attention a pupil receive from the teacher because it involves some skills subjects. Teaching is an interaction process involving the learner, the subject matter and the teacher in a conducive environment. Ayeni and Olowe (2016) stated that

teaching is the teachers activities designed and performed to produce a change in learner's behaviour. Teachers should encourage learners to learn with different teaching methods. According to Desai, Wang, Vaduganathan, Evers, and Schneeweiss, (2020) teaching is one with learning outcomes that effect changes in knowledge, abilities, skills, attitudes and mindset. It is an active process in which one person shares information with others to provide them with the information with a resultant change in behaviour. The most effective teaching is one which results in the most effective learning.

Ayeni and Olowe (2016) believed that the learner is the focal point in the classroom and what he is gaining from the educational experience is of great importance towards the achievements of the pupils learning outcomes which includes - skill acquisition, occupational competence, self-reliance and productivity. The acquisition of these skills and competencies require a conducive learning atmosphere. Under learning, psychologists view learning as a process. Learning is a process by which one acquire and retained attitudes, knowledge, understanding, skills and capabilities that cannot be attributed to inherited behaviour pattern. ICHEKU (2017) stated that learning is the act, process or experience of gaining knowledge or skill. Knowledge or skills can be gained through schooling or studying. Learning is an act of gaining knowledge. According to ICHEKU (2017), Learning is the act of acquiring new, or modifying and reinforcing, existing knowledge, behaviours, skills, values, or preferences and may involve synthesizing different types of information. Human learning may occur as part of education, personal development, schooling, or training. It may be goal-oriented and may be aided by motivation. Gagné (2013) consider learning as a change in human disposition or capabilities which can be retained and which is not ascribed to the process of growth. From the definition, the characteristics attached to learning

are, the change must be due to experience, study, training and practice. The change must be receptively permanent.

Good learning and teaching is very important in achieving the learning outcomes in education. Learning outcomes is an aspect of educational training which an individual receives with the primary motive of enabling him/her to acquire adequate attitudes, concepts, knowledge, understanding and skills in business activities for vocational usage in careers as an administrator, manager or teacher, or where ever the student may find himself in the business world. According to Okoro (2012), learning outcomes is that part of the total educational process that provides the knowledge, skills, understanding and attitudes needed to perform in the world work. Learning outcomes help individuals to establish their own businesses after school. Njoku (2019) defines business education as a programme that equips an individual with functional and suitable skills, knowledge, attitude and value that enable the student to operate in the future in his environment in which he/she finds himself/herself. Business education provides students with information and competence which will be needed in personal business affairs (Edokpolor & Egbri, 2017). Learning outcomes is that part of the total educational process that provides the knowledge, skills, understanding and attitudes needed to perform in the business world as a producer and/ or consumer. The aim of the programme is to produce competent, skillful and dynamic business teacher, office administrators and businessmen and women that will effectively compete in the world of work.

There is a large body of research on the relationship between class size and pupil learning outcomes. A 1979 systematic review of the literature identified 80 studies (Glass & Smith, 1979). There are surely many more today. The vast majority of these

studies simply examine the association between variation in class size and pupil learning outcomes. The primary difficulty in interpreting this research is that schools with different class sizes likely differ in many other, difficult-to-observe ways. For example, more affluent schools are more likely to have the resources needed to provide smaller classes, which would create the illusion that smaller classes are better when in fact family characteristics were the real reason. Alternatively, a school that serves many pupils with behaviour problems may find it easier to manage these pupils in smaller classes. A comparison of such schools to other schools might give the appearance that small classes produce less learning when in fact the behaviour problems were the main factor. Studies that do not carefully isolate the causal effect of class size (and only class size) produce widely varying results.

Hanushek (2002) compiled 276 estimates of class-size effects from 59 studies, and found that only 11 percent of these estimates indicated positive effects of smaller classes. A similar number (9 percent) were negative, with the remaining 80 percent not statistically distinguishable from zero. Krueger (2003) argued that each study (rather than each estimate) should be given equal weight, but using this method of counting only increased the proportion of studies showing positive effects to 26 percent, with the majority showing either negative or insignificant effects. One way to interpret these tallies is that class size matters in some circumstances but not others. That may well be true, but a more likely explanation is that unreliable studies produce uneven results. The only way to credibly measure the causal effect of class size is to compare pupils who are in larger or smaller classes for reasons unrelated to their achievement. This is most clearly the case in a well-executed randomized experiment, in which students and teachers are randomly assigned to smaller or larger

classes. Unfortunately, in the last 75 years only one study of this type has been carried out at any significant scale.

Randomized experiments aimed at measuring the effect of class size were fairly common in the first half of the 20th century. Rockoff (2009) summarizes 24 such experiments that were conducted between 1920 and 1940; he argues that these studies were carefully designed in general. Most of these studies examined high schools, and many were carried out on a fairly small scale. Only two of the 24 studies found increased achievement in smaller classes, and several found a large-class advantage. These early studies represent interesting historical context but are of questionable relevance to current education policy because of the significant changes that have occurred in U.S. schools and wider society in the ensuing decades—including multiple wars, the end of state-sanctioned racial segregation, and increased educational opportunities for women. The only modern randomized experiment measuring the effects of class size in U.S. schools at a significant scale is the Student-Teacher Achievement Ratio experiment, or Project STAR, which was conducted in Tennessee during the late 1980s as the result of a legislative compromise between policymakers who wanted to reduce class size across the state and their colleagues who were skeptical that it was worth the substantial cost (Ritter & Boruch, 1999). Beginning with the entering kindergarten class in 1985, students and teachers were randomly assigned to a small class, with an average of 15 students, or a regular class, with an average of 23 students. Thus the reduction in class size of about 8 students, or 35 percent, was quite large.

Study participants over the course of the four-year experiment included 11,600 students from 80 schools (Krueger, 2003). There are many studies based on data from the STAR experiment that take advantage of the random assignment of students and teachers to classrooms, including several important studies that are not about class size. The earliest papers reporting results from the STAR experiment focused on comparisons of mean student achievement in the different treatment groups (Nye, Konstantopoulos & Hedges, 2004). A review of Krueger (2003) analysis of the initial test-score data because it addresses deviations from the ideal experimental design, such as noncompliance with random assignment and attrition from the data. I also summarize two recent studies that examine longer term outcomes.

Krueger (2003) analysis of the Tennessee STAR experiment finds that elementary school students randomly assigned to small classes outperformed their classmates who were assigned to regular classes on standardized tests by about 0.22 standard deviations after four years. This effect was concentrated in the first year that students participated in the program: the small class effect in the first year was 0.12 standard deviations, with an increment of 0.035 standard deviations in each of the following years. In addition, the estimated effects of class size were largest for black students, economically disadvantaged students, inner-city students, and boys.

Project STAR also randomized regular-class students between classes with and without a full-time teacher's aide and found that having an aide had no effect on test scores. In other words, reducing the classroom's student to adult ratio by adding a full-time aide had no effect on student achievement. This important finding regarding school staffing practices is often overlooked, as evidenced by the fact that the number of school aides per student increased dramatically during the two decades following

the STAR experiment. Between 1992-93 and 2009-10, the number of instructional aides per student increased by 50 percent, whereas the number of teachers per student only increased by 13 percent. As in the case of the overall pupil-teacher ratio, these trends likely reflect both increases in services provided to special education students (where aides play a particularly important role) as well as more general increases that affect all students.

As in most real-world experiments, there were several deviations from the ideal experimental research design in Project STAR. Data were not gathered on the class type to which students were randomly assigned (only on the class they ultimate attended), and about 10 percent of students moved between small and regular classes between grades. Krueger (2003) was able to gather data on actual random assignments from 1,581 students in 18 schools and found only a handful of instances (0.3 percent of students) in which a student was enrolled in a class size that differed from the one to which she was randomly assigned. To deal with class switching between grades, Krueger conducts an "intent to treat" analysis that defines treatment as the class type to which the student was initially assigned rather than the type actually attended.

This analysis shows that class switching did not significantly bias the results. Attrition from the data was also a significant issue in Project STAR. A large share of students who were randomly assigned to a class in the experiment do not appear in the data in later years because they left the school, repeated a grade, or skipped a grade. For example, among the 6,325 students that entered the experiment in kindergarten, 91 percent are in the kindergarten test data, 68 percent are in the first-grade data, 55 percent are in the second-grade kindergarten test data, 68 percent are in the first-grade

data, 55 percent are in the second-grade data, and 47 percent are in the third-grade data. Krueger (2003) addresses this issue by crudely imputing missing test scores using the student's percentile score from the last year that they are observed in the data. This method produces qualitatively similar results to the analyses that exclude observations with missing test-score data. An analysis that uses more sophisticated methods for dealing with missing data, such as multiple imputation, could in theory yield somewhat different results. But this issue has largely been made moot by two recent follow-up studies that use administrative records and thus do not have significant attrition problems.

These two studies follow STAR participants into college and adulthood by matching students from the original experimental data to administrative records. The first utilized IRS tax records to investigate a range of outcomes and found that students assigned to small classes at the beginning of elementary school are about two percentage points more likely to be enrolled in college at age 20, an impact that is statistically significant at the 10 percent level (Kumar, Chetty, Clegg, & Vitak, 2019). This study did not find any evidence of a class-size impact on students' incomes at age 27, but the income effects are measured with too much imprecision to warrant strong conclusions. Another contribution of this study was to verify that student assignment to class type was not correlated with a rich set of demographic information available in the IRS tax data, as the original dataset only included a small number of pre-treatment variables.

The second follow-up study utilized detailed college enrollment and completion data from the National Student Clearinghouse and found that students assigned to a small class were about three percentage points more likely to attend college (Dynarski,

Hyman & Schanzenbach, 2013). The effect is largest among black students (5.8 percentage points) and students eligible for free lunch (4.4 points), but is not statistically significant from zero among white students and those students not eligible for the free lunch program. In other words, the substantial test-score gains found for blacks translated into higher college attendance rates but the somewhat smaller (but still significant) test-score impacts among whites did not. Dynarski et al., (2013) also report that assignment to a small class in the early grades increased college degree attainment rates by about two percentage points.

In summary, researchers working with the STAR data have found positive effects of an early and very large reduction in class size on academic achievement in school and educational attainment. These are important results from a very strong research design. As noted previously, no other study in recent decades has randomly assigned students to smaller and larger classes in a substantial number of schools. The singularity of the STAR experiment is its Achilles heel in that, absent any other evidence from a randomized experiment, advocates and policymakers try to extrapolate more from the STAR results than is appropriate for any single experiment. Like all experiments executed with at least a reasonable degree of fidelity, Project STAR produced credible estimates of the impact of a very specific intervention: being assigned to a class that was, on average, 8 students smaller in the early grades and then (usually) remaining in a class of that size through the end of the experiment (for students that did not switch schools). Because the small-class effect was concentrated in the first year students were in a small class, which was also the first year they attended that school, Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2005) raises the question of whether the class-size effect is mainly a socialization effect and not a more general benefit of smaller classes. Alternatively, it could be the case that the small-class effect

in the first year would have dissipated over time in the absence of continued exposure to small classes. Absent a separate experiment invert time in the absence of continued exposure to small classes. Absent a separate experiment in which students are randomly assigned to different size classes every year, it is impossible to resolve this question. Rivkin et al. (2005) also points out that large schools were overrepresented in Project STAR due to the decision to only include schools that had at least three classes per grade (to permit random assignment to all three class types), and that urban and predominantly minority schools were also overrepresented. For example, 37 percent of students in the STAR experiment were black, as compared to 21 percent of Tennessee children age 10–14 in the 1990 Census. As a result, the overall class-size effect may be larger than would have been obtained with a representative sample of Tennessee elementary schools. Using the population shares by race to weight the effect estimates for blacks and whites rather than the STAR shares by race reduces the overall intent-to-treat effect by eight percent for test scores and 26 percent for college enrollment.

A final issue regarding the STAR results that generalizes to almost any (hypothetical) class-size experiment is that teachers knew they were part of a study, the results of which might affect whether they would teach smaller classes in the future. Hoxby (2000) suggests that this incentive embedded in the STAR experiment may explain why such a large small-class effect was found. Krueger (2003) reports evidence that, within the regular-size classes in the STAR data, there is still a statistically significant association between class size and test scores. However, this result is difficult to interpret given that this source of variation in class size was not randomly generated by the experiment but rather by other factors that may or may not be exogenous to student achievement.

Quasi-experiments based on naturally occurring variation in class size

Quasi-experimental studies attempt to mimic randomized experiments by identifying variation in class size that is plausibly exogenous to student outcomes. The most credible of these quasi-experimental studies is Hoxby (2000) examination of class-size variation in Connecticut that resulted from natural population variation triggering changes in the number of classes in a grade in a school. This study employs two distinct methods that produce similar results. The first method exploits changes in class size that results from idiosyncratic population changes. For example, a small school that has 15 first-grade students in one year and 18 the next year would have a larger class during the second year. The second method takes advantage of jumps in class size when a maximum class size rule is triggered. For example, a school that has set a class-size limit of 25 would have one second-grade class of 25 if there were 25 second grade students but two classes of 13 if there were 26 students.

Hoxby (2000) finds no relationship between class size and pupils learning outcomes in fourth and sixth grade, which should reflect class size in all previous grades because the identification strategy uses variation that tends to be persistent within cohorts of students over time (and does not control for prior achievement). Hoxby's effects are what she calls "precisely estimated zeros"—in other words, even modest effects can be ruled out. Additionally, the Connecticut data do not provide any evidence of class-size effects at schools that serve disproportionately large shares of disadvantaged or minority students.

Hoxby argues that a significant advantage of her methodology is that teachers did not know that they were part of a study the results of which might influence their future working conditions. As discussed previously, it is difficult to assess this theory

empirically using the experimental STAR data. Another important distinction between an explicit experiment like Project STAR and a study based on naturally occurring variation is that the experiment examines a well-defined treatment (e.g., "small" vs. "regular" classes) whereas natural variation occurs over a range of class sizes. Most elementary classes in the Connecticut study contained between 10 and 30 students (the mean class size was 21, with a standard deviation of 5.5 students). However, Hoxby (2000) does not find any evidence of class-size effects at any point in this range.

The only noteworthy limitation of the Connecticut data is that achievement tests are administered in the fall, so the set of students that make up the class size variable from a given school year will not be identical to the students who take the test in the fall of the following school year. Jepsen and Rivkin (2009) argue that this source of measurement error biases Hoxby's results toward zero. However, significant attenuation bias seems unlikely given that within-school turnover is low in Connecticut—Hoxby reports that the average elementary school in 1997-98 had 93 percent of its students return.

Given the methodological strengths of the complementary methods employed by Hoxby (2000) in a study conducted more than a decade ago, it would seem that the same methods would have been applied using data from other states. Unfortunately this has not been the case, with only one exception. The primary challenge to researchers is obtaining data on class size by school and grade over a reasonably long time period. Most states collect data on school (and even school-by-grade) enrollment and test scores, but not on class size. Cho, Glewwe, and Whitler (2012) address this limitation by obtaining historical class-size data from Minnesota through

a survey administered to individual districts. They apply Hoxby's first method, using smooth changes in enrollment over time (not jumps due to maximum class size rules) to form instruments for class size.

An important limitation of the Minnesota study is that class-size data were obtained from only 22 percent of all districts for all years covered by the study, and from an additional 27 percent for some but not all years (a total of 52 percent). Cho, Glewwe, and Whitler (2012) present data indicating that the districts included in the analysis were similar in terms of observable characteristics to districts that were excluded due to missing data on class size, as well as evidence that measurement error in district reports of class size is unlikely to significantly bias their results. Missing data on a significant number of districts is less of a limitation in their study, which uses variation within schools over time, than in a study that uses across-district variation. But their results should still be interpreted with some caution given that they are based on data from only half of Minnesota districts.

Unlike Cho, Glewwe, and Whitler (2012) find positive effects of smaller classes, albeit of a smaller magnitude than the Project STAR effects. Specifically, their estimates imply that a reduction of class size by 10 students increases test scores in grades three and five by 0.04–0.05 standard deviations. (In the Minnesota study and most of the studies discussed below, it is important to bear in mind that reported effect sizes are based on a linear model of the relationship between class size and student outcomes—not an evaluation of an actual 10-student change in class size.) The estimated effect does not differ by race/ethnicity, gender, or free lunch eligibility.

The great advantage of the studies discussed so far is that they identify class-size effects using a source of variation in class size that is well understood. In the STAR experiment, assignment to a small class was done by lottery. In the Connecticut and Minnesota studies, effects were estimated using variation in class size that resulted from population variation. Many other studies simply examine naturally occurring variation in class size without focusing on a specific source of variation. The credibility of such studies is difficult to establish, so I do not review them here. The one exception is Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2005) study using longitudinal data from more than one-half million students in over three thousand schools in Texas during the 1990s.

Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2005) control for student fixed effects as well as school-by year fixed effects. Consequently, their class-size effects are estimated based off of differences in class size across different grades during the same year. This variation is not as plausibly exogenous as that resulting from population variation. But the authors argue that the variation comes from two sources: differences between cohorts of students in the number of transfers into or out of the school over time, and changes in school or district class-size policies.

Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2005) find positive effects of smaller class sizes on reading and mathematics in fourth grade, a smaller but still statistically significant effect in fifth grade, and little or no effects in later grades. Because the researchers used a value-added model and state assessment results for which gain scores could only be computed beginning at fourth grade, they could not estimate class-size effects for the early grades that were studied in the STAR experiment. The estimated class-size effects for fourth- and fifth-grade students in Texas were generally in the range of

0.08–0.11 standard deviations per 10-student reduction in class size, with the exception of fifth-grade reading where the effect was only 0.03 standard deviations. The results for sixth and seventh grade are all small and statistically insignificant, with the exception of an effect of 0.04 standard deviations (per 10-student reduction) in sixth-grade math. The estimated effects do not vary consistently by students' eligibility for free or reduced-price lunch. All of the studies discussed so far focus on class size in elementary school, particularly in the early grades, with the exception of Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2005) inclusion of seventh-grade test scores. The only other credible study of class size in U.S. middle schools is Dee and West's (2011) analysis of eighth-grade students in the nationally representative National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988.

Dee and West take advantage of the fact that students are observed in two subjects by comparing the outcomes of the same students who attended different size classes in different subjects. For example, they measure whether a student scores higher on a standardized mathematics test, on average, than on an English test if the Maths class was larger than the English class. Dee and West (2011) find no overall impact of class size on test scores, i.e. the same students did not perform better in the subjects in which they had smaller classes. There was, however, a positive effect on test scores in urban schools, with a 10-student decrease in class size associated with an increase in test scores of 0.12 standard deviations (although the standard error implies a 95 percent confidence interval of approximately 0.03 to 0.21). The estimate for black students was similar in magnitude, but estimated with less precision and consequently statistically insignificant from zero.

Dee and West also found modest overall positive effects on non-cognitive skills related to school engagement. Students in smaller classes were less likely to say that they don't look forward to the subject, don't see it as useful, or are afraid to ask questions. Teachers of smaller classes said their students were less likely to be inattentive (but not more or less likely to be disruptive). Dee and West's findings are robust to conditioning on teacher fixed effects (i.e. controlling for the possible correlation between teacher quality and class size). They show that their measures of school engagement, like test scores, are correlated with long-term outcomes such as educational attainment and adult earnings, but their results are difficult to compare to the majority of studies (on both class size and other educational interventions) that focus on test scores and therefore ignore any effects through non-cognitive channels.

Most studies of class size are based on data from the U.S., and these studies are certainly of greatest interest to American policymakers. But given the relative paucity of evidence from the U.S., it is worthwhile to briefly review two international studies that provide credible evidence regarding the effects of class size. Asadullah, (2005) took advantage of a class size limit in Israel of 40 students, just as Hoxby used various district-level class-size limits in Connecticut. The Israel study finds positive effects of smaller fourth- and fifth-grade classes, with effect sizes indicating that a 10-student reduction in class size would raise student test scores by roughly 0.22 standard deviations in fifth-grade reading, 0.15 in fifth-grade math, and 0.10 in fourth-grade reading. They do not find any effects on fourth-grade math scores or on third-grade scores in either subject. The general pattern of results is robust across a variety of specifications, but the magnitudes of the estimates vary and the analyses are each based on a single year of data so the results are not estimated with much precision. It

is also important to note that the 40-student rule in Israel produced classes that tended to be far larger than those typical in the U.S.

Woessmann and West (2006), taking advantage of differences in average class size between the seventh and eighth grades within schools, examined class-size effects on performance on international examinations in 11 countries around the world. They find educationally meaningful effects of smaller classes in two countries, but no effects in most other countries. They are able to rule out large class-size effects in eight countries, and small effects in four countries. Woessmann and West point out that the countries in which they find educationally meaningful positive effects of smaller classes are those with low salary levels for teachers (both on an absolute scale and relative to each country's per-capita GDP) and lower than average performance on international exams. A low average salary level for teachers suggests that a country is drawing its teaching population from a relatively low level of the overall capability distribution of all employees in this country. Thus the countries studied seem to have taken different paths, with some opting for relatively large numbers of poorly-paid teachers who perform better in smaller classes and others having relatively fewer but better-paid teachers whose performance isn't as affected by the number of students in class. However, Woessmann and West are limited in their ability to test this theory by the relatively small number of countries in their study (not to mention the challenges of inferring causality in any model where variation occurs at the country level).

Interventionist classroom management

Classroom management is defined as an art of designing and implementing strategies by a teacher towards setting up a conducive learning environment for pupils with and

without disabilities (Korpershoek, Harms, & Boer, 2016). Interventionist classroom management comprises of actions a teacher takes to create a supportive environment for the academics, social and emotional development of pupils (Korpershoek, Harms, & Boer, 2016). A teacher who cares about his/her pupils transmits knowledge effectively and has a good interaction with them due to the creation of an emotional link and environment (Kabeera, 2018; Allen, 2013). Improving the quality of teacher-pupil interactions within a classroom depends upon a solid understanding of the nature of effective teaching for pupils in a school. Interventionist approach to classroom management plays a big role in the development of the directing learning process of pupils with challenges (Udoba, 2014). Interventionist classroom management involves five types of actions to help a teacher to offer high quality classroom management; (a) teachers must be caring to learners, (b) develop supportive relationship with pupils, (c) organize and implement instructions in ways that optimize pupils' access to learning, (d) teachers encouraging pupils' engagement in academic tasks, and (e) using of group management methods. This is also used in establishing rules and procedures a teacher uses to promote the development of pupils' social skills and self-regulation (Korpershoek et al., 2016; Kabeera, 2018).

Interventionist classroom management allows for all-inclusive education: learning of children with challenges is the process through which a child with impairments such as mental, physical, social, cognitive and deafness acquire self-discipline, gains reading skills, counting skills, writing skills, retrieve information, comprehend information and make decisions while at school (Matovu, 2018). It has been noted that effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom (Brief, Damme, Kane, Olson & Peterson, 2016). Educating pupils with disabilities in inclusive classrooms is an important objective of educational policies in many

countries and the interventionist classroom management strategies make room for that. Inclusion of pupils with disabilities is increasingly being promoted worldwide (Pijl, Koster, Hannink, & Stratingh, 2011 and Nketsia, 2017). On a global scene teachers use various styles in managing their classrooms but little is known about the relationship between interventionist classroom management and learning of pupils with disabilities (Park & Brannon, 2014). To achieve effective classroom management pupils with disabilities have been included in normal classrooms (Lopez & Corcoran, 2014). Reframing of pupils' behaviour includes understanding and distinguishing pupils' behaviour, rethinking, controlling and power dynamics, in a learning environment. It might also call for being proactive instead of reactive and responding to children rather than their behaviour (Smeh & Fawns, 2000)).

Classroom management is related to learning of pupils with disabilities in a way that if the teacher lacks the inclusive knowledge he or she faces challenges of poor classroom management (Nishan, 2018). Challenges among pupils include but not limited to physical, intellectual, social, emotional and behavioural challenges (Armstrong, 2016). In a learning setting for children with challenges teacher proximity deals with how the teacher provides physical, mental, psychological and social assistance to pupils during learning processes. The purpose of proximity of a teacher can be to prevent pupils from disturbing each other (Matovu, 2018). Teachers feel that life experiences, pro-active approaches and hands on work are important in the teaching of learners in normal classrooms (Matovu, 2018). Interventionist classroom management considers different assessment strategies and how teachers employ them to respond to the needs of pupils with challenges (Matovu, 2018). It has been noted that interventionist classroom management has been inadequately used by teachers for pupils with challenges. This has led to a number of pupils with challenges

enter the education system unassessed, without classrooms and learning provisions (Mangope, Kuyini & Major, 2012). Jackson, Simoncini, and Davidson (2013) highlight that there is need to have teachers that have acquired special training on how to handle pupils with challenges in a normal classroom setting.

Today, interventionist classroom management for special pupils is faced with challenges like high numbers of pupils in classrooms, limited number of teachers with skills to handle special pupils and lack of appropriate facilities among others (Version, Boer, & Kuijk, 2014). In schools, class sizes are too big for teachers to facilitate quality learning for special (Udoba, 2014, Matovu, 2019). These have negatively affected the quality education and learning for pupils with disabilities. Classroom management among primary school is affected by several other factors that include pupil teacher ratios which are too high (Nakabugo, Bisaso, & Masembe, 2011). Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in poorly managed classrooms (Jones, Bailey, & Jacob, 2014). Effective interventionist classroom management strategies support quality teaching and learning which is based on the principle of a positive classroom environment (Korpershoek, Harms & Boer, 2016).

Effective interventionist classroom management strategies focus on preventive rather than reactive classroom management strategies among teachers in primary education. However, teachers frequently use reactive strategies such as punishing disruptive pupils (Version et al., 2014). It is not clear whether these strategies effectively change pupils' behaviour and this may be caused by lack of knowledge about the effectiveness of preventive strategies (Rytivaara, 2012). Interventionist classroom management can make education a powerful tool in unifying special children with normal children in a classroom setting (Rights, 2010).

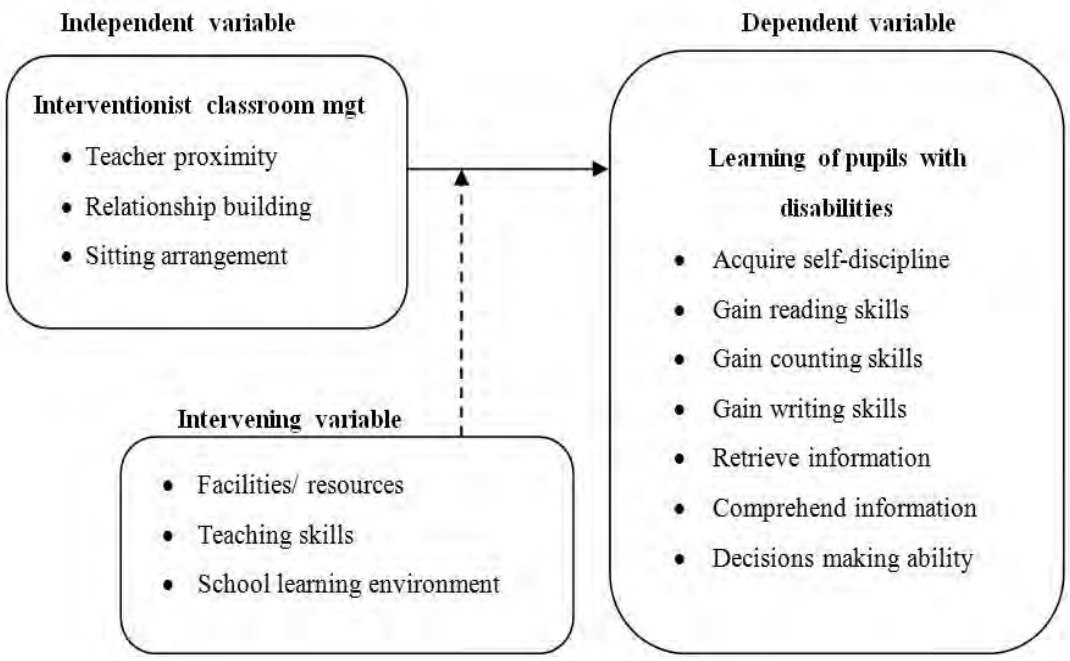

Figure 3: Classroom management and pupils learning outcomes

Figure 3 presents interventionist classroom management (teacher proximity, relationship building and sitting arrangement) as the independent variable and learning of pupils with disabilities as the dependent variable. The intervening variables include teaching skills, facilities/ resources and school learning environment. The above variables are hypothesized to play a role in the learning of pupils with disabilities.

Interactionalist classroom management

Classroom management integrates teacher actions to create, implement, and maintain a positive learning environment (Egeberg & Price, 2016). This definition includes a number of tasks; connecting and developing caring and supportive relationships with and among pupils with high and explicit expectations; organising and implementing instruction that facilitates deep and meaningful learning and encourages pupil engagement; promoting the development of pupils' social skills and self-regulation to assist pupils to clarify challenges and solve problems; and, the use of appropriate

interventions to assist pupil with challenging behaviours (Evertson & Weinstein, 2013), Said that Clearly, classroom management is a multifaceted endeavour that is far more complex than establishing rules, rewards and penalties to control students' behaviour. An oft-cited definition of classroom management comes from (Evertson & Weinstein, 2013): The actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social–emotional learning … It not only seeks to establish and sustain an orderly environment so students can engage in meaningful academic learning, it also aims to enhance students' social and moral growth.

Whilst order is an important tool for classroom management but it is not the primary goal, it does serve a purpose in enabling pupil learning and social and moral growth Egeberg, Mcconney, and Price (2016). Henley, Ramsey, and Algozzine (2002) identifies classroom management as the "essential teaching skill" and suggests effective teachers minimise misbehaviours to reduce interruptions and create learning environments that allow for pupils' intellectual and emotional growth. Henley takes a very restorative approach to classroom management, using more time in the classroom to teach discipline and therefore facilitating activities that enable pupil self-control. He believes that in doing this, a facilitator is less likely to spend time dealing with misbehaviour, and more time on meaningful academic instruction and learning. In other words, effective classroom management over time leads to greater pupil growth in areas that are used to judge teacher effectiveness.

Rubie Davies, Flint, and McDonald (2012) definition suggests classroom management involves teacher actions and instructional techniques to create a learning environment that facilitates and supports active engagement in both academic and social and emotional learning. With the diverse backgrounds, interests and capabilities

of learners, meeting their needs and engaging them in meaningful learning requires care and skill.

Thou developing an orderly learning environment enables pupils to engage in meaningful activities that support their learning, this orderly learning environment, suggests classroom management is only truly attained when teachers understand themselves and their pupils' needs and work together to meet these needs. His work outlines a Positive Learning Framework (PLF), based on current resilience, self-worth, and neurological research and positive psychology, which highlight the strengths that pupils have and how, as educators, teachers can draw upon these strengths in assisting all children to grow. The PLF offers a continuum of teacher behaviours from planning, preventative techniques, instructional design and ways to respond to student behaviour. By learning to use their skills effectively, teachers can develop quality learning environments, characterised by positive teacher-student relationships (Charlesworth et al., 2013).

More recently, educational policy and research in the past ten years have guided teachers toward more experimental and scientifically validated empirical practices (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In searching the empirical literature (Simonsen, 2008) identified five evidence-based classroom management practices. Classroom management practices were considered evidence-based if they were (a) evaluated using sound experimental design and methodology (group experimental, group quasi-experimental, experimental single subject designs, or causal comparative); (b) demonstrated to be effective; and (c) supported by at least 3 empirical studies published in peer-refereed journals. A variety of specific strategies and general

practices that met the criteria for being “evidence-based” were found and grouped into five critical features of effective classroom management.

1. Maximise structure through the use of teacher directed activities, explicitly defined routines and the physical classroom arrangement in terms of good spacing of clusters of desks and visual displays.
2. Establishing expectations and teaching social skills by identifying and defining a small number of positively stated rules or agreements and then ensuring that these are well taught, modeled, reviewed and supervised by the teacher moving around the room, interacting with students, reminding and redirecting students to appropriate behaviour.
3. Actively engage students in their learning in order to minimize misbehaviours by using a variety of instructional techniques.
4. Acknowledging appropriate behaviours by using a range of strategies that focus on identifying and recognizing appropriate classroom behaviours through the use of both individual and group encouragement.
5. Using a range of strategies to respond to misbehaviour from low-key techniques to remind and redirect the behaviour, planned ignoring through to logical consequences.

Those responses “that were direct, immediate, and ended with the student emitting the correct response were most effective in increasing future success rates” (Simonsen, 2008). Judging what is and what not effective classroom management is a complex issue, as evidenced in research by (Zee, de Jong, & Koomen, 2016) aimed at identifying best practice in Australian schools. De Jong found that many of the approaches that were identified as best practice lacked ‘hard’ evidence to substantiate claims of successful outcomes. Only 20 percent of the programs surveyed in this

study had been formally evaluated, some were in the process of being evaluated and many relied on anecdotal evidence. There was, however, emerging indication that successful approaches were contingent on key contributing factors and beliefs. The aim of the project was to conceptualise some guiding principles and practices that could be used to support the development of more appropriate approaches to managing behaviours in classrooms, schools and districts. There were two key questions that drove the study: what characterizes best practice in addressing student behaviour and what are the key principles in addressing student behaviour issues. De Jong surveyed between 6 – 10 programs in each of the three school jurisdictions – Catholic, State and Independent – and using the review of literature on best practice in Australian schools looked for links and overlaps. Where the literature made repeated reference to certain aspects and the surveys confirmed this was then consider good practice. For the purposes of this project, best practice was interpreted as strategies associated with philosophy, policy, organizational structure and culture, procedure, development and action that are likely to result in successfully addressing student behaviour issues (Zee et al., 2016).

The framework that evolved from this exploration identified seven core principles and practices for managing student behaviour that synthesise many of the key elements explored in the interactionalist/authoritative movement.

1. A need to understand behaviour from what De Jong called an “eco systemic perspective” emphasizing the complex interplay between environmental, interpersonal and intra personal factors. That the behaviour of students is affected by both the context and the behaviours of others – including teachers – and that this requires looking beyond the behaviour to gain an insight into the motivations and influences to address the problem environment as well as

the problem behaviour. What this suggests in practice is that a "one size fits all" approach will not work and that flexible, individualized learning environments may be necessary for some students.

2. A health promoting approach to creating safe, supportive and caring environments. Health is defined in terms of physical, cognitive, social, emotional and spiritual dimensions serving to develop safe learning environments that in turn will promote healthy behaviours. In practice this is about connection, with established pastoral care systems that incorporate proactive rather than reactive approaches.
3. Inclusiveness, which caters for different needs, recognizing and celebrating diversity. This is about creating a climate that sees behaviour as part of diversity – not a deficit model that requires fixing but rather at risk behaviours that need guidance. In practice this is about understanding that behaviour is linked to learning and that quality curriculum and teaching will maximize pupil engagement and minimize misbehaviour.

   Such a curriculum endeavours to develop critical thinking skills, focusing especially on decision-making, appraising conflict situations and restorative justice (Zee et al., 2016).
4. Placing students at the center of the learning and focusing on the whole child – their social, emotional and academic needs. In practice this is a clearly articulated behaviour management policy that does so much more than just dictate or enforce rules. It makes explicit its assumptions and beliefs in regard to students' needs, their behaviours and the influences on these behaviours and focuses on providing an environment that is safe, caring and supportive,

providing the school community with clear expectations and ongoing resourcing and development.

5. Behaviour and instruction are linked and teachers and teaching make a difference. As mentioned earlier, effective instruction maximizes student engagement, which in turn minimizes misbehaviour. In practice this involves teachers using a variety of instructional techniques and strategies with activity-based methods of learning, including cooperative learning practices. This links strongly with Egeberg, Mcconney, and Price (2016) report that showed that students want interactive instruction that more fully engages them in their learning, with their peers, as opposed to chalk and talk pedagogy synonymous with textbooks and worksheets, highlighting the "inseparable relationship between classroom management and instruction".
6. Positive relationships, especially between teacher and student are essential to learning. This principle advocates that teachers should make it their priority to develop positive relationships with students and encompasses the idea that as teachers we earn respect rather than deserve respect. This type of approach reflects a range of management strategies that maximize on-task behaviour such as negotiating agreements, setting clear expectations, planning student transitions, with-it-ness, and proximity. It features teachers who model appropriate behaviour, using encouragement rather than praise and choice rather than punishment, aiming to help students develop self-management and responsibility.
7. Well established internal and external support structures recognizing the African proverb that "it takes a village to raise a child". Best practice associated with this is similar to that suggested in the tiered approach from

Positive Behaviour Supports (PBS) but encompasses student needs being addressed through a case management strategy giving individual attention when necessary. This ensures that students and parents experiencing behaviour issues have access to a variety of mental health services both community and school based.

Whilst Zee, de Jong and Koomen (2016) work highlighted similar aspects to those of Simonsen and Myers (2008) he also identified the need for sound knowledge and understanding of young people, their needs and influences on their behaviours. Simonsen et al. identified key strategies for effective classroom management whereas Zee, de Jong, and Koomen (2016) identified beliefs and knowledge as well as practice within the key principles outlined. It is clear from the research on teachers' and pre-service teachers' beliefs about classroom management (Brophy, 2006; Egeberg, Mcconney & Price, 2016) that whilst they require continual training and support in using effective classroom management strategies, they also need to identify and nurture attitudes and beliefs that are consistent with current research about teacher effectiveness which involves both the interconnectedness of instruction and behaviour management as well as a clear understanding of an eco-systemic approach to discipline that considers the complex interplay between 'environmental, interpersonal and intra-personal factors (Zee et al., 2016).

Empirical research has proven the significance of classroom management strategies. Little, (2016) provided a self-assessment survey addressing classroom management strategies to 149 teachers, encompassing four major components of classroom management: classroom rules, enhanced classroom environment, reinforcement strategies, and reductive procedures (Little, 2016). The survey revealed 83%

employed verbal reprimands in response to class disruptions, 97% showed verbal praise used as reinforcement for appropriate behaviour, and 63% displayed frequent behavioural problem pupils freedoms were revoked, while 10% exhibited the utilization of corporal punishment in response to chronic offenders. Further, Sunday-piaro (2018) found that high school student learning outcomes were better when students perceived the teacher management strategy as being well prepared and well organized. Both the findings of Little (2016) and of Sunday-piaro (2018) exhibit the comprehensive range of teacher utilization of rules, procedures, and consequences in managing the classroom.

In a study of 22 teachers of grades 3-6, Laprade & Perkins (2014) found that "100% of the teachers felt that they could become discouraged with the ineffectiveness of their classroom management strategies. Yet, 64% of the teachers claimed that their current strategies are effective in minimizing the disruptions made by noncompliant students." (p. 59-60). The findings of Laprade and Perkins (2014) reveal the importance of determining the optimal classroom management strategies for promoting positive pupils learning outcomes.

Empirical research comparing the interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist strategies to classroom management started with the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory of (Wolfgang, 2004). The development of the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) by Martin, Yin, and Mayall (2006), permitted scholars to directly focus on classroom control from interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist standpoints. However, the ABCC and the revised ABCC-R (Caner & Is, 2015) had unacceptable overlap in inter-item correlation and therefore lacked discriminant validity. For these reasons the Behaviour

and Instructional Management Scale (Ahmad, Ch, & Ayub, 2017) was developed to provide a psychometrically sound measuring instrument for determining interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist strategies to instructional and behavioural classroom management. Essential to appreciating the background of the proposed study, interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist management styles can now be consistently measured using the Behavioural and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS) (Ahmad et al., 2017). "The most vital findings that are behind this study are from Ahmad et al. (2017). Classroom management is multi-faceted contracts that includes two independent constructs: Behaviour Management and Instructional Management (Martin & Sass, 2016).

Martin and Sass (2016) performed three studies on the *Behaviour and Instructional Management Scale*. These studies included 550 K-12 certified teachers from the southwestern United States. In the initial study, Martin and Sass (2016) assessed a shortened form of the 24-item BIMS using an exploratory factor analysis. The factor analysis showed a reliability of .85, respectively. As for the second study, the validity and reliability was investigated through using a confirmatory factor analysis in another shortened version of the survey. Both factors, behavioural and instructional management revealed a good internal consistency. After the earlier studies, Martin and Sass, (2016) felt discriminate and convergent validity should be tackled on the BIMS. This stimulated the last study conducted. Martin and Sass (2016) did a comparison between the BIMS and a short version of the *Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale*. The study revealed a good overall model fit. The results of these studies confirmed the *Behaviour and Instructional Management Scale* successfully measures teachers' beliefs of their practices in the areas of behaviour and instructional management. In addition to the verification of the BIMS, Martin and Sass (2016)

suggest the 24-item BIMS for use in future studies to incorporate a relationship across gender, grade levels, and content areas.

Further research studies have conferred similar results to Martin and Sass (2016) findings. Baker, Gentry, and Larmer (2016) research study was seeking to discover the self-efficacy beliefs of Ohio's 345 public school teachers. The teachers utilizing the survey came from an array of academic areas. The survey was designed by the author, which consisted of two components: a mixture of Brouwers and Tomic (2001) *Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy* and Jacobsen et al. (2008) survey instrument. Both components used a Likert scale to investigate the classroom management techniques of teachers. Overall, the authors reported a correlation between teachers' perceptions of classroom management and willingness to control unpleasant classroom behaviours displayed by students. Daunic et al., (2013) found that, in high school teachers, BIMS scores varied across a wide range in both instructional classroom management and in behavioural classroom management.

Saifi, Salamat, Iftikhar, and Hussain, (2018) explored the relationship between student academic success and classroom management beliefs on fifth grade English language arts and math scores. Brannon used the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory-R to identify teachers as interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist, so that "the lower survey score results in a less controlling (noninterventionist) ideology, and the higher survey score results in a more controlling (interventionist) ideology" (p. 48). ELA and math achievement were assessed using the California Standards Test (CST) database. For the forty-one fifth grade teachers who participated, Brannon found that ELA and math scores were did significantly differ by group for 4th grade students, but cautioned, "It is important to

note that the means are higher for ELA for noninterventionist, teachers with a less controlling ideology, while for Math, there was a higher mean for Interactionalist teachers that mix both controlling and un-controlling ideologies."

While the lack of significant differences between interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist teachers in pupil achievement suggests that classroom management styles may not be important in pupil achievement, Brannon (2010) study suffered from weaknesses that must be addressed before concluding that classroom management and student achievement are independent of each other. First, Brannon (2010) only included four (4) noninterventionist teachers. That is, because statistical power is a function of sample size Tashakkori and Creswell (2007), Brannon (2010) study may have lacked the statistical power to show significant differences. Further, Brannon used the ABCC-R, which has questionable psychometric properties compared to the more modern BIMS scale. Furthermore, Brannon combined ABCC-R people management with instructional management into one overall categorization that may not be reflective of behavioural and instructional classroom management. Additionally, while Brannon (2010) measured standardized scores on statewide tests (which can be useful), compliance with AYP guidelines are based on percent students passing core studies. Lastly, Brannon (2010) measured the relationship between demographic variables and teacher instructional style, but failed to include the covariates in determining the relationship between instructional style and pupils outcomes. This is important, because demographic variables can have effects on relationships (Zhao, Lynch Jr & Chen, 2010).

Additional empirical evidence from other scholarly works conflict with the conclusions of Brannon (2010). Cramer and Bennett (2015), found that classroom climate is correlated with mathematics achievement. Khatib and Ghannadi, (2011) studied English Language Learners and found significantly higher scores for the interventionist groups over the noninterventionist in the recognition and production of phrasal verbs. Watson et al. (2016) assessed 270 pupils and 19 grammar school classroom teachers and concluded that "the findings of this research study suggest that relationships exist between some classroom management strategies and higher pupil's achievement scores in diverse elementary settings."

The published literature includes reflections on the impact of experience and demographic variables on classroom management. Some studies evaluated here indicate a relationship between a teacher's classroom management style (noninterventionist, interventionist, and interactionalist) and the teacher's demographic variables (Baker et al., 2016). Daunic et al., (2013) found that gender, number of years of teaching, and highest education degree can affect BIMS instructional management scores in high school teachers. Experience may matter, as Hicks (2012) suggests that classroom management skills may be learned 'on the job' (p. 87), while Green, Zelbst, Meacham, and Bhadauria (2012) cautioned that years of experience in the classroom do not guarantee exemplary results with regards to classroom management while Lanoue (2019), showed that classroom management can be trained in teachers.

Further supporting the differential efficacy of classroom strategies, Green et al. (2012) measured four elementary school "master classroom managers" and found that all four were in the interactionalist range of the ABCC. Green et al. (2012) concluded,

While the number of participants was small, it can be theorized that other teachers identified as “master” classroom managers, using the same criteria for identification, would have beliefs and practices similar to those identified in this study.

Clearly, no study to date has definitively determined the relationship between instructional and behavioural classroom management strategies applied in the classroom and grammar school student outcomes in percent passing standardized tests of math and ELA. To determine the effect of teacher classroom management approach on student outcomes above any possible effects of teacher demographics, what is needed is a study that incorporates teacher ideology derived from the BIMS (interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist) in both instruction management and behaviour management dimensions along with teacher demographics towards identifying differences in the percent of students passing statewide exams in reading, ELA and math.

In summary, successful classroom management is critical for pupils learning outcomes. The teacher is responsible for creating a positive community and maintaining control within his/her classroom. Wheatley et al., (2009), suggests the following for leaders: (a) have a vision of where they want to go, (b) must communicate this vision to those around them, (c) position themselves where they can be effective, and (d) have the courage to leave their comfort zones and walk a tightrope to where they want to go. A teacher must begin from day one and establish their management strategies and continue throughout the school term. Teachers must be prepared for the pupils on a daily basis. Sandhu, Rich, Magas, and Walker (2015) stated that: most effective plans are built around the objectives that you wish to

achieve, which means that the first step in any kind of planning is clarifying and articulating those objectives.

While this review of literature revealed the importance of classroom management, theories of classroom management, and the distinction between interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist classroom management approaches, no studies to date have measured the relationship classroom management strategies (interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist) and pupils learning outcomes in the Lawra Municipality. This gap in the literature is the purpose for this study.

A clear definition of what can be achieved at the end of an academic programme is the baseline for a successful development of such a course/programme (Kaur & Singh, 2017). A programme is launched if only its learning outcomes are clearly specified and communicated in writing. It is very common to write learning outcomes to define any course in Europe. According to Kennedy, Hyland, and Ryan (2014) outcomes-based approach to teaching is becoming more and more popular at an international level. This approach has been progressively adopted within credit framework and by national quality and qualifications authorities such as the QAA (Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education) in the UK, the Australian, New Zealand and South African Qualification Authorities (Kennedy et al., 2014) as well as the Ghana education system who focus to the success of any educational programme is based on the learning outcomes.

Learning outcomes work like GPS navigation tool, once destination is given to GPS the device guides the driver throughout the journey and takes the driver to the mentioned destination correctly without fear of losing the way (Kaur & Singh, 2017). Even if the driver takes a wrong route, the GPS guides the driver and helps to join the route which leads to the intended destination. Similarly learning outcomes are guiding tools which guide the pupils to achieve the desired results of the planned course. Also, learning outcomes show and help teachers the path they should follow by making the pupils aware what they will be able to achieve at the end of the lesson. This makes both teachers and pupils to know the route they should follow to succeed.

Learning outcomes are written statements of what the learner is expected to achieve at the end of the programme module/course unit or qualification (Adam, 2002). Learning outcomes are statements of what a pupil is expected to know, understand and/or be able to demonstrate after completion of a process of learning or lesson (Kennedy, 2017).

Learning outcomes should be specific and measurable. They are generally written based on Bloom's Taxonomy. Bloom's Taxonomy explains the process of learning and hence has proved to be a powerful tool to help develop learning outcomes. The concept in Bloom's taxonomy is very simple: you recall the concept, understand it, apply, use it to analyse the process before you evaluate it.

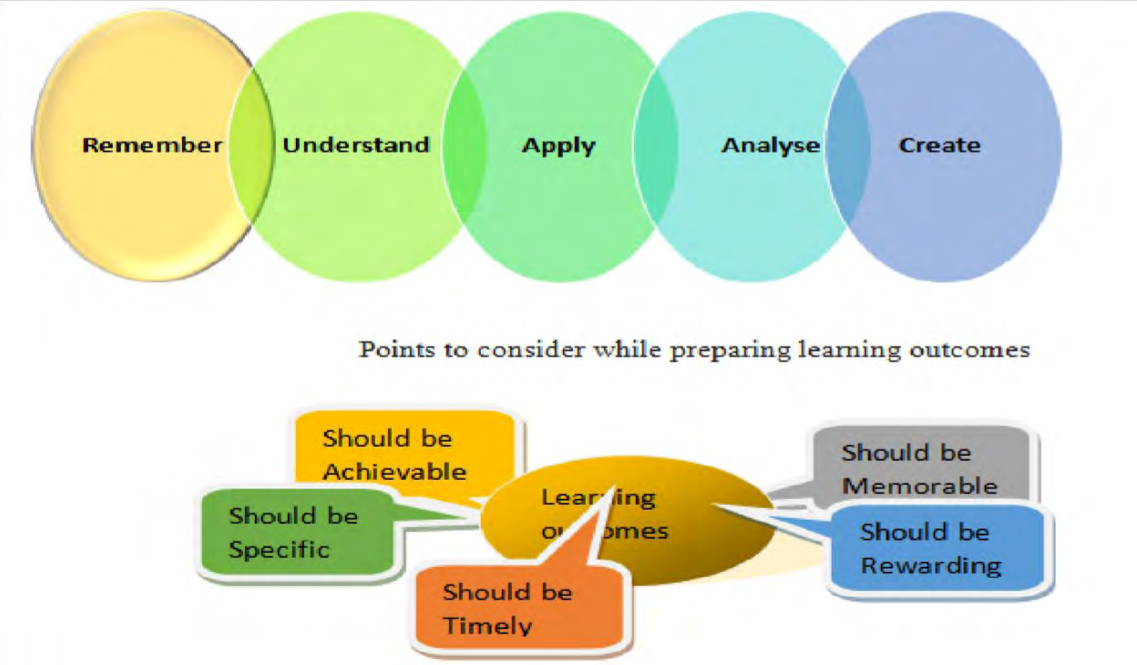

Figure 4: Concept in writing learning outcomes

Source: Kaur and Singh (2017), importance and benefits of learning outcomes

Learning outcomes should be based on the following factors:

1. Knowledge - Knowledge about the subject matter, familiarity, awareness or understanding of the subject, such as facts, information, descriptions, or skills, which is acquired through experience or education by discovering or learning. The commonly used words are list, recognize, and define among others.
2. Cognitive – Intellectual skills, should include how to apply knowledge to actions, should include problem solving skills. The commonly used words are describe, explain, identify etc.
3. Practical – deals with how to design and carry out experiments? The commonly used words are demonstrate, implement etc.
4. Generic Skills –this includes problem solving techniques, keys to learning. The commonly used words are analyse, compare etc.

Learning outcomes are indicators of the success of a lesson. Learning outcomes give a clear idea of what can be achieved by joining a particular progrramme. Learning outcomes should be listed and written down before the start of the lesson to know and to check whether the lesson is designed and conducted perfectly. Based on the identified learning outcomes, teaching context, learning activities and assessment scheme have to be properly designed to successfully conduct and complete the lesson.

2.13 Benefits of Learning Outcomes

Pupils clearly understand beforehand what they are going to learn from the course/programme.

1. Learning outcomes help the pupil choose appropriate course/programme.
2. Well defined learning outcomes remove the risk wasting time.
3. Reduce unnecessary stress on the pupils.
4. Learning outcomes gives a clear idea to the pupils what they are going to learn or achieve at the end of the lesson before the start of every lesson.
5. Learning outcomes highlights what exactly and more importantly pupils should know to achieve from that particular lesson.
6. By achieving Learning outcomes pupils can demonstrate that he/she has reached the summit of the course.

Benefiting teachers find it easy to plan a lesson

1. Learning outcomes help teachers plan a lesson
2. Learning outcomes give a clear idea of what and how much to teach and plan accordingly. Learning outcomes help teachers design their teaching material more effectively.
3. Learning outcomes help teachers select appropriate strategies for teaching.
4. Learning outcomes help teachers avoid extra teaching which ultimately help in saving time.

Help in writing assessments & evaluation

1. Learning outcomes make Assessments mapping clear & easy.
2. Learning outcomes make midway corrections possible.
3. Learning outcomes make students study on their own and come to the class well prepared.
4. Evaluation
5. Learning outcomes help in measuring the effectiveness of the unit.
6. Learning outcomes play a major role in allocation of marks while setting question papers.

Help academic advisors and advisees

1. Learning outcomes help advisors to focus on the questions on WHAT students should be learning and HOW they are going to teach this.

Help in securing accreditation

2. Learning outcomes help Accreditation agencies to assess whether the course / programme has met the mission and goals of the Institution.

3. Learning outcomes help to know how the course or programme has been structured and different processes for evaluating the students' learning.
4. Learning outcomes work as a kind of evidences e.g. rubric, charts or graphs related to summative learning goals.
5. Learning outcomes help the Accreditation Agencies in ascertaining whether the desired objectives are met.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology and the research design used in the study. It also provides information on the population, sample and sampling techniques, instruments, data collection procedure and data analyses as well as the reason for choosing the design and methods that were adopted for the study.

3.1 Research Design

Research design refers to all the overall strategy that integrates the different components of the study in a coherent logical way thereby ensuring that the research problem is well addressed. It constitutes the blueprint for collection, measurement and analysis of data. This takes into account the research problem, the purpose and the research questions formulated as spelt out in chapter one. The researcher adopted the mixed method design which is also called parallel/simultaneous mixed methods design (Johl, Bruce, & Binks, 2012). Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed to investigate the classroom management strategies and pupils learning outcomes in basic schools in Lawra Municipality. The basis for using mixed method research is to make use of the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative methods and improved the results. The importance of using both quantitative and qualitative strategies is also under scored by Yin (2015), who stipulates that the rational for using multiple sources of data is to confirm, cross-validate and corroborate the data gathered from different sources. Deacon, Bryman and Fenton (1994) had it that the combination of qualitative and quantitative design enables cross checking of validity of findings from different research strategies as

well as allowing access to different levels of reality thereby enhancing induction of meaning from the findings. In analyzing the data, the converge approach was employed. That is, the researcher merge both qualitative and quantitative data collected in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem.

3.2 Population

Population is the total number of people who are of interest and have unique characteristics to the researcher (Kitchenham, Dyba & Jorgenson 2004). The target population was all form two teachers and form two students in Junior High Schools within the Lawra Municipality totally 180 and 1500 respectively (GES Lawra Municipal, 2019). The accessible population was all Junior High School form two teachers and all second year Junior High School students in 10 selected schools in the Lawra Municipality. A teacher each was randomly selected and interviewed from the list of JHS two teachers in the selected 10 schools. This was to help identify the classroom management strategies they adopted. Moreover, Junior High School form two (2) students were specifically targeted because the Junior High School form one (1) students were new in their schools whilst form three (3) students at the time of the data collection had completed. The form two students were equally selected because of their ability to read and respond to items on the research instruments with little or no assistance. Table 2 shows the breakdown of the accessible population of Junior High Schools in Lawra Municipality.

Table 3.1: Breakdown of Accessible Population of Schools

Name of school	No. of students	Male	Female
Lawra R/C JHS	70	40	30
Yikpee D/A JHS	50	31	19
Lawra Methodist JHS	40	25	15
Lawra E/A JHS	55	20	35
Kuoli D/A JHS	35	21	11
Eremon Tang Zu R/C JHS	65	35	30
Eremon D/A JHS	50	33	17
Babile D/A "A" JHS	65	40	24
Kuoyukuo R/C JHS	45	30	15
Kalsagri D/A JHS	47	40	7
Total	**522**	**315**	**203**

Source: Municipal Education Office December, 2019.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

Dattalo (2011) defines a sample as a subset of the population. A sampling frame is the list from which the sample will be drawn, which might not be totally inclusive of the study population. Thus in this study, the sample frame comprised of 31 Junior High Schools in Lawra Municipality. Sowell (2013) and Piper, Zuilkowski, and Mugenda (2014) assert that 10%-30% is a representative sample of the population. Thus ten (32%) of the schools were sampled from the frame through categorizing the schools into circuits.

The researcher used the stratified sampling technique to group the schools into stratum based on circuits. On this note, six strata (circuits) were identified. Table two gives the number of circuits and their respective number of schools.

Table 2: Categories of schools in the Municipality

Circuit	Number of schools	Primary schools	Junior high schools
Babile	12	6	6
Lawra South	11	6	5
Lawra East	11	6	5
Dowine	14	9	5
Lawra Central	14	7	7
Lawra West	11	7	4
Total	**73**	**41**	**32**

Source: Municipal Education office December, 2019

In summary, there are 41 Primary schools and 32 JHS with a total of 73 basic schools within the six circuits in the Municipality. For the purpose of this study only the Junior High Schools were considered. 10 schools were randomly selected from the six circuits. Table two shows the selected schools from each stratum using the simple random method.

Table 3: Sample schools and their location/community

S/N	Names of School	Circuit
1	Lawra R/C JHS	Lawra west
2	Yikpee D/A JHS	Lawra west
3	Lawra Methodist JHS	Lawra central
4	Lawra E/A JHS	Lawra central
5	Kuoli D/A JHS	Lawra west
6	Eremon Tang Zu Roman Catholic JHS	Dowine
7	Eremon D/A JHS	Lawra east
8	Babile D/A "A" JHS	Babile
9	Kunyukuo R/C JHS	Lawra south
10	Kalsagri D/A JHS	Lawra south

Source: Author's Construct, September 2019

After, the stratified sampling technique was used to group the schools into strata (circuits), the simple random method was used to select individual schools that were to be interviewed and 10 schools were interviewed. The researcher interviewed one

teacher and all the JHS two pupils that were present in the selected schools at the time of the data collection.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection

The data for this study was obtained using questionnaires and interview guide.

3.5 Instruments

The study employed a self-administered closed ended questionnaire to collect data from pupils and interview guide was used on teachers from the selected schools. Zubaran, Schumacher, Roxo, and Foresti (2010), recommended a questionnaire if the researcher knows that the participants will be in the position to answer the questionnaire. Closed ended and scaled items were used. The scaled items, according to Zubaran et al., (2010), allowed fairly accurate assessments of opinions. Similarly, it has the ability to solicit information from several participants within a short time (Onen, 2016).

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

Data analysis forms one of the most important components of a modern research. In this regards the primary data was analysed as follows: After data collection, coding and cleaning was employed followed by data entry to generate the results. Descriptive analysis of the research questions and interpretation was presented through graphs, charts and tables. The analysis was made available through Predictive Analytic Software (PASW) formerly known as Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) and ATLAS.

3.7 Profile of Lawra Municipality

This section provides the profile of the Municipality under study with its location, size, education and spatial distribution. The Lawra Municipality is one of the 260 Metropolitan, Municipal and District assemblies (MMDAS) in Ghana, and forms part of the 11 Municipalities and Districts in the Upper West Region. It is located in the North Western corner of the Upper West Region in Ghana between long. $2^0$25W and $2^0$45W and Lat. $10^0$20 and $11^0$00 and has her administrative capital as Lawra. The total land mass of the Municipality is put at 1051.2 square kilometers, this constitutes about 5.7% of the Region's total land area, which is estimated at 18,476 square kilometers. The Municipality is bounded to the East and South by the Jirapa District and Lambussie District respectively and to the North and West by the Republic of Burkina Faso. The population of the Municipality according to 2010 Population and Housing Census stands at 54,889 with 26,346 males and 26,543 females.

Figure 5: Map of Ghana in the national context

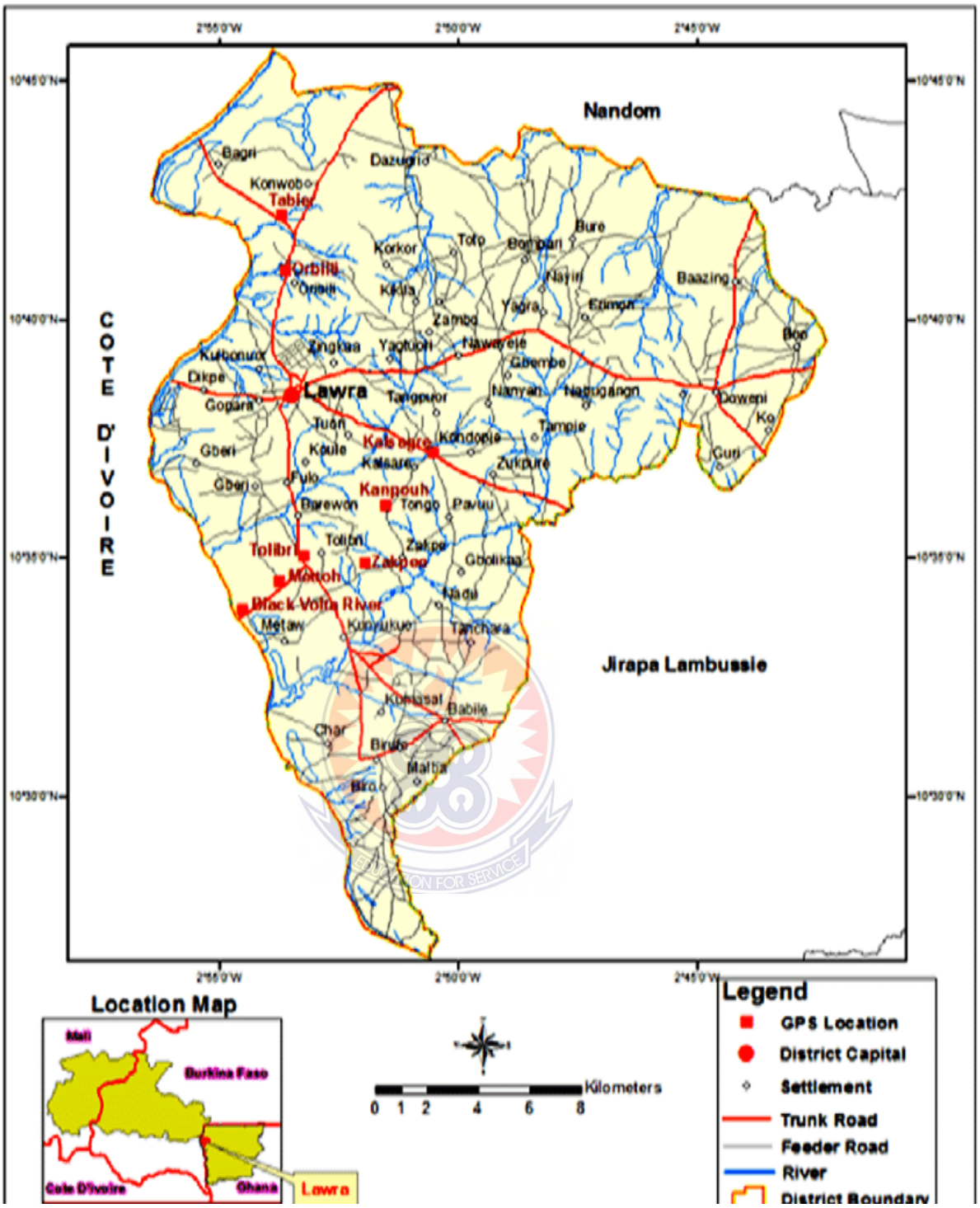

Figure 6: Map of Lawra Municipality

3.8 Preliminary Field Visit

To ensure the suitability, reliability and validity of the data collection, a preliminary field visit was conducted by the researcher in the study area. The visit involved informal visit to the schools. The Municipal Director of Education was informed about the visitation and purpose of the study.

3.9 Ethical Consideration

To begin with, introductory letters from the Department of Educational Administration and Management in the University of Education, Winneba were given to the Lawra Municipal Director Education and to the headteachers of each of the 10 schools asking for permission to use their schools as a study site and also to interview some teachers as well as students.

After the permission was granted, informed consent was ensured, as all the participants were informed about the purpose of the research. It was made known to them that the research was solely for academic purpose and there were no known risks involved in one's participation. Participants were given consent form to fill and sign to show their understanding and willingness to participate in the study.

Voluntary Participation was another ethical issue that was adhered to the researcher. Participants were not forced to participate in the research; they were made aware of their voluntary Participation to the research by allowing the respondents to decide as to whether to answer the questionnaires or not. Again, they were informed about their freedom to withdraw from the study at any point in time.

Another important ethical issue that was considered was Confidentiality. Participants were assured that their information would not be disclosed to anyone and for that matter their names and identity will not feature in the research.

Disposal of information was also considered. The researcher assured the participant that, all information relating to them would be destroyed after the work had been accepted by the Graduate School.

Finally, all references and information sources have been dully acknowledged in the work.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Overview

This chapter presented, analysed and interpreted the demographic characteristics of participants, effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes, classroom management strategies of teachers, influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes and learning outcomes of pupils in some Junior High Schools in the Lawra Municipality. All presentations are made in tables and graphs and analysed according to the research questions.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

The information about the demographic characteristics of participants in some selected Junior High Schools in Lawra District has been presented in this section. The study was conducted among 10 teachers and 317 JHS two pupils from 10 Junior High Schools within the Lawra Municipality. The variables presented in table three include the category of participants, sex, age and the number of years of teaching by teachers in the various schools are also included.

Table 4: Sex of pupils

Sex	Freq	%
Male	147	46.4
Female	170	53.6
Total	**317**	**100**

Source: Field Data (2020)

Table three above shows that 317 pupils were present during the data collection. Out of this number, 147(46.4%) were males and 170 (53.6%) were females constituting from the data it shows that there were more females than males.

Table 5: Ages of Pupils

Ages	Freq	%
12 – 13 years	11	3.5
14 -15 years	120	37.9
16 – 17 years	134	42.3
18 – 19 years	45	14.2
20 years and above	7	2.1
Total	**317**	**100**

Source: Field Data (2020)

Table 6: Sex of Teachers

Sex	Freq	%
Male	8	80
Female	2	20
Total	**10**	**100**

Source: Field Data, (2020).

Table 6 above shows the gender distribution of the 10 teachers who were interviewed. There were 8 males and 2 females constituting 80% and 20% of the population respectively. Hence, there were more male teachers than female teachers.

Table 7: Years of experience

Experience	Freq	%
0 -5 years	5	50
6 -10 years	3	30
11- 15 years	2	20
Total	**10**	**100**

Source: Field Data, (2020).

4.2 Research Question One: What are the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes in basic schools in Lawra Municipality?

Table 8: Pupils perspective on effects of class size on learning outcomes

Statements	A	%	D	%	N	%	Total
My classroom is congested	257	81.1	52	16.4	8	2.5	317
I am comfortable with the sitting arrangement	35	11.1	267	84.2	15	4.7	317
My teacher encourages me to contribute in class	45	14.2	269	84.9	3	0.9	317
My colleagues disturb me in class	244	77	73	23.0	0	0.0	317
My teacher attends to my questions during his lesson delivery	9	2.8	304	95.9	4	1.3	317

Source: Field Data, (2020).

Table 8 above shows the perspective of pupils on the effects of class size on learning outcomes. The first statement: classroom is congested, the response of participants from the table indicates that 257 (81.1%) pupils agreed to the statement, 52 (16.4%) of the pupils disagreed whiles 8(2.5%) were neutral. From the table it is shown that the classrooms are really congested because majority of the pupils, 257 out of 317 which gave 81.1% of the entire population strongly agreed and agreed to the statement. (Look for supporting literature for this)

The results of the second statement: pupils are comfortable with the sitting arrangement in the classroom from Table 7 are indicated as follows: 35 (11.1%),

pupils agreed to the above item, 267 (84.2%) disagreed however 15 (4.7%) pupils were neutral. From the table it is shown that pupils are really not comfortable with the sitting arrangement in the classroom. 267 (84.2%) of the pupils testified to the statement in their response as disagreed and strongly disagreed.

The third statement: teachers encourage learners to contribute in class are displayed as 45 (14.2%) pupils agreed to the statement, 269 (84.9%) of the pupils disagreed whiles 3 (0.9%) were neutral. From the table it is shown that teachers actually do not encourage learners to contribute in class. In totality, 269 (84.9%) of the pupils testified to the item.

Fourth statement: Pupils disturb others during lesson delivery responses by the pupils are displayed as: 244 (77%), 73 (23%) and 0 (0%) representing: agreed, disagreed and neutral respectively. From the analysis one will realize that pupils disturb others during lesson delivery because 244 (77%) of the pupils are of the view that pupils disturb others during lesson delivery.

The fifth statement: Teachers attend to individual pupils needs during lesson as the responses as: 9 (2.8%), 304 (95.9%) and 4 (1.3%) representing agreed, disagreed and neutral. In totality, 304 (95.9%) of the pupils strongly disagreed and disagreed to the item.

In summary, one will realize that, class size plays a significant role in determining the learning outcomes of pupils. From the above data, one can comfortably conclude that the class sizes are large. This is because majority of the respondents agreed that the classrooms are congested and ones, they are congested movement inside the classrooms is going to be a problem. The congestion of the classrooms has equally

given birth to: pupils not being comfortable with the sitting arrangement in the classrooms, teachers not been able to encourage learners to contribute in class because the teacher is handing more pupils than the expected number of pupils he needs to hand per class. Hence teaching and learning is likely to be teacher-centered than pupil-centered. Also, pupils disturb others during lesson delivery and teachers are not able to attend to individual pupils needs during lessons. In conclusion, ones all the elements on the effects of class size are pointing to a negative direction, the learning outcomes are likely to be negative. Hence there is negative effect of class size on pupils learning outcomes in basic schools in the Lawra Municipality. The graphical presentation of the data is known in figure 5 above. From figure 5 above, one will realize that most students agreed to the fact that classroom is congested and pupils disturb others. Also, majority of the respondents disagreed with the item pupils are comfortable with the sitting arrangement, teachers encouraging learners and teachers attending to individual learners.

To further investigate into the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes, teachers were interviewed and some of their responses are as follows:

Tr_1 said that:

> *"...The form 2 class is made up 55 pupils which makes the classroom congested for me to move around to enable me control them effectively during teaching. This makes students have the chance to disturb others and make noise during teaching".*

Tr_2 said that:

> *"...there is difficulty in attending to individual students with learning problems because the students are many and is not easy to attend to all of them before my lesson is over, I am supposed to use 40minutes in teaching: 5minutes for introduction, 30minutes for content delivery and 5minutes for evaluation and conclusion. 5minutes is too small for me to be able to attend to the questions of about 50 pupils".*

All the elements measuring the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes pointed out a negative effect hence signifying low level of learning outcomes in basic schools in Lawra Municipality.

Firstly, the findings revealed that, classrooms are congested and with poor sitting arrangements. This indicates that, there is poor classroom learning environment and the resultant effect is lack of easy movement of the teacher in the classroom and inconvenience to learners. This confirms what Tr_1 said, that his class is made up of 55 pupils which makes it difficult for him to move around to attend to individual pupils. To further confirm the situation; Tr_2 said that; there is difficulty in attending to individual students with learning problems because the students are many and it is not possible to attend to all of them in a 40 minutes lesson. The finding is similar to Gelisli (2009) who postulated that, teacher's strategy of classroom management affect participation by learners. Opolot-Okurut (2010), had similarly revealed that, overcrowded classrooms and poor learning environment hinder effectiveness of classroom management and require the teacher to prepare a class that enables easy teaching and learning process.

Commeyras and Inyega (2007) backed this statement by saying that, effective teaching seems impracticable for teacher educators having large class sizes of 50, 75, 100 or more. In addition, researchers like Hoxby (2000) who worked with that Student- Teacher Achievement Ratio (STAR) data concluded that there is low academic achievement and educational attainment in schools with very large class size. This finding further explains Burden (2020), said that: "Classroom management is the actions and strategies used to maintain order in the classroom". Also, Rockoff, (2009), who summarize 24 experiments that were conducted between 1920 and 1940

randomly that aimed at measuring the effect of class size had it that, only two of the 24 studies found increased achievement in smaller classes, and several found a large-class advantage. Secondly, pupils are not comfortable with the sitting arrangement in the class because of the large number of students a class. As a result, teachers are not able to attend to individual pupils needs during lesson delivery, Teachers do not encourage learners to contribute in the class, pupils disturb others during lesson delivery all these elements are pointing to a negative direction and this is likely to affect learning outcomes negatively. These findings are similar to Ayeni and Olowe (2016) who believed that the learner is the focal point in the classroom and what he is gaining from the educational experience is of great importance towards the achievements of the pupils learning outcomes which includes - skill acquisition, occupational competence, self-reliance and productivity. The acquisition of these skills and competencies requires a conducive learning atmosphere. Also, Kabeera (2018) said that, a teacher who cares about his/her pupils transmits knowledge effectively and has a good interaction with them due to the creation of an emotional link and environment. Under learning, psychologists view learning as a process. Ayeni and Olowe (2016) stated that teaching is the teachers' activities designed and performed to produce a change in learner's behaviour.

Teachers should encourage learners to learn with different teaching methods. In addition, Desai, Wang, Vaduganathan, Evers, and Schneeweiss, (2020) said that: teaching is one with learning outcomes that effect changes in knowledge, abilities, skills, attitudes and mindset. It is an active process in which one person shares information with others to provide them with the information with a resultant change in behaviour. The most effective teaching is one which results in the most effective learning. Also, Studies conducted by B. Brown, Wilmot, and Paton Ash, (2015), in

the United Kingdom have similar findings that, teacher aggressive classroom management scares students from learning. Similarly, Version et al., (2014) found out that, teachers who frequently use reactive classroom management strategies such as punishment disrupts pupils learning outcomes. This can be seen in the fact that some teachers do not attend to individual pupils during teaching. This is likely to cause unnecessary movement by pupils during teaching hence disrupting the teaching and learning process. He therefore concluded by saying, effective interventionist classroom management strategies focus on preventive rather than reactive classroom management strategies. However, Gelisli (2009), in a study conducted in Turkey revealed that, students perceive teachers' way of classroom management and teaching methods as strategies being ineffective which is contrary to this result.

4.3 Question Two: What are the classroom management strategies of teachers in basic schools in Lawra Municipality?

Table 9: Pupils' response to classroom management strategies

Statements	A	%	D	%	N	%	Total
There are specific rules for my class	305	96.2	12	3.8	0	0	317
I participated in making the classroom rules	31	9.8	250	78.9	36	11.4	317
Teachers hand writing is clear on the chalk board	154	48.6	133	42	30	9.4	317
Teachers mark class register daily	300	94.6	13	4.1	4	1.3	317
Teachers communicate to pupils clearly	40	12.6	197	62.2	80	25.2	317

Source: Field Data, (2020)

From table 9 above, 305 (96.2%) agreed, 12 (3.8%) disagreed and 0 (0%) were neutral to the statement that: there are specific rules for the class. From the above responses one will realize that indeed majority of the schools have rules governing their classes. The above discussions show that, it is true that there are class rules however, pupils were not involved in making the rules. This is testified by 250

(78.9%) pupils out of a population of 317, disagreed to the statement. On the aspect of teachers hand writing being clear on the chalk board, the results further revealed that, 154 (48.6%) pupils agreed, 133 (42%) disagreed whiles 30 (9.4%) were neutral to the statement. One can deduce that averagely, teachers hand writing is clear on the talk board. The result further revealed that, 300 (94.6%), 13 (4.1%) and 4 (1.3%) of the pupils agreed, disagreed and were neutral respectively to the statement: teachers mark class register daily. Also, teachers communicate to pupils clearly during lesson delivery, 40 (12.6%) pupils agreed, 197 (62.2%) disagreed and 80 (25.2%) were neutral to the statement. From the responses of the pupils, it is clear that, pupils do not understand teachers during lesson delivery. This is testified by the fact that majority of the pupils disagreed with the statement.

Inclusion, all the elements of classroom management strategies points to the negative direction. Thus-there are specific rules for the class, pupils are not much involved in making classroom rules, some teachers hand writing are not clear on the talk board, some teachers do not mark class register daily, majority of teachers do not communicate to pupils clearly hence making management strategies of teachers' poor in basic schools in the Lawra Municipality. The graphical representation in figure 6 above is not different from the table thus; majority of the respondents agreed to have class rules and class register being mark daily. Also, learners disagreed with been involved in making class rules and teachers communicating clearly. From the revelations one will realize that, there are class rules but pupils were not much involved in making the rules hence learners see them as teacher-imposed rules.

The response of some teachers on their views on the classroom management strategies employed by teachers in in basic schools within the Municipality revealed that, most of them used the interventionist classroom management strategy.

Tr_2 said that:

> *"...mostly I used the teacher centered or lecture method (interventionist) in teaching. Though they are so many methods; like the discussion method, group work among others that I could employ during my lesson delivery but I am not able to use that because of my class size. I have 50 pupils in a lass and if I want to employ the discussion method for a 40 minutes lesson we will not go anywhere with the lesson and it will be time up. I only employ the group discussion method sometimes in a take home assignment".*

Tr_9 said that:

> *"...I use the reward and punishment method (interventionist) mostly in my class. If a pupil answers a question rightly in class, I mostly encourage such a student with words such as; that is a good attempt, keep it up, well done etc. those that are not able to answer the question are normally asked to stand till someone else answers the question or I asked them to look for someone that can them out before they sit".*

Tr_{10} said that:

> *"...I have set class rules for my pupils and I have pasted them on the entrance of the class. Each rule has a punishment attached. If you go contrary you are asking to perform a task. For instance, if you are late for a lesson without any go reason you sheep the class for 3 days. If you make noise during lesson delivery you are made to clean the chalkboard for rest of the period".*

The classroom management strategies of teachers were found to be significantly poor in basic schools in Lawra Municipality. Firstly, the study result on pupils' participation in making classroom rules shows that learners were not much involved in making class rules. Ones they were not involved in the decision making process they are likely not to see those rules as theirs but rather as teacher imposed rules on them hence this leads to behaviour related problems in the classroom. Uysal, (2015), findings is related to the study result where he found that, behaviour related problems

in the classroom disrupt students' concentration and their engagement on lessons hence leading to low learning outcomes. In addition, Osanyin and Adebayo (2011) equally has it that, teachers facing disciplinary issues often failed to implement their lesson plan in the classroom which has a significant impact on teaching and learning.

The study further found that some teachers' voice projection is not clear in class, there is no active involvement of learners in the class, and unclear hand writing on the chalkboard was equally one of the challenges identified. This is similar to Gelisli (2009) findings which said that, students perceive teachers' way of classroom management, in-class and out-of-class attitudes, and teaching methods and strategies as ineffective if not well handled by the teacher. In addition, Udoba (2014), said that: improving the quality of teacher-pupil interactions within a classroom depends upon a solid understanding of the nature of effective teaching for pupils in a school. Interventionist approach to classroom management plays a big role in the development and direction of learning process of pupils with challenges. Korpershoek et al. (2016) and Kabeera (2018) had a similar view; Interventionist classroom management involves five types of actions to help a teacher to offer high quality classroom management; (a) teachers must be caring to learners, (b) develop supportive relationship with pupils, (c) organize and implement instructions in ways that optimize pupils' access to learning, (d) teachers encouraging pupils' engagement in academic tasks, and (e) using of group management methods. This is also used in establishing rules and procedures a teacher uses to promote the development of pupils' social skills and self-regulation. However, Magdalene and Sridharan, (2018) had contrary view that, teaching work is deeply personal and she does not put emphasis on what method the teacher uses.

Also, it was revealed that, making of class register as part of record management was not being done daily by the teachers during lessons. This can lead to ineffectiveness on the part of the teacher as he may not be able to monitor learners' record of attendance. A similar finding of Wong, Wong, and Seroyer (2005), revealed that, effectiveness of classroom management involves close monitoring of learners by the teacher as a classroom manager. Taricani and Clariana (2006), supported the statement by saying that, increased record keeping enhance monitoring student's progress and teacher willingness to give responsibility of learning to the students, especially during practical lessons where individual attention is highly required.

4.4 Question Three: How does classroom management strategies influence pupils learning outcomes?

Table 10: Participants' perspective on influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes

Statement	A	%	D	%	N	%	Total
I come late to class	230	72.6	87	27.4	0	0	317
Pupil talk in class during lesson delivery	279	88	27	8.5	11	3.5	317
Pupil eat in class during lesson delivery	272	85.8	42	13.2	3	0.9	317
Pupils sleep in class	301	95	12	3.8	4	1.2	317
Pupils fail to submit exercise for marking	272	85.8	40	12.6	5	1.6	317

Source: Field Data, (2020)

From the table above, 230 (72.6%) pupils agreed, 87 (27.4%) pupils disagreed and 0 (0.0%) pupils were neutral statement: pupils come to class late. From these responses of the pupils, one will notice that pupils sometimes are late for lessons. This is shown by the fact that, 230 pupils out of 317 agreed to the item which gives a percentage representation of 72.6%. When it came to the issue of talking in class during lesson delivery, 279 pupils agreed, 27 (88%) pupils disagreed whiles 11(3.5%) were neutral. From the data, one will notice that pupils talk in class during lesson delivery because

majority of the pupils agreed to the statement. It was further revealed that, 272 (85.8%) pupils agreed, 12(3.8%) pupils disagreed whiles 4(1.2%) were neutral to the statement: pupils eat in class during lesson delivery. From the data, majority of the learners confirmed that they eat during lesson delivery. Also, it was revealed that 301(95%) of the pupils agreed, 12(3.8%) disagreed and 4(1.2%) of the students were neutral to the statement pupils sleep in class. From the responses of the students, one will realize that learners sleep in class. Also, it was revealed that 272 (85.8%), 40(12.6%) and 5(1.6%) of the pupils agreed, disagreed and were neutral respectively to the statement: pupils fail to submit exercise for making. From the results above, one will realize majority of the pupils said they fail to submit their exercises for making. This revelation could be as a result of pupils not understanding lessons delivered by teachers.

In addition, the response of a teacher on his view on the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes when he was interviewed is as follows:

T_8 said that:

> *"…the policy says, teachers should not punish pupils again, because of that they do what they like at any point in time. They come late to school knowing that you the teacher cannot punish them, you give students exercises and they refuse to do. These are the causes of poor performance in schools these days because there is no discipline in schools again".*

To sum up, all the elements on influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes shows a direct relationship because; once management strategies are poor the resultant effect is lateness to school, pupil talking in class during lesson delivery, pupils eating in class, pupils sleeping in class and pupils failing to submit exercise for marking. All these will lead to low performance of

pupils because the classroom is not conducive for learning. Graphically, figure 7 above displays the graphical form of the results which is not different from that of the table as majority of the respondents agreed to all the five items.

The study results revealed that, pupils come late to class this is as a result of poor classroom management strategies of teachers hence negatively influencing pupils learning outcomes. Also, the study revealed that, some learners do not understand the lessons being taught this makes them fail to submit exercise marking. This is an indication that, teachers do not used appropriate teaching methods that enables learners to understand and be interested in the lessons. The findings is similar to Musiime, (2011), survey report which identified weakness in classroom practices in terms of content, methodology, assessment and teaching being largely teacher-centered. In addition, Jones, Bailey, and Jacob, (2014), had it that: Teacher-good practices in the teaching-learning process attracts cooperation from the class, hence influencing learners learning outcomes positively. However, Gelisli (2009) had a contrary view which say that; students perceive teachers way of classroom management, in-class and out of class attitudes, and teaching methods and strategies as having negative impacts on their academic achievement.

Furthermore, the study revealed that, pupils sleep, talk and eat food while in the classroom. These are behaviour related problem that needs the attention of the teacher while teaching. The finding is related to Burrhus F Skinner, (1971), who said that: the best way to understand behaviour is to look at the cause of an action and its consequences.

Finally, the findings also revealed that, some pupils do not turn in exercises for marking. That means these learners either did not understand the meaning of the assessment or simply did not do the exercise because they do enjoy what is being taught. This confirms what Tr_8 said that pupils come late to class knowing that you the teacher cannot punish them and when you give them exercise they refuse to do they the policy says teachers should not punish pupils again so they do what they like. Glasser (1999), said it is important for a teacher to incorporate fun in his teaching because this makes the pupils cooperate and learn more effectively.

4.5 Question Four: what are the expected learning outcomes of pupils in Lawra Municipality?

Table 11: Expected LOCs of pupils in the Lawra Municipality

Statement	A	%	D	%	N	%	Total
Pupils get high marks in class test and exams	30	9.5	270	85.1	17	5.4	317
Pupils comport themselves in class	63	19.9	229	72.2	25	7.9	317
I have difficulty in understanding teacher's lesson	315	99.4	2	0.6	0	0	317
Pupils applied what is learnt in everyday life	78	24.6	233	73.5	6	1.9	317
Pupils are socially and morally upright	287	90.6	27	8.5	3	0.9	317
Pupils are critical thinkers and have problem solving skills	47	14.9	197	62.1	73	23	317

Source: Field Data, (2020)

Table 11 above, shows the response of participants on the expected learning outcomes of pupils. 30(9.5%) of the students agreed, 270(85.1%) disagreed and 17(5.4%) were neutral to the statement: pupils get high marks in class test and exams. From the above, one would realize that learners perform poorly in test and exams because majority of the said they do not submit their exercise for marking. For pupils

comporting themselves in class, 63 (19.9%), 229 (72.2%), 25 (7.9%), of the respondents agreed, disagreed and were neutral. respectively to the item. From the above, one can deduce that, pupils disturb one another in class. Hence this is likely to have a negative impact on the expected learning outcomes of pupils. Also, 315 (99.4%), 2 (0.6%) and 0 (0%) of the respondents from the table agreed, disagreed and were neutral respectively to the statement: I have difficulty in understanding teachers' lessons. From the results one will realize that indeed pupils have difficulties understandings lessons being taught because a lot of the people confirmed there not understanding of the lessons. This could be the reason why pupils perform poorly in class test and exams and do not turn in their exercises for marking. The data further revealed that: 78 (24.6%), 233 (73.5%) and 6 (1.9%) representing agreed, disagreed and neutral to the statement pupils applied what is learnt in everyday life. From the data, it is shown that application of the classroom knowledge to our everyday life is very minimal.

Furthermore, the table shows that, 287 (90.6%), 27(8.5%) and 3 (0.9%), of the respondents agreed, disagreed and were neutral to the statement: pupils are socially and morally upright. Last but not the least from the table, 47 (14.9%), 197 (62.1%) and 73 (23%) representing agreed, disagreed and neutral respectively to the statement: pupils are critical thinkers and have problem solving skills. From the figures, one will realize that the ability of pupils to think critically and having problem solving skills is low. This is a confirmation to the fact that: pupils, application of what is learnt in everyday life is low, pupils have difficulty in understanding what in being taught, pupils fail to submit exercises marking and finally, pupils do not get high marks in class test and exams.

To conclude, all the items on the expected learning outcomes show direct relation between classroom management strategies and pupils learning outcomes. This is clearly seen as majority of the participants settled on strongly agreed and agreed items. This is shown graphically from figure 8 above as tall bars are indicated on the strongly agreed and agreed Colum for each item. Meaning where classroom management strategies are poor, learning outcomes are likely to be low within basic schools in the Lawra Municipality.

In addition, the response of some teachers on their views on the excepted learning outcomes of pupils in the Municipality are as follows:

Tr_4 said that:

> *"...Personal studies for these pupils is out of place, tele-novella and whatsApp take a lot of their time because of that they are not able to apply anything. I teach mathematics and I expect the student to enjoy my lessons because mathematics is all about what we do daily. I am appealing to parents support teachers by encouraging their children to study at home".*

Tr_6 said that:

> *"...The pupils we have these days are very lazy towards learning. For five years (2014 to 2019) our B.E.C.E performance have drastically gone down. Parents put the blame on teachers, but the fact is that we are doing our best. The problem is that, teachers are not allow to punish pupils. You give them assignment and they do what they like. You try your very best to make your lesson interesting for them to enjoy it but you finish exampling a point a you are told we do not understand".*

The expected learning outcomes of pupils in basic schools in Lawra Municipality was found to be significantly low. Firstly, it was found out that, some students come late to class which is believed to contribute to low score in test and exams. This confirms what Tr_6 said that: the pupils they have these days are very lazy towards learning. That for the past five years (2014 to 2019) that their B.E.C.E performance has

drastically gone down. This means academic achievement is low in basic schools in Lawra Municipality. Also, the study revealed that, some students do not understand the lesson being taught while others do not even attend class. This confirms what Tr4 said that: pupils of today are not interested in personnel studies tele-novella and whatsApp take most of their time. The teacher says that: she teaches mathematics and she expect students to enjoy the lessons because mathematics is all about what we do daily meanwhile is not like that for the pupils you teach and they say they do not understand. This is an indication that, teachers do not use appropriate teaching methods that enables learners to understand and be interested in the lesson. The findings is similar to Musiime, (2011), survey report which identified weakness in classroom practices in terms of content, methodology, assessment and teaching being largely teacher-centered.

Also, Kaur and Singh (2017) had it that: Learning outcomes work like GPS navigation tool, once destination is given to GPS the device guides the driver throughout the journey and takes the driver to the mentioned destination correctly without fear of losing the way. Even if the driver takes a wrong route, the GPS guides the driver and helps to join the route which leads to the intended destination. Similarly learning outcomes are guiding tools which guide the pupils to achieve the desired results of the planned course. Also, learning outcomes show and help teachers the path they should follow by making the pupils aware what they will be able to achieve at the end of the lesson. This makes both teachers and pupils to know the route they should follow to succeed. Also, Kinta (2013), said that, learning outcomes are what a learner knows, understands and is able to do when completing a certain period of learning. Thus, learning outcomes describe non-material benefits pupils acquire during their learning. Furthermore, Desai, Wang, Vaduganathan, Evers and

Schneeweiss (2020) said, teaching is one with learning outcomes that effect changes in knowledge, abilities, skills, attitude and mindset.

While Gelisli (2009) revealed contrary view that, students perceive teachers' way of classroom management, in-class and out-of–class attitudes, and teaching methods and strategies as having negative impacts on their learning outcomes. However, Jones, Bailey, and Jacob (2014), said that: teacher-good practices in the teaching-learning process attracts cooperation from the class, hence, learner' achievement.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

In this chapter, the study variables are discussed in accordance with the research questions. Conclusion and Recommendations were made according to the study result.

5.1 Summary of Findings

Firstly, the findings revealed that, classrooms were congested and with poor sitting arrangements, 81.1% of the respondents agreed whiles only 18.9% a different view. This indicates that, there is poor classroom learning environment and the resultant effect is lack of easy movement of the teacher in the classroom and inconvenience to learners. This is similar to Ayeni and Olowe (2016) who believed that the learner is the focal point in the classroom and what he is gaining from the educational experience is of great importance towards the achievements of the pupils learning outcomes which includes - skill acquisition, occupational competence, self-reliance and productivity.

Secondly, pupils being comfortable with the sitting arrangement in the class, 84.2% disagreed while 15.8% taught differently, this shows that, the classes have large number of students. As a result, teachers are not able to attend to individual pupils needs during lesson delivery this is supported by 95.9% of the respondents, Teachers do not encourage learners to contribute in the class, pupils disturb others during lesson delivery all these elements are pointing to a negative direction and these are likely to affect learning outcomes negatively. Jones, Bailey, and Jacob, (2014), had it that:

Teacher-good practices in the teaching-learning process attracts cooperation from the class, hence influencing learners learning outcomes positively

Thirdly, the study result on pupils' participation in making classroom rules shows that learners were not much involved in making class rules. Ones they were not involved, in the decision-making process they are likely not to see those rules as theirs but rather as teacher-imposed rules on them hence this leads to behaviour related problems in the classroom. Studies conducted by B. Brown et al., (2015), in the United Kingdom have similar findings that, teacher aggressive classroom management scares students from learning. Similarly, Version et al., (2014) found out that, teachers who frequently use reactive classroom management strategies such as punishment disrupts pupils learning outcomes.

Fourthly, it was found that some teachers' voice projection is not clear in class, there is no active involvement of learners in the class, and unclear hand writing on the chalkboard was equally one of the challenges identified. All these, lead to poor classroom management strategies of teachers in basic schools in the Lawra Municipality. Glasser (1999), said it is important for a teacher to incorporate fun in his teaching because this makes the pupils cooperate and learn more effectively

Fifthly, it was revealed that, pupils come late to class, they talk in class during lesson delivery, learners eat in class during lesson delivery, pupils sleep in class and pupils fail to submit exercise for making. These are the resultant effect of poor management strategies of teachers within the Municipality hence leading to negative influence on pupils learning outcomes. The finding is related to Burrhus F Skinner (1971), who said that: the best way to understand behaviour is to look at the cause of an action and its consequences.

5.2 Conclusion

The conclusions are made in line with the study objectives supported by the analysed data. This includes: (i) the effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes, (ii) the classroom management strategies of teachers in basic schools (iii) the influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes and (iv) to assess the learning outcomes of pupils in basic schools in the Lawra Municipality.

The study revealed that there is a negative effects of class size on pupils learning outcomes: classrooms are congested and do not allow easy movement of teachers and pupils, pupils are not comfortable with the sitting arrangement in classrooms, teachers are not able to attend to individual pupils needs during lessons hence making it difficult for teachers to encourage learners to contribute in class and pupils disturb others during lesson delivery. This makes the environment not conducive for learning. In addition, the findings revealed that teachers have poor classroom management strategies: there are specific rules for the classes but learners were not much involved in making these rules. This makes learners perceive the rules as teacher-imposed rules than guidelines for conducive learning environment. Some teachers hand writing was not clear on the talk board making it difficult for learners see and copy what is on the board.

Some teachers do not mark the class register daily this weakens the spine of daily monitoring of pupils' attendance by teachers and some teachers communicate poorly when delivering their lessons hence making it difficult for learners to participate fully in class. The findings further revealed that, there was poor influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes and the resultant effects are: pupils coming late to class, pupils talking in class during lesson delivery, pupils eating

in class, pupils sleeping in class during lesson delivery and pupils failing to submit exercises for marking. Finally, the findings revealed significant low learning outcomes of pupils: pupils do not get high marks in class test and exams, pupils do not comport themselves in class making the learning environment noisy and not conducive, learners have difficulty in understanding lesson delivered by teachers, pupils do not fully apply what is learnt in everyday life and pupils do not think critically and lack problem solving skills.

5.3 Recommendations

All the selected schools were publiclily managed. This means that government is the major financier of the schools and as well managed them. On this note, policy; government policy on classroom management strategies on education must be regularly reformed to incorporate new and modern classroom management strategies to teaching and learning to make the school environment conducive for learning.

It is important to note that, the findings of this study can help Directors of education, school administrators, teachers and students to know the factors that influence classroom management strategies and how they affect learning outcomes.

Directors of education and Headteachers can use the findings from this study to come up with effective supervision approaches to teaching and learning process, set achievable target for individual classes and provide capacity building training for teachers in the area of classroom management.

Teachers will be in the position to revisit the way they manage their classrooms using the findings of this study. They should therefore, be able to effectively plan, teach and evaluate the performance if their learners based on the pre-set achievable goal(s).

Engagement of learners in classroom management practices such as setting self-goals and class rules will motivate learners to own what they have made and implement it accordingly.

Finally, this study can as well help the learners to know their expected learning outcomes as an individual or a class. This will help them adjust to classroom requirements for better learning. They can therefore, pay attention in class, comply with classroom rules and perform all tasks assigned to them by the teacher.

5.4 Areas for Further Research

In the future the current study or a similar study should be conducted using different grade-level (classes) of pupils.

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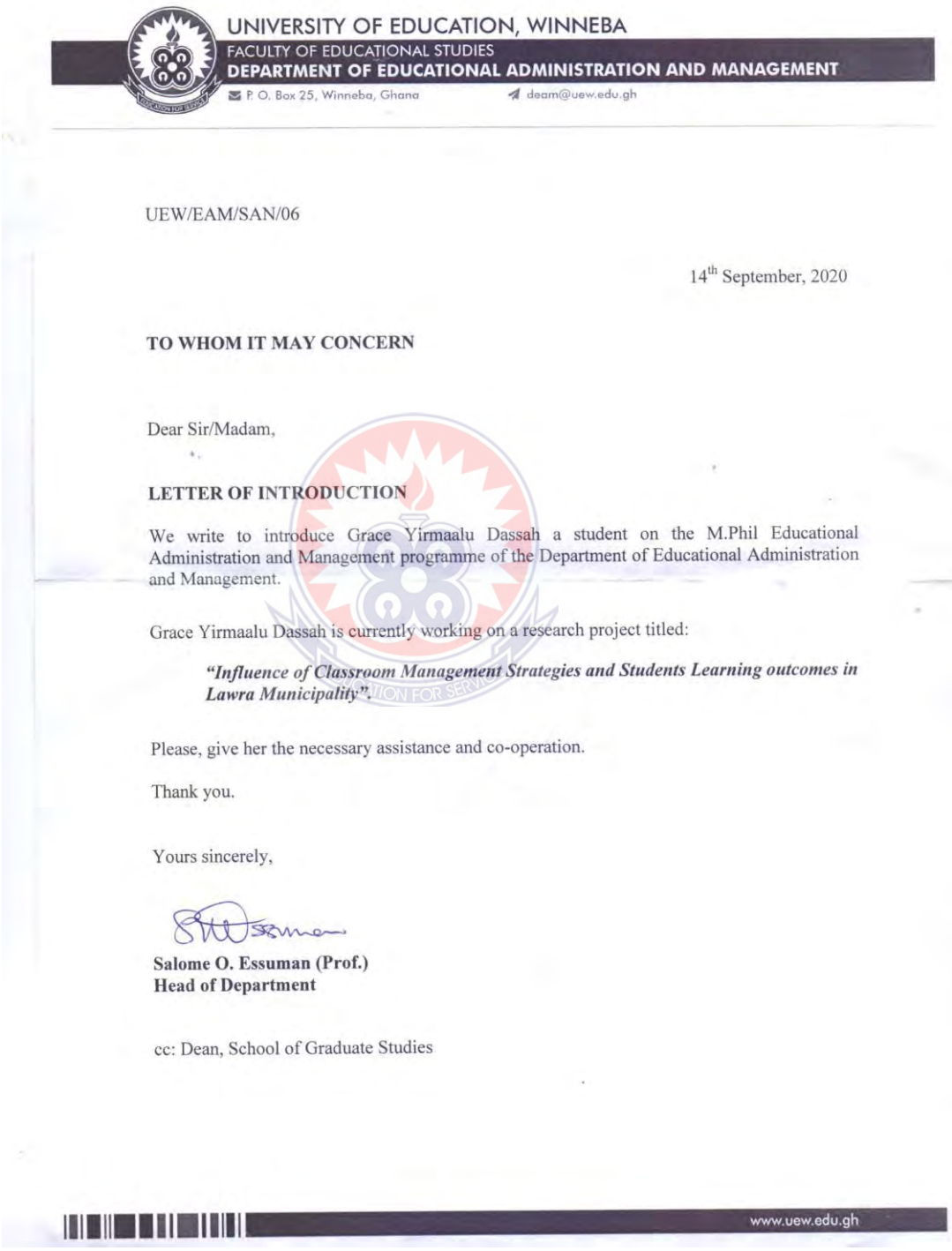
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Introductory Letter



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UEW/EAM/SAN/06

14th September, 2020

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

We write to introduce Grace Yirmaalu Dassah a student on the M.Phil Educational Administration and Management programme of the Department of Educational Administration and Management.

Grace Yirmaalu Dassah is currently working on a research project titled:

"Influence of Classroom Management Strategies and Students Learning outcomes in Lawra Municipality".

Please, give her the necessary assistance and co-operation.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Salome O. Essuman (Prof.)
Head of Department

cc: Dean, School of Graduate Studies

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APPENDIX B

Research Questionnaire

Pupils Questionnaire

Dear respondent, I am Grace Yirmaalu Dassah carrying out study on influence of classroom management strategies and pupils learning outcomes in Lawra Municipality						
Demographic characteristics				Please tick the correct answer		
S/N						
1	Gender	1. Male ( )		2. Female ( )		
2	Age	(a). 12-13	(b). 14-15	(c).16-17	(d). 18-19	(e). 20 years and above
3	Form	(a) 1	(b) 2	(c) 3		

For the below question, tick the appropriate box to indicate your answer: strongly Agreed (SA), Agreed (A), Neutral (N), Disagreed (DA), and Strongly Disagreed (SD)						
Effect of class size on pupils learning outcomes						
		SA	A	N	D	SD
4	Classroom is congested					
5	Pupils are comfortable with the sitting arrangement in the classroom					
6	Teachers encourage learners to contribute in class					
7	Pupils disturb others during lesson delivery					
8	Teachers attend to individual pupils need during lessons					

Classroom management strategies						
9	There are specific rules for my class					
10	Pupils participated in making classroom rules					
11	Teachers hand writing is clear on the chalk board					
12	Teachers communicate to pupils clearly					
	Influence of classroom management strategies on pupils learning outcomes					
Learning outcomes						
13	Pupils come late to class					
14	Pupils talk in class during lesson delivery					
15	Pupils eat in class during lesson delivery					
16	Pupils sleep in class					
17	Pupils fail to submit exercise for making					
Expected LOCs						
18	Pupils get high marks in class test and exams					
19	Pupils comport themselves in class					
20	I have difficulty in understanding teacher's lesson					
21	Pupils applied what is learnt in everyday life					
22	Pupils are socially and morally upright					
23	Pupils are critical thinkers and have problem solving skills					

APPENDIX C

Interview Guide for Teachers

1. What is your gender? _____

2. What is your age bracket? 24 years and below ( ) 25 -29 years ( ) 30 -35 years ( )

40 – 49 years ( ) 50 years and above ( )

3. What is your highest professional qualification? _____

4. How many years have you served as a Head teacher? _____

RQ1. 5. (a). what number of pupils constitute a large class size? ? _____

_____

(b). Do you have a large class size?

(C). what is the effect of a large class on pupils learning outcomes?

RQ2. 6(a).As a teacher, what classroom management strategies do you employ in your class?

(b). How effective are these classroom management strategies?

RQ3.7 (i). Do you think these classroom management strategies have an influence on pupils on pupils learning outcome?

(ii). If yes in what way. (ii). If no then why?

RQ4.8. What are then the expected learning outcomes based on these classroom management strategies?